

Peoples' Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Letters and English

**EVALUATION OF THE STUDENTS' NEEDS IN THE TEACHING
METHODOLOGY CURRICULUM. THE CASE OF BAC+4 AND BAC+5
STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AT THE "HIGHER TEACHER TRAINING
SCHOOL" (ECOLE NORMALE SUPERIEURE) OF CONSTANTINE**

**Thesis submitted in Candidacy of the Degree of "Doctorat ES-sciences"
in Applied Linguistics**

Submitted by:

Mrs. Djouima Leila

Supervised by:

Prof. Abderrahim Farida

Board of Examiners

Chairman: Prof. Moumene Ahmed.	University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine.
Supervisor: Prof. Abderrahim Farida.	University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine.
Member: Prof. Hamada Hacene.	Ecole Normale Superieure , Constantine.
Member: Prof. Laraba Samir.	University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine.
Member: Dr. Ahmed-Sid Haoues.	University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine.
Member: Dr. Merrouche Sarah.	University of Oum El Bouaghi.

05/05/2016

2015

Dedication

To the memory of my father.

To my mother.

To my husband, Mohamed.

To my son, Rami.

To my brothers, Ahmed and Mounir.

To my sisters, Sihem and Hasna.

To my family.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my special appreciation and thanks to my supervisor Prof. Abderrahim Farida. She has always been special for me. I would like to thank her for encouraging my research. Her advice is priceless.

I would also like to thank in advance all the members of the board of examiners who have kindly accepted to examine the present thesis: Prof. Moumene Ahmed, Prof. Hamada Hacene, Prof. Laraba Samir, Dr. Ahmed-Sid Haoues, and Dr. Merrouche Sarah.

Special thanks go to my family. Words cannot express how grateful I am to my mother, my husband, and my son for all the sacrifices they have made on my behalf.

I am particularly indebted to my colleagues, Prof. Hacene Hamada, Mr. Nouioua Ramzi, and Mrs. Benyahia Amel, for their invaluable help.

I will not forget, of course, to express my gratitude to my colleagues, my students, and the supervisors who have filled in the questionnaires. Without them, this work would not have been possible.

Finally, I would like to thank the pedagogical and administrative staff of the Department of English at the Ecole Normale Superieure for the support and encouragement they have shown during the realization of this work.

Abstract

This thesis is intended to investigate the students' needs in the Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the "Higher Teacher Training School". The theoretical contribution of this research is an attempt to draw attention to the teacher training curriculum development as a systematic process involving various planning, design, implementation and evaluation processes where needs analysis is central. Particular focus is on the teaching methodology domain, being the level around which most of the student teachers' expectations and demands are articulated. Within this perspective, the purpose is to evaluate the Teaching Methodology curriculum in terms of its response to the students' needs and expectations, hypothesizing that needs assessment in this context is a matter of developers' perceptions where the other stakeholders' views, including students' felt needs and educational experts' attitudes, are neglected. The research was led through the evaluation of the curriculum guide making use of Brown's 1995 curriculum development model which revealed that, not only needs analysis is skipped from the development process, but that the document's content is almost a list of topics which may be interpreted and implemented differently by its probable users. Other significant data have been obtained through the analysis of three questionnaires addressed to teachers, students, and supervisors. The results of the analysis of these three means of research revealed that the curriculum guide does not reflect its implementation by teachers who undertake unofficial, informal needs assessment but more importantly who could confirm that the courses they teach respond to the students' expectations. Furthermore, the students have not only confirmed their teachers' views but also identified the abilities they could demonstrate on fulfillment of the curriculum. They spotted areas where they demonstrated weaknesses that teachers should examine for purposes of improvement. On the other hand, supervisors have confirmed the pertinence of most of the curriculum content to teacher preparation and have identified the weaknesses they observed at the "Higher Teacher

Training School” trained teachers. On the basis of these findings, pedagogical advice and suggestions are provided to the teacher trainers and course developers.

Key Words: Needs, needs assessment, teaching methodology, curriculum, teacher training, evaluation, needs assessment.

List of Abbreviations

CIPP: Context, Input, Product, Process

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ENS: Ecole Normale Superieure

MDD: Materials Design and Development

N: Number

NA: Needs Analysis

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TESD: Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design

List of Figures

Figure 1.1. Brown's 1995 Curriculum Development Model

Figure 1.2. Grave's 1996 Curriculum Development Framework

Figure 1.3. Macalister and Nation 2010 Curriculum Development Model

List of Tables

Table 1.1: Curriculum Definitions Compilation (Fandino 2010)

Table 1.2: Storey's Processes in Curriculum Development (2007)

Table 2.1: Bradley's Effectiveness Model Indicators

Table 3.1: Training Modules

Table 3.2: Checklist for Curriculum Components Identification

Table 3.3: Numerical Representation of the Framework Elements per Module

Table 4.1: Teaching Experience

Table 4.2: Teacher Training Experience

Table 4.3: Degree Held

Table 4.4: Area of Specialization

Table 4.5: Modules Taught

Table 4.6: Training as Teachers

Table 4.7: Training as Teacher Trainers

Table 4.8: Types of Training Received by Teachers

Table 4.9: Familiarity with the Overall Teacher Training Curriculum

Table 4.10: Covered Knowledge

Table 4.11: Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Design

Table 4.12: Teachers' Contribution

Table 4.13: Needs Analysis in the Teacher Training Curriculum

Table 4.14: Needs Analysis Focus

Table 4.15: Curriculum Suitability to the Learners' Expectations

Table 4.16: Teachers' Sources of Information

Table 4.17: Curriculum Aims

Table 4.18: Aims Clarity

Table 4.19: Aims Expression of Students' Achievement

Table 4.20: Ideology Reflected in the Aims

Table 4.21: Curriculum Objectives

Table 4.22: Objectives Statement

Table 4.23: Targeted Performance Reflection of Aims

Table 4.24: Objectives' Revision

Table 4.25: Grounds for Objectives' Evaluation

Table 4.26: Course(s) Description(s) in the Curriculum

Table 4.27: Curriculum Approach

Table 4.28: Time allotted for the Curriculum Syllabi

Table 4.29: Time and Objectives Achievement

Table 4.30: Time Per Week Needed to Cover the Syllabus Content

Table 4.31: Theory and Practice Integration in the Curriculum

Table 4.32: Availability of a Typology of Activities in the Curriculum

Table 4.33: Types of Activities Suggested in the Curriculum

Table 4.34: Types of Activities Used by Teachers

Table 4.35: Appropriate Aspects to Assess

Table 4.36: Assessment of Trainees' Language Proficiency

Table 4.37: Teacher Educators' Role in the Curriculum

Table 4.38: Teachers' Opinions about the Role of the Teacher Educator

Table 4.39: The role(s) of the Trainees in the Curriculum

Table 4.40: Type of Materials/ Media Used by Teachers

Table 4.41: Adaptation of Materials to the Learners' Needs and Level

Table 4.42: Availability of Media and Teaching Aids in Your Department

Table 4.43: Quality of Materials and Media

Table 4.44: Training Mode

Table 4.45: Training Mode and Trainees' Motivation and Interest

Table 4.46: Teachers' Course Evaluation

Table 6.47: Evaluation Form

Table 4.48: Evaluation Focus

Table 4.49: Curriculum Formal Evaluation

Table 4.50: Number of Evaluations

Table 4.51: Curriculum Revision

Table 4.52: Kind of Improvement Provided

Table 5.1: Teaching Experience

Table 5.2: Experience as a Supervisor

Table 5.3: Wilaya(s) Covered

Table 5.4: Supervisor's Area of Activity

Table 5.5: Nature of Pre- service Training

Table 5.6: Areas of Knowledge to be Provided

Table 5.7: Supervisors' Familiarity with the Teacher Training Curriculum

Table 5.8: Supervisors' Sources of Information

Table 5.9: Kind of Provided Contribution

Table 5.10: Most Appropriate Training Approach

Table 5.11: Teacher Training Curriculum Areas of Knowledge

Table 5.12: Teachers' Assessment at Entry

Table 5.13: Assessment Focus

Table 5.14: Post- training Teachers' Weaknesses

Table 5.15: Supervisors' Actions to Overcome Teachers' Weaknesses

Table 5.16: Most Important Teaching Methodology Module(s) for Teacher Preparation

Table 5.17: Module(s) Having Impact on Teachers' Performance

Table 5.18: “TEFL” Course Abilities Teachers Need to Demonstrate

Table 5.19: “MDD” Course Abilities Teachers Need to Demonstrate

Table 5.20: “TESD” Course Abilities Teachers Need to Demonstrate

Table 5.21: Sufficiency of the Teaching Methodology Modules Abilities for Teachers’ Preparation

Table 6.1: Trainees’ Gender

Table 6.2: Trainees’ Hometowns

Table 6.3: Trainees’ Profile

Table 6.4: Trainees’ Choice of the Profession

Table 6.5: Trainees’ Reasons for the Choice of Teaching

Table 6.6: People behind the Trainees’ Choice of Teaching

Table 6.7: Trainees’ Learning Styles

Table 6.8: Trainees’ Preferred Training Mode (s)

Table 6.9: Training Mode(s) Used by the Teaching Methodology Teachers

Table 6.10: Most Appropriate Approach for Teacher Training

Table 6.11: Most Important Area of Knowledge

Table 6.12: The Use of Media in Teacher Training

Table 6.13: Type of Media and/ or Equipment Needed

Table 6.14: Availability of Media and the Necessary Equipment in the Department

Table 6.15: Type of Materials Used by Teachers

Table 6.16: Trainees' Evaluation of their Teachers' Materials

Table 6.17: Most Important Module (s) According to Trainees

Table 6.18: TEFL Teachers' Description of the Syllabus Aims/ Objectives

Table 6.19: MDD Teachers' Description of the Syllabus Aims/ Objectives

Table 6.20: TESD Teachers' Description of the Syllabus Aims/ Objectives

Table 6.21: Trainees' Answers

Table 6.22: Nature of Methodology Courses Appreciated by Trainees

Table 6.23: Preferred Kinds of Tests

Table 6.24: Trainees' Demonstrated Ability from TEFL

Table 6.25: Trainees' Demonstrated Items from MDD

Table 6.26: Trainees' Demonstrated Items from TESD

Table 6.27: Trainees' Overall Appreciation of the Curriculum

CONTENTS

Dedication	i
Acknowledgments	ii
List of Abbreviations	v
List of Figures	vi
List of Tables	vii
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1. Statement of the Problem	2
2. Aims of the Study	3
3. Hypotheses.....	4
4. Means of Research.....	5
5. Structure of the Thesis.....	5
CHAPTER ONE: Curriculum Development	7
Introduction	9
1.1. Definitions of Curriculum	9
1.2. Curriculum Development	14
1.2.1. Historical Background	14
1.2.2. Modern Curriculum: Knowledge, Pedagogy and Role of Teachers	18
1.3. Curriculum Ideologies	21
1.3.1. Classical Humanism.....	21
1.3.2. Progressivism.....	22
1.3.3. Reconstructionism.....	23
1.3.4. Postmodernism.....	24
1.4. Curriculum Models.....	25
1.4.1. Bobbitt’s Scientific Schooling (1918)	26
1.4.2. Tyler and Taba “Evaluation is the Key” Model (1949).....	27
1.4.3. Bruner’s Spiral Curriculum (1960).....	28
1.4.4. Freire’s Liberation Model (1970)	28
1.4.5. Walker’s Deliberative Platform (1971)	29
1.4.6. Recent Models of Curriculum.....	29
1.5. Curriculum Development Frameworks	30
1.5.1. Brown (1995).....	31
1.5.2. Graves (1996).....	32

1.5.3. Storey (2007)	34
1.5.4. Macalister and Nation (2010)	36
1.6. The Curriculum Development Process	37
1.6.1 Needs Analysis.....	38
1.6.2. Analysis of the Context Situation	49
1.6.3. Stating Aims and Objectives.....	55
1.6.4. Content Selection and Organisation.....	62
1.6.5. Developing Materials.....	69
1.6.6. Curriculum Evaluation.....	71
Conclusion	83
CHAPTER TWO: Teacher Training.....	84
Introduction	85
2.1. Definitions of Teacher Education, Teacher Training, and Teacher Development	85
2.2. The Evolution of Teacher Training	88
2.3. Approaches to the Education and Training of English Teachers	91
2.4. The Teacher Training Process	93
2.5. Guiding Principles in Teacher Education	96
2.6. Teacher Knowledge	97
2.6.1 Richards’ Studies of Teacher Knowledge (1998).....	97
2.6.2. Graves’ Studies of Teacher Knowledge (2009).....	103
2.6.3. Peretz’s Studies of Teacher Knowledge (2011).....	105
2.7. Teacher Profile in the Curriculum	110
2.8. The Pre- service Teacher Training Program.....	111
2.8.1. Theoretical Assumptions about Pre-Service Teacher Training Programs	111
2.8.2. Planning for a Teacher Training Curriculum.....	112
Conclusion	119
CHAPTER THREE: Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the “Higher Teacher Training School” (ENS).....	120
Introduction	121
3.1. The Educational System in Algeria	122
3.2. The Emergence of Teacher Training Schools (Ecoles Normales Superieures).....	122
3.3. The Teacher Training Curriculum at the ENS of Constantine	125
3.4. Overall Presentation of the Curriculum.....	127
3.4.1. Domain 1: Language.....	128

3.4.2. Domain 2: Teaching Development & Professionalism.....	129
3.4.3. Domain 3: Culture.....	129
3.5. The Teaching Methodology Curriculum	130
3.5.1. Brown’s Model (1995).....	130
3.5.2. Adaptation of Brown’s Model	134
Conclusion	149
CHAPTER FOUR: The Teachers’ Opinions about the Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the “Higher Teacher Training School” (ENS), Constantine	151
Introduction	152
4.1. Description of the Teachers’ Questionnaire	152
4.2. Analysis of the Results of the Teachers’ Questionnaire.....	155
4.3. Overall Analysis	208
Conclusion	210
CHAPTER FIVE: The Supervisors’ Opinions about the Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the “Higher Teacher Training School” (ENS), Constantine	211
Introduction	212
5.1. Description of the Supervisors’ Questionnaire.....	212
5.2. Analysis of the Results of the Supervisors’ Questionnaire	214
5.3. Overall Analysis	244
Conclusion	247
CHAPTER SIX: The Trainees’ Attitudes and Expectations in Relation to the Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the “Higher Teacher Training School” (ENS), Constantine	248
Introduction	249
6.1. Description of the Trainees’ Questionnaire.....	249
6.2. Analysis of the Results of the Trainees’ Questionnaire	250
6.3. Overall Analysis	297
Conclusion	299
CHAPTER SEVEN: Pedagogical Implications	300
Introduction	301
7.1. The curriculum Development process	301
7.2. Design of a Standard Curriculum Format (Guide)	303
7.3. Training Trainers and Raising Awareness.....	310
7.4. Practice	312
Conclusion	313

CONCLUSION	314
BIBLIOGRAPHY	317
Appendices	
Appendix I: The Teachers' Questionnaire.....	
Appendix II: The Supervisors' Questionnaire.....	
Appendix III: The Trainees' Questionnaire.....	

INTRODUCTION

1. Statement of the Problem

2. Aims of the Study

3. Hypotheses

4. Means of Research

5. Structure of the Thesis

Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

The analysis of student's needs is a prerequisite in any curriculum development process. Knowing about the learners, their identity, background knowledge, interests and expectations, does not only help the curriculum planner to decide on compatible and sound objectives, but also to select appropriate content and methods that match their expectations (Richards 2001). Curriculum development considers needs assessment as a central step within the planning phase. Many data gathering sources are identified in curriculum development literature, yet Pratt (1980) warns about the pitfalls of removing the planning process too far from the learner. He asserts that "in most schools, the programs offered reflect the areas of expertise and interest of teachers rather than the analysis of the needs of learners" (p.52). Curriculum development is executed by educators, and the need for client opinions is ignored, making of the approach a bureaucratic and political quasi-legislative activity of writing rules and regulations (Pratt 1980). In teacher training, sources of information about learners' needs are identified and limited to expert opinions, task analysis, perceived needs, and current practice (Richards 2001). The student teachers are seen as external to the curriculum development process for they are not experts and cannot inform about specific needs related to task performance. However, much valuable information about their background information, learning styles, preferences in terms of training methods could be an added value to the planning process.

In Algeria, part of the whole Higher Teacher Training School programs, the first English teacher training curriculum was designed in 1999. It is the product of the rise of interest in the qualification of teachers and their training, which is itself dictated by the

reforms in education at that time. Quality assurance requirements led to the revision of the training curriculum in 2008, and the outcomes have led to inter-curriculum communication, attempting to overcome the identified redundancies. The consultation of both versions of the curriculum has revealed that the main goal behind the curriculum is to provide a training that would cover three main domains that build up a competent teacher, namely the academic domain, the professional domain and the cultural domain. However, a curriculum being defined as a collection of syllabi whose role is to guide teachers and learners in their teaching and learning, the one under study provides very little information about how its content has been selected and organized. Neither the first version nor the second one gives consideration to the students' needs. Both are rather built around developers' perceptions of teaching English at the Secondary or Middle School. The questions to be asked are:

-To what extent does a curriculum succeed to achieve its goals in the absence of data about the students?

- Does the curriculum fit the learners' needs and expectations?

- Are the learners' needs perceived in the same way by both pre-service and in- service trainers?

2. Aims of the Study

This study aims at evaluating the English teacher training curriculum with focus on the teaching methodology domain. The reason behind this focus is the fact that the contents of the two other domains (language and culture) are common to most English Language Teaching higher education curricula in Algeria. It is the Teaching methodology domain that makes the teacher training curriculum specific. It is also the level around which most of the student teachers' expectations and demands should be articulated.

The study also aims to bridge the gap between the curriculum content, the students' expectations and the required entry profile to teaching. Another attempt is to suggest a common format for the articulation of a curriculum content.

3. Hypotheses

Since teaching methodology is the area where student teachers experience the know how to act skills and is probably the major concern in teacher training curricula, it is assumed that designers reflect the underlying principles within the curriculum. It would be inappropriate for a curriculum to teach and recommend methodologies that its designers lack or fail to address in their respective syllabi. Indeed, the one under study should necessarily reflect an overall plan that would emerge from conventional design models taught within it. Therefore, this study sets to examine the following hypotheses.

- 1- It is hypothesized that the Teaching Methodology Curriculum is planned by the designers of the curriculum around the trainees' perceived needs. In this case, the information about trainees' needs emerge either from the trainers' or the designers' own perception of the profession, and the trainees' felt needs are secondary.
- 2- It is also hypothesized that there is an informal, unofficial analysis of trainees' needs through the designers' perceptions. Therefore, the curriculum is likely to meet their expectations and interests.
- 3- We also hypothesize that the curriculum is more likely to achieve its goals and respond to the students' needs when it takes into account the information provided by educational experts, known as supervisors. The gap between what students' learn and what they should be able to do when they start teaching is bridged through supervisors' consultations.

4. Means of Research

The information gathered in order to evaluate the teaching methodology curriculum, to bridge the gap between the curriculum content and to suggest a curriculum format for content articulation is obtained through three means of research.

In order to check the first and the second hypotheses, a Teachers' Questionnaire and a Trainees' Questionnaire are administered. The Teachers' Questionnaire aims at gathering information about the curriculum as well as the difficulties encountered during its implementation. The Trainees' Questionnaire handed to final year B+4 and B+5 aims at determining the trainees' needs and expectations from the Teaching Methodology curriculum.

In order to check the third hypothesis, a Supervisors' Questionnaire was handed in to gather information about the profile required from novice teachers.

5. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into seven chapters. The three first chapters are devoted to the literature survey, the fourth, the fifth, and the sixth chapters are about the means of research, and the seventh chapter consists of pedagogical implications

Chapter one, 'Curriculum Development', is an attempt to define the concept, explore its historical background, the ideologies that shape a curriculum, and the various models and frameworks for its development. This chapter also explores the curriculum development process where a series of planning, design and evaluation actions are undertaken. Particular focus is put on needs analysis, being a fundamental variable within this study.

In the second chapter, we have analyzed the concept of teacher training through necessary definitions of teacher education, teacher training, and teacher development, studying the evolution of this educational practice, and examining the different approaches to

teacher training. We have also studied the teacher training process and the guiding principles in teacher education. The determination of what teachers should know and learn has been examined from different perspectives, and the teacher training curriculum has been a serious matter of investigation.

The third chapter deals with the teaching methodology curriculum at the Higher Teacher Training School. It has investigated the educational system in Algeria, the emergence of teacher training schools, and the teacher training curriculum at the Higher Teacher Training School. Particular attention has been devoted to the teaching methodology curriculum which has been examined on the light of Brown's 1995 adapted model for curriculum development. The elements in the model have been verified in the curriculum document to provide us with factual information about the teaching methodology curriculum.

The fourth chapter is an analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire. It seeks to verify the first and the second hypothesis through gathering data about the training curriculum.

The fifth chapter is an analysis of the Supervisors' Questionnaire. It aims at verifying the third hypothesis through the identification of the weaknesses teachers demonstrate after graduation from the Higher Teacher Training School.

The sixth chapter is an analysis of the Trainees' Questionnaire. The purpose is to verify the first and second hypotheses through the identification of the trainees' opinions and expectations from the Teaching Methodology curriculum.

In the seventh chapter, we provide the reader with some pedagogical recommendations to contribute to the improvement of the teaching methodology curriculum at the ENS.

CHAPTER ONE

Curriculum Development

Introduction

1.1. Definitions of Curriculum

1.2. Curriculum Development

1.2.1. Historical Background

1.2.2. Modern Curriculum: Knowledge, Pedagogy, and Role of Teachers

1.3. Curriculum Ideologies

1.3.1. Classical Humanism

1.3.2. Progressivism

1.3.3. Reconstructionism

1.3.4. Postmodernism

1.4. Curriculum Models

1.4.1. Bobbitt's Scientific Schooling (1918)

1.4.2. Tyler and Taba "Evaluation is the Key" Model (1949)

1.4.3. Bruner's Spiral Curriculum (1960)

1.4.4. Freire's Liberation Model (1970)

1.4.5. Walker's Deliberative Platform (1971)

1.4.6. Recent Models of Curriculum

1.5. Curriculum Development Frameworks

1.5.1. Brown (1995)

1.5.2. Graves (1996)

1.5.3. Storey (2007)

1.5.4. Macalister and Nation (2010)

1.6. The Curriculum Development Process

1.6.1. Needs Analysis

1.6.2. Analysis of the Context Situation

1.6.3. Stating Aims and Objectives

1.6.4. Content Selection and Organization

1.6.5. Curriculum Evaluation

Conclusion

Introduction

The term ‘curriculum’ is seen differently by scholars and underlies different ideologies. It has a history of multiple meanings and has changed over time. It has been influenced by historical events, forces, and invented ideas. At any given time, it reflects the “push” and “pull” over issues in society and has become a particular field of study with an identifiable structure, defining characteristics of practice, and a body of grounded Knowledge (Hewitt 2006). Exploring the various definitions, historical evolution, ideologies and design models will assist developers in building and shaping their school curricula.

1.1. Definitions of Curriculum

The word “curriculum” is not a recent invention. It is a word from antiquity that has evolved in meaning. With reference to any dictionary curriculum is from a Latin word “currere” (probably of earlier Greek origin), referring to the running of a course as in a chariot race. Schooling could also be envisioned as a course to be run or gone over in the same way that a racecourse is a confined, known experience with a beginning and end. Beyond the initial definition, dictionaries define curriculum as an “aggregate of courses of study given in a school, college, or university (sometimes cited collectively as education institutions); a particular course of study; or both”. Based on a consensus of dictionary sources, curriculum would simply mean “a course of study” (Hewitt,2006). According to René Ochs (1974) the term curriculum is “often used to designate equally a programme for a given subject matter and for a given grade, a programme for a given subject matter for the entire study cycle, or the whole programme of different subjects for the entire cycle or even the whole range of cycles. Further the term curriculum is sometimes used in a wider sense to cover the various educational activities through which the content is conveyed as well as materials used and methods employed”. Taken from Ochs’ perspective, the terms curriculum and syllabus could

be used interchangeably. However, White (1988) states clearly that these are two different concepts. “Syllabus refers to the content or subject matter of an individual subject, whereas curriculum refers to the totality of content to be taught and aims to be realised within one school or educational programme” (White,1988). A similar perception of both concepts is provided by Graves (1996) who states: “A curriculum will be understood in the broadest sense as the philosophy, purposes, design, and implementation of a whole programme. A syllabus will be narrowly defined as the specification and ordering of content of a course or courses”. Nonetheless, the term curriculum has been a matter of debate during the 20th century (Marsh, 1997). Many definitions have been provided over the decades of the 20th century. According to Portelli (1987; cited in Marsh 2009), more than 120 definitions of curriculum appear in the literature devoted to curriculum. The interest attributed to the term is mainly due to the rising concern in delimiting what the term means or establishing new meanings associated with it. (Goodson 1988; cited in Marsh 2009) suggests that the struggle over the definition of curriculum is a matter of social and political priorities as well as intellectual discourse. Hence, curriculum may be defined depending on the facets one wishes to emphasize. Longstreet and Shane (1993: 7) define it as “...an historical accident- it has not been deliberately developed to accomplish a clear set of purposes. Rather, it has evolved as a response to the increasing complexity of educational making”. For Goodson (1994: 111) it is “A multifaceted concept, constructed, negotiated, at a variety of levels and in a variety of arenas”. On the other hand, Oliva (1997; cited in Marsh 2009) suggests that differences in the substance of definitions of curriculum are largely due to whether the emphasis is upon purposes of goals of the curriculum (for example a curriculum is to develop reflective thinking), contexts within which the curriculum is found (for example, a curriculum is to develop the individual learner in all aspects of growth), or strategies used throughout the curriculum (for example, a curriculum is to develop problem solving processes).

It is very hard to reach a consensus over the term curriculum. The reason is the diversity of values and experiences in key players in education. The following list has been elaborated by Marsh 1997. It comprises the most considered definitions over the decades in the twentieth century.

- ◆ Curriculum is that which is taught in school.
- ◆ Curriculum is a set of subjects.
- ◆ Curriculum is content.
- ◆ Curriculum is a set of materials.
- ◆ Curriculum is a set of performance objectives.
- ◆ Curriculum is that which is taught both inside and outside of school and directed the school.
- ◆ Curriculum is that which an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling.
- ◆ Curriculum is everything that is planned by school personnel (range of subjects taught and the amount of instruction time given to each in terms of hours or minutes).

Marsh (1997) reads the above definitions according to the approach they derive from and the purposes they claim. He also addresses criticism to each view on curriculum. According to him, when curriculum is defined as “content” it may lead to confuse it with syllabus. On another hand, if defined as a “product”, details about goals, objectives, content, teaching techniques, evaluation, assessment, resources should be provided. The curriculum should be seen as an official document issued by the government or one of its agencies and which prescribe how and what is to be taught. Viewed as a “product”, the curriculum document represents the ideal rather than the actual curriculum. According to the same author, if curriculum is defined as a set of “performance objectives”, it should focus on specific skills

or knowledge that is considered to be attained by students. The argument in favor of this approach is that if a teacher knows the targets which students should achieve, it is so much easier to organize other elements to achieve this end, such as the appropriate content and teaching methods. This approach emphasizes on the students who are the ultimate consumers of the curriculum. Yet, this approach can lead to an over emphasis on behavioral outcomes and objectives which can be easily measured. However, some aspects (skills, values) are difficult to state in terms of objectives. Another criticism addressed to this approach is that a curriculum which is simply a listing of performance objectives would have to be very large and tends to be unwieldy. When the curriculum is defined as "being taught both inside and outside school, and directed by the school", it reveals that all kinds of activities that occur in the classroom, playground, and community, comprise the curriculum. This may also demonstrate that school learning is not just confined to the classroom. However, the emphasis upon the direction by the school may indicate that the only important learning experiences are those which are directed by school personnel. In case one adopts the definition of curriculum as "what an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling", self-motivated learners would assume that each student should be encouraged to select the learning experiences that will enable him/her to develop into a fully-functioning person. However, learners do not only learn from the curriculum (its official form). They may learn from what Pollard and Tann (1987; cited in Marsh 1997) refer to as the hidden curriculum (a set of implicit procedures within the school procedures, curriculum materials, communication approaches, and mannerisms used by staff). The orientation that a curriculum is "everything that is planned by school personnel" emphasizes the planning aspect. According to this approach, classroom learning experiences need to be planned although some unplanned activities will always occur (and these can have positive/negative effects). This definition brings to bear the distinction that some writers make between curriculum and instruction. Some writers argue that

curriculum is the ‘what’ and instruction is the ‘how’. “Curriculum activity is the production of plans for further action and instruction is the putting of plans into actions” (MacDonald and Leeper 1966; cited in Marsh 1997).

Thomas, 2002 & Cornbleth, 1990 cited in Fandino (2010) suggest a compilation of definitions of curriculum built around goals and nature of knowledge to be transmitted. According to that compilation curriculum could be seen as product (Tyler,1949), practice (Stenhouse, 1975), praxis (Grundy, 1987) or in context (Cornbleth, 1990).

Table 1.1: Curriculum Definitions Compilation (Fandino 2010)

Curriculum as product (Tyler, 1949)	It transmits facts, skills, and values to students. It stresses mastery of conventional school subjects through traditional teaching methods.
Curriculum as practice (Stenhouse,1975)	It provides opportunities for students and teachers to construct knowledge. It provides a basis for planning a course, studying it empirically and considering the grounds of its justification.
Curriculum as praxis (Grundy, 1987)	It strives to emancipate students from the ideological distortions that might disempower or bias their minds. It enables individuals to become critically aware of how they perceive the world and their acting in it.
Curriculum in context (Cornbleth, 1990)	It develops socially valued knowledge and skills to contribute to personal and collective autonomy. It exposes and approaches the impact of structural and socio- cultural processes on teachers and students.

1.2. Curriculum Development

Curriculum design is usually considered to be a development of the last hundred years (Pratt 1980). It is not an easy matter to state who first designed a curriculum. In a general sense, curriculum design is a matter of deliberate thought about the nature of education and instruction. Many people have recorded their thoughts about education for 2500 years (Pratt 1980). However, we cannot assume that before that people did not think about education. The reason is that they left no records. According to Brown 1995, curriculum development is a series of activities that contribute to the growth of consensus among the staff, faculty, administration, and students. This will provide a framework that helps teachers to combine teaching activities that are most suitable for a given situation. It is also a framework that helps students to learn as efficiently and effectively as possible in the given situation. Furthermore, Ornstein and Hunkins (2009; cited in O’neill 2010) contend that curriculum development encompasses how a “curriculum is planned, implemented and evaluated, as well as what people, processes, and procedures are involved...”). On the other hand, Macalister and Nation (2010) see it as a kind of writing activity and as such it can be usefully studied as a process. The typical sub-processes of the writing process (gathering ideas, ordering ideas, ideas to text, reviewing, editing) can be applied to curriculum design. Besides, Lunenburg (2011) states that in its most simplified form, curriculum development is the process of planning, implementing and evaluating that ultimately results in a curriculum plan.

1.2.1. Historical Background

For the non-literate societies, it is typical that the child learns from a relative or an elder in the home, or in the practical situation in which the learning will be used (Kneller 1965; cited in Pratt 1980). In the literate societies of the ancient world, the nature of education suggests that tradition was more influential than deliberate thought. In the scribal cultures of

China, Egypt, and Syria, the aristocracy consisted of the literate priests, civil servants, and administrators who conducted the business of government. Education was extremely formalistic with primary emphasis on passive memorization of sacred writings and national epics often written in an archaic language. In military cultures (Sparta, Arabia), the aristocracy was a class of warriors whose education emphasized training in martial skills, physical strength, endurance, and military virtues. The educational tradition would change in response to changes in military technology.

By the fifth century BC. in Athens, education had lost its basically military character. A balance emerged among moral, athletic and aesthetic education. By the time of Socrates, Athenian boys of the upper class received their education at private day schools, learning to read and write, to sing and to play the lyre, to practice the rudiments of mathematics and to perform athletic exercises. However, the method employed by Socrates belonged to an older tradition (a young nobleman was entrusted to an older man for training. The educational relationship was one of love and inspiration (Marrou 1956; cited in Pratt 1980). Followed later on by Plato (one of his disciples), Socrates educational thought was said to be radical seeking to answer the question: “what should be the ends of education?” However, the ‘elite model’ was unable to meet the educational demands of the Athenian middle class, whose economic and political importance expanded in the fourth century BC. Therefore, it became inevitable to bring changes in methods and in curriculum.

A new school of educators, called the Sophists emerged. They were the first to be labeled professional educators and had to undertake the entire post elementary education of youth for a fee. They had to concentrate largely on useful knowledge, an education for life and political leadership. The Sophists were interested in practical problem solving and persuasion. Their method was group tutoring, and their aspiration was to reduce every area of learning to an exact science. The Sophists were the first to demonstrate an effort to discover

basic principles of instruction. The famous Sophists were Protagoras and Isocrates. They had a great influence on the development of Western education.

Later, in the third century BC. Rome adopted the literary curriculum where memorization of Homer's poetry, the rules of grammar and the conventions of rhetoric were predominant. Education became bilingual and remained so for six centuries. The curriculum had to include such studies as geometry, astronomy, music, physics, civil law, and philosophy. Among the curriculum thinkers of that period were Cicero and Quintilian. They advocated variety in the curriculum and in the daily timetable to maintain student interest. They favored the use of games, competition and praise in addition to attention to individual differences in aptitude and disposition (Pounds 1968; cited in Pratt 1980).

In Preindustrial Europe and with the disintegration of the Roman Empire in the west, the monasteries became the sole guardians of learning. The dominance in curriculum concerns was to the mastery of grammar. The curriculum of the universities that began to develop in the 20th century consisted largely of study and exposition of the scriptures and writings of the Church Fathers and theological disputation; Classical Latin authors received increasing attention with the passage of time. The development of separate European states during the Middle Ages helped to produce considerable variety in education. However, the curriculum was uniform.

Curriculum historians have traced the use of the word curriculum and its emergence into common use in books and published writings in the years from 1890's to about 1918 (Kliebond 1986, Schubert, Thomas and Carroll 2002). The emergence of the idea as a discipline in the field of education begins with the rise of new knowledge in 19th century America. In fact, at that period a series of important publishing events signaled a revolution in ideas and knowledge about human life and the physical world in which we live. Thomas W.

Hewitt (2006) refers to the works of Charles Darwin, and Jacob Bigelow as being a revolution in human thinking. Further, those works were seen as a background to the emergence of social sciences. In America, Herbert Spencer developed the idea of Social Darwinism encompassing ideas about knowledge. For Spencer, knowledge was the means to freedom and progress. In one of his famous lectures, he asked, “What knowledge was of most worth?” His question, according to Hewitt, was an original curriculum question. What ought to be taught, according to Spencer, was “to use science, mathematics, and the emerging social sciences (political science, economics, sociology, and anthropology) as knowledge to achieve whatever ends were determined in the name of progress and freedom”.

In the early 20th century America, part of the larger knowledge revolution were questions about purposes, content and instruction in schooling. Spencer’s question about what should be taught initiated thinking about subjects and instruction. The idea was to provide knowledge through some form of common schooling. Later, pedagogy came to define instruction as the delivery of what was to be taught. The idea of using ‘curriculum’ as a concept subsuming and replacing words such as ‘content’ or subject matter had to get its early appearance in the title of Dewey’s 1902 signal publication: “The Child and the Curriculum”. The concept of curriculum that time has not yet gained educational prominence. It was not easy to replace the traditional use of content and subject matter with an economical word for what was taught in schools. From a Spencerian view, curriculum is “knowledge to be transmitted, specifically that which was of most worth”. From that perspective, it was a matter of deciding which kind of knowledge. Spencer advocated the application of scientific knowledge in the study of human evolution. Ideas that emerged at that time gave the possibility to provide different and competing meanings for curriculum. ‘Curriculum had to find attributes and define qualities that would give it a shape.

Over a period of fifty years, from Dewey (1902) to Tyler (1949), two developments affected the conceptual process: the rise of the social sciences (particularly sociology which shifted the focus to the study of human social institutions) and the question of the practical and academic nature of the curriculum work (The practical nature focusing on the purposes and the content of schooling while the second aspect stressed the curriculum theory) . The curriculum was dividing into two distinct areas of work: “one of academic text development and theoretizing, the other of school practitioner and curriculum development ” Hewitt (2006).

1.2.2. Modern Curriculum: Knowledge, Pedagogy and Role of Teachers

The modern curriculum is a curriculum for excellence. It is approached in a more developmental form where teachers are positioned as agents of change and professional developers of curriculum (Priestley and Minty 2012: 01). There is an adoption of more overtly student centered practices than previously. The curriculum is based around the development of four capacities in young people: confident individuals, successful learners, responsible citizens and effective contributors (2012). The new trends are common to many different educational traditions (Yates and Young 2010; cited in Priestley and Minty 2012: 02). The commonality has been identified by Priestley and Minty 2012 at three levels: Knowledge, pedagogy, and the role of teachers.

At the level of knowledge, there has been a shift from a detailed specification of knowledge to be covered, towards a more generic approach. This is in order to enhance curricular flexibility to address the demands of a fast changing world where workers and citizens will need the skills to quickly acquire new knowledge, as existing knowledge forms become rapidly obsolete. There are two main facets to this shift. First, the focus of the curriculum has overtly shifted from knowledge to skills. This is seen by Whitty (2010; cited in Priestley and Minty 2012: 03) to over simplify and dichotomize the complex relationship

between knowledge and skills, obscuring the relationship between different forms of knowledge, for example, knowing that and knowing how (Gill and Thomson, 2012; cited in Priestley and Minty 2012: 03). Further, Young (2009: 4) has questioned whether such generic skills can indeed be developed free of contextual knowledge and free of the domains in which they are realized.

A second feature of this shift has been an increasing emphasis on interdisciplinary approaches to the organization of the curriculum, weakening therefore the traditional subject boundaries. Young and Muller (2010: 23) refer to an erosion of the distinction between academic knowledge and everyday knowledge. They assume that “in the lack of specification of content, less experienced teachers will fall behind without knowing it, or miss out conceptual steps that may be vital later on). Furthermore, according to Rata (2012: 34), there is a risk that disadvantaged young people will be denied access to powerful knowledge. The same author warns of the social exclusion inherent in new curricular forms.

In modern Pedagogy the learner is positioned at the heart of schooling. Biesta (2010; cited in Priestley and Minty 2012: 3) refers to this trend as the ‘learnification’ of education. The same author suggests that it reflects an unproblematised acceptance that learning is a good, and a failure to address educational questions such as ‘what are we learning?’ and ‘why are we learning it?). According to Yates and Collins (2010: 92), this is evidence of a merging of neo-liberalism and social constructivism; “a fascinating rapprochement of a child focused developmentalism and an economic instrumentalism”. One issue is that both the practical methods and the theoretical underpinnings of such pedagogy are rarely made explicit in the new curricula.

Besides, modern curricula carry a renewed vision of teachers as developers of curriculum and more widely agents of change at school level (Fullan 2003; cited in Priestley

and Minty 2012: 4). However, such assumption has been shown to be highly problematic. One major problem lies in the accountability practices that continue to accompany the new curricula, despite the renewed emphasis on teacher autonomy, and the cultures of performativity that have been shown to develop in schools as a result of these practices (Priestley and Minty 2012 :4). Fandino (2010) attempts to define the 21st century curriculum and states that curriculum must be understood as a socio-cultural process consisting of a series of pedagogical actions activated when planning, developing, and assessing a critical and transformative educational program aimed at integrating contextually shaped teaching and learning realities, practices and experiences. This kind of curriculum should seek for the following goals:

- To provide opportunities to construct knowledge with others
- To enable the learner to become critically aware of ideological distortions
- To enable to develop socially valued knowledge and skills (ibid)

Furthermore, it should bear the following characteristics:

- It is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective application
- It is based on informed action and critical reflection
- It is in favor of a dynamic interaction of students, teachers, knowledge, and contexts. (ibid)

Glatthorn and Jaillal (2000) identified seven types of curriculum: the recommended curriculum (proposed by scholars and professional organizations, the written curriculum which appears in school, district or country documents, the taught curriculum (what teachers implement and deliver in the classrooms or schools), the supported curriculum (resources , textbooks, computers, audio-visual materials which support and help in the implementation of

the curriculum), the assessed curriculum (tested and evaluated), the learned curriculum (what the students actually learn and what is measured) and the hidden curriculum (the unintended curriculum: External and internal values and political influences on the course).

1.3. Curriculum Ideologies

Skilbeck (1976; cited in Lawton 1983) suggested that there are at least four basic educational ideologies each of which generates a different type of curriculum theory. These ideologies are namely: Classical Humanism, Progressivism and Reconstructionism, and Postmodernism.

1.3.1. Classical Humanism

Lawton (1983: 5) states that classical humanism is probably the oldest educational ideology. It originates from Greece in the fourth century BC when Plato developed the idea of cultural heritage, whose custodians were a class of guardians. The ideology survived the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, and was put forward again in modified forms by Mathew Arnold (1869) and by Eliot (1948). The essential feature of this ideology is that it associates traditional culture and values with a small minority group called 'the elite'. Plato referred to the elite as 'the men of gold'. According to Plato, they (the men of gold) were to receive a quite different education from the other two 'lesser metal' groups. In the twentieth century, Professor Geoffrey Bantock came with a new version of Plato's view. He has written about two types of education for two different classes of the community: a literary education for a small minority, and a 'popular culture' education for the masses based on an oral tradition.

The curriculum, according to this ideology, would concentrate on cultural heritage; those kinds of knowledge which have been worked out over hundreds of years as giving access to the best in terms of literature, music, history and more recently science. The aims of the curriculum, according to Richards (2001), stress the intrinsic value of the subject matter and its role in developing the learners' intellect, humanistic values, and rationality. The

content matter of the different subjects is viewed as the basis for the curriculum. Mastery of content is an end rather than a means to solving social problems. The role of schools is to provide access to the major achievements of particular cultural traditions. Greek and Latin have become a means to develop mental discipline in students. Broad intellectual capacities are promoted. "...memorization, and the ability to analyze, classifies, and reconstruct elements of knowledge are promoted so that these capacities can be brought about to bear on the various challenges likely to be encountered in life" (Clark 1987; cited in Richards 2001: 114). Languages are taught not as a tool for communication but as an aspect of social studies. The main reason why classical humanism can no longer be acceptable as an ideology in most societies is that it runs directly counter to democratic ideals of social justice and equality of opportunity (Lawton 1983). It was seen as confining education to a small elite.

1.3.2. Progressivism

Progressivism (also known as child- centered education) roots back to Rousseau's Emile (1762). This ideology rejects traditional approaches to education. According to progressivism, the need for the child to discover for himself and follow his own impulses is more important than transmitting a cultural heritage. Childhood is an important period and should be regarded as preparation for adulthood. Freedom, according to this ideology is more important than social order. Pestalozzi and Froebel were among the advocates of this approach. They could influence today's teacher education to a large extent. Furthermore, in modern education, the influence of progressivism could best be seen in the ideas of Neill and Mac Kenzie (Lawton 1983). A curriculum based on progressivism would be concerned not with subjects, but with experiences, topics chosen by the pupils and 'discovery'. Knowledge in the form of facts would be regarded as of very little importance. Children's production would be seen as more important than appreciation of culture and heritage. Progressivism is based on an over- optimistic view of human nature. For Rousseau and his followers,

individual human beings are naturally good but tend to be corrupted by an evil society. Then, allowing children to choose a curriculum (or no curriculum) would allow children to develop without the harmful influence of society. The criticism addressed to this view is that the child should not develop conflicts with his society. Rather, a child only becomes truly human by developing socially as well as individually. Children and society are complex mixtures of good and evil, and education consists to some extent of encouraging the good and trying to eliminate the evil in both. However, progressivism is undoubtedly a healthier approach to child education. Modern uses of progressivism contributed to the development of a more scientific approach to children's learning. In addition, the motivational advantage of allowing children some choice is now clearly established.

1.3.3. Reconstructionism

An essential aspect of reconstructionism would be to see the individual and the society as harmoniously integrated rather than necessarily in opposition. The essence of the ideology is that education is a way of improving society. One of the advocates of the theory is Dewey (1902). For him, the experimental methods of science provided an appropriate approach to social questions. For Dewey, democracy is not simply a form of government but a way of life which provides maximum opportunities for experimentation and growth. Education for all was both a desirable aspect of a democratic society and a means of achieving a better democracy. Above all, education was concerned with opportunities for the growth of individuals within the modern industrial world, improving therefore the quality of life of individuals and the quality of the society itself. The reconstructionist curriculum lays stress upon social values – in a democratic society. Knowledge is not ignored and justified in terms of individuals 'social needs.

1.3.4. Postmodernism

Beck (1993), views postmodernism in education as a paradigm that challenges how we learn and appreciate knowledge in our lives. It questions the idea of a universal, unchanging, unified self or subject which has full knowledge of and control over what it thinks, says, and does. Postmodernist educators must emphasize diversity and heterodoxy; reject hierarchical relationships between educators and learners; recognize and value emotions, attitudes and inclinations; and emphasize critique and deconstruction of all theories and social practices.

On the other hand, Usher and Edwards (1994), consider post-modernist education as ambiguous. It both seeks and rejects closure. It is both closed and open. It can be an instrument/ a device control and legitimization, but it has the potential to question the status of the definitive, the certain and the proven. For Usher and Edwards (1994), education must avoid aiming at achieving universally applicable goals pre-defined by the grand narratives. Instead, it should be diverse in terms of goals and processes. It should become the vehicle for the celebration of diversity, a space for different voices against the authoritative one.

According to Breen (1999), the postmodern ELT curriculum and syllabus should adopt a pedagogy where the language classroom should question absolutes, welcome ambiguity, accept uncertainties, participate in different and new discourse, explore other identities, study local and other cultures, create and negotiate, and surf technological sources. The teacher could play the role of a guide (who explicitly encourages proposals of learners, and a cultural worker who facilitates ethnographic research. On the other hand, the learner should be a language player (who reinvents rules and conventions governing language), a curious explorer of different text types and discourses across languages, a polyglot (who acquires new voices and ways of articulating experiences and ideas), and a critical discourse analyst who reflects on uses and realities of language. In terms of goals, the postmodern ELT curriculum should redirect schooling to the development of autobiographical, aesthetic, and intuitive experience,

and the socio-cultural and socio-political relations emerging from an understanding of the individual in relation to knowledge, other learners, the world and ultimately the self. Content, activities, and materials should promote a creative search for deeper understanding through interdisciplinary and inclusive tasks, projects and narratives. They would include hermeneutics, gender studies, cultural studies, and critical literacy. They would problematize, interrogate, contextualize, challenge any kind of text (written, visual, etc). Assessment would be a matter of understanding knowledge as reflecting human interests, values, and actions that are socially constructed and directed toward emancipation and human agency.

In addition, Firehammer (2007), describes postmodernism as a reaction to the assumed certainty of scientific, or objective efforts to explain reality. Postmodernism is highly skeptical of explanations which claim to be valid for all groups, cultures, traditions, or races, and instead focuses on the relative truths of each person.

According to Irvine (2009) and King (2010), post modernism is a reaction against rationalism, scientism, logics or objectivity. According to this view, there is no universal truth. Instead, there are coexisting and relative truths. Skepticism of idea of progress and anti-technology reactions is a feature of this view. In addition, there is a pursuit of localizing and contingent theories and knowledge is networked and distributed.

1.4. Curriculum Models

Curriculum development has witnessed the emergence of a variety of models. Models in general are representations of objects, settings or processes. They can take many forms: a physical object, a generic formula for application, or a set of criteria for prediction. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009), cited in Oneill (2010) suggest that although curriculum development models are technically useful, they often overlook the human aspect such as the personal attitudes, feelings, values involved in curriculum making. Therefore they are not a recipe and should not be a substitute for using one's professional and personal judgment on

what is a good approach to enhance student learning. Lunenburg (2011), states that one way of developing a curriculum plan is through modeling. Models are essentially patterns that serve as guidelines to action. Models can be found for almost every form of educational activity (administration, supervision, instruction, evaluation...). The advantage from using a model to develop a curriculum is to gain a greater efficiency and productivity (olive 2009; cited in Lunenburg 2011). Furthermore, thanks to models, we can analyze the phases essential to the process.

Hewitt (2006) referred to the particular features of models: descriptive, prescriptive, practical, replicable, constructive, and useful. According to the same author, although models serve a certain purpose and each separate model may describe a process or procedure, they are often interchangeable, depending on how they relate to or fit the qualities of the contemplated action. Hewitt (2006) refers to the earlier models: Bobbitt's Scientific Schooling (1918), Tyler and Taba "Evaluation is the Key" (1949), Bruner's Spiral Curriculum (1960), Freire's Liberation Model (1970), and Walker's Deliberative Platform (1971).

1.4.1. Bobbitt's Scientific Schooling (1918)

Bobbitt published his book "The Curriculum" in 1918. That was to be the formal beginning of curriculum. Bobbitt's book, along with his 1924 publication "How to Make a Curriculum" is important for two reasons: First, Bobbitt's ideas on curriculum established a prevailing curriculum perspective – the focus of curriculum was school and schooling, a process of analyzing life in which the school would ameliorate the social problems for which there were no other institutional correctives. Bobbitt's claim was the use of a scientific process of inquiry in the identification of the social needs in order to craft a curriculum. Bobbitt focused the school and the professionals to do curriculum work were supposed to be teachers, administrators and school boards. The second aspect of Bobbitt's perspective was the presentation of a way to do the work, a model process that he presented in his 1924 text

“How to Make a Curriculum”. Bobbitt identified two phase: First, to discover the objectives for the curriculum and second, to devise experiences for obtaining the objectives. The criticism addressed to this model is that Bobbitt’s ideas were influential because they were practical, portable and doable.

1.4.2. Tyler and Taba “Evaluation is the Key” Model (1949)

Ralph Tyler developed a process for thinking about purposes for schools and how to develop the curriculum. In 1949, he articulated the elements of the process for building a curriculum. The Tyler Rationale is probably the most persuasive and influential model for doing curriculum work. He posed a sequence of significant questions:

- What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (Goals)

- What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? (Scope)

- How can these educational experiences be effectively organized? (Content)

- How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (Evaluation)

Tyler’s model was very useful. It established planning as an important policy action for setting goals . In 1962, Hilda Taba refined it and adapted it for practical use by teachers at the classroom level. Her main contribution from reworking Tyler’s model was to start with a diagnosis of learners’ needs as a source for formulating objectives. In fact, where Tyler calls for determining the means to attain the objectives, Taba refers to means as the selecting of content and the necessary learning experiences. All in all, the Tyler- Taba model is considered as a legitimate way to do curriculum work based on research and experience rather than on theory and anecdote (Hewitt).

1.4.3. Bruner's Spiral Curriculum (1960)

Jerome Bruner came with two basic elements that built up his 1960's model. The first element has to do with learning psychology. According to Bruner, content to be learned could be presented in such a way that any learner could learn it or organized in an intellectually honest way, intellectually referring to the child's way of thinking. The second aspect has to do with how knowledge is itself organized. Bruner's view is that anybody of distinct knowledge, a discipline, for example, had a structure, and that structure could be patterned to fit the learner. The key to organizing the curriculum, based on Bruner's ideas, was the concept of the spiral curriculum. The curriculum would flow from simple to complex, concrete to abstract, and from year to year as schooling progresses. This model has had an impact on materials development mainly, influencing the way textbooks were written and presented by publishers.

1.4.4. Freire's Liberation Model (1970)

Paulo Freire's work appeared along with the political struggles of the oppressed peoples in Brazil. Freire created a model that structured thought to "empower the oppressed to understand themselves and their circumstances and create their own self, social and cultural knowledge so they can emerge in a world of their own making and control" Hewitt. The centering idea for Freire is that freedom of self-determination is not the end but the means. This view is a theory of emancipation or liberation which Freire explained in his book "Pedagogy of the Oppressed, 1970" as a dialogue about emancipation through a process of developing critical consciousness. According to Freire's theory, teams work in common with people at the local level. The habits and ideas and the social, cultural, and work activities are studied and used as the data from which themes are developed. This process continues through the creation and implementation of a curriculum of the people that becomes the path to self-awareness and empowerment. It is a distinctive curriculum of the people and for the people created for special schooling in a unique context.

1.4.5. Walker's Deliberative Platform (1971)

Another model based on research experience was created by Walker in 1971. The model consisted in studying groups doing curriculum development and making curriculum decisions. The key feature he noticed was the deliberation process. Personal agendas were placed on the table so that value positions could be articulated openly. He noted that participants negotiated as they worked their way into and through the task. The individual and collective beliefs about schools, schooling and related classroom concerns form what walker calls the 'deliberative platform'. Walker compares the idea of the platform to that of a political party where a negotiated consensus guides actions and becomes in turn the things for which the party stands. It is the sense of reflective responsibility, the degree of matching between the planning and the implementation outcomes that is unusual. In effect, the model works as a built-in- self- evaluation. Scripted proceedings provide a record with which to compare the decisions in the deliberative process with the results of the curriculum implementation itself. The model can be used as a corrective process to provide adjustments to the process.

1.4.6. Recent Models of Curriculum

More recent works on curriculum development have grouped models into categories depending on the features and focuses they share. Lunenburg (2010) describes three models: Tyler 1949, Beauchamp and Saylor (1981), and Alexander, and Lewis (1981). For Lunenburg (2010) the three models share many characteristics: They are deductive (they proceed from the general (for example, examining the needs of society) to the specific (for example, specifying instructional objectives). They are linear: they involve a certain order or sequence of steps from beginning to end. They are also prescriptive: they suggest what ought to be done and what is done by many curriculum developers. O'Neill (2010) refers to two versions of curriculum models namely the product model and the process model. For O'Neill, the product model emphasizes plans and intentions whereas the process model emphasizes activities and

effects. The product model can be traced to the work of the writings of Tyler (1949) who greatly influenced curriculum development in America. According to O'Neill (2010) models that developed out of Tyler's work, such as Popham and Baker (1970) were criticized for their over emphasis on learning objectives and were viewed as employing very technical means to end reasoning. The product model, however, has been valuable in developing and communicating transparent outcomes to the student population and has moved emphasis away from lists of content. Recent literature in this area suggests that using this model, care should be taken not to be overly prescriptive when writing learning outcomes (Hussey and Smith 2003; Maher 2004; Gosling; Hussey and Smith 2008). The process model of curriculum planning on the other hand claims that what matters most is getting the ingredients – the processes, messages and conditions- right and trusting that good outcomes will follow.

Ornstein and Hunkins (2004, cited in O'Neill 2010) also refer to more categorizations like technical/non-technical (technical referring to logical, efficient and effective approaches in delivering education – non technical referring to subjective, personal, aesthetic and focus on the learner approaches). In addition, Bell and Lefoe (1998) identified three categories: the outcomes integrative, the linear objectives and the interaction models

The examination of the different curriculum development models reveals that most of them agree to a great extent on approaching curriculum development in a systematic, objective based manner. Furthermore, curriculum developers tend to refer to Tyler's model (1949) as a basis for any curriculum work (since it is the first serious orientation on how a curriculum should be built). Besides, the adoption of one model or another depends largely on the designer's assumptions and visions on curriculum work.

1.5. Curriculum Development Frameworks

Curriculum development goes through a complex process and therefore requires leaning on a framework that would break down that process into components and sub-

processes. Various contributions have been suggested by many curriculum design specialists. The major ones are Johnson (1989) (who suggests that curriculum development should follow planning, the specification of ends and means, program implementation, and classroom implementation), Brown (1995), Graves (1996), Storey (2007) and Macalister and Nation (2010).

1.5.1. Brown (1995)

Brown (1995) suggests a framework that fits the more general models used to describe long established systems approaches to curriculum design. According to him, the framework is meant to be applicable to language programs and provides both a set of stages for logical program development and a set of components for the improvement and maintenance of an already existing language program. Brown (1995:19) considers curriculum development as “a series of activities that contribute to the growth of consensus among staff, faculty, administration, and students”. According to Brown (1995) “the series of curriculum activities will provide a framework that helps teachers to accomplish whatever combination of teaching activities will provide a framework that helps students to learn as efficiently and effectively as possible in a given situation”. The figure below shows the curriculum development process as suggested by Brown.

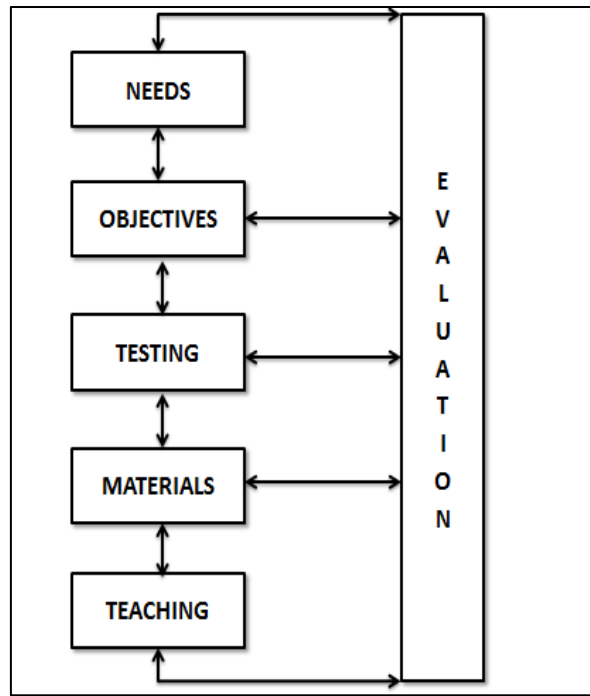


Figure 1.1 Brown's 1995 Curriculum Development Model

1.5.2. Graves (1996)

According to Graves (1996), it is important to build a development process on one framework because “a framework provides an organized way of conceiving of a complex process; it sets forth ideas as well as raises issues for the teacher to pursue...”. She developed a framework that she adapted from various other contributions including Nunan (1985, 1988a, 1988b), Dubin and Olshtain (1986), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), White (1988), Johnson (1989), and Richards (1990). She shaped her plan around the following seven steps mainly to help teachers develop their own courses. The following figure is a representation of the framework.

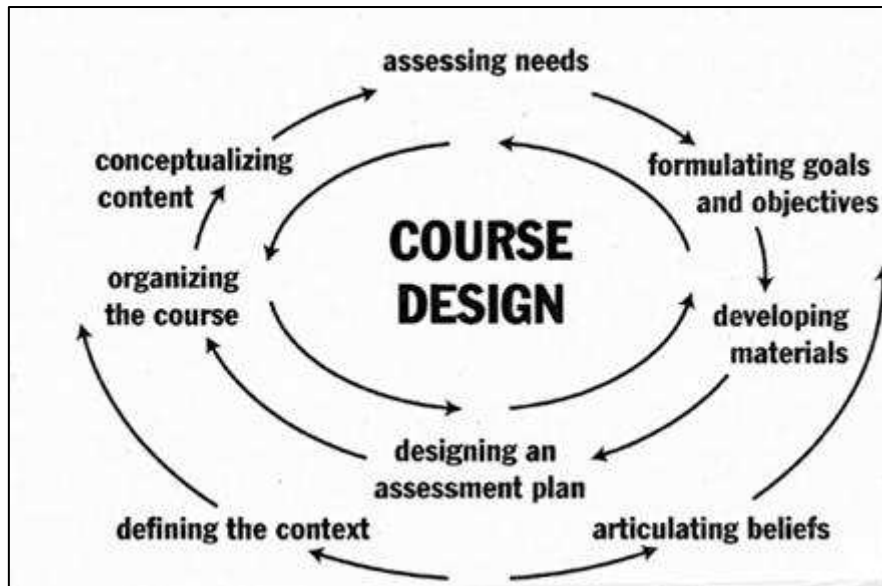


Figure 1. 2. Graves' 1996 curriculum Development Framework

In her framework, Graves represented elements that seek answers to the following questions:

- Needs assessment: What are my students' needs? How can I assess them so that I can address them?
- Determining goals and objectives: What are the purposes and intended outcomes of the course? What will students need to do or learn to achieve these goals?
- Conceptualizing content: What will be the backbone of what I teach? What will I include in my syllabus?
- Selecting and developing materials and activities: How and with what will I teach the course? What is my role? What are my students' roles?
- Organization of content and activities: How will I organize the content and activities? What systems will I develop?
- Evaluation: How will I assess what students have learned? How will I assess the effectiveness of the course?

In 2000, Graves developed a model that she articulated as follows:

- Defining the context
- Assessing needs
- Articulating beliefs
- Formulating goals and objectives
- Organizing the course
- Conceptualizing content
- Developing materials
- Designing an assessment plan.

From her model, Graves seeks to capture two aspects of course design. First, she believes that there is no hierarchy in the process and no sequence in their accomplishment. Course designers can begin anywhere in the framework as long as it makes sense. Second, the model portrays a ‘systems’ approach to course design. The components are interrelated and each of the processes influences and is influenced by the other in some way.

1.5.3. Storey (2007)

Storey (2007: 88) examined two models (Brown’s and Richards’) and stated similarities between both models. According to Storey, both include needs analysis, setting of objectives or outcomes, materials selection and preparation, teaching and evaluation. However, the two models differ in that Brown includes “testing” as an important step in curriculum development and Richards adds “situation analysis and course organization”. The following table represents Storey’s processes expected to be found as part of curriculum development.

Table 1.2: Storey's Processes in Curriculum Development (2007)

<p>Curriculum Development Category</p>	<p>Scope</p>
<p>1-Needs and Situation Analyses</p>	<p>Primarily based on the learning needs of students, but also any factors in the environment that should be considered.</p>
<p>2-Setting of objectives</p>	<p>Selection of appropriate objectives and the rationale for their selection.</p>
<p>3-Assessment and Testing</p>	<p>Selection and development of suitable means of assessment</p>
<p>4-Planning and organization of the course/ syllabus design</p>	<p>Decisions about how better to deliver the course.</p>
<p>5-Selection and/ or development of materials</p>	<p>Decisions about the most appropriate materials and/or creation of materials.</p>
<p>6-Planning for effective teaching</p>	<p>Ensuring the appropriate conditions and support systems that promote effective teaching are in place.</p>
<p>7-Evaluation</p>	<p>Evaluation of the above processes in terms of effectiveness and efficiency.</p>

1.5.4. Macalister and Nation (2010)

Macalister and Nation (2010) developed a model that consists of three outside circles and a subdivided inner circle. The shape of the model is designed to make it easy to remember. The three part shape that occurs in each of the outer circles (the ‘Mercedes’ symbol) also occurs in the large inner circle, and also occurs in the way the three outer circles connect to the inner circle.

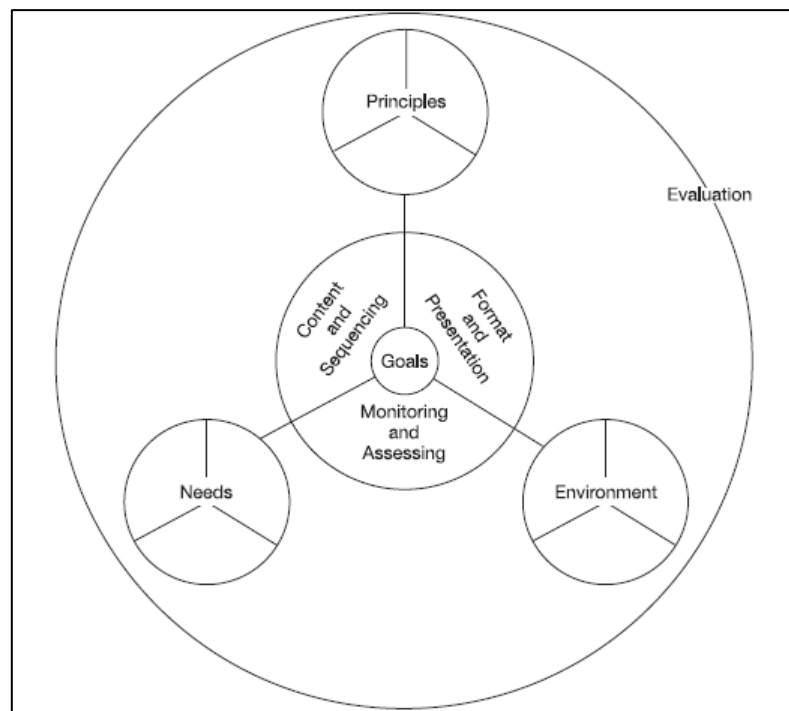


Figure 1.3. Macalister and Nation 2010 Curriculum Development Model

The outer circles (principles, environment, needs) involve practical and theoretical considerations that have an impact on guiding the actual process of course production. The model lists a set of factors to consider when designing a course namely, the learners’ present knowledge and lacks, the resources available including time, the skill of the teachers, the curriculum designer’s strengths and limitations, and principles of teaching and learning. According to Macalister and Nation 2010, in case such factors are not considered, then the course may be unsuited to the situation and learners for which it is

used. In the curriculum design process these factors are considered in three sub-processes: environment analysis needs analysis, and the application of principles.

The examination of the different process frameworks leads to the adoption of one form or rather to the adaptation of many of them building, in this way an integrated framework where the common features appear. Since Graves 2000 states that there is no hierarchy in the process of curriculum development, our own approach to the presentation of how curricula are built will be based on sound logical steps demonstrating what should appear first. The following is a plan of the presentation of curriculum development steps:

1. Planning for curriculum design: Examining the learners' needs, context situation, and educational aims.
2. Stating aims and objectives
3. Selecting and organizing content
4. Developing materials
5. Evaluating the curriculum and its accompanying materials.

1.6. The Curriculum Development Process

The curriculum development process systematically organizes what will be taught, who will be taught, and how it will be taught. Each component, within the process, affects and interacts with other components. It is considered to be an attempt at planning the teaching – learning process. The results of a planned activity are usually more effective compared to the results of an unplanned one. It is a matter of foreseeing what is going to take place in the classroom and to create a system where all the elements are interrelated. Long and Richards (quoted in Johnson 1989), regard curriculum design as a decision making process which involves policy making, needs assessment, design and development, teacher preparation and development, program management and evaluation. Needs analysis, analysis of the context situation, aims and objectives statement, content selection and organization, materials

development and evaluation are believed to be cornerstones in this process. A particular focus is on needs analysis being a key issue within curriculum development and being the concern of this research.

1.6.1 Needs Analysis

One of the essential steps in the design of a curriculum is needs analysis. The information this process gathers may be useful for the various developmental stages and may lead to striking decisions on the nature of goals and content.

1.6.1.1. Definition of Needs Analysis

Various definitions have been given to the term “need”: “...a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state” (Berwick, 1989) “...a gap between ‘what is’ and ‘what should be’”, (Witkin et al, 1995- cited in Zheng 2010). “A gap between real and ideal that is both acknowledged by community values and potentially amenable to change” (Reviere, 1996, P.5). “May be different from such related concepts as wants (something are willing to pay for) or demands (something people are willing to march for)” (Mc Killip,1987). “A lack that gives rise to a desire for satisfaction” (Le Francois, 2004, 291). Stated simply, a need is a matter of what learners want to get out of a learning experience. Needs analysis has a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course. Its centrality has been acknowledged by several authors (Munby,1978; Richterich and Chancerel, 1987; Hutchinson and Waters,1987; Berwick,1989; Brindley, 1989; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Robinson,1991; Johns, 1991; West, 1994; Allison et al, 1994; Seedhouse, 1995; Jordan, 1997; Dudley- Evans and St. John, 1998; Iwai et al, 1999; Hamp-Lyons, 2001; Finney, 2002).

The term needs analysis generally refers to the activities that are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of

a particular group of students (Iwai et al, 1999; cited in Songhori (2008). Further, Nunan (1988) defines it as “a family of procedures for gathering information and about communication tasks for use in syllabus design” (Nunan, 1988:75). Graves (2000:98), defines it as ‘a systematic and ongoing process of gathering information about students’ needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions’. On the other hand, Brown (1995) defines it as “the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation”. In the formal and technical sense, needs analysis is rather new in language teaching contexts. However, as an informal process, it has been conducted for years by teachers who were concerned by assessing what language points their students wanted to learn., Brown, 1995 argues that needs assessment is an integral part of systematic curriculum building and that once identified, needs can be formulated in terms of goals and objectives, which in turn will serve as the basis for the development of teaching activities and materials as well as testing and evaluation strategies. Richards (2001), states that needs analysis was introduced into language teaching in the 1960’s through the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) movement. According to him, it is a response to the growing demand for specialized language programs. Its place in language teaching and learning is unquestionable. It should be “the starting point for devising syllabuses, courses, materials and the kind of teaching and learning that takes place” (Jordan, 1997:22).

1.6.1.2. Types of Needs

Brown (1995), argues that some needs are more pressing than others. According to him, one of the tasks of the needs analyst is detect those pressing needs through sifting through all their early ideas and information. Various dichotomies on needs have emerged and

appear to be complementary. According to Brown needs can be perceived and/or felt needs, objective and/or subjective, and target and/or learning.

Berwick (1989) views perceived needs as those that the educators make judgments about in other people's experience, while felt needs are viewed as the ones that the learners have. The felt needs are also defined by Brookfield (1988) as "wants, desires, and wishes of the learner".

The dichotomy objective/subjective refers to the kind of information gathered about learners as well as the source of such information (Nunan 1988). Accordingly, the information could be objective or subjective, gathered from the learners themselves or the parties involved in the process. Brindley (1989) and Robinson (1991) consider all factual information about the learner (language proficiency, language difficulties, use of language in real life) to form objective needs, whereas cognitive and affective needs of the learner in language learning (confidence, attitudes, expectations) are considered to form subjective needs. Subjective needs are expressed by learners themselves and reflect the perceptions and priorities of the learner on what should be taught. Nunan 1988 argues that such information often reveals learning style or preferences by the learner. Knowing about the subjective needs would be useful for both the learner and the teacher. The former could appreciate what he learns and the latter could make use of the collected information to select content and activities. Objective needs, on the other hand, are especially important because they represent opinions on what should be taught. They may inform about those learners who are not aware of their needs. Objective needs complement subjective needs. Bell (1981) points that the learner's perception of what he needs is but a shadow potential of what he really needs. It is important therefore to handle subjective needs with care. Curriculum designers should rather match what learners express as wants, desires and expectations with regard to the objective information they gather about those learners.

Hutchinson and Waters (1993) define target needs as the ones that “the learner needs to do in the target situation”, these are necessities (the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation), lacks (the gap between the present proficiency of learners and the target ones), wants (the reflection of learners’ perception of what they need). On the other hand, learning needs are “what the learner needs to do in order to learn”. In fact learning needs are all the aspects related to the learning process including the conditions of the learning situation (time, space, media and materials) as well as individual characteristics and differences (motivation, knowledge, skills and strategies).

Jordan (1997) suggests a trichotomy of needs analysis. deficiency analysis is concerned with the necessities that the learner lacks, strategy analysis seeks to establish the learners’ preferences in terms of learning styles and strategies, or learning methods, and means analysis examines the constraints -local situation- to find out the ways of implementation of a language course. According to Jordan (1997), needs analysis does not only concern what the learners express as wants and desires but also cares about how best they learn and what kind of materials and means learning requires.

1.6.1.3. Purposes of Needs Analysis

The purpose of needs analysis is to identify learner needs, taking place at a relatively theoretical level outside the classroom, yielding recommendations on how a course should be designed. At a more profound level, needs analysis is a process in curriculum development (Brown 1995; Richards 2001);

Richards 2001 identified a set of purposes for conducting a needs analysis. They are namely:

- To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role such as sales manager, tour guide, or university student.
- To determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills.
- To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students.
- To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important.
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do.
- To collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing.

Richards (2001) states that in language teaching other purposes could be identified. He mentions the case of an ESL (English as a second language) program in public schools as an example. The following purposes could be identified:

- To compile a demographic profile of all the languages and language groups represented by the students.
- To assess their level of language acquisition in their native language and in English.
- To determine their communicative abilities in English.
- To determine their formal knowledge of English.
- To find out how students use language on a daily basis.
- To determine what English language skills are necessary to enable students to participate in all school and community activities in English.
- To find out what prior experiences students have had with formal education.

- To determine the attitudes of the students and their families toward formal schooling and education.
- To find out what pre-literacy and literacy skills the students possess.
- To ascertain the students' level of cognitive development and acquisition of academic skills in their native language(s).
- To ascertain what cognitive and academic skills students have acquired in English.
- To determine the cultural, political, and personal characteristics of students.

According to Richards (2001), a needs analysis may be conducted for a variety of different uses. For example, in conducting a needs analysis for the sake of a revision of a Secondary School English curriculum in a country, the end users may include:

- Curriculum officers in the ministry of education, who may wish to use the information to evaluate the adequacy of an existing syllabus, curriculum and materials.
- Teachers, who will teach from the new curriculum.
- Learners, who will be taught from the curriculum.
- Writers who are preparing new textbooks.
- Testing personnel, who are involved in developing end-of school assessments.
- Staff of tertiary institutions, who are interested in knowing what the expected level will be of students exiting the schools and what problems they face.

1.6.1.4. The Process of Needs Analysis

Pratt (1994) states that careful planning is as necessary for needs assessment as for other aspects of curriculum development. He refers to Stufflebeam, Mccornick, Brickerhoff, and

Nelson's 1985 detailed guide to educational needs analysis where the following set of basic questions are listed.

- What is the purpose of the needs assessment?
- How is the concept of the needs assessment understood?
- What is the value base of the needs assessment?
- What question will it address?
- Who is asking that the needs assessment be conducted?
- Who is the audience for the needs assessment?
- Who is sponsoring the needs assessment?
- Who else's sanction and support is required?
- Who will conduct the study?
- What staff, budget, training, and other sources will they need?
- How will fairness and objectivity be maintained?
- How will the needs assessors avoid being co-opted by the respondents and the sponsors?
- How will the public and the sponsors be kept informed?
- What information will be collected?
- How will samples be drawn?
- How will the information be collected and analysed?
- Who will write and edit the final report?
- To whom will it be presented?

Titcomb (2000) suggests the following steps for conducting a needs analysis

1. Identify the audience and purposes for the analysis. This is referred to as users and uses by McKillip 1998.
2. Fully describe the target population and service environment. Altshuld et al. (2000) pointed out three levels of target groups and their respective needs.

- Level one: Primary targets: the direct recipients of the services.
 - Level two: secondary targets: they include the individuals or groups who deliver the services.
 - Level three: Tertiary targets: resources and inputs into the solutions.
3. Needs identification: Descriptions of the problems and possible solutions are generated. This is where we illustrate the gaps between expected and actual outcomes.
 4. Needs Assessment: this is the time to evaluate the identified needs. Which are the most important? Do any of the needs conflict with other needs? Is there consistent agreement across levels of target groups about the relevance and importance of the needs?
 5. Finally, communication of results to the audience identified in step 1.

On the other hand, Graves (2000, p,100) views the process of needs analysis as involving a set of decisions, actions and reflections, that are cyclical in nature. She classifies the steps of needs assessment as follows:

1. Deciding what information to gather and why
2. Deciding the best way to gather it: when, how and from whom
3. Gathering the information
4. Interpreting the information
5. Acting on the information
6. Evaluating the effect and effectiveness of the action
7. Deciding on further or new information to gather (back to 2)

1.6.1.5. Needs Analysis Procedures

Procedures for needs analysis depend on many parameters: the situation where the needs analysis is conducted, the agents, the purpose(s), and the users of the gathered

information. Furthermore, most of the tools for gathering information are likely to be subjective and impressionistic. Hence, needs analysis agents tend to use more than one procedure. It should be noted that the collection of data may take place before classes begin. Some other tools may be used during class in order to collect data on the learners' preferred learning styles and strategies. Three procedures for data collection have been identified. These are namely a priori data collection, a posteriori data collection, and deductive/inductive approaches.

A priori data collection takes place before class begins. It concerns learners' proficiency level, their circumstances, goals and backgrounds. The data could be collected through formal tests, learner language samples (written or oral tasks, simulations or role play, achievement tests, performance tests), interviews, meetings, and analysis of available information.

A posteriori data collection may take place after class has already begun. The information gathered is useful to select the appropriate teaching methods and techniques. The needs analyst may select questionnaires, observation, asking questions, case studies, and self-ratings.

Berwick (1989:56) classified the approaches to needs analysis as either inductive (case studies, observations etc.) or deductive (questionnaires, surveys etc.) According to West (1994) some of the common procedures are:

- Pre-course placement/diagnostic tests which estimate the language level of the learners.
- Entry tests on arrival which can have a diagnostic value and identify learners' language weaknesses and lacks.
- Observation of classes which are of value mainly for deficiency analysis.

- Surveys based on questionnaires which have been established as the most common method and help us draw a profile of our learners' needs/lacks/wants/learning styles/strategies etc. and at the same time make them aware of these needs/lacks etc.
- Structured interview which consists of pre-planned questions the answers to which can either be recorded or written down.
- Learner diaries which can be used as supplementary to end-of-course questionnaires offering retrospective, qualitative information.
- Case studies which provide in-depth information about the needs and difficulties of individual learners or groups.
- Final evaluation/feedback usually in the form of questionnaires which provides information on the evaluation of the course and helps design/improve the next course.

It is clear that depending on the method of data collection, needs analysis can be (West, 1994: 5):

- a. 'off-line', which is conducted in advance of the course, so that there is plenty of time for syllabus design and materials preparation.
- b. 'on line' or 'first-day', which is carried out when learners start the course.
- c. 'on-going needs re-analysis' which reformulates objectives periodically as awareness of the demands of the target situation increases and the needs become more focused. (West, 1994: 7-8)

The choice of one procedure or another will depend on three criteria. Brown (1995:61) lists three criteria to consider when using any information gathering procedures: reliability, validity, and usability. He defines reliability as "the consistency with which a procedure obtains information". Any procedure -whether it be a ruler for measuring length, a scale for determining weight, or a questionnaire for asserting attitudes- should obtain approximately the same results every time it is used to measure the same person or object. Otherwise, it

would be useless to consider the results or to interpret them. Reliability must be considered when analyzing needs. The procedure the needs analyst uses should be checked statistically or by commonsense examination of what happens when the procedure is used. In case the results are the same or at least very similar when used repeatedly or by different analysts, then the procedure is fairly reliable.

The validity of a procedure is defined by Brown (1995: 61) as “the degree to which it is measuring what it claims to measure”. If a questionnaire claims to measure the level of student motivation, it is important that it is limited to just that, not a reflection of something entirely different. There are statistical techniques that can be used. Furthermore, each procedure involved in a needs analysis should be examined question by question to determine two things:

- To what degree does it appear to measure what it claims to be measuring?
- To what degree is that measurement appropriate for the particular needs assessment being conducted?

If the answer to either question is dubious, “the procedure should be revised to make it more valid or the procedure should be discarded regardless of how reliable it may have appeared to have been at first”. Brown (1995:62).

Usability has to do with “the degree to which a procedure is practical to use” (Brown, 1995:62). Is it relatively easy to administer, to score, and to interpret? Asking such questions in the early stages of needs analysis can save a great deal of trouble later. The most reliable and valid procedures may prove impractical in some situations. Finally, according to Brown (1995), reliability, validity, and usability are interrelated and must be considered to be equally important. A procedure must be reliable, valid, and usable within a given context before it can be adopted in a needs analysis.

1.6.1.6. Problems in Conducting Needs Assessment

According to Titcomb (2000), the most serious conceptual flaws in needs assessment research involve problems with sampling, failing to gather the right information to measure the desired components of need, and using methods inappropriate to justify the conclusions. These weaknesses reflect a basic failure to develop a conceptually coherent, logical and well integrated plan for conducting the needs assessment. In addition, other common problems include missing primary target population (for example, not asking clients of services, holding meetings at inconvenient times/ locations), confounding means (solution strategies) with ends (outcomes) or needs with wishes (wants), using only one method for gathering information, assuming that levels of need are similar across levels of target groups, and failing to set priorities based on collected data.

Needs analysis is still a problematic debatable issue. Is it or not worth considering the needs of learners? Many researchers are in favour of a 'humanistic approach' based on the belief that the learner should have a say in what he should be learning and how he should be learning it. That reflects the notion that education should be concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner. On the other hand, needs analysis could be criticised as a technique that relies on collecting subjective information. Two main questions rise at this level: Do learners inform about their real needs? And are the learners aware about their learning needs? Needs analysis attracted criticism from many sources: Teachers feel that learner independence detracts from their own authority and status in the classroom. Some education authorities feel that syllabus decisions should be made by experts not by learners. On the other hand, some learners feel that if a teacher or institution asks for the learners' opinion, it is a sign that they do not know what they are doing.

1.6.2. Analysis of the Context Situation

The analysis of the context situation is another important step in curriculum development planning. The order of its appearance in the sequence plan is not hierarchical. It

is even considered by some authors as a part of needs analysis that investigates the various factors that might foster or hinder the success of the implementation of a given curriculum. Graves (2000:29) claims: “the givens of a context are the resources and constraints that guide our decisions. She further claims that knowing how long a course is, its purpose, who the students are, and how it fits in with other aspects of the curriculum helps us to make decisions about content, objectives and so on. Graves (2000:30) views the analysis of the context situation as part of pre-course needs assessment. “Information about the students and about the curriculum is clearly related to students’ learning needs” .Other information such as time and setting does not necessarily help define students’ learning needs, but has to be taken into account in order to design a course that can focus on the needs with the givens of the context. Graves (2000), refers to the analysis of the context situation as ‘problematizing’ to mean: “looking at what you know about the context and defining the challenges you feel you need to and are able to meet in order to make the course successful. These challenges may involve class size, multi-levels, number of hours, lack of resources, your own lack of experience with the content of the course, and so on” (p.32). She further states that problematizing helps to decide where to start and what to focus on in the course. “The more apparent the challenges will be, and the better you will be able to define and address the challenges as you design and teach the course”. It is about “making choices for action” (p.33).For practical considerations, Graves (2000) suggests summarizes the various aspects of context that one can define: people, time, physical setting, teaching resources, and nature of the course and institution.

The people to consider in analyzing the context situation are mainly the students (how many, age, gender, culture(s), other language(s), purpose(s), education, profession, experience), and other stakeholders including school administrators, parents, funders, and the community at large.

Analyzing time would require the examination of the number of hours over a given span of time, the identification of how often the class meets and for how long each time in addition to the day of the week and the time of the day and where it fits in the students' schedule and timeliness.

For Graves (2000), the physical setting refers to the school's location, convenience, setting, classroom size, furniture, light, and noise.

Teaching resources refer to the available materials (whether a textbook is required or the development of teachers' own materials is recommended), and the equipment including cassettes, videos, photocopying, and clerical support.

The analysis of the nature of the course and institution would require gathering data about the type of the course (whether mandatory, open enrolment), its relation to current/previous courses, in addition to recognizing whether the curriculum is prescribed or not and whether it requires tests or not.

Richards (2001:91) refers to it as situation analysis and defines it as "an analysis of factors in the context of a planned or present curriculum project that is made in order to assess their potential impact on the project. These factors may be: social, economic, institutional, or political". For Richards, situational analysis complements the information gathered during needs analysis (sometimes considered as a dimension of needs analysis). It can even be considered as an aspect of evaluation. Language programs are carried out in particular contexts or situations. About this point, Clark (1987 cited in Richards 2001:90) comments: "A language curriculum is a function of the interrelationships that hold between subject specific concerns and other broader factors embracing socio-political and philosophical matters, educational value systems, theory and practice in curriculum design, teacher experiential wisdom, and learner motivation. In order to understand the foreign language curriculum in

any particular context, it is therefore necessary to attempt to understand how all the various influences interrelate to give a particular shape to the planning and execution of the teaching/learning process”.

The success of a program depends largely on the diverse contexts and the particular variables that come into play in a specific situation. Richards (2001) provides the example of curricula that are planned for organised state school systems where a great deal of direction and support for teaching is provided and some others take place in settings where there are limited human and physical resources. He adds that some proposals for curriculum change are well received by teachers while others may be resisted. Besides, in some situations, teachers are well trained and have time available to plan their own lesson materials; in other situations, teachers may have little time for lesson planning and materials production and simply teach from their textbooks. The examples mentioned above demonstrate that each context for a curriculum contains factors that can potentially facilitate the change or hinder the successful implementation. It is important therefore, to identify what these factors are and what their potential effects might be when planning a curriculum. For Richards (2001), the designer should estimate both the direct and indirect effects a proposed curriculum will have on the student, on other programs, and on other people in and outside the institution. These effects must be taken into account in the design and made clear to decision makers when the curriculum proposal is submitted. He refers to relevant factors through which the curriculum design planner(s) may investigate the potential obstacles that might hinder the successful implementation of the planned curriculum. The factors are namely; societal (to determine the impact of groups in the community or society at large on the program, including policy makers in government, employers, parents, citizens...), project factors (time, resources ,and personnel), institutional factors (both human and physical), teacher factors (language proficiency, teaching experience, skill and expertise, training and qualifications, morale and

motivation, teaching style, beliefs and principles), learner factors (past language learning experiences, motivation, expectations from the program, learning approaches, preferred content, time expected to be put into the program, resources they have access to), and adoption factors (the relative ease or difficulty of introducing change into the system). Richards refers to situation analysis as SWOT analysis. It examines “language program’s internal *strengths* and *weaknesses* in addition to external *opportunities* and *threats* to the existence or successful operation of the language program” (Klinghammer 1997:.65, cited in Richards 2001: 105-106).

On the other hand, Mc Calister & Nation (2005) qualify the analysis of context situation as environment analysis, and define it similarly as involving looking at the factors that will have a strong effect on decisions about the goals of the course, what to include in the course, and how to teach and assess it. These factors can arise from the learners, the teachers and the teaching and learning situation. They also confirm that in some curriculum models, environment analysis is included in needs analysis. They consider that there are many factors that could affect curriculum design, so as part of the procedure of environment analysis, the curriculum designer should decide which factors are the most important. The importance of a factor depends on: Whether the course will still be useful if the factor is not taken into account, and how large and pervasive the effect of the factor is on the course. Still further, Mc Calister & Nation (2005) see that it is sometimes necessary to consider wider aspects of the situation when carrying out an environment analysis (for example, institutional or government policies requiring the use of the target language in schools, or the negative attitudes towards the target language among learners in post- colonial societies). They suggest making use of Dubin and Olshtain’s (1986) model of sources of information for language program policy which includes the language setting, patterns of language use in society, political and national context, group and individual attitudes. The model states that the answers to these questions

determine policy: who are the learners? Who are the teachers? Why is the program necessary?
Where will the program be implemented? How will it be implemented?

Mc Calister and Nation (2005) suggest that conducting context situation analysis can follow the following steps:

1. Brainstorm and then systematically consider the range of environment factors that will affect the course
2. Choose the most important factors (no more than five) and rank them, putting the most important first
3. Decide what information you need to fully take account of the factor. The information can come from investigation of the environment and from research and theory.
4. Consider the effects of each factor on the design of the course.
5. Go through steps 1,2,3 and 4 again.

According to Richards (2001), they are similar to those involved in needs analysis namely: Consultation with representatives of as many relevant groups as possible (parents, students, teachers, administrators, government officials), study and analysis of relevant documents (guidelines, government reports, policy papers, teaching materials, curriculum documents...), observation of teachers and students in relevant learning settings, surveys of opinions of relevant parties, and review of available literature related to the issue.

In sum, as Richards (2001) points out “context situation analysis serves to help identify potential obstacles to implementing a curriculum project and factors that need to be considered when planning the parameters of a project”.

1.6.3. Stating Aims and Objectives

At some point in curriculum design, it is important to clarify the intentions we hold for student learning. Those intentions are generally derived from needs analysis and context situation analysis and are set clearly in terms of aims and objectives.

1.6.3.1. Characteristics of Aims

Curriculum development literature uses the terms goal and aim interchangeably to refer to “a general statement of intent for a curriculum” (Pratt 1994: 69). For Richards 2001 they are “a description of the general purpose of a curriculum” and for Brown (1995: 81) they are defined as “a general statement concerning desirable and attainable program purposes”. On the other hand, Graves 2000: 87) defines aims as “a way of putting into words the main purposes and intended outcomes of a course” The curriculum aim is typically placed at the beginning of a curriculum, and it will influence the reader’s feelings about the curriculum as a whole.

According to Richards (2001), aim statements carry many purposes: they provide a clear definition of the purposes of a program, provide guidelines for teachers, learners, and materials writers, help provide a focus for instruction, and describe important and realizable changes in learning.

Aim statements reflect the ideology of the curriculum and show how the curriculum will seek to realise it. Aims are generally derived from the

Pratt (1994) refers to three main criteria to consider when writing a good aim: it should be significant, clear, and concise.

Significance is the most important criterion among the three criteria. If the purpose of a curriculum is not significant, curriculum development is a waste of time. The worth of a

curriculum must be apparent to everyone including students. It should be meaningful not only to learning, but can also be interpreted in terms of its relation to students' imaginative lives.

Clarity can be understood by its readers, including students, without further explanation. It means avoiding jargon, highly specialized terms, obfuscation, and verbosity in writing curriculum aims.

Conciseness is so if it states the basic intent of curriculum in fifteen words or less. A curriculum aim that requires half a page suggests that the curriculum developers were not really clear about the aim. Curriculum guidelines often contain no single statement of the curriculum aim, but nine or so separate aims (nine may be the most frequent number because it appears to be the average number of people on a development committee. In addition, Pratt (1994) refers to another essential criterion which he calls fragmentation. For him, there is too much material for teachers to cover, too many disparate elements for students to master. The aim has to unify theme and enhance the conceptual integrity and structural unity of the curriculum. The aim must be well enough thought out and articulated that it can provide a reference point for the objectives, content, resources, and other curriculum elements.

Likewise, Graves (2000:87-88), lists the following criteria:

- They are general statements but they are not vague: for example, the aim “ students will improve their writing” is vague. In contrast, “by the end of the course students will have become more aware of their writing in general and be able to identify the specific areas in which improvement is needed” while general is not vague. It suggests that there will be other goals (more precise ones) which give more information about the ways in which students will improve their writing.
- They are future- oriented. They should demonstrate what the students should

be able to do when they leave the program..

- They are the benchmarks of success for a course. The course can be deemed successful and effective if the aims have been reached.

Graves (2000) proposes the use of one of the following frameworks when articulating goals: the KASA framework, Stern's framework (1992), or Genesee and Upshur (1996).

KASA is an acronym for knowledge, awareness, skills, attitudes. It was developed by the faculty department of language teacher education at the School for International Training (SIT). Knowledge goals address what students will know and understand. These goals include knowledge about language and about culture and society. Awareness goals address what students need to be aware of when learning a language. These include areas of self-knowledge understanding of how the language works, and understanding of how the language works, and understanding of others' use of language. Skills goals address what students can do with the language. This area is probably the broadest, encompassing the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), as well as the functions and tasks one accomplishes through language. Attitude goals are those that address the affective and values- based dimension of learning: students' feelings toward themselves, toward others, and toward the target language and culture. These goals include respect, self- confidence, and valuing community.

Stern (1992) proposes the following categories: Proficiency (this category of goals includes what students will be able to do with the language, for example mastery of skills, ability to carry out functions), cognitive (goals which include explicit knowledge, information, and conceptual learning about language, for example grammar and other systematic aspects of communication) and about culture, for example about rules of conduct, norms, values), affective (including achieving positive attitudes towards the target language

and culture as well as to one's own learning of them), and transfer(include learning how what one does or learns in the classroom can be transferred outside of the classroom in order to continue learning).

Genesee and Upshur (1996) include in their book "Classroom- based evaluation in Second Language Classrooms" the following framework: Language goals: language skills (learners are expected to acquire in the classroom). Strategic goals (changes in learners' attitudes or social behaviors that result from classroom instruction), philosophical goals (changes in values, attitudes and beliefs of a more general nature), and method or Process goals (the activities learners will engage in).The authors of the framework focus on language goals, because they are concerned with what can be evaluated by teachers. It is to be noted that one can develop his own framework, which could combine the elements above, and add in ones that are not included (Graves, 2000: 98).

Although aims provide a clear description of the focus of a program, they do not describe, nor clarify the goals of a program. In order to give a more precise focus to program goals, aims are often accompanied by statements of more specific purpose known as objectives.

1.6.3.2. Characteristics of Objectives

As stated earlier, the curriculum aim provides a sense of purpose and direction at a general level. At some point, this general intention must be stated in terms of intentions specific enough to guide instructional decisions. Pratt (1994: 74), states "in most educational situations, the analytical process of breaking down an aim into its component parts requires creativity and imagination". Pratt puts it clearly through the following example of aim: "the students will appreciate theatre as an art form". According to Pratt (1994: 75), we need to ask the following questions: what does this mean? What understandings will we have to develop in learners? What skills? What values? If we accomplish all of these specifics, will the aim

have been achieved? If not, what else is implied? What have we missed? What other educational opportunities does this aim present? In this way, we arrive at a list of objectives that collectively comprehend the meanings implied by the aim.

Among the definitions that curriculum development literature suggests about objectives is that they “Statements about how the goals will be achieved. Through objectives, a goal is broken down into learnable and reachable units” (Graves 2000: 88), “instructional objectives will be defined here as specific statements that describe the particular knowledge, behaviours, and/ or skills that the learners will be expected to know or perform at the end of a course or program. Direct assessment of the objectives at the end of the course will provide evidence that the instructional objectives, and by extension the program goals, have been achieved, or have not been achieved” (Brown 1995:83). On the other hand, Richards 2001 defines an objective as a statement of specific changes a program seeks to bring about and results from an analysis of the aim into its different components. Objectives have to do with Bloom’s taxonomy. Bloom et al (1996) identify the cognitive domain as the domain of thought process, and consists of six levels (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation). The Affective domain for Krathwohl (1964) is known as the domain of valuing, attitude and appreciation. The main components of the affective domain are: receiving, responding, valuing, organizing, characterizing by value or value complex. Besides, the psychomotor domain for Simpson (1972) is the domain of the use of psychomotor attributes, represented in an order of perception, set, guided response, mechanism, complex overt responses, adaptation, and organisation.

Richards (2001) states that objectives generally have the following characteristics: They describe what the aim seeks to achieve in terms of smaller units of learning, provide a basis for the organisation of teaching activities, and describe learning in terms of observable behaviour and performance. Likewise, Brown (1995:.84) states that instructional objectives

are very easy to spot because they are specific, and they are specific because they have the three characteristics indicated by Mager (1975:23), that is they include three components: performance (what the learners will be able to do), conditions (important conditions under which the performance is expected to occur), and criteria (the quality or level of performance that will be considered acceptable).

Richards (2001) suggests that there are many advantages behind the statement of objectives. According to him they facilitate planning: once the objectives have been agreed on, course planning, materials preparation, textbook selection, and related processes can begin. Besides, they provide measurable outcomes and thus provide accountability; given a set of objectives, the success or failure of a program to teach the objectives can be measured. Furthermore, objectives are prescriptive in that they describe how planning should proceed and do away with subjective interpretations and personal opinions.

In addition to being a natural way to define the very kinds of proficiency that even the most up- to date language programs are trying to address, Brown (1995) suggests other benefits that can be derived from the use of objectives:

They help teachers to convert the perceived needs of the learners into teaching points, to clarify and organize their teaching points, to think through the skills and sub-skills underlying different instructional points, to decide on what they want the students to be able to do at the end of instruction, to decide on the appropriate level of specificity for the teaching activities that will be used. Furthermore, objectives help teachers by providing a blueprint for the development of tests and other evaluation instruments. Teachers would be able to adopt, develop, or adapt teaching materials that maximally match the student's needs. Objectives help teachers to develop professionally by letting them focus on just what it is that they are trying to accomplish in the classroom,

to evaluate each learner's progress, as well as overall program effectiveness, by permitting the systematic study, modification, and improvement of their perceptions of students' needs, course objectives, tests, materials, teaching, and evaluation procedures. Finally, objectives help teachers to contribute to and learn from an on-going process of curriculum development that draws on the collective energy and strengths of all of the teachers in a program to lessen the load of each individual.

Objectives describe a learning outcome: In writing objectives, expressions like “will study, will learn about, will prepare students for” are to be avoided because they do not describe the result of learning but rather what students will do during a course. Objectives can be described with phrases like: “will have, will learn how to, will be able to”. They should be consistent with the curriculum aim. Only objectives that clearly serve to realize an aim should be included. Besides, objectives should be precise. Objectives that are vague and ambiguous are not useful. Finally, objectives should be feasible; they should describe outcomes that are attainable in the time available during a course.

Objectives are normally produced by a group of teachers or planners who write sample objectives based on their knowledge and experience and revise them over time. In developing objectives, it is necessary to make use of a variety of sources such as diagnostic information concerning students' learning difficulties, descriptions of skilled performance in different language domains, information about different language levels....Objectives cannot be regarded as fixed. As instruction proceeds, some may have to be revised, some dropped because they are unrealistic, and others added to address gaps.

However, Mager (1962), suggests that for an objective to be useful it should contain three components: Performance (it describes what learners will be able to do), condition (it describes the circumstances in which the learners are able to do something), and criterion (The degree to which they are able to do something). Brown (1995) added three components

to Mager's. These are namely the subject (who will be able to do something), measure (how the performance will be observed or tested), and criterion (how well the subject will be able to perform). On the other hand, Saphier & Gower's (1987) have developed the Cumulative framework which includes coverage, activity, involvement, mastery and generic thinking objectives. Coverage objectives describe the material (textbook, units, topics, curriculum items) to be covered in the course. Activity objectives describe what the students will do with the material (fill out a worksheet or answer comprehension questions about a reading). Involvement objectives describe how the learners become engaged in working with the material (make up their own comprehension questions about a reading and give to peers to answer). Mastery objectives (also called learning objectives) describe what the students will be able to do as a result of a given class or activity (for example, to use and describe two different reading activities). Generic thinking objectives (also called critical thinking objectives) describe the meta-cognitive problem solving skills the students will acquire (to explain how they decide which reading strategies are appropriate for which texts).

Yet, Richards (2001) addresses the criticism to the use of objectives for they turn teaching into a technology, they are product oriented, and are unsuited to many aspects of language use (critical thinking, literary appreciation, negotiation of meaning).

1.6.4. Content Selection and Organisation

Articulating beliefs and defining the context might be considered as the foundation for the processes to follow when organizing a syllabus. Needs analysis and aims and objectives specification could go next. What follows, is what one must plan, organize, and the decisions about what should be taught first, second, third, and so on. Content is the information to be learnt at school. It is another term for knowledge. It is a compendium of facts, concepts, generalisation, principles and theories.

1.6.4.1. Procedures

Smith (1965) in his report on procedures of curriculum development views that the curriculum could not possibly embrace all the accumulated knowledge. Indeed, only a fraction of what man has found out about his world can be included in a program of instruction. Content selection is based on the question “what knowledge is of most worth?” Such question cannot be answered in the abstract. “It can only be answered in a cultural context where the needs of the people, the resources, the level of technology and other relevant factors can be realistically assessed and taken into account” (op-cit). Smith suggests the following guidelines for the selection of the subject matter:

- The subject matter should be appropriate to the cultural level of the people: curriculum building must take into account the level of technical, and social development of the community and of the society. There must be a balance between the old and the new. The curriculum should include enough new knowledge and techniques to challenge the learner and to result in social progress, but not enough to overwhelm him with novelty.
- The subject matter should be closely related to the needs of the individual.
- The subject matter should build new needs: it must awaken the people to the improvements needed.

The subject matter should conserve the things that have proved their worth: valuable things endure. If they satisfy human needs for generation after generation, then their worth is said to be established (f.eg. enduring ideas as freedom, equality...).

- The subject matter should foster intellectual growth and the development of specialised interests: there is a need for subject matter which will ensure the continued intellectual development of the individual beyond his school years and throughout his life as a member of society.

- The subject matter should be useful in everyday activities. Subject matter needed to develop the ability to do certain things. Still further, Smith (1965) refers to three procedures of subject matter selection: the analytical procedure, the experimental procedure and the judgemental procedure. The analytical procedure consists in the analysis of an activity to discover what must be known in order to perform it adequately. This procedure consists of certain techniques of fact finding. The first step is that of deciding upon the particular activity to be studied. Then, it is analysed into its elements and an appropriate technique is used to find the facts about the various elements. Five techniques are available. They are namely: interviewing, questionnaire, working on the job, documentary analysis, observation. These techniques are used in applying the criterion of utility to subject matter selection. If this criterion is to be followed, the curriculum worker must find out what knowledge people use in their daily activities as workers, citizens, family members, and so on. These techniques are used to find out what this knowledge is. Once such knowledge has been accumulated, curriculum workers still decide upon the relative value of the various items assuming that not all the knowledge can be taught. In some cases, the standard of judgement has been the frequency of use; that knowledge used most frequently being thought more important to teach. In other cases, the question of whether or not the item of knowledge is essential to the performance of the activity is used as a standard. If the item is essential, it is included in the curriculum even though it may not be used as often as other items.

The other procedure, the experimental, attempts to show by an empirical demonstration that subject matter satisfies a given criterion. As in all cases of experimentation, this procedure follows a general pattern. It is made up of four phases: the selection of a hypothesis, deciding upon and establishing the conditions to be met in the try out, commonly referred to as experimental conditions, applying means of objectively observing the results and quantifying them when possible. Finally, checking the hypothesis against the results to

see whether or not it is true. When these universal requirements of the scientific method are translated into a procedure of content selection, they take the following form:

- The subject matter to be tried out in the experiment is selected by applying a criterion as exactly as possible. This phase constitutes the hypothesis.
- The conditions under which the hypothesis is to be tested out are specified and established. These will include descriptions of teachers and pupils and how they are to work- how the subject matter is to be organised and introduced to the learner.... control groups may be, and usually are, needed for the proper execution of this phase of the investigation.
- The selection or construction of suitable means of observing, measuring the outcomes of experiment. Objective tests, rating scales, questionnaires... are required.

The experimental procedure is said to be time consuming and requires more technical training than teachers usually possess. However, its results are usually commensurate with the effort the procedure requires.

The last procedure is referred to as the judgemental. It is a refinement of the common sense way of selecting subject matter. It is not well defined and can be described only in general terms. The outcome of this procedure is a decision to include certain things and to exclude others. The judgemental procedure is a matter of attempt to justify choices.

1.6.4.2. Planning Levels

In ELT, Richards (2001), views that there are different levels of planning and development based on the aims and objectives established in the earlier step of curriculum development. Content selection and organisation have to go under several processes: The course rationale, entry and exit levels, choice of content, and sequencing of content.

The course rationale is a brief description of the reasons for the course and the nature of it. It seeks to answer the questions “who is the course for?”, “what is the course about?”, and “what kind of teaching and learning will take place in the course?” When answering these

questions, the course rationale describes the beliefs, values and goals that underlie the course. It would normally be a two- or three- paragraph statement that has been developed by those involved in planning and teaching a course and that serves to provide the justification for the type of teaching and learning that will take place in the course. It provides a statement of the course philosophy for anyone who may need such information including students, teachers and potential clients.

In order to plan a language course, it is necessary to know the level at which the program will start and the level learners may be expected to reach at the end of the course. This is what Richards (2001) refers to as entry and exit levels and is achieved through different ways among which proficiency levels before students enter a program and targeted proficiency levels at the end of it. Information may be available on students' entry level from their results on international proficiency tests such as TOEFL. In addition, specially designed tests may be needed to determine the level of students' language skills.

Choice of Content is probably the most basic issue in course design. Given that a course has to be developed to address a specific set of needs and to cover a given set of objectives, what will the content of the course look like? Decisions about course content reflect the planners' assumptions about the nature of language, language use, and language learning, what the most essential elements or units of language are, and how these can be organized as an efficient basis for language learning. According to Richards (2001), rough initial ideas are noted down as a basis for further planning and added to through group brainstorming. A list of possible topics, units, skills, and other units of course organization is then generated. One person suggests something that should go into the course, others add their ideas, and these are compared with other sources of information until clearer ideas about the content of the course are agreed on. Throughout this process the statements of aims and objectives are continually

referred to and both course content suggestions and the aims and objectives themselves are revised and fine-tuned as the course content is planned.

The distribution of content throughout the course is also known as planning the scope and sequence of the course. For Richards (2001), scope is concerned with the breadth and depth of coverage of items for the course (what range of content will be covered? And to what extent should each topic be studied?). On the other hand, the sequencing of content may be based on the following criteria: simple to complex, chronology, need, pre-requisite learning, whole to part or part to whole, and spiral sequencing. The planning of the course content involves mapping the course structure into a form and sequence that provide a suitable basis for teaching. This involves the selection of a syllabus framework (the choice of a syllabus type: grammatical, lexical, functional, situational...), and the development of instructional blocks (planning by modules, planning by units).

When selecting the shape of the curriculum, “the basic dilemma which course planners must reconcile is that language is infinite, but a syllabus must be finite” (Dubin & Olshtain, 1997:51). They present five possible format types: the linear format, the modular format, the cyclical format, the matrix format, and the story-line format.

The linear format is adopted for discrete element content, particularly grammar and structures. Issues of sequencing and grading are of paramount importance. Once the sequence has been determined, internal grading will be presented. Teachers cannot change the order of units or skip some. The modular format is well suited to courses which integrate thematic or situational contents. Academically oriented units are integrated. The cyclical format is an organizational principle which enables teachers and learners to work with the same topic more than once, but each time a particular one reappears, it is at a more complex or difficult level. The matrix format gives users maximum flexibility to select topics from a table of contents in

a random order, the matrix is well suited to situational content. Finally, the story- line format is basically a narrative. It is of a different type than the ones mentioned and it could be used in conjunction with any of them.

1.6.4.3. Criteria for the Selection of Subject Matter Content

According to Graves (2000), in selecting subject matter content, it is necessary to consider the following criteria:

- a. Self- sufficiency- economy: it means less teaching effort and educational resources, less learners' effort but more results and effective learning outcomes.
- b. significance: how essential or basic is it to the discipline.
- c. validity; is the content accurate, current, and relevant to the aims and intended learning outcomes?
- d. interest: will this content interest the students?
- e. Utility/ relevance: what is the discipline/ workplace/ societal value of this content?
- f. learnability: will the students be able to learn the content (in the time available)?
- g. feasibility

Balance, articulation, sequence, integration, and continuity are principles that have been identified in the Palma Principles (1992). Balance refers to the distribution of Curriculum content fairly in depth and breadth of other particular learning area or discipline. Articulation avoids glaring gaps and wasteful overlaps in the subject matter. It smoothly connects each level of the subject matter to the next. Sequence is the logical arrangement of the subject matter. It refers to the deepening and broadening of content as it is taken up in the higher levels. On the other hand, integration refers to the horizontal connections needed in subject areas that are similar so that learning will be related to another, whereas continuity is the constant repetition, review and reinforcement of learning.

1.6.5. Developing Materials

Materials are a key component in language programs. They serve as the language input the learners receive in the language classroom, and provide specified details about content (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). They are commonly called ‘content’ in curriculum design and development (Nunan, 1988).

Hamada (2007) refers to three broad types of materials: aural, reading, and paralinguistic materials. The aural/ oral materials refer to all types of speech manifestations of classroom or everyday language. They may be formal, informal, literary or colloquial. The reading materials refer to script manifestations of classroom literacy language and the paralinguistic materials refer to the interpretation of gestures, manners and facial expressions in speech and pictures, tables, diagrams, charts included in writing. On the other hand, Hajjaj (2002) presents two dichotomies concerning types of materials. He refers to simplified vs. adapted materials and authentic vs. teacher made materials.

Materials development refers to anything which is done by writers, teachers or learners to provide sources of language input and to exploit these sources in ways which maximize the likelihood of intake. It means creating , choosing or adapting , and organizing materials and activities so that students can achieve the objectives that will help them reach the goals of the course (Graves, 2000:150). Materials development encompasses decisions about the actual materials to use (textbook, text, pictures, worksheets, video, and so on, as well as the activities students do, and how the materials and activities are organized into lessons (Graves, *ibid*). the materials are influenced by the developer’s beliefs and understandings about teaching and learning. The process involves deciding how to put teaching principles into practice. In developing materials, there are six main factors to consider: the learner, the curriculum and the context, the resources and facilities, personal confidence and competence, copyright compliance, and time (Howard, 1998). Furthermore, Nunan (1988: 1-2) suggests that for materials to be designed effectively, the following principles should be respected:

1. English language teaching materials should be contextualized to: the curriculum they are intended to address, the experiences, realities, and first languages of the learners, and the topics and themes that provide meaningful, purposeful uses for the target language.
2. Materials should stimulate interaction and be generative in terms of language.
3. English language teaching materials should encourage learners to develop learning skills and strategies.
4. English language teaching materials should allow for a focus on form as well as function.
5. English language teaching materials should offer opportunities for integrated language use.
6. English language teaching materials should be authentic in terms of texts and tasks.
7. English language teaching materials should link to each other to develop a progression of skills, understandings, and language items.
8. English language teaching materials should be attractive.
9. English language teaching materials should have appropriate instructions.
10. English language teaching materials should be flexible.

Meanwhile, the roles of materials are summarized by Cunningsworth (1995: 7) as being a resource for presentation materials (spoken and written), a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction, a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and so on, a source of stimulation of ideas for classroom activities, a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined), and a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence.

Developing materials is a matter of concrete translation of the content of a curriculum in terms of teaching/learning items that should have a clear connection to established educational objectives and address the needs of the students for whom they are intended.

1.6.6. Curriculum Evaluation

Evaluation has a long history. Guba and Lincoln (1981), pointed out that a Chinese emperor in 2200 B.C required that his public officials demonstrate their proficiency in formal competency tests. Later, in the United states of America, the concern for evaluating schools can be traced as far back as the recommendations of the committee of Ten. At the end of the 19th century, the first example of “evaluative standards for the nation’s secondary schools was set. In recent years, the interest in curriculum evaluation has markedly increased. There is a demand for educational accountability and reform which has led to a rising interest in theories and methods of curriculum evaluation.

There is no widely agreed upon definition of evaluation. Some educators relate it with measurement. Others define it as the assessment of the context to which specific objectives have been attained. Some view evaluation as primarily scientific inquiry, whereas others argue that it is essentially the act of collecting and providing information to enable decision makers to function effectively. Richards (1975) defines evaluation as “the systematic gathering of information for purposes of making decisions”. Popham (1975) considers it as consisting of “a formal assessment of the worth of educational phenomena”. Worth and Sanders (1973) refer to it as: “the determination of the worth of a thing. It includes obtaining information for use in judging the worth of a syllabus, product, procedure, object, or the potential utility of alternative approaches designed to attain specified objectives”. Furthermore, Brown (1989) defines it as “the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum, and assess its

effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the institutions involved".

Frequently, confusion between the terms evaluation and assessment takes place. According to Nunan (1992), they should not be used interchangeably. He states: "To me there is a clear distinction between the two concepts. Assessment refers to the processes and procedures whereby we determine what learners are able to do in the target language. We may or may not assume that such abilities have been brought about by a syllabus of study. Evaluation, on the other hand, refers to a wider range of processes which may not include assessment data". According to Nunan (1992), assessment is subsumed by evaluation. Furthermore, evaluation cannot be resumed to assessment. Indeed, while assessment is mainly concerned with the learner, evaluation is much larger in scope and aims.

1.6.6.1. Factors Involved in Evaluation

According to Hargreaves (1989); cited in Kara (2002), the action of evaluation is summarized in terms of twelve factors which are:

- **Target audience:** The results of an evaluation of a project are to be addressed to a target group.
- **Purpose:** Evaluation is undertaken either during the fulfillment of the project or after it is completed. Following this, evaluation is either formative or summative in purpose.
- **Focus:** This is divided into direct and indirect. A direct focus for evaluation occurs when, for instance a group of learners are presented with a particular syllabus or textbook to evaluate the changes that take place. An indirect focus evaluation refers to the effects produced thanks to that experiment and which were not expected to be achieved.

- Criteria: Any evaluation of any kind should go hand in hand with a set of criteria that help determine the success or effectiveness of the syllabus or textbook.
- Method: Any evaluation should follow a systematic method for reliable results.
- Means/ instruments: The instruments will depend according to whether the results that are searched for are of a qualitative or quantitative kind.
- Agents: Agents are all the persons who take part in planning, carrying out, and following through an evaluation.
- Resources: They include agents, assistance with testing, interviewing, data collection and analysis.
- Time factors: They can influence in many ways the choice of methods, means, instruments, and resources.
- Findings: They can modify the process of evaluation itself. So, whoever the authors of those findings are, it is recommended that they are taken into account.
- Presentation of results: This will vary according to the amount of time allotted and purposes of the evaluation.
- Follow up: An evaluation should lead to recommendations for future action (for example innovation of the syllabus). Cited in Kara (2002)

1.6.6.2. Approaches to Curriculum Evaluation

Brown (1989) categorizes approaches to syllabus evaluation into four categories: The goal attainment (product oriented) approach, the static characteristic approach, the process oriented approach, and the decision facilitation approach.

The goal attainment approach (product oriented) has the main concern to see whether the goals and instructional objectives of a syllabus have been achieved. The static characteristic approach (also called “professional judgment evaluation”) suggests that outside experts visit an institution to evaluate its records as well as static characteristics (for example the number of library books and language laboratory tapes, the qualifications of the staff...). The main purpose is to accredit a particular institution with its syllabuses and textbooks. The process oriented approach emerged as a result of the new tendency of specialists who consider that evaluation can play a role in facilitating curriculum change and renewal. Finally, the decision facilitation approach syllabus evaluation as being mainly serving the purposes of decision makers.

1.6.6.3. Dimensions of Evaluation

According to Brown (1989), the term ‘dimension’ refers to the goal to be attained by an evaluation which can be formative or summative, product or process, and quantitative or qualitative.

The backbone of the distinction between formative evaluation and summative evaluation is made of the purposes for information gathering and the kinds of decisions generated. Formative evaluation takes place during the running of a syllabus. The main goal is to collect data which are going to be used to improve the syllabus. Summative evaluation occurs at the end, that is to say when a syllabus has been fulfilled. Here information is gathered to see whether the syllabus has been successful. The decisions emerging from this type of evaluation will operate and generate sweeping changes. We should note that there is no extreme version of summative evaluation since language syllabuses, conveniently, never end. To draw a distinction between these two types of evaluation, we should consider differences in terms of focus, timing and purpose. Formative evaluation focuses on factors like attitudes towards innovation and usability of new elements in the instructional materials,

assess the strengths and limitations of a new syllabus during its development and implementation, and seek data with a view toward modifying a syllabus as it is being implemented or formed. Summative evaluation measures students' achievement taking into account factors such as cost- effectiveness. It takes place after the development and implementation process is complete and attempts to summarize the results of a syllabus once implemented.

The distinction between product and process evaluation is based upon differences in terms of what kind of data are going to be considered. Product evaluation is concerned with the achievement of the goals (product of the syllabus). In this respect, it is subsumed by summative evaluation. Process evaluation focuses on what is going on in a syllabus (processes) which helps achieve the goals (product). In this respect, it is subsumed by formative evaluation, since the latter is concerned with studying and improving those processes.

In quantitative/qualitative the distinction is made on the grounds of the type of data evaluation relies upon. Quantitative evaluation relies upon measurable data; its main purpose is to detect existing and useful patterns. This can be achieved through the use of descriptive and inferential statistics. Qualitative evaluation leans on data that cannot be turned into numbers and statistics. It is often argued that they lack scientific credibility. However, they can provide valuable information if they are used in a guided and systematic manner.

1.6.6.4. Evaluation Models

The literature on curriculum evaluation has identified several evaluation models. These are the Tyler's objective centered model (1950), The Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, Product model (1971), The Scriven's Goal-free model (1972), The Stake's

Responsive model (1975), The Eisner's Connoisseurship model and The Bradley's Effectiveness model.

The Tyler's Objectives Centered Model is one of the earliest curriculum evaluation models. It was proposed by Ralph Tyler (1950) and continues to influence many assessment projects. The Tyler's approach moves rationally and systematically through several related steps mentioned by Glatthorn (1987: 273):

- Begin with the behavioral objectives that have been previously determined. Those objectives should specify both the content of learning and the student behavior expected.
- Identify the situations that will give the student the opportunity to express the behavior embodied in the objective and that evoke or encourage this behavior.
- Select, modify, or construct suitable evaluation instruments, and check the instruments for objectivity, reliability and validity.
- Use the instruments to obtain summarized or appraised results.
- Compare the results obtained from several instruments before and after given periods in order to estimate the amount of change taking place.
- Analyze the results in order to determine strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum and to identify possible explanations about the reason for this particular pattern of strengths and weaknesses.
- Use the results to make the necessary modifications in the curriculum.

This model carries many advantages. It is relatively easy to understand and apply, in addition to being rational and systematic. Besides, it focuses attention on curricular strengths and weaknesses, rather than being concerned solely with the performance of individual students. Furthermore, it emphasizes the importance of a continuing cycle of assessment, analysis and improvement. Yet, many limitations have been noticed in the model. In addition to not suggesting how the objectives themselves should be evaluated, it does not provide

standards or suggest how standards should be developed. Its emphasis on the prior statement of objectives may restrict creativity in curriculum development. Finally, as Guba and Lincoln (1981) stated, it seems to place undue emphasis on the pre- assessment and post- assessment, ignoring completely the need for formative assessment.

Many attempts to bring an alternative to the Tyler's criticized model have appeared in the late 1960's and early 1970's. The one that had the greatest impact was the Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, Product model. It was developed by a Phi Delta Kappa committee, chaired by Daniel Stufflebeam (1971). Educational leaders were attracted by this model because it emphasized the importance of producing evaluative data for decision making. The model provides means for generating data relating to four stages of program operation: context evaluation (to determine goals and objectives), input evaluation (assessment of alternative means to achieve those goals), process evaluation (which monitors the processes both to ensure that the means are being implements and to make the necessary modifications), and product evaluation (which compares actual ends with intended ends and leads to a series of recycling decisions).

During each of these stages, specific stages are taken:

- The kinds of decisions are identified,
- The kinds of data to make those decisions are identified,
- Those data are collected,
- _ The criteria for determining quality are established,
- The data are analyzed on the basis of these criteria,
- The needed information is provided to decision makers. (Glatthorn, 1987:273- 274).

The CIPP (Context, Input, Process, and Product) model has several attractive features: its focus on decision- making seems appropriate for administrators concerned with improving curricula. In addition, its concern for the formative aspects of evaluation remedies a serious

deficiency in the Tyler model. Furthermore, its detailed guidelines provided step- by –step guidance for users. However, many limitations have been highlighted in the model. It failed to recognize the complexity of the decision making process in organizations, it assumes more rationality than exists in such situations and ignores the political factors that play a large part in these divisions. In addition, it seems difficult to implement and expensive to maintain (Guba and Lincoln, 1981).

The Scriven’s Goal- free Model was proposed in 1972. Scriven was the first to question the assumption that goals or objectives are crucial in the evaluation process. Having been involved in many evaluation projects. Scriven (1972) noticed that the so- called side effects seemed more significant than the original objectives. He then began to question the arbitrary distinction between intended and unintended effects. That dissatisfaction resulted in what he called the goal- free model. In a goal- free evaluation, the evaluator functions as an unbiased observer who starts his work by the generation of a profile of needs for the group served by a given program. Then, he uses methods that are primarily qualitative in nature to assess the actual effects of the program. Scriven (1992), through his model, redirected the attention of evaluators and administrators to the unintended effects. His emphasis on qualitative methods came at a moment when there was an increasing dissatisfaction with the dominance of quantitative methodologies. However, Scriven (1972) notes that goal- free evaluation should be used to complement goal- based assessments.

The Stake’s (1975) responsive model is a major contribution to curriculum evaluation. It is based on the assumption that the concerns of the stakeholders- those to whom the evaluation is done- should be paramount in determining the evaluation issues. Stakes (1975:14) points it this way:

“To emphasize evaluation issues that are important for each particular program, I recommend the responsive evaluation approach. It is an

Approach that trades off some measurement precision in order to increase the usefulness of the findings to persons in and around the program...An educational evaluation is a responsive evaluation if it orients more directly to program activities than to program intents; responds to audience requirements for information; and if the different value perspectives present are referred to in reporting the success and failure of the program”.

Stake recommends an interactive and recursive evaluation process that embodies the following steps:

- The evaluator meets with clients, staff, and audiences to gain a sense of their perspectives on and intentions regarding the evaluation.
- The evaluator draws on such discussions and the analysis of any documents to determine the scope of the evaluation project.
- The evaluator observes the stated and real purposes of the project and the concerns that various audiences have about it and the evaluation.
- The evaluator identifies the issues and problems with which the evaluation should be concerned. For each issue and problem, the evaluator develops an evaluation design, specifying kinds of data needed.
- The evaluator selects the means needed to acquire the data desired. Most often, the means will be human observers or judges.
- The evaluator implements the data- collection procedures.
- The evaluator organizes the information into themes and prepares “portrayals” that communicate in natural ways the thematic reports. The portrayals may involve videotapes, artifacts, case studies, or other “faithful representations”.

- By again being sensitive to the concerns of the stakeholders, the evaluator decides which audiences require which reports and chooses formats most appropriate for given audiences. (Glatthorn: 275-276).

The main advantage of the responsive model is its sensitivity to clients. The model, if effectively used, should result in high utility to clients. It also has the virtue of flexibility. The evaluator is able to choose from a variety of methodologies, once client concerns have been identified. However, it is susceptible to manipulation by clients, who in expressing their concerns might attempt to draw attention away from weaknesses they did not want exposed.

Eisner's Connoisseurship model emphasizes qualitative appreciation. It is built on two closely related constructs: connoisseurship and criticism. Eisner qualifies connoisseurship as the art of appreciation. It is the ability both to perceive the particulars of educational life and to understand how those particulars form part of a classroom structure. On the other hand, criticism, according to Eisner, is the art of disclosing qualities of an entity that connoisseurship perceives. According to him, educational criticism has three aspects. The descriptive aspect is an attempt to characterize and portray the relevant qualities of educational life – the rules, the regularities, the underlying architecture. The interpretive aspect uses ideas from the social sciences to explore meanings and develop alternative explanations to explicate social phenomena. The evaluative aspect makes judgments to improve the educational processes and provides grounds for the value choices made so that others might better disagree. Eisner's chief contribution is the sharp break with the traditional scientific models. It offers a radically different view of what evaluation might be. Eisner broadened the evaluators' perspective and enriched their repertoire by drawing from a rich tradition of artistic criticism; however, he has been criticized for his lack of methodological rigor. In addition, the use of the model requires a great deal of expertise.

The Bradley’s Effectiveness model provides ten key indicators that can be used to measure the effectiveness of a developed curriculum. They are provided in the following adapted table from Bradley (1986:141-146).

Table 1.3: Bradley’s Effectiveness Model Indicators

Indicator	Description	Yes/no
Vertical curriculum continuity	The course of study reflects a format that enables teachers to have a quick and constant access to what is being taught in the grade levels below and above them. also upward spiraling prevents undue or useless curricular repetition	
Horizontal curriculum continuity	The course of study developed provides content and objectives that are common to all classrooms of the same grade level. Also, daily lesson plans reflect a commonality for the same grade level.	
Instruction based on curriculum	Lesson plans are derived from the course of study, and curriculum materials used are correlated with the content, objectives, and authentic tasks developed.	
Curriculum priority	Philosophical and financial commitments are evident. Clerical assistance is provided and reasonable stipends are paid to teachers for work during the summer months. In addition, curriculum topics appear on school board agendas, administrative meeting agendas, and building-staff meeting agendas.	
Board involvement	Buildings in the district have teacher representatives on the curricular committees; elementary, middle level, or	

	<p>junior high, and high school principals are represented; and school board members are apprised of and approve the course of study.</p>	
<p>Long- range planning</p>	<p>Each program in the district is included in the five- year sequence and review cycle. Also, a philosophy of education and theory of curriculum permeate the entire school district.</p>	
<p>Decision making clarity</p>	<p>Controversies that occur during the development of a program center on the nature of the decision, and not on who makes the decision.</p>	
<p>Positive human relations</p>	<p>Also, the initial thoughts about the curriculum come from teachers, principals, and the curriculum leader. All participating members are willing to risk disagreeing with anyone else; however, communication lines are not allowed to break down.</p>	
<p>Theory into practice approach</p>	<p>The district philosophy, vision, mission, exit outcomes, program philosophy, rationale statement, program goals, program objectives, learning outcomes, and authentic tasks are consistent and recognizable.</p>	
<p>Planned change</p>	<p>Tangible evidence shows that the internal and external publics accept the developed program course of study for the school district. The process of developing a course of study for each program or discipline in a school district is no longer one of determining how to do it, but one of determining how to do it better.</p>	

We note that if any of the ten indicators are identified with a No (negative), consideration should be given to make a yes (positive) indicator.

Conclusion

It has been demonstrated that the concept of curriculum development is a growing, developing, changing educational enterprise that reflects the growth, development, and change within societies. Curriculum practitioners, not being simply responsibility subject matter teachers, but rather multi-skilled experts who are competent, have the responsibility of not only selecting subject content, but also of undertaking sociological, psychological, and political investigations as well.

CHAPTER TWO

Teacher Training

Introduction

2.1. Definitions of Teacher Education, Teacher Training and Teacher Development

2.2. The Evolution of Teacher Training

2.3. Approaches to the Education and Training of English Teachers

2.4. The Teacher Training Process

2.5. Guiding Principles in Teacher Education

2.6. Teacher Knowledge

2.7. Teacher Profile in the Curriculum

2.8. The Pre-service Teacher Training Program

2.8.1. Planning for a Teacher Training Curriculum

Conclusion

Introduction

Training is about developing people as individuals and helping them to become more confident and competent in their lives and in their jobs (Pont 2003). Teaching can only be acquired through a series of well-designed activities. It is usually believed that some people are born teachers: “they have the ability and the wish to transfer knowledge or skills from themselves to others” Hill and Dobbyn (1979). There are some who are experts on a subject but hopeless at teaching it, and there are some who are not so highly educated but are sensitive to feedback from their students and always adapt what they are teaching to the abilities of the students. Indeed, teacher training can help both those who are born teachers and those who are not by providing them with the right techniques, methods and strategies. In this chapter, the concept of teacher training is tackled from various perspectives: definitions, evolution, models, and approaches. Content of a language teacher training curriculum is also examined and conventional proposals have been identified.

2.1. Definitions of Teacher Education, Teacher Training, and Teacher Development

The context of learning to become a teacher uses various terminologies to refer to what people do or undertake to become teachers or to prepare people to become so. Teacher education, teacher training, and teacher development are the most common concepts available in the teaching literature. Many people tend to use the terms in a confused way, believing that they mean the same, probably ignoring the definition and the scope of each concept.

Teacher education describes the field of professional activity through which individuals learn to teach an L2. These formal activities are generally referred to as teacher training (Freeman 2001: 3). The term teacher education refers to the sum of experiences and activities through which individuals learn to be language teachers. Those learning to teach, whether in pre- service or in-service contexts, are referred to as teacher learners (Kennedy 1991; cited in Freeman 2001). Like any type of education, teacher education is based on the

notion that some type of input is introduced or created, which then has an impact on the learner (Carter and Nunan 2001: 76).

Teacher training refers to activities directly focused on a teacher's present responsibilities and is typically aimed at short term and immediate goals. Often it is seen as preparation for induction into a first teaching position or as preparation to take on a new teaching assignment or responsibility. Training involves understanding basic concepts and principles as a prerequisite for applying them to teaching and the ability to demonstrate principles and practices in the classroom. Teacher training also involves trying out new strategies in the classroom, usually with supervision, and monitoring and getting feedback from others on one's practice. The content of training is usually determined by experts and is often available in standard training formats or through prescriptions in methodology books. Training is about developing people as individuals and helping them to become more confident and competent in their lives and in their jobs. The learning process is at the core of training and the ways of, and opportunities for, learning are numerous and varied (Pont 2003:3).

Teacher Development generally refers to general growth not focused on a specific job. It serves a longer –term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review and can hence be seen as “bottom up”. Development means change and growth. Teacher development is the process of becoming the best kind of teacher that one can be. It draws on the teacher's own inner resource for change. It is centered on personal awareness of the possibilities for change and is a self- reflective process (Head and Taylor, 1997). According to Head and Taylor (1997), teacher training and teacher development are identified as two broad kinds of goals within the scope of teacher education. Teacher training is a compulsory competency based, and short term process. It is

compulsory for entry to the profession, done with experts and means trainees can get a job. On the other hand, teacher development is a voluntary holistic long term process that leads to the growth and the development of attitudes and insights. Teacher development is done with peers and means that teachers can stay interested in the job. However, it is more useful to see training and development as two complementary components of a fully rounded teacher education. Teacher training essentially concerns knowledge of the topic to be taught, and the methodology for teaching it. It emphasizes classroom skills and techniques. Teacher development is concerned with the learning atmosphere which is created through the effect of the teacher on the learners, and their effect on the teacher. It has to do with 'presence' and 'people skills', and being aware of how your attitudes and behavior affect these.

Teacher development has sometimes been identified as a further step beyond training, and as being particularly concerned with the needs of experienced teachers as opposed to those in initial training. By keeping it separate from training, we imply that development is something distinct and unusual, and that people who have little or no experience of teaching are not ready to deal with the issues it raises. Yet, this is to misrepresent the essential nature of teacher development, which is a reflective way of approaching whatever it is that we are doing as teachers, and whatever level of experience we are doing it. The focus of teacher education is already being extended from a narrowly based training model towards a broader approach in which developmental insights are learned alongside classroom teaching skills. Pennington 1990 argues that within the framework of teaching as a profession, teacher preparation aims at the development of competency standards for the field and for the attainment of a certain level of competency for all individuals, while underscoring the importance of individualized professional growth throughout the teaching career.

2.2. The Evolution of Teacher Training

According to Gauthier and Tardif (1996), before the 17th century in Europe, the knowledge of the subject matter was the only requirement for being a teacher. That was when school education had not yet been formalized and was restricted to a small fragment of the population. Anyone who could read, for example, could teach reading and set up as a school master without any other form of preparation. Teaching had not yet been organized and was defined by a random series of personal initiatives. There were no other requirements apart from knowledge of the subject being taught. Teaching could often be conducted as a form of tutoring since the students groups were not large. Teacher training did not exist and was not at all required. Teachers taught as they themselves had been taught using the old tradition of a logical progression from the simple to the complex.

The first attempts to provide teacher training began to emerge in the 17th century. The effect of the protestant reformation, the catholic counter -reformation, and a new focus on children and delinquency in major cities emphasized the need to educate the children of the working class and establish schools (Gauthier and Tardif 1996). However, the increasing numbers of children who required schooling created problems to teachers. Tutoring (where the teacher called each child in turn to the front of the class) became impossible with the increase in class sizes. Therefore, a new method was needed. How could larger groups be taught? The teachers of the time came up with an original solution: teaching must be based on a method, and method is found in nature. According to Comenius; cited in Gauthier and Tardif (1996), we had to follow nature, but a nature as perfectly regulated as a clock. An approach to teaching began to emerge. It was founded on an ordered vision of the world, with one extra ingredient: the tips and tricks of the craft suggested by the best teachers were recorded in the earliest teaching manuals. The tips and tricks were consistent with a vision of the world based on total control of the students who had to be civilized, educated and

Christianized. The entire school system was based on this ideology. Everything had its place: control of time, space, movement, posture, reward, punishment, presence, and the group (simultaneous instruction). The system was found in both protestant and catholic institutions, at the primary and secondary levels, as for example, in the colleges of the Jesuit order. Two important facts are to be noted: First, there was a growing awareness that knowledge of the subject taught did not necessarily make a good teacher, even if it remained a fundamental requirement, and that other types of knowledge were needed to teach well. Second, it became clear that this knowledge could be taught. At the time, apprenticeship with an experienced master could impart that knowledge. Teaching became formalized and that gave rise to a specific professional model: traditional pedagogy. This uniform way of teaching, which can still be seen today, spread throughout the western world and even beyond, especially through the influence of various religious communities.

In the late 19th century and early 20th century, criticism started to be addressed to traditional teaching, centered on teachers and total control over students and teaching content. A new type of professionalism based on a new pedagogy was to be established. This came with two elements that became determining factors: The importance of science in discussions about teaching, and the need to promote a child- centered form of pedagogy. This has led psychology to dominate the debate of the entire 20th century. In France, the first university chairs of pedagogy began to appear. Pedagogy started to be defined “science of education” with an intention to make it a science and to make pedagogues scientists. The argument behind that is that science could correct the flaws of the pedagogical tradition. Psychology was subdivided into two categories, experimental and experiential, depending on whether the focus is on the scientific dimension or on meeting the needs of the child giving rise to two models: the positivist behaviorist model and the humanist model.

During the 1970's and the 1980's, we came to notice that the notions taught in pedagogy and didactics courses were not actually transferred to the classroom. This failure affected the way in which many people began to view teacher training. This helped to reinforce the idea that teaching could only be learnt through direct involvement and trial and error, rather than on the basis of university research. Further, the main requirement for teaching came to be taken as the knowledge of the subject taught. The pedagogical concerns became of minor interest and were reduced to experience a passion to teaching.

In Second Language teacher Education, specific approaches to teacher training began with short training programs and certificates, dating from the 1960's, designed to give prospective teachers the practical classroom skills needed to teach new methods such as Audio-lingualism and situational language teaching. The discipline of applied linguistics dates from the same period and withit, came a body of specialized academic knowledge and theory that provided the foundation of the new discipline. This knowledge was presented in the curricula of Masters programs which began to be offered from this time. These typically contained courses in language analysis, learning theory, methodology and sometimes a teaching practicum. The relationship between practical teaching skills and academic knowledge and their representation in second language teacher education programs has generated a debate ever since. In the 1990's the practice versus theory distinction was sometimes resolved by distinguishing teacher training from teacher development, the former being identified with entry level teaching skills linked to a specific teaching context, and the latter to the longer- term development of the individual teacher over time. Good teaching was seen as the mastery of a set of skills or competencies. Teacher training qualifications such as the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) were typically offered by teacher training colleges or by organizations such as the British Council. Teacher Development, on the other hand, meant mastering the discipline of applied linguistics.

Qualifications in teacher development, typically the Masters degree, were offered by universities, where the practical skills of language teaching were often undervalued. Recently, the contrast between training and development has been replaced by a reconsideration of the nature of teacher learning, which is viewed as a form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of a community of practice. Second language teacher education is now also influenced by perspectives drawn from sociocultural theory (Lantolf 2000) and the field of teacher cognition. The knowledge base of teaching has also been reexamined with a questioning of the traditional positioning of the language –based disciplines as the major foundation for second language teacher education. At the same time, it has also been affected by external factors – by the need to respond to the status of English as an international language and the demand worldwide for a practical command of English language skills.

2.3. Approaches to the Education and Training of English Teachers

There are different views about the appropriate orientation for pre-service preparation. Pennington (1989) identified three approaches: the competency-based approach, the holistic approach, and the attitude adjustment approach.

The competency based approach is advocated by Fanselow (1977). According to Smith (1969); cited in Pennington (1989: 93), this approach has the following characteristics:

1. The job of teaching is analyzed into tasks that must be performed.
2. The abilities required for these tasks must be specified.
3. The skills or techniques through which the abilities are expressed must be clearly described.
4. Training situations and exercises for the development of each skill must be worked out in detail.

In the competency-based approach to teacher education the certification of teachers takes place through observation of their teaching rather than on the basis of the completed courses. This does not mean to ignore the evaluation of the knowledge required of second language teachers. In addition to knowing that teachers have learned certain information and theories, the competency-based approach is interested in their ability to apply the knowledge in their teaching. Competency-based teacher education is directed towards criterion referenced evaluation of teaching performance in individual areas (component skills) of teaching competence. It allows for individualization of the training program through division of the course into independent training modules.

The holistic approach to teacher education, according to Larson- Freeman (1983), is needed. This approach goes beyond training to prepare individuals to function in any situation, rather than training them for a specific situation. Teacher training must prepare people to make choices. The holistic approach emphasizes the development of the individual in personal dimensions. These include increasing creative potential for syllabus and materials preparation, refining the sense of judgment for purpose of assessment in the planning and conduct of lessons, and learning to adapt teaching approach to meet the needs of individual students, classes and teaching situations.

The attitude adjustment approach corresponds to a training program in which methodology is introduced after several phases for the purpose of attitude adjustment (Pennington 1986). It follows four stages.

Stage one: Educational awareness: The aim in this stage is to provide a basic introduction to the interface of language, culture and education.

Stage two: Self-awareness: in this stage trainees examine themselves as cultural and social beings, looking at how they appear to others and how they can improve their classroom

image. In this phase the concepts of ethnocentricity and stereotyping are introduced as relevant to both teacher and student.

Stage three: Student awareness: In this stage, trainees consider the classroom from the students' perspective, examining cultural differences that affect classroom interaction and student achievement, language standards and speech varieties, and the special needs of second language speakers.

Stage four: Methods and materials: In stage four, the program moves to focus on methods for developing language skills through interactive and content oriented activities.

2.4. The Teacher Training Process

Nowadays, the teacher training process means a continuous professional growth beginning with undergraduate studies and culminating in retirement (Burke1987). It must be considered that a certificate in any field of study is not enough to prepare any person to be a teacher, because it is the knowledge alone that makes somebody a teacher (Anderson 1989). The process of teacher preparation is one of the most controversial issues among education theorists. Burke (1987) sees that it must include:

- A period of basic and pedagogical preparation (it usually includes three main components: content, pedagogical, practical);
- Successful induction into teaching positions and tasks throughout the career;
- Continuing personal and professional renewal in knowledge and teaching skills, and
- Redirection of tasks and expertise as the changeable society dictates.

Woolfolk (1989) suggests that there are two models of teacher preparation programs: The integrative model and the consecutive model.

The Integrative model begins by preparing students' at the bachelor's level through studying courses in education, as well as other specialized courses where learners could study the content. The integrated program may or may not include a full time field training at the B.A level. Sometimes, it might be followed by a fifth (sometimes a sixth) year in which students concentrate on professional teacher education courses and at least one internship experience.

Under the Consecutive model the academic preparation is first completed at the B.A level, then the professional preparation follows after the attainment of the B.A in the specialized field, where teachers spend one year or more in teaching preparation.

Anderson and Mitchener (1994), mentioned in their review of research on science teacher education that Feinman- Nissmer (1990), surveyed five conceptual orientations for teacher education: the academic orientation, the practical orientation, the technological orientation, the personal orientation, and the critical/social orientation. The Academic Orientation focuses on transmitting knowledge and developing understanding. It emphasizes the subject matter background of the teacher, and favors didactic instruction, teaching how to think, inquiry and the structure of the discipline. In short, it is oriented to developing a strong subject matter background than to learning pedagogical skills. The Practical Orientation focuses on the skills of teaching. It tends to focus on the experience in the classroom as the source of learning to be a teacher. It is commonly associated with various forms of apprenticeship systems of teacher education. The risk in this orientation is that novice teachers will imitate the experienced teacher without reflecting on what is experienced. The Technological Orientation aims at producing teachers that can carry out the tasks of teaching with proficiency. It draws heavily on the results of research on effective teaching and includes the competency based teacher education approach which gained recognition and is getting renewed attention in the current education reform efforts. The Personal Orientation focuses on

the teacher as a learner, and the teacher's own personal development is a central part of teacher preparation. In the Critical/ Social Orientation, the teacher is one who works to remove social inequities and promote democratic values in the classroom. He also fosters group problem solving among students.

On the other hand, Grenfell (1988) identifies three models for teacher training: the Craft Model, the Applied Science Model, and the Foundational Model. In the Craft Model, training is seen as best accomplished by sitting on the job, watching others and absorbing what they do, and slowly being inducted into the skills of the craft. This model is also known as 'apprenticeship', and has predominated up until the Second World War.

The Applied Science Model emerged after the Second World War. Findings from research are used to develop theories of learning which are then applied directly to practice. An example of the application of this model in language teaching is audio- visual/ audio-lingual approaches that became prevalent in the 1960's and 1970's where competence was gained through practice and errors were eliminated by intensive drilling. Teacher training, in this model, meant giving individuals prescribed exercises and technical know-how to enable learners to practice.

The Foundational Model is an amalgamation of the applied academic subjects of sociology, psychology, philosophy and history that formed and developed educational theory from which individuals made practical choices about what and how to teach. This meant giving trainees a thorough grounding in the foundational subjects as a way of developing their teaching skills. This view predominated in the design of teacher training courses in England during the 1960's, 1970's and into the 1980's.

2.5. Guiding Principles in Teacher Education

Northfield and Gunstone (1997) listed six principles in teacher education after two decades of collaborative reflection over their own practice.

Principle1: The teacher has needs and prior experiences, which must be considered in planning and implementing the program. The nature and intensity of these needs should shift throughout the teacher education program.

Principle2: The transition to teacher as a learner of teaching is fundamental and difficult and is facilitated by working in collaboration with colleagues.

Principle3: The teacher is a learner who is actively constructing ideas based on personal experience. This learning must occur in at least the following areas: ideas about the teaching and learning process, ideas in relevant knowledge discipline areas, understanding of self, the social structures within the profession and in school communities.

Principle4: Teacher education should model the teaching and learning approaches being advocated in the program.

Principle 5: Teacher participants should see the teacher education program as a worthwhile experience in its own right.

Principle 6: Teacher programs are by definition incomplete.

Loughran and Russell (1997: 35) refer to five principles that may make the foundation for an approach to teacher training that is itself designed to enhance teachers' capacities to affect their situations. The source of those principles according to the authors (*ibid*), is a set of assumptions about teacher education and those who practice it as teacher educators.

Principle 1: Teacher education programs should model the teaching and learning approaches being advocated and promote the vision of the profession for which they are preparing teachers.

Principle 2: Teacher education must be based on recognition of the prior and current experiences of teachers and encourage respect for teacher knowledge and understanding.

Principle 3: Teacher educators should maintain close connections with schools and the teaching profession. They need to be advocates for the profession and supporters of teachers' attempts to understand and improve teaching and learning opportunities for their students.

Principle 4: Learning about teaching is a collaborative activity and teacher education is best conducted in small groups and networks with ideas and experiences being discussed and shared.

Principle 5: Teacher education involves the personal development, social development as well as the professional development of teachers (Loughran and Russell, 1997: 35).

2.6. Teacher Knowledge

The knowledge of teachers has become a focus of interest to educators and policy makers attracting attention of scholars (Shulman 1986). Education literature reflects this growing focus.

2.6.1 Richards' Studies of Teacher Knowledge (1998)

One of the studies on content in teacher education is that of Richards (1998) who states that there is no general consensus on what content should be for teacher training. He relates it to the variety of disciplinary sources that this field draws on (linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and education). He quotes Freeman (1989: 27)

“Language teacher education has become increasingly fragmented and unfocused.

Based on a kaleidoscope of elements from many different disciplines, efforts to

educate individuals as language teachers often lack a coherent commonly accepted foundation. In its place, teacher educators and teacher education programs substitute their own individual rationales, based on pedagogical assumptions on research, or function in a vacuum, assuming- yet never articulating- the bases from which they work”.

Richards (1998) proposes six domains of content to constitute the core knowledge base of teacher education: theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge. Theories of Teaching are central to how we understand the nature and importance of classroom practices. There are many conceptions of teaching in education and each of these conceptions embodies a different understanding of the essential knowledge and skills teachers need. Educational literature proposes a great number of theories and teacher education must reflect one of those theories. However, teachers are said to hold their own implicit theoretical views of teaching. (Marland 1995:131; cited in Richards 1998) states:

“The explanations given by teachers for what they do are typically not derived from what they were taught in teacher education programs...Rather, the classroom actions of teachers are guided by internal frames of reference which are deeply rooted in personal experiences, especially in- school ones, and are based on interpretations of those experiences”.

Research on the roles of teachers’ principles and beliefs and how these shape their approaches to teaching, suggests that teachers filter much of the content of teacher education programs through their own belief systems (Breen 1991 and Woods 1996; cited in Richards 1998). According to Putorak (1993; cited in Richards 1998), the teachers move from technical rationality (the level where they develop their skills, awareness and knowledge) to critical

reflection where teaching is guided by teachers' personal theory and philosophy of teaching, and is constantly renewed by critical reflection and self- assessment.

Teaching skills are the core competency of a language teacher. Richards (1998) states that the ability to communicate effectively is probably considered the most essential skill for a good teacher. He cites Cooper (1993) commenting:

“Although many variables affect classroom learning, it is generally agreed that the paramount variable is communication. The essence of the teaching – learning process is effective communication for without communication, teaching and learning would be impossible. Thus, one of the core components of teacher education should be speech communication.” (Cooper1993: 473)

As far as language proficiency is concerned, teachers need to attain a certain threshold level of proficiency in a language to be able to teach effectively in it. Activities addressing language proficiency are often a core component of many teacher education programs. (Heaton1987; cited in Richards 1998) identifies the components of language proficiency which are believed to be crucial for any language teacher. He refers to the nature of instructional discourse for language teaching as containing a set of speech acts and functions, and fluency in these is essential for non- native speaker language teachers. - Among the functions he identifies are:

- Requesting, ordering, and giving rules
- Establishing attention
- Questioning
- Repeating and reporting what has been said

- Giving instructions
- Giving and refusing permission
- Warning and giving advice
- Giving reasons and explaining

Inability to perform these functions fluently in English can lead to lack of clarity in giving directions and instructions as well as the need to resort to the mother tongue.

Subject matter knowledge refers to what language teachers need to know about their subject – the specialized concepts, theories and disciplinary knowledge that constitute the theoretical basis for the field of language teaching. Richards (1998) suggests a typical list of areas for a course in both pre- service and in- service teachers:

- Phonetics and phonology
- English syntax
- Second language acquisition
- Curriculum and syllabus design
- Discourse analysis
- Socio- linguistics
- Analysis of teaching methods
- Testing and evaluation

According to Richards (1998), subject matter knowledge refers to what teachers need to know about what they teach, rather than what they know about teaching itself. The core subject

matter knowledge depends largely on the orientation of specialists. Basically, applied linguistics and methodology are often assumed to be the core of the subject matter of language teaching (Freeman, 1989:29; cited in Richards 1998). On the other hand, (Diller; cited in Richards 1998) holds an alternative and more traditional view of the appropriate subject matter of language teacher education:

“The professional teacher of English as a second language needs pedagogical training to be a teacher, and academic training in English language and linguistics to be a professional in our field. But of the two, there is a certain priority for English language and linguistics, for a decision on the nature of language and on the psycholinguistic mechanisms of language acquisition will determine to a large extent our decision on the principles and methods of teaching”. (Diller; cited in Richards and Hino 1983:.318)

Another dimension of subject matter knowledge is the specialized discourse or register used by teachers to talk about their discipline. According to Freeman and (Cazden 1991:7; cited in Richards1998), professional discourse serves two important purposes: the socio- referential function which allows the teachers to make themselves part of the discourse community as they use it, and the cognitive function which enables them to identify aspects of their experience and thus to organize and to develop their conceptions of teaching.

Pedagogical Reasoning and Decision Making focus on the complex cognitive skills that underlie teaching skills and techniques. They are an examination of the specialized thinking and problem solving skills that teachers call upon when they teach. According to Schulman (1987: 15), pedagogical reasoning constitutes the essence of teaching. He refers to it as “the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge he/ she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and

background presented by the students". He further states that the transformation phase of this process consists of:

- Preparation: it refers to the critical interpretation and analysis of texts, structuring and segmenting, development of a curricular repertoire, and clarification of purposes.
- Representation: it is about the use of a representational repertoire that includes analogies, metaphors, examples, demonstrations, explanations, and so forth.
- Selection: choice from among an instructional repertoire that includes modes of teaching, organizing, managing, and arranging.
- Adapting and tailoring to student characteristics: it is the consideration of conceptions, pre conceptions, misconceptions, and difficulties; language, culture and motivations; and social class, gender, age, ability, aptitude, interests, self- concepts and attention.

On the other hand, the nature of the pedagogical decision making is related to the fact that teaching is a dynamic process characterized by constant change. The teacher has therefore to make decisions that are appropriate to the specific dynamics of his lesson. These kinds of decisions are called interactive decisions and they hold a number of components:

- Monitoring one's teaching and evaluating what is happening at a particular point in the lesson.
- Recognizing that a number of different courses are possible.
- Selecting a particular course of action.
- Evaluating the consequences of the choice.

Contextual Knowledge is the understanding of how the practice of language teaching is shaped by the contexts in which it takes place, and the role of societal, community, and institutional factors in language teaching. Among the contextual factors to be considered are:

- Language policies
- Language teaching policies
- Community factors
- Socio-cultural factors
- Type of school or institution
- Administrative practices
- School culture
- School program
- Level of class
- Age of learners
- Learning factors
- Teaching resources
- Testing factors.

2.6.2. Graves' Studies of Teacher Knowledge (2009)

A recent proposal for a language teacher education program is that of Graves (2009). She suggests that the curriculum needs to prepare teachers to have knowledge and skills in six domains –language and linguistics; language acquisition and learning; cultural perspectives; practices and products; teaching methodology; assessment; and professionalism. A variety of

learning experiences – courses, practica, observations and research- are designed to address these domains. “These four learning experiences make up what we commonly think of as the curriculum” (Graves 2009: 5-8).

Based on a research assumption about linguistic competence that states that Language teachers are expected to be proficient in the language they teach Kamhi –Stein(2009), Graves (2009) views that those who are proficient in English, are more competent in the classroom. English teachers should understand how the language works grammatically, socio-linguistically, and pragmatically. Teachers are expected to be able to use their knowledge to prepare sound lessons and give clear explanations. They are not at all expected to be linguists (ibid). Language teachers understand how foreign languages are learned in and out of the classroom; they are able to create a learning environment and design learning activities in the classroom that support and promote language acquisition. In addition, language teachers are knowledgeable about the cultural perspectives, practices and products of the language they teach. They guide learners in understanding the cultural aspects of language, the cultural practices and products, and interpreting cultural differences. Furthermore, language teachers plan and teach lessons that engage learners in actively learning how to speak, listen to, read and write English in meaningful and appropriate ways. They are able to plan for the short and long term, to develop and use a variety of material and activities and to evaluate the effectiveness of their lessons. Language teachers use also a variety of methods to regularly assess and record their learners’ progress and achievement so that they can promote learning and are thoughtful and reflective professionals dedicated to the ongoing improvement of their individual practice and the quality of language teaching in schools.

2.6.3. Peretz's Studies of Teacher Knowledge (2011)

Peretz (2011) studied the theories about teacher knowledge that have been published over a period of twenty years and came up with the following views:

Grossman and Richet (1988) view teacher knowledge as follows: “a body of professional knowledge that encompasses both knowledge of general pedagogical principles and skills and knowledge of the subject matter to be taught”. Grossman and Richet (1988: 54). Subject matter is viewed in Schwab's (1964:54) terms: “In addition to content knowledge, subject matter knowledge encompasses an understanding of the various ways a discipline can be organized or understood as well as the ways by which a discipline evaluates and accepts new knowledge”. Schwab termed it “syntactic knowledge”. Yet, this complex understanding of subject matter is not conceived to be enough for teachers. What is needed is a specialized body of knowledge: “pedagogical content knowledge” Shulman (1986). The advocates of this theory found that occasionally the prospective teachers' won mastery of a subject matter blinded them to potential student difficulties. Actual contact with students forced them to re-examine their subject matter content from a new perspective. They learned to evaluate their subject matter from the perspective of students. This new perspective has far reaching consequences for teacher education. The claim is that as we conceptualize what it is that teachers need to know, special attention needs to be paid to if, where, and how that knowledge base should be addressed in the pre- service curriculum. Teacher knowledge base, as far as subject matter knowledge is concerned, has to include opportunities for re-examining subject matter content from the perspective of student learning. Shulman refers to it as “pedagogical content knowledge”.

Tamir (1991) also addresses subject matter and the knowledge needed for teaching it. He bases his insights on an example of teaching the design and use of practical tests in previous studies. He elaborates the concept of teacher knowledge and suggests the distinction

between professional and personal knowledge of teachers. He defines professional knowledge as “.....that body of knowledge and skills which is needed in order to function successfully in a particular profession” (Tamir 1991:263). In the special case of the teaching profession this knowledge is both general and personal experiential. Personal knowledge of teachers is viewed by Tamir (1991) in terms used by Connelly and Clandinin (1988) “personal practical knowledge is a term designed to capture the idea of experience in a way that allows us to talk about teachers as knowledgeable and knowing persons ...knowledge is not found only “in the mind” , it is “in the body”. And it is seen and found “in our practices” (Connelly and Clandinin, 1988:25). Tamir concludes that “the actual behavior of a person in his or her professional field is a result of interaction between professional and personal knowledge”. Despite that Tamir (1991)) relates to the teaching of the subject matter, he focuses on the “teacher”, his or her knowledge as classroom teacher, or as teacher educator. He suggests that teacher educators possess a unique kind of knowledge- personal- professional. This kind of knowledge is to be demonstrated in the teaching of teacher educators through concrete experiences, which are an effective way of communicating and modeling a useful teaching strategy to novice teachers. Tamir (1991) attempts to integrate a general definition of knowledge in the professions with a view that honors personal experiences and knowledge gained in practice in teaching. He exemplifies how this kind of knowledge might be demonstrated in teacher education programs.

According to (Connelly, Clandinin & He1997: 666), teacher knowledge research is part of a revolution in how educators think about classroom practice This revolution is based on the assumption that “the most important area is what teachers know and how their knowing is expressed in teaching” (Connelly, Clandinin & He 1997: 665).Their focus is on personal practical knowledge. Personal practical knowledge is a term designed to capture the idea of experience that allows us to talk about teachers as knowledgeable and knowing persons.

Personal practical knowledge is in the teacher's past experience, in the teacher's mind and body, and in the future plans and actions. It is a particular way of reconstructing the past, and the intentions of the future to deal with the exigencies of a present situation. In other words, teachers carry in themselves the knowledge required for teaching. Teachers do not apply subject matter knowledge; they create their personal – practical knowledge of teaching. The approach they used to identify teacher knowledge is qualitative- participatory. The data collection procedure involved notes and interviews...., requiring teachers to tell stories about their teaching. Schwab views this approach as leaning toward the 'milieu', beyond the focus on the 'teacher'. It is concerned with understanding how teachers' personal practical knowledge develops in the context of, and influences the environment in which they work. The researchers distinguish between three different contexts: the personal, the in- classroom, and the out of classroom. (Connelly et al 1997: 666) state that "A rich, deeper, more narrative understanding evolves from studying what we term the professional knowledge landscape. To understand teaching, we need to understand it in a complex environment".

Edwards & Ogden (1998) focus on "curriculum subject knowledge". They assume that it is interesting to concentrate on subject matter for teaching instead of subject matter knowledge. Schulman (1986) calls this 'the connection between subject matter and curricular demands. Edwards and Ogden state that "what teachers need to do is... position learners in relation to the curriculum in ways that allow these teachers to provide learners with the contingent cognitive and affective support required to enable them to engage with the discourse of the subject in question. Subject knowledge is consequently not something to be merely applied in classrooms". Teacher subject matter knowledge is identified as dynamic, and evolving in relation to student tasks and learning.

Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) elaborated different perspectives on teacher change. They claim that "the central focus of current professional development efforts most closely

aligns with the ‘change as growth or learning’ perspective. Within this perspective, change is identified with learning, and it is regarded as a natural and expected component of the professional activity of teachers and schools”. Building teacher knowledge is a continuous ongoing process. Teacher change is closely connected to growth of teacher knowledge. According to this theory, four domains encompassing the teacher’s world are connected to the process of teacher change: the personal domain (teacher knowledge, beliefs and attitudes), the domain of practice (professional experimentation), the domain of consequences (salient outcomes), and the external domain (sources of information, stimulus or support). In their work, Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) suggest an interesting model of linking teacher action to teacher knowledge. In their view, changes in teacher action might lead to changes in teacher knowledge and beliefs. Teacher growth becomes a process of the construction of a variety of knowledge types (content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge) by individual teachers in response to their participation in the experiences provided by the professional development program and through their participation in the classroom (Schulman 1986).

Yee Fan Tang (2003) focuses on an important context of the development of teacher knowledge, namely, field experiences. He focuses on student teacher’s construction of teaching self in the three facets of student teaching context, namely the action context, the socio- professional context and the supervisory context. This view is practice- oriented : the practice of teaching, the practice of developing interpersonal relations with diverse participants in school lie and the practice of learning from and with supervisors. Tang investigation in the area led him to conclude that the action context, social- professional context and supervisory context offer different sorts of challenges and support. Further, in teacher education, it is important to offer an appropriate mix of challenge and support to foster the professional growth of student teachers. Note that Tang sees teachers’ developing

knowledge as expressed in the construction and re- construction of a “teaching self”. This joins Connelly and Clandinin’s (1997) approach to the nature of teacher’s knowledge as personal- practical.

Holden & Hicks (2007) have put the following question as a starting point to their investigation: What is it that teachers need to know if they are to help pupils make sense of the world in the early 21st century? The key point is “global education” which they believe “involves learning about those problems and issues which cut across national boundaries and about the interconnectedness of systems – cultural, ecological, economic, political, and technological. Global education also involves learning to understand and appreciate our neighbors with different cultural backgrounds from ours; to see the world through the eyes of others; and to realize that other people of the world need and want much the same things”. Holden and Hicks (2007) state that teacher education cannot be limited to the development of teachers’ competencies in teaching subject matter domains. It requires a more socially conscious conception of teaching and teacher education. The milieu has to play a significant role in the planning and implementation of teacher education that will help young people to make global connections.

Gorski (2009) extends teacher knowledge from a focus on subject matter , and strategies for teaching to include awareness of societal issues, such as multiculturalism. According to this approach, teacher education programs have to educate for teaching in multicultural contexts. With focus on the ways in which multicultural education is conceptualized in course descriptions, course goals, course objectives, and other conceptual and descriptive text, Gorski (2009) found that the majority of the syllabi he examined were dominated by elements of “liberal multiculturalism”. In sum the focus of multiculturalism education concerns what teachers could be and do.

Bultink (2009) takes back to the realm of teachers' practical theories", focusing on the learning process of their students concerning subject matter. Bultink (2009) raises two questions: "do student teachers develop a well- developed practical theory"? and "How do student teachers modify their practical theory"? He came to the conclusion that at the end of their training, student teachers could develop a practical theory which would allow scope for the instruction, interaction and contextual perspectives.

2.7. Teacher Profile in the Curriculum

Research on teacher training has witnessed the emergence of many proposals for teacher training programs. According to Cross (1995), initial teacher education programs should be based upon an ideal teacher profile, if they are to be functional. Attention is to be paid to each country's profile since it will depend on the level of development and the local constraints. Targets in knowledge and behavior should be defined by means of needs analysis which will concern four distinct areas: general level of education, subject competence, professional competence, and attitudes.

In terms of general level of education, teachers should be well educated people, whatever their specialty. Those constructing the profile should designate the minimum all-round level required for acceptance for initial training. A stipulated status (usually marked by a diploma or degree) should be attained in a school, college, or university before entry to an institute of education.

Subject Competence relates to the level of English needed if the language is to be taught effectively. Again, this competence should be attained before trainees enter the teacher education institute so that the training can focus on the teaching of English and related issues without being sub- tracked by language weaknesses.

Professional Competence concerns the ideal teacher's ability to plan and execute lessons, to use a textbook selectively, and to produce valid supplementary materials and tests. It concerns their awareness of current approaches, educational theory, cognitive psychology, class management, skills, etc. These competencies should be the main ingredients of initial training and of any in- service work that follows.

Attitudes are the teachers' beliefs about education, their relationships with students, parents, and colleagues, their sense of humor, their level of vocation, their work ethic, their general motivation and willingness to be involved in extracurricular activities, their personality, and ability to engender enthusiasm, etc. These factors, according to Cross (1995), are more easily caught than taught, and teacher educators are role models in these respects. Even so, formal attention needs to be paid to these variables during training, as they have such powerful effects on the classroom climate and learning.

2.8. The Pre- service Teacher Training Program

2.8.1. Theoretical Assumptions about Pre-Service Teacher Training Programs

Different views have been suggested by specialists in the field in relation to pre-service Teacher Training Programs. The teacher education program is "an interdependent situated set of educational processes and tools whose aim is teacher training (Graves, 2009: 116). Planning an educational program focuses on who will be taught, and how what is learned will be evaluated (ibid). The curriculum must be a dynamic system made out of three main components: educational aims, a plan for achieving those aims and teaching / learning experiences to meet those aims, and evaluation of program effectiveness (Graves, 2009). (Crandall 1991:1; quoted in Graves 2009: 118) states that a language teacher education program "needs to prepare teachers to have knowledge and skills in a variety of domains. It is also required to provide a flexible foundation upon which our graduates can build as they progress through the different stages of their careers". Cross (1995) suggests that the

curriculum should embrace major areas. Note that each of the areas may be determined as a separate syllabus within the curriculum. In a proposal for a curriculum to be piloted at the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Abidjan, he refers to the following areas: pedagogic techniques, materials development, management skills, professional knowledge, applied theory, and lift (knowledge concerning current affairs, global issues, social concerns, the target cultures, etc.). Once the components are identified, Cross (1995) suggests that they need to be sequenced within syllabuses and the relationship and interdependency must be considered. Once agreed upon, the coherent curriculum must be covered effectively.

2.8.2. Planning for a Teacher Training Curriculum

Planning for a teacher training curriculum requires taking decisions about what to teach and how to teach it (content and procedures). Content in teacher training as viewed by Marks (1990: 9), is “a class of knowledge that is central to teachers’ work and that would not typically be held by non-teaching subject matter experts or by teachers who know little of that subject matter”. Before being able to decide what content is worthwhile to be included in the training curriculum, the designer has to go through the fundamental process of planning for any curriculum. Basically, he has to collect data and for the specific purpose of teacher training the sources of information about an appropriate content must be limited. Richards identified four sources of information: expert opinions, task analysis, perceived needs, and current practice. Expert opinions refer to the views of subject matter specialists and other experts as to what it is that prospective language teachers need to know. Task analysis refers to deriving pedagogical content knowledge from an analysis of the situations in which teachers work, the tasks they typically perform on the job, and the kinds of skills they need for performing the task. The other significant sources are the teacher’s perceived needs and current practice in teacher training and what training programs currently offer to teachers. The examination of Richards’ (1998) sources of information reveals that the student teacher’s felt

needs are ignored, or probably limited to the practical side of the curriculum. In other words, the trainees are merely consulted to gather information about their learning styles and strategies. The area of content seems to be external to the learners simply because it is believed that they do not know what is essential for them to know to be teachers. “Using teachers as a source of information about program content raises the tricky question of ‘do teachers really know what they need to know?’ (Richards 1998:6). However, Richards (ibid), reveals that the four sources can provide guidance in setting up new programs and in evaluating how well the profession is meeting its aims.

Pont (2003) views training as a cyclical ongoing process. Made of five distinct phases: Analyzing training needs, planning and designing the training approach, developing the training materials, delivering the training, and evaluating the training.

Training assumes a narrower purpose than education since it prepares individuals for work. In this perspective, the needs of society are privileged over the needs of the individual. The procedures for examining training needs are certainly different from those used in general education. Pont (2003) identifies three main areas in which the analysis may take place; needs at organizational level (where in the organization is training most needed?), needs at occupational level (what is needed in terms of skills, knowledge and attitude so that the duties of various jobs can be effectively and competently carried out?), and needs at individual level (who needs training in what? What is needed by individuals to bridge the competency gap between where they are now and where they should be in terms of skill, knowledge and attitudes?). Pont (2003) seems to provide a student oriented view on needs in a training curriculum. In addition to the perceived needs identified through the analysis of the job, there is an orientation towards the training student felt needs through the process of needs assessment.

Planning and Designing the training approach requires to address the following tasks: defining the learning objectives of the training, deciding on the most appropriate methods of training, deciding on the staffing and support, selecting from a variety of media, deciding upon content, identifying evaluation tools, deciding on pre-requisites and pre-course preparation for the learners. And organizing and sequencing the training.

Graves (2009; cited in Djouima 2011) states that the aim of teacher education is to prepare teachers for successful classroom practice so that their learners in turn, learn to communicate using the language. The language teacher education curriculum must integrate the academic study of language and culture, theories of second language acquisition, teaching methods and assessment, at the same time as exposing student teachers to appropriate models of second language pedagogy and providing them with opportunities to experiment with and get feedback on their own teaching.

For each of her six domains (stated earlier), (Graves 2009: 5- 10) suggests a list of objectives .

Language and Linguistics

As a result of instruction, teacher trainees demonstrate the following competencies:

- are Proficient in speaking, understanding, reading and writing English,
- have strategies for diagnosing and remedying gaps in their own use/ understanding of English,
- have a good understanding of the linguistic system of English and can help their students to understand major features of its grammar, phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon,
- understand and can help their students to understand pragmatic, sociolinguistic and discourse features of English,

- are able to compare and contrast English with the first and other languages of the learners.

Language acquisition and learning

On successful completion of the course(s) teacher trainees

- understand and can explain theories of language acquisition in naturalistic and classroom contexts including the use of target language input, negotiation of meaning, inter-language and the role of errors and meaningful interaction,
- know how to create a supportive learning environment and design teaching strategies that facilitate language acquisition,
- know how to encourage learners to take risks in using the target language,
- can provide feedback to learners that focus on meaning as well as linguistic accuracy,
- can describe the physical, cognitive, and social developmental characteristics of school-age learners,
- can implement a variety of instructional models and activities to address different learning styles and strategies,
- can conduct activities in which students work collaboratively, in pairs and in small groups to facilitate language acquisition.

Cultural perspectives, practices and products

By the end of culture courses, teacher trainees are expected to:

- demonstrate their understanding of cultures that use English as a primary language,
- be able to integrate intercultural perspectives into their lessons
- be able to identify cultural and historical themes, people and texts that are important to understanding the cultures that use English as a primary language,

- be able to integrate texts into language lessons in ways that engage students in the cultural perspectives they represent and improve their language proficiency
- be able to provide their students with strategies for understanding and interpreting cultural differences.

Teaching methodology

The following competencies could be demonstrated by the teacher trainees:

- know how to teach speaking, listening, reading and writing in English,
- know how to teach grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary so that they support the learners' ability to understand, interpret and use English,
- are able to plan lessons that contextualize the content and engage learners in using it meaningfully,
- are able to plan lessons that are interconnected and work together as a series to build toward short- term goals and long- term competencies,
- are able to develop and use a variety of teaching materials and resources,
- understand the principles of language syllabus design and can use that knowledge to critically evaluate and adapt required material,
- are able to adapt teaching approaches to the educational context and individual needs of learners,
- are able to use technology to support and enhance language learning.

Assessment:

Teacher–trainees are trained in assessment procedures and ways of recording learners' progress and achievement.

- They can develop realistic short- term and long- term objectives for learners that serve as the basis for assessment,
- know how to regularly assess students' learning using a variety of assessment procedures including more informal (e.g. monitoring during activities and peer/ self- assessment) and more formal (e.g. tests, presentations and projects),
- can plan and use assessment activities that assess not only what learners know, but also what learners are able to do as speakers, listeners, readers and writers,
- have strategies for learners to assess themselves and their peers so that they are aware of their progress.

Professionalism

Graduates of the teacher education program

- develop skills of reflection on and evaluation of their own practice,
- develop ways to research and improve their own practice,
- are able to engage in professional development activities,
- are able to establish links with other teachers and institutions to improve the quality of English language teaching in schools,
- are able to access up-to- date research and new resources that can support their professional development.

Design and organization of courses in teacher education refers to the integration of theory and practice (Graves, 2009:10). She states: “in a curriculum that successfully integrates theory and practice, courses are organized so that theories are related in some way to what the teacher–trainee will see or do in the classroom; the trainee, in turn, is able to observe and evaluate theory-in-action, to apply theories in micro- teaching experiences and in their teaching practicum, and to assess their appropriateness and effectiveness”. Teachers may feel

unprepared for the classroom and find themselves unable to use the methods and theories they were taught. The reason is that teacher education programs focus on theory in ways that do not link the reality of the classroom or to the practice of teaching (Burns & Richards 2009). Therefore, courses, practica, observations and research should be closely aligned. The objectives should clearly specify what trainees will know by the end of the course and how that knowledge will inform practice. Furthermore, course descriptions should specify how trainees will give evidence of achieving both knowledge and skill objectives (Graves, 2009:10).

The stage of development of the training materials knows the integration of the previous stages into a complete set of materials to assist course delivery and meet the stated learning objectives. Examples of training materials are workbooks, handouts, audio- visual aids, sequencing content, validating new materials, etc...

Curriculum Implementation is the stage when it all comes together. If the planning and preparation have been thorough, the chances of success are vastly increased. Cross (1995), suggests five training modes: the frontal mode, the experiential mode, the workshop mode, the pair/group work mode, and the individualized mode.

The Frontal mode (also called the teacher centered mode) is appropriate for panel work, demonstrations, brainstorming sessions, certain types of discussion, Socratic dialogue, task- based viewing of video lessons, introduction of new materials, etc. Often, trainees can prepare and deliver the presentations and demonstrations instead of the trainer.

In the experiential mode, trainees sample teacher and learner roles in peer teaching and micro teaching situations. The focus is on the process rather than content. Trainees can try out different management techniques and styles, experience test –taking, language learning, working in pairs, in groups, etc.

The Workshop Mode suits materials production, lesson planning, textbook analysis, the design of tests, the development of visual aids, etc.

The Pair/group Work Mode is a matter of involving most of the trainees for most of the time. It is used mainly for specified tasks that usually lead to some form of sharing of opinions.

In the individualized mode, trainees are allowed to take responsibility for their own learning with occasional meetings with the trainers. This is appropriate for classroom research, independent projects, etc. Individualized learning leads to autonomy and decreases over-dependence on the trainers.

Evaluating the Training is a vital part of the cycle but is often neglected. It involves various forms of evaluation: self- evaluation, evaluation of course materials, evaluation of the whole course, and the situation after the course. Pont (2003) suggests a systematic approach to the design of a training course made up of nine stages: the general aim of the course, the key learning objectives, content in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes, the appropriate learning methods, the resources needed to use these methods, the course design, the course presentation, the course evaluation, and finally the course improvement.

Conclusion

Teacher training has received particular attention in recent educational research because of the impact it has on quality learning and consequently on the development of modern communities. It is a special area in learning since it is a matter of preparing people for a job. The training process underpins a set of approaches and principles that must be adapted to specific situations where the development of training curricula is envisaged.

CHAPTER THREE

Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the “Higher Teacher Training School” (ENS)

Introduction

3.1. The Educational System in Algeria

3.2. The Emergence of Teacher Training Schools (Ecoles Normales Superieures)

3.3. The Teacher Training Curriculum at the ENS of Constantine

3.4. Overall Presentation of the Curriculum

3.4.1. Domain 1: Language

3.4.2. Domain 2: Teaching Development and Professionalism

3.4.3. Domain 3: Culture

3.5. The Teaching Methodology Curriculum

3.5.1 Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

3.5.2. Materials Design and Development (MDD)

3.5.3. Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)

Conclusion

Introduction

It is common sense to state that mass education has become a feature of development worldwide. Countries are striving for the education of their populations in a struggle for survival race. As the civilizations have developed and the knowledge/skills base of societies has become more complex, education has become more than important, and among the indicators of progress of any nation is the number of children enrolled in schools.

Among the manifestations of progress in developing countries is the enormous increase of children enrolled in schools (Campbell, Ghalli and Imhoof 1975). Yet, these countries have met an enormous problem, an acute teacher shortage that had led to opt for one of two possibilities: either to rely heavily on enrolling expatriate teachers until local teacher training facilities could be developed to prepare local scholars to become teachers in local schools, or to lower the pre-requisite qualifications required for employment as a teacher (ibid).

Early post-independence Algeria has known similar constraints and challenges. A population in majority illiterate, a ruined economy and a new born nation that had to establish principles and decide on strategies that would lead it to quickly settle in the world scene. Among the urgent concerns was education. A maximum number of children had to join school and as a matter of fact, this had to be done at the expense of the qualitative dimension of the mission. In the absence of a school education background and personnel, non-qualified teachers have been hired. Primary education for instance, had to be attributed to teachers called 'moniteurs' and whose educational level was a primary education certificate (PEC).

Teacher training was not urgent. The educational system within the country had to rely on the recruitment of a teaching staff whose level was just a certificate of end of the level they had to teach. Under such conditions, quality standards had to be questioned and the failure of the school's mission had to be examined. For teachers to be effective, they have to be trained and to train teachers, there should be a reflection over a training policy.

3.1. The Educational System in Algeria

The 1976 ordinance organizes education into five cycles: Preschool, Fundamental (nine years of compulsory education), Secondary, Higher Education, and Vocational training (Ferroukhi 1994). The system could know radical reforms and its contemporary shape reveals that education in Algeria is compulsory and free of charge for nine years beginning age six. This includes five years of Primary School and four years of Middle School. On completion of compulsory education, students undertake the basic education certificate (BEM) and may then choose to enter Secondary education for a further three years, from age fifteen, leading to Secondary School Certificate (Baccalaureate). Two options are then available, either to join higher education or to opt for vocational training. The above state of the art presentation of the Algerian educational system would reveal that responsibility for all levels of education is divided between three ministerial departments: the Ministry of National Education, The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, and the Ministry of Professional Training. The Ministry of National Education has overarching control of education regulation, study programs, teaching methods, examinations, school timetables, personnel and inspections (UK NARIC research report DFE- RR 243a).

3.2. The Emergence of Teacher Training Schools (Ecoles Normales Superieures)

The teacher training schools are higher education institutions whose creation, evolution and missions are closely linked to the needs of the ministry of national education. The year 1964 knew the creation of the first ENS in Kouba, Algiers. Its mission was to train

secondary school teachers and four years of training could lead to a B.A in teaching. ENS, Kouba contributed to the training of teachers still recognized as an elite in the Algerian education (Isambert and Jamati, 1992; cited in Benziane & Senouci 2007). In 1970, the ENSET of Oran was established. It was a period where Algeria has shifted the orientation of education to technological development. The need for teachers specialized in technical subjects gave the 'Ecole Normale superieure en technologie' (ENSET) its technical orientation and at the beginning of its mission , it could rely on scientific and technical support provided by the UNESCO.

The 1984 secondary school reform and the end of expatriate teachers' recruitment led to an urgent need for training teachers. The number of teacher training schools grew to eight (two ENSET and six ENS) Ferroukhi.D, 2001. The role of the teacher training schools was more administrative than pedagogical. The university took charge of academic training while the ENS could only focus on the trainees' contracts and salaries. However, the number decreased to four (three ENS and the ENSET of Oran), due to the reduction of recruitment and the economic malaise that the country has known. In the late 1990's the intention to reform the training system was expressed. Quality has become an important ingredient in teacher training. Initial teacher training started to consider professionalization as a requirement for efficiency. In 1999, the 'new teacher profile' became the concern of the teacher training schools if they wanted to respond to the new educational challenges. Bouzareah and Constantine took charge of training teachers in the humanities (namely: Arabic, French, English, History and Geography, and Philosophy. Kouba specialized in scientific disciplines, while Oran limited the scope of training to Technical streams. Later, in 2010, the training institutions could widen their action and could train teachers in all the streams and profiles that the ministry of education required. Furthermore, two other

institutions emerged (one in Laghouat and the other in Skikda), in order to respond to the lack of teachers, especially in particular subjects (Languages, Maths, and Biology).

The two post-independence decades have known a quantitative dynamic driven by the 'education for all policy'. The training of teachers was also influenced by such a dynamic. For each cycle of the school system in Algeria, there was a strategy for training. The primary school teachers held an end of primary education certificate and were trained on the spot. The assumption was that it was enough for a primary school teacher to be able to read, write and know basics of calculation. Middle school level teachers had to join institutions called 'ITE' (institut de technologie de l'enseignement). According to Ferroukhi 1994, the number of such institutions grew from 26 in 1976 to 51 in 1991/1992. The mission of those institutions was primarily to consolidate subject matter knowledge of the different disciplines meant to be taught by trainees. Note that a grand majority of those trainees have failed to pass the baccalaureate certification. For them, holding a third year secondary school level in addition to two years of training at the ITE were enough requirements to become a middle school teacher. Secondary school teachers however, had to graduate from university if they wanted to become teachers. This corresponds greatly to international standards.

Today, qualification requirements to enter the teaching profession are usually expressed in terms of 'BAC +', corresponding to the length of study post baccalaureate (UK NARIK report). According to the ministerial decree of July 1999, the diploma of basic education teacher (Diplome de professeur de l'enseignement fundamental), a Bac + 3 qualification is required to teach at primary education level. Meanwhile, the diploma of middle school education (diplome de professeur de l'enseignement moyen), a Bac+4 qualification represents the minimum requirement to teach at the middle school. Holders of an undergraduate degree in teaching (licence d'enseignement) can also teach at this level. On the other hand, a Bac+5 qualification is required to teach at the secondary level. Note that the teaching profession can

also be accessed via an undergraduate degree (licence) in an approved subject and a competitive examination or a Master's degree followed by a pass in the examination. Those who enter teaching via the examination also undertake preparatory pedagogical training with the duration, content and organization prescribed by the ministry of national education in order to be recognized as a teacher. Once qualified through a teacher training program, teachers are placed on probation for the first year of employment. During this year, they undertake further practical and spoken assessments (ibid).

Initial teacher training program modules are both theoretical and applied. The program has a compulsory practical component. Specific teacher training occurs in the final year of the four or five year degree or after the professional examination . In theory, half of the time devoted to teacher training is assigned to theoretical study. However, the proportion can be as high as 85% depending on the faculty offering the program (UK UNARIC). Assessment relies on written examinations to test knowledge of pedagogical theory. The teaching ability is assessed through observed practice.

The approach in teacher training in Algeria places emphasis on knowledge acquisition and is teacher centered. The ministry of education stipulates that the objectives of education are to develop reasoning and judgment skills as well as learner autonomy. According to national guidelines, all teacher training institutes' programs should develop a trainee teacher's knowledge and a variety of teaching strategies and the ability to select and adapt these according to educational needs or context (ibid).

3.3. The Teacher Training Curriculum at the ENS of Constantine

The ENS of Constantine was established in 1981 to respond to the demand for training teachers for the eastern and southeastern part of Algeria. In its early years, it has adopted the university curricula. The student teachers attended courses at the university but had to undertake a practical training period at the end of three years (from 1985 on, it had become

four years). The graduates could hold a Bachelor of Arts (B.A) in teaching. The mission of the ENS was limited in the management of the contracts and the organization of the end of the cycle practical training. Later, in 1999, the first teacher training curricula had to be developed to start the new autonomous mission of training teachers.

The teacher training curriculum of English is the product of fourteen years of ongoing development, evaluation and reform. From 1999 up to 2013, the curriculum has been a matter of three versions seeking to respond to the major aim and policy of the teacher training school: quality training.

The first proposal for the training curriculum dates from 1999/2000. It was the period where training has been re-conducted and allotted to the four ENS available in Algeria. It was a matter of reflection over the overall shape and content of the curriculum. Done in joint efforts with the ministry of education, the output was an overall curriculum format. Furthermore, the curriculum development team has reached a consensus about the distribution of curriculum components over theory and practice (50% theory and 50% practice). It is to be noted that no needs analysis has been undertaken. Decisions about the curriculum components emerged from the developers experience and knowledge about what trainees needed to know to become teachers. Most of the elements included in the curriculum emerged from common practice in universities, and available literature about teacher training experiences elsewhere. In the year 2000, the first draft of the curriculum is agreed on. Its implementation started effectively and over time, it has shown to be too demanding. Like all educational curricula, the curriculum was ambitious by nature and reflected the intentions of its developers to teach many things at once. Besides, reactions from the part of teachers and students have revealed that some particular areas in the curriculum overlapped and redundancies could be identified.

In 2007, the ENS decided to reflect over reform and in 2008 a modified proposal was presented to the various partners including the ministry of education. The publication of the new curriculum received consent from the different parts and its implementation started in 2010. Still, needs of the students have not been assessed in a formal way. Teachers reports about some trainees' concerns expressed during informal discussions were the only source of information about the trainees' needs.

In 2011, the ENS teachers have worked on a proposal for a curriculum based on the LMD format. The purpose was to adapt the existing curriculum to the demands of the new higher education policy. So far, in September 2013, another version of the curriculum amended by the ministry of higher education became what is known today as the national curriculum for teacher training.

3.4. Overall Presentation of the Curriculum

The teacher training curriculum is articulated around a three year common core followed by one year for the PEM profile and two years for the PES. It is based on the assumption that for a teacher training curriculum to be successful, it has to cover three main domains: language, teaching development and professionalism, and culture (Djouima 2011). In addition the curriculum should include cross-disciplinary subjects, French and ICT. Research as a learning experience is included in the curriculum to adapt the trainees to the new trend in teacher training, that of developing reflective teachers who are able to adapt to the changing demands of their profession. The following table is a year by year presentation of the training modules.

Table 3.1: Training Modules (Adapted from the Curriculum Report (ENSC 2008))

1 st year common core	2 nd year common core	3 rd year common core	4 th year MSE Profile	4 th year SE profile	5 th year SE profile
Writing	Writing	Writing & grammar	Applied linguistics	Applied linguistics	Applied linguistics
Grammar	Grammar	Speaking, listening &phonetics	TEFL	TEFL	Syllabus design
Speaking & listening	Speaking & listening	Linguistics	Materials design & development	Materials design &development	Pedagogical trends
Reading techniques	Reading techniques	TEFL	Textbook evaluation & syllabus design	Textbook evaluation & syllabus design	Legislation scolaire
Phonetics	Phonetics	Pedagogical trends & educational systems	Educational psychology	Psychology of the child &adolescent	Training
Introduction to linguistics	Introduction to linguistics	Communication & attitude preoccupations	British & American literature	British & American literature	Issues in culture
Introduction to western civilization & literature	Introduction to western civilization &literature	Introduction to psychology	British & American civilization	British & American civilization	African civilization & literature
French	French	British & American literature	African civilization & literature	African civilization & literature	Extended essay
ICT	ICT	British & American civilization	Legislation scolaire	Research methodology in Education	
		ICT	Training		

3.4.1. Domain 1: Language

Teachers of English as a second or foreign language need to be competent in their field area (language). According to Murdoch (1994: 258; quoted in Burns & Richards 2009), “a teacher’s confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of language competence”. In

the teacher training curriculum at the ENS of Constantine, there is general agreement over the importance of language mastery. For an English teacher to gain confidence, he has to develop the following areas of knowledge and skills:

- Speaking, understanding, reading and writing English
- understanding the linguistic system of English together with the major features of grammar, phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon.
- understanding pragmatic, sociolinguistic and discourse features of English (Graves 2009).

The domain of language dominates the three years of common core. At the ENS of Constantine, the trainees consolidate their knowledge of the language and about the language before they learn about teaching. 66.66% is the share of language in the training curriculum. The rate decreases in the following years due to the introduction of teaching subjects (Djouima 2011).

3.4.2. Domain 2: Teaching Development & Professionalism

Issues on teaching start in the third year of the teacher training curriculum. It is represented in many modules that introduce the trainees to teaching objectives, goals, theories and approaches, teaching the skills, assessment, learning styles, and strategies (TEFL syllabus items). In addition, trainees are introduced to the design and evaluation of syllabi and materials, psychological theories and principles about learning and learners' development, social psychology, educational systems and pedagogical trends. Professionalism is addressed through the module "legislation scolaire" and the extended essay (curriculum report ENSC, 2008). This domain is addressed in the third year, representing 40% of the whole curriculum. The rate increases in the fourth year (55.55%) and (62.5%) in the fifth year (Djouima 2011).

3.4.3. Domain 3: Culture

The teacher training includes not only the linguistic features of English and how these may be taught and learnt, but its social and cultural position in the world, and its subsequent

impact on the lives of both teachers and language learners (Djouima, 2011: 147). Learning about the target culture guides learners in understanding the social aspects of language, the cultural practices and products, and interpreting cultural differences (Graves 2009). There is a noticed prominence of study of literature and civilization and a lack of cultural and intercultural perspectives. However, the domain is available throughout the five years of the curriculum.

3.5. The Teaching Methodology Curriculum

The examination of Graves' domains and list of objectives for teaching methodology allows to consider three main modules in the teacher training curriculum of Constantine. They are namely TEFL, materials design and development and syllabus design and textbook evaluation. Since these particular modules are the subject of this research, a detailed examination of their respective aims, objectives, content, teacher/ learner roles, as well as the types of teaching and learning that take place in those courses is required. The information provided is the researcher's own reading of the curriculum making makes use of an adapted model of Brown's (1995) systematic approach to designing and maintaining language curriculum. The model's components articulate around six elements: needs analysis, approach aims, and objectives, testing, materials and media, teaching (content, activities, time, teacher/learner roles, and evaluation.

3.5.1. Brown's Model (1995)

The choice of Brown's model in our interpretation of the curriculum content is justified by its suitability to language teaching curriculum design and evaluation contexts (Brown 1995). In addition, the model's elements cover the conventional frame for curriculum development and evaluation. For Brown, it is considered as "an accepted system used in educational technology and curriculum design circles" (Brown 1995: 19). Details have been added to the framework in order to identify more precise analysis standards. These are mainly

at the level of the second and the fifth elements: objectives and teaching. It is recognized that specific objectives derive from aims and the latter reflect a theoretical assumption about teaching known generally as an approach. Furthermore, teaching is examined according to content, activities, time, and teacher/learner roles variables. It is assumed that those variables are important factors for successful teaching. Content must fit the students' needs and be consistent with the overall aims and objectives; activities also must fit the targeted purposes; time must be sufficient to cover the intended content; and the teacher's/learner's roles must be identified to reflect the approach principles and match with the theoretical view about teaching.

There is general consensus in curriculum development literature over the importance of needs analysis. The gathered information in the form of interests, expectations, attitudes and learning styles and strategies could be the ground for sound objectives and appropriate content. The development of teacher training curricula should not be an exception. It is necessary for the development team to consider both the trainees felt needs and their perceived needs. The latter should originate from a typical teacher profile represented in current teacher training practice.

The approach, aims and objectives are essential components in curriculum design and evaluation. The purposes from a course and the targeted outcomes give a justification to its existence and mirror its educational orientations. In the context of teacher training, this component is seen fundamental. The overall philosophy behind training is what is generally referred to as approach. Once an approach is adopted, the curriculum will articulate around its principles. In the teacher training literature, there are many options to select among. It would be significant to identify whether the curriculum approach is competency based, holistic, attitude adjustment or any other to be able to determine the focus and the training strategy. Within this frame, the identification of an adopted approach is also an essential item. In

addition, according to Graves, 2009, the guiding principles and aims are the foundation of the curriculum. The guiding principles articulate the overall purpose and approach to language teacher education and must be responsive to the social and educational context of the curriculum. They should derive from sound educational theory. It is also required that they are appropriate for the teachers who are being trained and the learners they are being trained to teach. On the other hand, the aims (goals) or competencies, articulate what teacher trainees should know and be able to do by the end of their training so that they are prepared to teach. They must provide a comprehensive profile of a teacher's knowledge and skills upon completing the program.

Tests are a crucial element in the process of curriculum development. Not only do they unify a curriculum and give it a sense of cohesion, purpose and control, but drive a course by shaping the expectations of students and their teachers (Brown 1995). Within a curriculum, designers should consider the kinds of tests that fit the overall purposes.

In the case of the teacher training curriculum under study, it is expected that it provides information about the way it seeks to evaluate the learners. It should inform whether the assessment is in the form of essays, continuous assessment, research presentations or any other test type. It would make sense to inform the participants (teachers and trainees) in case the trainees' classroom performance as teachers is assessed.

There is no doubt that materials are important for teacher trainers. Like any language teachers, they need to make use of materials in order to maximize the likelihood of intake (Tomlinson, 1993). They can make use of published textbooks or write their own course books to respond to the specific needs of their learners. They can provide hand-outs and research articles but also rely on the network information technology, today available, as a support for their teaching. Evaluating materials would focus on their nature (adapted/

adopted) and characteristics (appropriate to the students' level, interests and cultural background...).

Teaching, as stated earlier, is examined in terms of content, activities, time, and teacher/ learner roles.

Content can derive from various sources: The analysis of students' needs, the goals and objectives of the course, other similar courses suggested elsewhere, and the developer's own perception of which content should best be selected for a particular group of learners. The selected content should respond to the criteria of self- sufficiency, significance, validity, interest, utility/ relevance, learn ability, and feasibility. Scope and sequence should be regarded as well. Furthermore, it should be made clear, in the syllabus about the role of the teacher, the role of the learner, as well as the types of activities that the course should exemplify what Richards (2001) refers to as 'course rationale'. The present study relies on these criteria to analyze the teaching methodology curriculum.

A typology of activities within a curriculum would provide its users with possibilities to run their classes. It is not necessary that they are to use them as they are. Contexts and needs may vary and then the trainers have the possibility to use the activities that fit best their situations. In other words, the types of activities will depend on the class size, the level of the learners, their interests, the nature of the subject taught ... Yet, teacher training favors a kind of activities over others. For instance, workshops and micro teaching are regarded as relevant activities especially for the teaching methodology curriculum. Therefore, the curriculum should inform about the activities suggested in the different syllabi.

Time is a very important ingredient to consider in the development of a curriculum. Content is selected on the basis of the time parameter. In some situations, modules are allotted enough time to cover the syllabus components and even extend to practical activities that have

to do with preparing students to the profession they are working forward. In others, teachers need to opt for extra- sessions to be able to cover the syllabus content. Within this framework, time is an essential item to investigate. Given that the training curriculum articulates the modules content around time loads, the examination of the teaching methodology curriculum will focus on time sufficiency. In other words, does the time load attributed to each module under study allow for the coverage of the content listed in the curriculum?

It is appropriate that a curriculum attributes roles to the teachers who will execute it as well as to the learners for whom it has been developed. However, the roles will depend largely on the adopted approach, the objectives, the activities, the nature of content as well as the learners' preferred styles and strategies. A coherent curriculum takes into account all those factors before determining the roles of each participant. In the context of teacher training, it is to be noted that the determination of the roles in the curriculum will provide teacher trainers and mainly the novice ones with options they can select among to run their classes. Such data would about the curriculum account for its validity.

The evaluation of the curriculum content should be a matter of an ongoing process where the curriculum team reconsiders basic components like the objectives, the changing needs of trainees, the overall educational approach and methods as well as the newly developed materials. In other words, the curriculum should be subject to constant up- dating.

3.5.2. Adaptation of Brown's Model

Though Brown' original checklist includes six elements, the curriculum document is examined against a checklist made out of eleven components. Indeed, items two and five are examined in terms of inevitable related links between Brown's factors and the added variables. It is difficult, for instance to evaluate the curriculum objectives without referring to the approach and the aims. Besides, teaching as a broad element, should be examined in terms of variables like content, activities, time, and participants' roles. The following table

articulates the elements against which the teaching methodology curriculum is examined. The curriculum syllabi are checked to tick the available elements of the framework.

Table 3.2: Checklist for Curriculum Components Identification

Component	TEFL	MDD	TESD
Needs analysis			
Approach			
Aims	√	√	√
Objectives		√	
Testing		√	
Materials and Media	√	√	√
Content	√	√	√
Activities		√	
Time	√	√	√
Teacher/ learner roles		√	
Evaluation			

As provided in Table 3.2, the teaching methodology syllabi do not show similar elements. It may be assumed that they have been designed by different people/ teams. Each module would reflect the designers' experience and knowledge about syllabus design. The three modules that make up the teaching methodology curriculum are to be complementary in essence. Consequently, designers should have worked in collaboration to address this complementarity. Yet, the curriculum document does not signal coordination in this respect. The examination of Table 3.2 shows that there is a discrepancy in terms of the addressed

design model elements. MDD is the module which reflects most of the framework components (eight out of eleven); whereas both TEFL and TESD address the same four elements. We note that some essential parameters are not represented in the curriculum document. These are namely needs analysis, the approach and evaluation. Indeed, none of the modules indicates that these are among its concerns. Besides, the three modules describe their respective syllabi in terms of aims, materials and media, content, and time. This may be justified by the fact that the designers consider those elements as the most important or mean to allow flexibility to the curriculum in terms of needs analysis, approach and objectives, and evaluation. Actually, the designers may concentrate on their perceptions about the nature of teaching as a profession when examining students' needs. Furthermore, they may consider that the curriculum should be adaptive to the demands of the educational environment in terms of approach and objectives. Besides, evaluation may be carried out as an on-going process. Yet, the absence of the elements in the curriculum is not necessarily justified by the designer's lack of understanding of the curriculum design process. The designers may tend to hold an oral justification and explanation for their syllabi but have simply missed to record it. Note that evaluation generally leans on records rather than on oral descriptions. In Table (3.3), a further numerical representation of the framework's elements is calculated for each module.

Table 3.3: Numerical Representation of the Framework Elements per Module

Module	N	%
MDD	08	72.72
TEFL	04	36.36
TESD	04	36.36

As seen in Table 3.2, MDD reflects 72.72%% of the framework's element. Besides, TEFL and TESD address 36.36% each. The results reveal that the designer(s) of MDD as a module is/are knowledgeable about the curriculum design process whereas it is assumed that the designers of the two other modules still consider it as matter of lists of content.

3.5.2.1. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

Teaching English as a Foreign Language is a module taught over two years in the curriculum: third and fourth year. It is common practice to find this module in almost all the teacher training curricula worldwide. Students entering a teacher training college certainly expect to learn how to teach, how to prepare lessons, and how to assess learners.

The syllabus does not mention any needs analysis procedure. At no point it states that the content it suggests is based on the results obtained from the assessment of the trainees needs. We might deduce that the syllabus developers have made their choice on the basis of what they perceive the trainees will need to learn so that they can later on succeed in their tasks as teachers.

The TEFL syllabus does not mention the approach required to be adopted by teacher trainers. It is assumed that it is left to the trainers 'appreciation to select the most appropriate approach. A recommended approach seems to be significant particularly for novice teacher 'trainers' who may themselves be in need to acquire the necessary skills to act as trainers and not merely as teachers of a course subject. The following aims are listed in the syllabus document;

- To introduce basic concepts in TEFL to provide teacher- trainees with tools that would help them in their future career
- To explain thoroughly the basic foundations of classroom tasks and activities, the use of appropriate teaching/learning steps.

The aims that the TEFL syllabus provides are very general. Their specification could appear in the objectives that need to be precise enough to allow for their interpretation. However, there is a total absence of objectives in the syllabus. The course description is a mere list of topics and sub-topics that provide no evidence on the classroom processes which would confirm whether those lists of content contribute to the teaching methodology training or not, nor do they determine how these processes are undertaken.

The TEFL syllabus does not provide any indications about assessment procedures. It is probably left to the appreciation of teacher trainers to decide about testing procedures taking into account the objectives of the syllabus (in case they are pre-determined) and how best they are achieved.

Except the middle and secondary school textbooks, the TEFL syllabus does not mention any other type of materials or media. No list of references is suggested and no resources are recommended. Trainers seem to be confronted to the difficult task of summarizing useful readings as well as developing their own materials and selecting the appropriate media to teach. The quality and reliability of such lectures is questioned especially when the trainers heavily rely on the net in the absence of available specialized textbooks.

TEFL is a module taught over two years in the curriculum: third and fourth year. It is common practice to find this module in almost all the teacher training curricula worldwide. Students entering a teacher training college certainly expect to learn how to teach, how to prepare lessons, and how to assess learners. According to Graves (2009), TEFL courses should be grounded in the trainees' teaching context. They should be able to observe actual classes to see essential teaching skills such as how error correction or learning styles are addressed. They should have opportunities to plan and teach lessons in which they try out

what they are studying, (e.g. language games), and then be given focused opportunities to evaluate their effectiveness and ways to adapt them to their contexts.

The fourth year teacher training TEFL module is allotted one hour and a half per week to cover the following areas of content:

- Teaching foreign language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing + the integration of the skills)
- Foreign language teaching approaches (synthetic, analytical, eclectic, CBA)
- Information processing activities (intake, rehearsing, transfer, problem solving) for the SE profile and Information exercises (drilling, modification, practice, use) for the MSE profile.
- Teaching vocabulary
- Teaching grammar
- Teaching pronunciation
- Language games
- Learning styles and strategies
- Classroom management
- Group division
- Teacher feedback.

The utility of the TEFL course is unquestioned. It makes a direct link to the schools in which trainees will teach. The curriculum document reads: “The course should be illustrated by practical extracts from Algerian English textbooks the trainees will use in the future”. However, it does not describe how these links are done in practice. Is it through workshops, classroom observation, group or pair work? The list includes relevant topics that are essential to the tasks the trainees are expected to perform to undertake their job as teachers. The order of topics allows for learn ability to be achieved. The progress appears to be smooth, coherent

and logical. It is expected to be a continuation of what learners have already acquired in the third year. In fact, according to the curriculum document, each topic recycles former knowledge through recall of third year issues. However, there is no way, in the curriculum document, to check whether the trainees' needs as far as preferred learning styles and strategies are addressed or not. The course description is limited to the aim behind the course. With regard to that, the list of content seems to be in harmony with the stated aim. No reference is provided to the theory/ practice distribution of focus. It is only mentioned that "at least two tutorials are required to illustrate practical matters". Would two tutorials be enough?

The teacher trainer's role is to transmit the theories listed in the syllabus. His role is determined by his/her own experience in teaching, his/her training and the orientations and recommendations in the syllabus. In the case of the TEFL course under study, there is no orientation as to the role of the teacher (trainer). However, in addition to transmitting knowledge, s/he is expected to assign groups for the examination of textbooks and animate the groups' work during the workshop sessions. On the other hand, the syllabus does not inform about the trainees' role(s). Except 'matching theory and practice through the examination of Algerian textbooks they will use in the future' there is no explicit reference to how they should do it. Nonetheless, the trainees recall former knowledge as a foundation for new learning. They have to comprehend and analyze the theories so that they can justify and evaluate their application in the Algerian educational context. However, even the application takes place at the level of materials. No indication is provided as to whether the trainees have the opportunity to address, and verify the learnt theories in real teaching contexts or even through micro- teaching.

Evaluation is another neglected important component. How would the development team examine the quality of their efforts in the absence of evaluation criteria and standards? It is essential review the worth of the stated objectives and the revision of content selection and

organization. However, as stated earlier, the objectives of the syllabus are absent. On what basis would the evaluation lean? On the aims? Or, on the lists of topics? The questions remain posed so far.

3.5.2.2. Materials Design and Development (MDD)

Materials Design and Development is taught in the fourth year. Language teaching literature has revealed that materials development is an important skill needed by teachers and that by engaging in materials development teachers can help themselves both to understand and apply theories of language learning and to achieve personal and professional development (Tomlinson 2003: 445). Accordingly, the subject deserves its place in the curriculum. If it achieves its objectives, it will shift the orientation of teachers from mere repetition of guidelines and principles to reflection over their practice and adaptation of content to the varying demands of their classes.

The MDD syllabus also does not mention needs analysis. The case is probably similar to the TEFL syllabus where it is believed that the objectives and content are built on the syllabus designers' perceptions of the trainees' needs.

The syllabus does not mention the approach it seeks to adopt. Would it be possible to give the opportunity to trainers to select an appropriate approach? What are the underlying beliefs and principles? These questions persist in the absence of a theoretical approach behind the whole training in general and the MDD syllabus in particular. However, the MDD syllabus reads the following aims:

- To clarify the nature and types of teaching materials and media, their quality and adaptation to classroom use, their authenticity, complexity, and learn ability.

- The trainees are expected to be able to analyze existing language teaching materials and to adapt them to learners' levels and teaching situations, and also to be able to select, design and develop language teaching materials.

Those aims are accompanied by the following list of objectives:

By the end of the course, the trainees will be able to:

- adjust the materials to the learners' level, time, objectives and classroom settings,
- In pairs or small groups, students apply the previous chapter to analyze and evaluate some selected materials (files/ sequences/ units) from the Algerian textbooks. Their work is to be presented in front of the class for feedback (materials types, objectives, active instruction, and correlation with learning procedure and outcome)
- In pairs or small groups (individually in small classes) students select authentic materials (not used in textbooks of language teaching) and design them for classroom use: They are supposed to:
 - plan the level and objectives, analyze the prominent functions and notions, determine a significant number of activities following a teaching/learning procedure,
 - develop the activities expressing the instructions (in a consecutive way) and all the items (exhaustively in a significant and relevant way)
 - distinguish the phases of using these activities according to their general plan (warm- up, presentation for comprehension/ listening and reading activities, practice activities for language mastery, and skill building/ integration in speaking and writing activities
 - write a report that is presented to the class if time available. Otherwise, it is printed and given to the teacher for evaluation.

The examination of the MDD course objectives suggests that they are clearly stated. They are measurable; the outcome of learning is expressed in terms of trainees' performance on the described tasks. Furthermore, the objectives are listed with reference to Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives. Knowledge, comprehension, application, synthesis, analysis are levels addressed in the MDD curriculum. The objectives show clearly that the trainees are expected to learn about and comprehend (knowledge + comprehension) materials types and criteria for their development, apply the knowledge (application) to analyze and evaluate materials (analysis and evaluation). Furthermore, the objectives are consistent with the aims of the course and the overall training aims listed earlier as well.

The syllabus provides hints as to what type of tests are adopted in MDD. The workshops and project works are assessed by the teacher but are also presented in the classroom. Furthermore, the official regulation dictates that the trainees take two -end of semester- examinations. According to the course description, we may detect that those examinations tackle very practical matters that require the application of the acquired knowledge to the design or evaluation of suggested materials.

The syllabus does not refer to materials and media to be used in MDD except the official textbooks in use in middle and secondary schools. However, the nature of the subject requires the use of a variety of materials and media for the purpose of adaptation. It would have been very useful if the syllabus could suggest some reliable resource books, workbooks and even websites and teacher forums so that the trainees could consult them for the sake of materials development.

The MDD syllabus covers the following areas of content:

- Materials types (oral/ aural, reading, audio- visual)

- Learning objectives (Bloom's taxonomy), styles and strategies (cognitive, affective, social and meta-cognitive strategies), lesson plan/ procedure and activity type.
- Criteria of materials analysis and evaluation (adoption, adaptation)
- Materials analysis and evaluation
- the project: Materials design
- Evaluation of materials

The content above is distributed over three terms and holds three main objectives: familiarizing the learners with the process, materials analysis and evaluation, and materials design. The shift is from theory to practice. The trainees are first equipped with the necessary theoretical background before they could engage in the process of materials selection and evaluation. According to Tomlinson (2003), materials development should be the product of theory, teachers' cognition and teachers' experience informing each other. The teacher's role is to combine the three elements together before he can make use of materials in his classroom. Cross- disciplinary communication with the other courses in the curriculum is therefore a necessity. For instance, theoretical understanding of the effectiveness of the different ways of teaching grammar , the four skills, learners' styles and preferences, and even the situational analysis of the context where learning is likely to take place, will allow the teacher to take right decisions as far as materials are concerned. The MDD content demonstrates such pluri-disciplinary dimension. In the theoretical part of the course, there is a reference to lesson planning, objectives, learning styles and strategies (areas tackled either previously in the third year, or simultaneously in the fourth year TEFL). In the two other parts, design and evaluation, there is still reference to TEFL but also to TESD mainly when addressing selection and evaluation of materials according to specific criteria with a purpose of addressing the specific needs of the learners. On the whole, the MDD course content matches clearly with the pre-established aims and objectives. It demonstrates the developer(s)

awareness of the principles of course design since most of the criteria for selection and organization are verified.

Besides, the examination of the syllabus reveals that the MDD class is a workshop where trainees, in pairs or small groups, assess, develop, adapt or adopt materials. We note that the workshop is one of the most useful and practical modes in teacher training. Engaging the trainees into tasks gives sense to what they are learning. Furthermore, it allows them to negotiate possibilities, solve problems, take decisions and above all reflect on them. These are believed to be cornerstones in modern task- based teacher training curricula.

Three hours per week seems to be the right load for MDD. Most of class time is to be spent in workshops and practical activities. The other alternative would appear insufficient if the syllabus is really meant to be practical.

According to the syllabus, the MDD teacher is a coach. He first provides his learners with the necessary knowledge before they could engage in design and evaluation activities. He is a dynamic guide who supervises the workshops and assigns tasks to be realized by the trainees. His evaluation of the projects provides feedback and consolidation of the course components. On the other hand, the syllabus states that the trainees are expected to be able to analyze existing language teaching materials from Algerian textbooks and adapt them to learners' levels and teaching situations. In addition, they should be able to select, design and develop language teaching materials as their own contribution. The trainees are active participants. They apply the knowledge to evaluate and analyze some selected materials from the textbooks. They also participate with their peers in the selection of authentic materials and design them for classroom use. Around two third of the course is learner- centered. The trainees engage immediately in activities once they have been exposed to theoretical knowledge which is tackled during one term over three.

Similar to TEFL, the MDD syllabus does not refer to evaluation, though an essential step in the process of curriculum development. Probably the reason lies in the absence of an evaluation tradition in the Algerian educational practice.

3.5.2.3. Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)

Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design is a module taught in the fourth year for the middle school profile, and in the fourth and fifth year for the secondary school profile.

TESD is the syllabus where it is more likely to observe the steps of curriculum development. Unfortunately, needs analysis, one of the content components is not taken into account.

The syllabus does not mention the adopted approach. It would be surprising to find it especially in the absence of the same criterion in the two other modules. However, the syllabus mentions the following aims:

- To familiarize the trainees with a process that takes place before class (syllabus design) and approach its basic concepts (planning, design, implementation, evaluation, renewal)
- To familiarize the trainees with textbook evaluation techniques and procedures that are believed to be essential in teacher training

The aims as mentioned are too broad to allow for the selection of content, especially in the absence of objectives. Again, this module is the one expected to recognize the importance of objectives in any syllabus.

The syllabus does not mention testing procedures. Whether formative or summative, assessing theoretical knowledge or practical concerns are absent useful data in the document.

Except the textbooks meant by evaluation (middle and secondary school English textbooks), the syllabus does not provide any reading list or suggested materials and/or media

to be used in the course. The teachers may rely on the notes they prepare as support for their lectures and provide the students with hand-outs or simply dictate summaries of the content they judge useful for trainees.

As stated earlier, the course is made out of two parts: syllabus design and textbook evaluation.

Part one:

- Syllabus design (definitions)
- Planning syllabus design (needs analysis, situational analysis, the ideology of the curriculum, setting syllabus aims and objectives)
- Content selection and organization (the rationale, entry/ exit levels, selection of content, scope and sequence).
- Syllabus types (grammar- based, lexical, functional, situational, topic- based, skills based, task- based, competency based). (For the Middle School Education profile)
- Syllabus Evaluation (For the Middle School Education profile)
- Syllabus Renewal (For the Middle School Education profile).

Part two :Textbook evaluation

- Theoretical framework (defining the textbook, evaluation purposes, evaluation procedures)
- Practice: Analysis of textbooks in use in the Algerian schools.

We note that the chapters meant for the Middle School Education profile are to be tackled in the fifth year for the Secondary Education profile.

The order in which the list of content appears seems to be logical and coherent. It is exactly the same organisational pattern as the one of curriculum development. It would be irrelevant for instance to start the course with evaluation and to postpone planning for course design. The presentation of the TESD course would allow for learnability and consistency. However, it would require some pre-requisite knowledge in TEFL, Psychology, Sociology,

Pedagogy and even Linguistic and Applied Linguistics theory from the part of the trainees. Introducing this module in the fourth year seems to be justified (since the trainees are exposed to those pre-requisites in the previous year). Furthermore, the course content is consistent with the overall aims of training and those set for it. It would have been more appropriate to find objectives in the curriculum document. They would have allowed for the evaluation of the content to check whether they are realistic or not, but also to have a clear idea on how they are meant to be attained. The absence of objectives in the curriculum document would allow teacher trainers to misinterpret the suggested list of topics. Unless they work in a team and coordinate to state objectives, each one of them would deal with the course the way s/he judges appropriate. Still further, the list of content suggests that providing the trainees with just theories on syllabus design and textbook evaluation would not be enough to reach the expected purposes. Except for textbook evaluation, the curriculum document does not refer to any kind of practice. It is unclear how teacher trainers should manage the module. The course aim states that trainees are familiarized with the processes of syllabus design and textbook evaluation but no indication on how they could be so is available.

Because the course does not provide objectives, describing the types of learning/teaching activities would be merely a matter of expectations. Precise information from the teachers and the trainees seem to be necessary. Obtaining such data requires another tool of evaluation and information gathering: the questionnaire.

Three hours per week for the middle school profile and one hour and a half for the secondary school profile seems to be an appropriate load for the syllabus especially that the latter category of trainees are exposed to the syllabus in their fifth year.

The trainers' role is also absent in the curriculum. Except the instructors' role in the theoretical part, there is no reference to what role they are supposed to have. Depending on the trainers' qualification, experience, and skills, we may imagine different roles for the

TESD teacher: an instructor, a coach, a workshop manager, a supervisor or a guide. This variety of roles would also suggest various scenarios for the TESD class. Besides, the curriculum does not refer to the trainees' role in the TESD syllabus. However, the examination of the list of topics suggests that they have to experiment the processes to which they are exposed. Learning about needs analysis for instance, would require that the trainees collect information about learners in middle or secondary schools, analyse those information and use the data later on to decide on content selection and organization. It is assumed that the trainees are made familiar with two very important documents they will use to teach; the curriculum for the Middle/Secondary school and the textbooks in use in those contexts. Still, the role of the trainees is unclear. It all depends on the trainer's approach and pre-set objectives.

The module teaches evaluation and does not mention whether it implements it or not. In the case it does, the kind of evaluation is still questioned: is it formal or informal? Formative or summative? Qualitative or quantitative? These questions may find answers in the teachers' questionnaire.

Conclusion

Research in the field of teacher training in Algeria is very limited. Little interest has been devoted to this crucial issue in education. For any educational system that is concerned with quality assurance in education, training teachers should be a major priority. Indeed, today a rise of consciousness and a growing interest in the field of teacher training in Algeria is noticed. This is recognized through the growing demand for training, and particular attention policy makers are showing to this area through the increase of training schools and the focus on quality programs.

The teaching methodology curriculum document reflects the skills and experience of its designers; the more skilled and experienced they are, the more curriculum patterns are

available. The verification of Brown's (1995) elements has confirmed the absence of clear statements about essential patterns in the curriculum format. Most of the curriculum syllabi provide only few elements from Brown's model. These are namely aims and mere lists of topics and sub- topics, in addition to information about time loads and hints about the kind of materials to be used. In the absence of essential elements like needs analysis, objectives, and evaluation, the curriculum is left open to the trainers' understanding and interpretation of the lists.

CHAPTER FOUR

The Teachers' Opinions about the Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the "Higher Teacher Training School" (ENS), Constantine

Introduction

4.1. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

4.2. Analysis of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire

4.3. Overall Analysis

Conclusion

Introduction

The Teachers' Questionnaire, one of the common tools used for data gathering in curriculum evaluation and needs assessment research, is devised in order to collect data about the 2008 teaching methodology curriculum under implementation at the ENS of Constantine: its strengths and weaknesses as well as its success or failure to address the trainees' needs. The main objective of this questionnaire is to verify the first hypothesis stated at the beginning of this study: If the teaching methodology curriculum is planned around the students' perceived needs, the information about students' needs will emerge from the trainers'/designers' own perception of the profession and what it requires in terms of objectives and content. The students' felt needs will be secondary since, it is hard for them to identify which areas are most essential to be included within the curriculum.

The sample for this study is a population of nine teaching methodology teachers at the ENS of Constantine. This is the total number of teachers of the three modules under examination: Teaching English as a Foreign language (TEFL), Materials Design and Development (MDD), and Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD). The questionnaire was administered in the third term of the academic year 2013-2014, and the nine teachers handed it back.

4.1. Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of fifty-nine (59) questions divided into nine sections (see Appendix I) as follows:

Section One: General Information (Q 01 – Q 08): It is about the teachers' teaching and training experience, the degree they hold, their areas of specialization, the modules they teach, and their training as teachers and trainers. The purpose is to identify the teachers' profile since their responses will mostly rely on the characteristics they would report.

Section Two: The Training Curriculum (Q 09 – Q12): This section seeks information about the teachers' familiarity with the overall training curriculum (the modules they teach being part of that whole), the areas it covers, the teachers' participation in its design, and the kind of contribution they brought to it. The significance of this section is the nature of information it provides about the extent to which the teachers are involved in the whole training process rather than being interested only in the modules they teach. Furthermore, knowing about their contribution in curriculum design would allow specific information missing in the curriculum document.

Section Three: Needs Analysis (Q 13 – Q16): This section aims at checking the availability of information about the students' needs in the curriculum document, the approach use by teachers to gather data about learners, and the teachers' opinions about the curriculum's response to the identified needs. Indeed, such information would allow to identify the teachers' stand to needs analysis (whether they recognize its importance in the success of a curriculum or not).

Section Four: Aims and Objectives (Q17 – Q26): This section aims at evaluating the aims and objectives in terms of availability in the curriculum document, clarity, targeted performances, coherence and consistency with the training ideology, and revision. It seeks mainly to correlate the obtained data with the results obtained from the curriculum evaluation.

Section Five: Content (Q27 – Q42): Many factors are examined throughout this section: course description, approach, time, theory/practice loads, types of activities, assessment, and teacher/learner roles. The purpose is to identify the teachers' perceptions and interpretations of the curriculum document, as well as the factors' consideration of the trainees' needs.

Section Six: Materials and Media (Q43 – Q47): Teachers' materials and the media they use are another important factor to consider when evaluating a curriculum or assessing the

learners' needs. The kind of materials and media, their adaptation to the learners' needs and level, their availability are useful information in the examination of the curriculum's satisfaction of the students' needs.

Section Seven: Implementation (Q 48 - Q51): The implementation of the curriculum should adopt a mode(s) that is/are interesting and motivating for the trainees. Identifying the type of mode used by teachers and whether it fits the learners' interests would complete the development of trainees' profile.

Section Eight: Evaluation (Q 52 – Q58): The kind of evaluation meant in this section is curriculum evaluation. Information about the teachers' evaluation of their courses: in what way, and with what focus, would determine whether or not teachers adjust their teaching, at personal level to the students' profile in terms of needs, level, interests, and expectations. Besides, the availability of formal curriculum evaluation would determine the identified deficiencies and the kinds of improvement provided.

Section Nine: Further Suggestions (Q 59): This section consists of one question where teachers are requested to provide any suggestion(s) they see relevant to the aim of the questionnaire.

4.2. Analysis of the Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire
Section One: General Information

01. How long have you been teaching?

.....Years

Table 4.1: Teaching Experience

Number of years	N	%
23	01	11.11
18	01	11.11
15	01	11.11
12	01	11.11
09	02	22.23
08	01	11.11
05	01	11.11
No answer	01	11.11
Total	09	100

Among the many factors for successful teaching, experience may be considered essential. It is through experience that teachers acquire expertise. Throughout the years they spend teaching, they may learn more about learners, the curriculum, the school environment and about teaching methods, strategies and techniques. Within the context of this study, information about experience would allow to estimate the reliability of the responses. An experienced teacher would hence be more informed about the curriculum under evaluation than a novice one would do.

Table 4.1 shows the experience of the teacher trainers. Four out of nine have an experience of over ten years. Four have less than ten years of experience and one teacher did not inform about his/her experience. Furthermore, according to the table, the most experienced teacher has been teaching for twenty three years, and the least experienced for five years. In fact, none of the teachers is really novice. Five years of experience may be regarded as the minimum period to allow for the construction of an opinion about the content and the adopted methods.

02. How long have you been a teacher trainer?

.....Years

Table 4.2: Teacher Training Experience

Number of Years	N	%
12	02	22.22
10	01	11.11
07	02	22.22
06	01	11.11
03	01	11.11
02	01	11.11
No answer	01	11.12
Total	09	100

Teacher trainers, in addition to being a teacher should hold a capacity to mentor and coach future teachers. Whatever subject they teach, they should always bear in mind that their mission is not only to transmit knowledge but also train their students on know how to do and know how to act competences. For this purpose, they must adopt certain attitudes and skills that would help them to achieve the teacher training purposes. Some of the skills and attitudes

they demonstrate may be acquired through experience; some others however can only be achieved through training.

Table 4.2 shows the number of years of experience of the targeted population of the study: teachers of the teaching methodology curriculum at the teacher training of Constantine.

The highest rate is of teachers holding twelve years of experience as teacher trainers (22.22%) and the same rate is of teachers who have been trainers for seven years. The other rate (11.11) is of teachers holding ten, six, three and two years of experience. One teacher however did not mention his/her experience as a teacher trainer. On the whole, six teachers out of nine (66.66%) hold an experience of more than five years as teacher trainers, which is a significant rate. In fact, even with little experience, it may be assumed that novice trainers are themselves trained by the more experienced ones. This could be done through coordination and advice.

03. What is your degree?

- a. Magister**
- b. Master**
- c. PhD**

Table 4.3: Degree Held

Degree	N	%
a	08	88.89
c	01	11.11
Total	09	100

Table 4.3 shows that 88.89 % of the respondents hold a Magister degree, and only one teacher holds a Ph.D. degree. Indeed, qualification is an essential ingredient for a successful teacher in addition to experience. The majority hold the minimum degree required for them to apply for a job as teacher trainers. Yet, it is to be noted that most of them may be undertaking further research for the fulfillment of the Ph.D. degree. Besides, the degree held by the teacher trainers will denote the type of specialization. In other words, the higher the degree is, the more specialized the teacher is.

04. What is your area of specialization?

- a. **Linguistics**
- b. **TEFL**
- c. **Literature and Civilization**
- d. **Other: Please specify:**

Table 4.4: Area of Specialization

Options	N	%
A	02	22.22
B	03	33.33
ab	02	33.33
abc	01	11.12
Total	09	100

Table 4.4 shows the areas of specialization of the teacher trainers in the teacher training school of Constantine. 33.33% are specialized in TEFL, 33.33% in TEFL and Linguistics, 22.22% in Linguistics and 11.12% in TEFL, Linguistics and Literature and Civilization.

The representation of teachers among the suggested areas of specialization reveals that 88.88% (a+ b+ ab) there is a major adequacy of those specializations to the nature of the training curriculum. The teachers have received extensive training in the modules they are expected to teach in the curriculum. However, one teacher has mentioned that s/he is specialized in the three suggested options, which is quite impossible if we consider the available post- graduate courses in higher education in Algeria. The informant has probably understood that s/he has had courses in the four subjects.

05. Module (s) taught:

- a. Teaching English as a Foreign language (TEFL)**
- b. Materials Design and Development (MDD)**
- c. Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)**

Table 4.5: Modules taught

Options	N	%
a	06	66.67
b	01	11.11
c	01	11.11
ab	01	11.11
Total	09	100

Table 4.5 represents the modules taught by the respondents. Six teachers out of nine teach TEFL (66.67%), one teacher (11.11%) teaches MDD, one (11.11%) teaches TESD and one teaches TEFL and MDD. The results reveal that the population is representative of the three modules meant in present study.

06. Have you been trained to be a teacher?

Yes

No

Table 4.6: Training as Teachers

Options	N	%
Yes	02	22.22
No	07	77.78
Total	09	100

The majority of the respondents (77.78%) said that they have not been trained to teach; this does not match with the areas of specialization as mentioned by the teachers in the previous questions. How would a teacher who has specialized in TEFL and/or Linguistics state that s/he has not been trained to teach? Only 22.22% said that they have been trained to be teachers, which is the expected answer. If their degree is in TEFL, then they have learnt how to teach English as a foreign language.

07. Have you been trained to be a teacher trainer?

Yes

No

Table 4.7: Training as a Teacher Trainer

Options	N	%
Yes	03	33.33
No	06	66.67
Total	09	100

Table 4.7 shows that 66.67% of the respondents have not been trained as teacher trainers. The results are quite logical since almost all the teachers have received a post graduate academic and research education at the university that does not necessarily prepare them to become teacher trainers. Most of them come to the job with considerable theoretical knowledge about teaching but lack the practical skills. Besides, the only knowledge they have about classrooms is their own experience as learners. In this case, the kind of training they deliver would be limited to the transmission of theoretical knowledge. However, it is interesting to know about the kind of training the teachers who have answered “Yes” have received. Could it be in the form of lectures, seminars, workshops or other?

08. If “Yes”, what type of training was it?

- a. Lectures
- b. Seminars
- c. Workshops
- d. Other: Please specify:

Table 4.8: Types of Training Received by Teachers

Options	N	%
c	01	33.33
abc	02	66.67
Total	03	100

Table 4.8 indicates that out of the three teachers who have answered “Yes” to the previous question, two have mentioned lectures, seminars and workshops. One teacher has mentioned workshops. Yet, one interesting information to obtain could be whether it was a pre- service or in-service training. Whatever type of training it is, the teachers could have had

the opportunity to learn about the types of activities, techniques and strategies to use as trainers.

Section Two: The Teacher Training Curriculum

09. Are you familiar with the overall teacher training curriculum?

Yes

No

Table 4.9: Familiarity with the Overall Teacher Training Curriculum

Options	N	%
Yes	08	88.89
No	01	11.11
Total	09	100

Table 4.9 indicates that the majority of the teachers (88.89%) are familiar with the overall teacher training curriculum. It is very important for teachers to be familiar with the overall curriculum. The reason is that this would allow them to know what pre-requisites are essential for students to hold before they could engage in a new syllabus. Furthermore, the scope of any syllabus would be limited thanks to the knowledge of the whole curriculum. Overlaps would be avoided but inter-disciplinary communication would be stressed.

10. If “Yes”, which areas of knowledge does it cover? (you may tick more than one box)

- a. Theories of teaching**
- b. Teaching skills**
- c. Communication skills**
- d. Subject matter knowledge**

- e. **Pedagogical reasoning and decision making**
- f. **Contextual knowledge**
- g. **Other: Please specify:**

Table 4.10: Areas of Knowledge Covered

Options	N	%
acd	01	12.50
acde	01	12.50
abcde	01	12.50
abcdf	02	25.50
abddef	03	37.50
Total	08	100

Table 4.10 shows that 37.50% of the respondents who answered “Yes” in the previous question, have stated that the curriculum covered all of the suggested items (abcdef). Most of the options are covered in the curriculum for teacher training. “Theories of teaching” (a) are mentioned by all the participants, and the same could be said about “communication skills” (c) and “subject matter knowledge” (d). The other items have been selected by few respondents (three respondents for item (b), three respondents for item (e) and two respondents for item (f). In fact, the items that are missing in the syllabus (according to the teachers) are very important, especially that they are essential in any teacher training curriculum (teaching skills, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge). The curriculum in use at the teacher training school of Constantine responds to a large extent to the universal theoretical competencies’ frameworks mentioned earlier in the theoretical part.

11. Did you participate in the design of the curriculum?

Yes

No

Table 4.11: Teachers' Participation in Curriculum Design

Options	N	%
Yes	03	33.33
No	06	66.67
Total	09	100

Table 4.11 states that three out of nine teachers (33.33%) have participated in the design of the teacher training curriculum. Those are the teachers who hold a twelve and ten years of experience. It is to be noted that the curriculum has been designed gradually starting from 1999. These teachers might have contributed in the design of the methodology teaching curriculum that started later on because its implementation started in 2001. The table below will provide information about the type of contribution those teachers could bring to the curriculum. The 66.67% who did not participate in the curriculum design are the teachers who have joined the ENS more recently.

12. If “Yes”, was your contribution at the level of: (you may tick more than one box)

- a. The analysis of students' needs**
- b. The approach**
- c. Aims and objectives**
- d. Content selection and organization**
- e. Materials development**
- f. Evaluation**

Table 4.12: Teachers' contribution

Options	N	%
e	03	33.33
cd	03	33.33
bcde	01	11.34
Total	03	100

The suggested options belong to the conventional process of syllabus/ curriculum design. According to table 4.12, the three teachers who have answered “Yes” in the previous question have participated at different levels of the design process. One teacher has participated in the statement of aims and objectives, the approach, content selection and organization, and materials development (bcde) and one has contributed in the statement of aims and objectives and content selection and organization (cd). The last teacher has participated only in materials development. None of the teachers has mentioned his/her participation in needs analysis (a) and evaluation (f). This may probably lead to conclude that the needs of the students were not taken into account when the curriculum has been designed. Furthermore, evaluation (a very important design step to adjust the curriculum in terms of objectives, content and materials) has never been undertaken according to the teachers' answers. The above assumptions may find confirmation later on in sections three and eight.

Section Three: Needs Analysis

13. Is there any reference to needs analysis in the teacher training document?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.13: Needs Analysis in the Teacher Training Document

Options	N	%
Yes	02	22.22
No	04	44.45
I do not know	03	33.33
Total	09	100

Table 4.13 indicates that only 22.22% have stated that the curriculum refers to needs analysis, 44.45% have answered “No” and 33.33% have said that they “do not know”. The teachers’ different answers may emerge from the different syllabi they teach. In other words, if one module refers to needs analysis, it is not necessarily the case for the other two modules. According to the table, only a minority of teachers have answered positively. This rate reveals that little or no consideration is given to needs analysis despite its capital importance in planning for a syllabus. We may also deduce that the teachers lack deep understanding of the process and may believe that needs analysis is only a matter of asking students. If it is so, it is quite evident that they would answer negatively. On the other hand, it is quite illogical to find that three teachers do not know whether the curriculum refers to needs analysis or not, especially if we consider the results in Q09, where eight teachers out of nine have mentioned that they were familiar with the curriculum.

14. If “Yes”, the analysis focused on: (you may tick more than one box)

- a. Perceived needs**
- b. Felt needs**
- c. Task analysis**
- d. Expert opinions**
- e. Current practice**

f. **Other: Please specify:**

Table 4.14: Needs' Analysis Focus

Options	N	%
ad	01	50.00
acde	01	50.00
Total	02	100

Table 4.14 reports the options, as suggested by the two teachers who have answered positively to the previous question. One teacher considers that the examination of the students' needs has focused mainly on the perceptions of the designers (in the case of the curriculum under study, these are the teachers themselves), and on expert opinions (probably researchers in the field or results of research in curriculum design literature). The other teacher in addition to the options suggested by his/her colleague, has referred to task analysis and current practice. In other words, the specificities of teaching as a job and the kinds of tasks teachers are meant to perform are analyzed to derive useful content. Besides, the designers might have consulted courses used elsewhere for the purpose of doing 'as the others do'. The overall interpretation is that the students have not been consulted and their opinions have not been taken into consideration.

15. Do you think the curriculum meets the students' expectations?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.15: Curriculum Suitability to the Learners' Expectations

Options	N	%
Yes	06	66.67
No	01	11.11
I do not know	02	22.22
Total	09	100

Table 4.15 shows that 66.67% of the teachers find that the curriculum meets the students' expectations. This shows that a fair majority of teachers has a positive attitude towards the curriculum. That category might have feedback from alumni students concerning the pertinence of the knowledge and skills they have acquired at the ENS. Another reason for their attitude may be the students' performance in examinations. However, it is quite strange to see that there are teacher trainers (22.22%) who do not know whether the curriculum meets the students' expectations. Indeed, it is very important for any teacher to know about his students' expectations.

16. If “Yes” or “No”, please explain how you know:

- a. As a trainer, you regularly ask the students about their needs and expectations**
- b. You receive feedback from alumni students**
- c. Other: Please, specify.....**

Table 4.16: Teachers' Source of Information

Options	N	%
a	03	50
ab	03	50
Total	06	100

The six students who have answered “yes” to the previous question have opted for different options. 50% of them have selected item (a): they regularly ask the students about their needs and expectations. The other 50% ask the students about their needs and expectations and receive feedback from alumni students’ (ab). This means that these teachers are careful about the suitability of the curriculum to their students’ needs and expectations in addition to how they themselves perceive the students’ needs. In other words, in addition to their own perceptions, these teachers rely on negotiation and discussion with initial and post training students to be informed about the curriculum suitability.

The teacher who answered “No” to the previous question has mentioned (ac): s/he regularly asks the students and observes their classroom performance. This teacher also cares about both subjective/ felt needs and objective/ perceived needs through regular questions addressed to students and observation of their performance in the classroom.

Section Four: Aims and Objectives

17. Have the aims of the module you teach been specified in the curriculum?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.17: Curriculum Aims

Options	N	%
Yes	06	66.67
No	03	33.33
Total	09	100

Aims are general statements about the changes that a curriculum seeks to achieve. When provided, it is easier to derive specific objectives and content later on (Richards, 2001). It is therefore expected to see aims in any curriculum document. However, according to Table 4.17, a slight majority (66.67%) have stated that the curriculum aims have been specified in the curriculum. The justification for such results may be the fact that the teachers have responded in terms of isolated syllabi. In other words, it is likely that one module provides aims, and one module does not. Comparing these results to those of the curriculum analysis, we may be able to validate the findings, especially that it has been mentioned that two modules out of the three provide aims in the curriculum document.

18. If “Yes”, are they clearly specified?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.18: Aims Clarity

Options	N	%
Yes	05	83.33
No	01	16.67
Total	06	100

The purpose from this question is to evaluate the aims if available in the curriculum in terms of one of their characteristics: clarity. By clearly specified, it is meant to check if the aims describe the syllabus purposes in terms of changes to bring about in learners. The more clearly specified they are, the easier the objectives are derived and the less they are misinterpreted by potential users (teachers in this case). Table 4.18 indicates that the majority

of the teachers (83.33%) have stated that the aims are clearly specified. This implies that the curriculum designers have expressed clear aims that the majority of the teachers could interpret.

19. Do the aims express what the trainees will achieve?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.19: Aims Expression of Students' Achievement

Options	N	%
Yes	04	44.45
No	03	33.33
I do not know	01	11.11
No answer	01	11.11
Total	09	100

As for Q17 and Q18, this question seeks to evaluate the aims according to the characteristics of aims statement. In this case, the sought quality is the expression of student's targeted achievement. For this question, it was expected too to find only six respondents (the ones who have answered 'yes' to Q 17). It is difficult for a teacher to evaluate an aim that does not exist. Yet, the highest provided rate is that of teachers who think that the aims express what the trainees will achieve (44.45%).

20. Do they reflect the overall adopted curriculum ideology?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.20: Ideology Reflected in the Aims

Options	N	%
Yes	02	22.22
No	02	22.22
I do not know	02	22.22
No answer	03	33.34
Total	09	100

An educational aim should necessarily reflect an educational ideology. According to Table 4.20, though a minority of teachers (22.22%) assert that the aims derive from a given ideology, it is interesting to know about the nature of the ideology as reflected in the aims, which is the object of the next question.

21. If “Yes”, what is the curriculum ideology?

No response has been provided to this question by the two teachers who said that the aims reflect the overall adopted ideology in Q20. The reason may be the ignorance of teachers of the different training ideologies.

22. Does the curriculum list objectives?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.21: Curriculum Objectives

Options	N	%
Yes	06	66.67
No	03	33.33
Total	09	100

Table 4.21 reveals that 66.67% of the respondents have stated that the curriculum lists objectives. As for the previous questions, the teachers have provided answers in relation to the syllabus they teach. The results match those of Q17 where the teachers have provided the same rates for the availability of aims in the curriculum. This is logical if we consider that aims and objectives are closely related. If objectives are derived from aims, we cannot expect to find only objectives. Another interpretation of the results would concern the importance of objectives in a curriculum. How would teachers set a focus to what they teach? Could it be expected to find a common vision of the curriculum content? Teachers might interpret the expected learning outcomes in quite different ways (sometimes their interpretations are far from the real aim behind the curriculum aim(s)).

23. If “Yes”, are they clearly stated?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.22: Objectives' Statement

Options	N	%
Yes	04	66.67
No	01	16.66

No answer	01	16.66
Total	06	100

The purpose behind this question is to evaluate the quality of the objectives as stated in the curriculum. Whether they are clearly stated or not will determine the right understanding or misinterpretation of the objectives. The success or failure of students' performance and outcomes will largely depend on the clarity of the objectives' statements.

According to Table 4.22, the highest rate is of teachers who find that the objectives are clearly stated (66.67%) of the respondents have stated that the curriculum's objectives are clearly stated. The teachers' capacity to evaluate objectives cannot be questioned. We may simply assume that if the objectives are clearly stated, it is more likely to observe positive implementation of content and expect positive outcomes on the part of the learners.

24. Does the targeted performance reflect the overall aim(s)?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.23: Targeted Performance Reflection of Aims

Options	N	%
Yes	04	44.45
No	02	22.22
I do not know	02	22.22
No answer	01	11.11
Total	09	100

According to Table 4.23, six teachers out of nine have expressed an opinion about whether or not the objectives of the curriculum reflect the overall aim(s). Four teachers (44.45%) have answered positively and two others have provided negative answers. On the other hand, two teachers have said that they do not know if the objectives reflected the overall curriculum aim(s) while one teacher has provided no answer.

The results seem to be logical since the distribution of rates is compatible with the results of questions 17 and 23 where six teachers have mentioned that the curriculum provided both aims and objectives. Accordingly, those teachers could provide a value judgment about the worth of those aims and objectives. It is obvious that the rest of the population could not say whether the objectives reflected the overall aim(s) since they do not even know if the objectives are available. The highest rate is of teachers who confirm that the aim(s) is/are reflected in the provided objectives. In this case, the curriculum can be described as a coherent whole, where aims are specified in terms of smaller components to specify the types of outcomes sought to attain. Yet, few teachers (two) see the curriculum objectives quite differently. It is expected from those teachers to revise the objectives to bring them up to their expectations.

25. Are the objectives subject to ongoing revision?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.24: Objectives' Revision

Options	N	%
Yes	04	44.45
No	02	22.22

I do not know	03	33.33
Total	09	100

Flexibility is one of the prominent characteristics of objectives. In case they fail to address their targets because of ambiguity or lack of consistency with the overall aim(s), it is recommended that they are to be revised. Since the needs of students are constantly changing and since the teaching process is also subject to change, any curriculum team (designers, teachers...) is expected to revise its objectives regularly to adjust them to the required standards.

Table 4.24 shows that 44.45% of the respondents have stated that the objectives are subject to ongoing revision and 22.22% have said they are not. On the other hand, 33.33% have mentioned that they do not know. As stated earlier in the previous questions, the teachers have provided answers that are related to the subjects they teach. It is evident therefore for them to say that the objectives are not subject to ongoing revision since they do not exist at all. We note that the result corresponds to those of questions 23 and 24 where it is the same number of teachers (4) who have a positive view of the curriculum objectives. It is worth however to know on what basis they are evaluated as the next question aims to do.

26. If “Yes”, on what basis are the objectives evaluated?

- a. The analysis of students’ needs**
- b. Discussions among teachers**
- c. The on-going evaluation of the curriculum**
- d. Other: Please specify**

Table 4.25: Grounds for Objectives Evaluation

Options	N	%
b	03	75.00
abc	01	25.00
Total	04	100

Three teachers (75%) have stated that the revision of the objectives is done on the basis of the analysis of students' needs, and one student (25%) has mentioned that it is done on the basis of the three suggested items (analysis of students' needs, discussions among teachers, and the ongoing revision of the curriculum). So, needs analysis is mentioned by the four teachers. On the basis of these results we may assert that those teachers are aware of the importance of needs analysis in decisions about objectives. The needs analysis they undertake may be through negotiating their syllabus content with their students or assessing their performance through tests and observation (procedures widely used by teachers in needs analysis). The results of their investigations may be useful for the adjustment of their content and methods. The teacher who said that objectives are discussed among teachers of the same subject has probably said that in the light of the data s/he could gather through needs analysis.

Section Five: Content

27. Does the curriculum document contain course(s) description(s)?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.26: Course(s) Description(s) in the Curriculum

Options	N	%
Yes	03	33.33
No	05	55.56
No answer	01	11.11
Total	09	100

A course description provides useful information about goals and content. Teachers usually would like to find information about the learners, the goals, and content before they engage in teaching a given syllabus. That information is expected to be available in the curriculum document and would be of great help for the teachers to be able to decide on materials and methods. Besides, the course description denotes a thorough planning involving the assessment of learners' needs, the adoption of a curriculum ideology and the statement of clear purposes. Therefore, one sign of a good quality teaching methodology curriculum is the availability of a course description.

According to Table 4.26, five teachers (55.56%) have stated that the curriculum does not provide a course description and three teachers (33.33%) have answered that it does, and one teacher has provided no answer. The examination of the results would reveal, one more time, that teachers' answers depend on the syllabus they teach. The analysis of the curriculum has revealed that not all the three syllabuses of the teaching methodology curriculum provide course descriptions, not even aims and objectives but mere lists of titles and subtitles. It is logical therefore to find such results where teachers confirm that such information is not available.

28. Which approach does the teacher training curriculum exemplify?

- a. Competency-Based Approach (ability to apply the acquired knowledge in teaching)**
- b. Holistic Approach (teachers are prepared to function in any situation rather than for a specific situation)**
- c. Attitude adjustment (methodology is introduced after several phases for the purpose of attitude adjustment)**
- d. Teacher centered**
- e. Learner centered**
- f. Other: Please, Specify**

Table 4.27: Curriculum Approach

Options	N	%
a	04	44.45
b	01	11.11
bc	01	11.11
abc	01	11.11
bde	01	11.11
No answer	01	11.11
Total	09	100

In language teaching, an approach provides answers to two main questions: what is language? and how best is it taught and learnt? The answers will determine the focus on given content and methods. In teacher training, Pennington (1989) identified three main approaches

(competency-based, holistic, and attitude adjustment). These approaches have been cited as options, in addition to teacher- centeredness and learner- centeredness in order to identify the type of training approach the teaching methodology curriculum adopts.

Table 4.27 shows that five teachers out of nine have mentioned CBA. One possible justification for the dominance of CBA may be the fact that this approach is adopted by the Algerian educational system and so teacher trainers may adopt it as a training approach to exemplify its implementation in their courses. By doing so, they may judge that they are preparing their trainees to use it later on. Three teachers have opted for (a,b,c), an eclectic approach. This may be justified by their intention to provide the trainees with more flexibility to use any of the approaches so that they could respond to the needs of their learners later on.

29. What is the time allotted to the syllabus you teach?

a. One hour and a half

b. Three hours

Table 4.28: Time Allotted for the Curriculum Syllabi

Options	N	%
a	06	66.67
b	02	22.22
ab	01	11.11
Total	09	100

Time is an essential factor in the success of a curriculum. The scope of content depends on the time allotted for each syllabus. Any decision about objectives and content for inclusion depends on the time frame. The objectives should be time bound and the amount of content for inclusion should take the time to be allotted to the course into consideration. In the

case of the present study, it is necessary to consider the time factor and check whether it allows for the achievement of the stated objectives.

The six teachers (66.67%) who have answered “one hour and a half” are teachers of TEFL , the ones who have answered “Three hours” are teachers of MDD , and the one who has answered (ab) is the teacher of TESD (since they operate with both timings depending on the profile Middle/Secondary School). The next question will inform us about time sufficiency to achieve the stated objectives.

30. Does the time allotted to the syllabus you teach allow achieving the stated objectives?

Yes

No

Table 4.29: Time and Objectives' Achievement

Options	N	%
Yes	05	55.56
No	04	44.44
Total	09	100

Table 4.29 shows that 55.56% of the teachers have stated that the time allotted to the syllabi they teach allows the achievement of the stated objectives and 44.45% have mentioned that it does not. In the case it does not, it is necessary to know how much time is needed to achieve the objectives and cover the syllabus content.

31. If “No”, how much time per week is needed to cover the syllabus content?

Table 4.30: Time Per Week Needed to Cover the Syllabus Content

Options	N	%
3h	03	75.00
3 to 4.30h	01	25.00
Total	04	100

The results show that three teachers (75.00%) have suggested three hours instead of one hour and a half, and one teacher has mentioned three up to four hours and a half per week to cover the content and expect to achieve the stated objectives. The teachers' responses imply that the content of the courses they teach is too ambitious compared to the time available. It is logical that they would ask for more time. Yet, the decision to add more time for each syllabus will depend on many administrative considerations like the feasibility and the overall time load of the training curriculum. Such decisions will require more teachers and more classrooms. In the case where this is difficult to attain, the solution will lie in the revision of objectives and content, themselves, to match them with the time available.

32. Does the curriculum integrate theory and practice?

Yes

No

Table 4.31: Theory and Practice Integration in the Curriculum

Options	N	%
Yes	04	44.44
No	05	55.56
Total	09	100

According to table 4.31, only four teachers (44.44%) have stated that the curriculum integrates theory and practice. The integration of theory and practice is an important concern in teacher training. The nature of the curriculum under study (teaching methodology) requires a particular attention to both aspects. Theory cannot do without practice, and the opposite is true. Therefore, the curriculum document should highlight this concern in the course description. This can be done through the statement of measurable objectives where the trainees are expected to demonstrate ability at different teaching tasks. Besides, the document should suggest a typology of activities where trainees are engaged in given tasks like micro-teaching, lesson planning, and units evaluation.

33. If “No”, which aspect does it favor more?

a. Theory

b. Practice

The teachers who have stated that the curriculum does not integrate theory and practice (five teachers), have all stated that it favors theory. It is logical to obtain such a result since the concerned syllabuses describe content in terms of titles and subtitles. Yet, it seems that the teacher training curriculum is ‘open’ that is to say, it is up to the teacher to develop it and shape it the way s/he finds suitable. The integration of theory and practice would be part of the teacher’s tasks, and this would only be achieved through the revision of the pre-set objectives (in case they are available). We may interpret that the teachers of the curriculum are informally ‘re-inventing’ their syllabi which is risky, especially for those who lack experience or those who do not like to be involved in teachers’ thinking groups about the curriculum.

34. Does the curriculum suggest a typology of activities?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.32: Availability of a Typology of Activities in the Curriculum

Options	N	%
Yes	07	77.78
No	02	22.22
Total	09	100

Table 4.32 shows that 77.78% of the population has confirmed the availability of a typology of activities. Suggested types of activities are quite useful for teachers, especially inexperienced ones, to get a clearer idea about how to lead the learners to the achievement of the objectives. Table 4.32 shows that most of the courses in the curriculum align with this principle. However, it is unusual to find details about the types of activities in a syllabus that does not contain more essential aspects: aims and objectives (77.77% does not correspond to any of the results in tables 4.17 and 4.22; one teacher has said earlier that the curriculum does not provide aims and objectives but suggested types of activities to undertake in the classroom).

35. If “Yes”, which of the following types of activities are suggested in the curriculum?

a. Courses

b. Practice

c. Observations

d. Research

e. Other: Please, specify

Table 4.33: Types of Activities Suggested in the Curriculum

Options	N	%
a	01	14.29
ab	03	42.85
abd	02	28.58
abc	01	14.28
Total	07	100

The seven teachers who have answered “Yes” to the previous question have provided a panel of options: one teacher has stated that s/he uses courses (a), three teachers (42.85%) have listed courses and practice (ab), and two teachers (28.58%) have selected courses, practice, and observation (abd), and the remaining teacher has referred to courses, practice, and research. So, the option a (Courses) has been selected by all the respondents to imply that the training teachers focus on theoretical knowledge as a pre- requisite for practice. Besides, option b (Practice) has been mentioned by six out of seven teachers to reveal that theory is backed by practice in most of the cases. However, option c (Observations) has been mentioned only once, and the same is for d (Research). This is probably due to the nature of the subjects taught by the respondents where time, content, and objectives would not allow for the use of observation and research.

36. If “No”, which of the following types of activities do you usually use?

a. Courses

b. Practice

c. Observations

d. Research

e. Other: Please specify

Table 4.34: Types of Activities used by Teachers

Options	N	%
b	01	50.00
abc	01	50.00
Total	02	100

The two teachers who have answered “No” to Q34 have referred to two different approaches concerning activities. One teacher has stated that s/he uses courses, practice and observation (abc), while one teacher has mentioned practice (b). So, both teachers have referred to some of the suggested options which are exactly the ones that their colleagues who have answered Q35 have mentioned available in the curriculum document. In other words, even if the curriculum does not suggest a typology of activities, the teachers are using types of activities that are relevant to the teacher training context.

37. Which do you think is more appropriate to assess?

a. The trainees’ theoretical knowledge

b. The trainees’ know how to use knowledge in teaching contexts

c. Both

Table 4.35: Appropriate Aspects to Assess

Options	N	%
b	02	22.22
c	07	77.78
Total	09	100

Assessment is also a relevant factor to consider in any teacher training curriculum. The controversy between theoretical and practical content will determine which of the aspects deserves attention. Logically, we assess what we teach; so we expect teachers to inform us about the assessment that reflects what they teach.

Table 4.35 shows that 77.78% of the teachers have stated that it is more appropriate to assess both aspects. These results reflect a high sense of understanding of the training mission. Teachers at the ENS are not just teachers but trainers as well (the term training denotes practice and application of theoretical knowledge). Besides, if teachers are really able to assess both aspects, the evaluation of the pre-set objectives would demonstrate the real acquisition of skills and capacities. However, the assessment mode in use at the ENS and in higher education in general, does not allow for such a dual approach, unless when teachers do it in the form of problem solving situations. Even so, the capacity to use knowledge in teaching contexts is only possible during the practical training phase where trainees are confronted to the real context; the classroom.

38. Do you assess the trainees' language proficiency?

Yes

No

Table 4.36: Assessment of Trainees' Language Proficiency

Options	N	%
Yes	08	88.89
No	01	11.11
Total	09	100

The curriculum under study is mainly content focused. In other words, the teachers of the curriculum are not meant to deal with language and language proficiency. The knowledge of the language is one of the pre-requisites for the curriculum content. The trainees are supposed to have been exposed to it earlier during the three years common core. In this respect, the assessment of the language proficiency would be a matter of debate. How would a teacher assess a subject s/he has not taught? There are two opposed views in regard to language assessment by content teachers. On one side, language proficiency, being a pre-requisite for the curriculum, must be assessed as equally as content. In addition, the trainees are future teachers of language and their mastery of the language is a necessity. On the other side, some teachers would regard language proficiency as being beyond their duties and is the concern of other modules in the overall training curriculum.

Table 4.36 shows that the majority of teachers assess the trainees' language proficiency. This denotes that they are not only subject matter teachers but rather real trainers who are aware of the needs of their trainees. However, it would be useful to know whether or not these teachers address the language proficiency during their class time before deciding to assess it. In both cases, it is of crucial importance for those teachers to address their trainees' language weaknesses and act as agents of a whole curriculum rather than isolated subjects.

39. What role(s) do(es) the curriculum attribute to the teacher educator?

a. Instructor

b. Model

c. Guide

d. It does not at all refer to the teacher's role

Table 4.37: Teacher Educator's Role in the Curriculum

Options	N	%
a	01	11.11
c	01	11.11
d	07	77.78
Total	09	100

According to table 4.36, the majority of teachers (77.78%) agree that the curriculum does not attribute any role to the teacher educator. Theoretically, when the role is not explicitly stated, the teacher may imply it from the adopted approach, the general aims, and the specific objectives. The types of activities would also determine which role is to be adopted. However, it would be unusual to find information about the teacher's role in the absence of stated aims and objectives. In the latter case, it is the teacher's experience and knowledge that would determine the role(s) s/he would adopt.

40. If "d", what do you think the teacher educator's role should be?

a. Instructor

b. Model

c. Guide

Table 4.38: Teachers' Opinions about the Role of the Teacher Educator

Options	N	%
a	02	28.57
c	01	14.28
abc	04	57.14
Total	07	100

Out of the seven teachers who have answered “d” (It does not at all refer to the teacher’s role) in the previous question, a slight majority (57.14%) is in favor of the teacher educator playing many roles at once: an instructor, a model, and a guide. This denotes the orientation towards an eclectic approach where the roles are dictated by the needs of the students and the nature of content.

The two teachers who have stated that the role is that of an instructor may be inexperienced or still lack an understanding of the nature of their profession. This may be the effect of not being trained themselves as teacher educators. Besides, one teacher views that the teacher educator’s role is that of a guide and may be influenced by the modern methodology to teaching which tends to decrease the teacher’s contribution and authority in the classroom. On the whole, we may assume that the teachers of the teaching methodology curriculum are playing various roles allowing the trainees to recognize the most appropriate practices and reflect over which of them to adopt.

41. What role(s) does the curriculum attribute to the trainees?

Table 4.39: The Role(s) of the Trainees in the Curriculum

Role(s)	N	%
No role	03	33.34
Would be teacher	02	22.22
Student, not trainee	01	11.11
I do not know	01	11.11
No answer	02	22.22
Total	09	100

The examination of the results reveals that in majority, the teachers could not inform about the role of the trainee in the curriculum: either they have stated that no role is mentioned (33.34%) or that they do not know (11.11%). Yet, two teachers (22.22%) have mentioned that the trainees' role is "would be teachers". In fact, this is not a role but rather a status. What would a trainee being a "would be teacher" do in the teaching methodology classroom? Would s/he be active participant or passive listener? In other words, what would be his/her contribution? On the other hand, the teacher who has mentioned the role of a "student, not trainee" (11.11%) may imply that there is no consideration to the features that distinguish the trainee from any other university student. It may appear evident for experienced teachers to recognize the different roles, but it may not be the case for novice teachers who cannot identify the specificity of their own role.

42. In case it does not, what do you think the trainee's role should be?

No answer has been provided for this question by the two teachers. One possible reason for that is the teachers' lack of understanding of the teacher training context due to

lack or absence of training for that purpose. If the teachers adopted a teacher centered approach, they would consider their own role as lecturers. In other words, their focus would be on their performance rather than on the trainees' role.

Section Six: Materials/Media

43. What kind of materials/ media do you use?

a. Textbooks

b. Workbooks

c. Handouts

d. Audio-visual aids

Table 4.40: Type of Materials/Media Used by Teachers

Options	N	%
c	04	44.44
ac	01	11.12
cd	04	44.44
Total	09	100

Teachers use a variety of materials and media to support their lessons. The choice is determined by factors like availability, adaptability to the learners' needs and context, and suitability to the syllabus content. In the context of higher education in Algeria, there is little if no availability of textbooks. Teachers are confronted to a serious challenge: adapting specialized books and research articles to the specificities of the courses they teach. The outcome is handouts they submit to the students who consider that this is enough reading about the topics of the course. The teaching methodology curriculum at the ENS of

Constantine faces the same challenges. The lack of availability of teaching materials like textbooks and workbooks is substituted by teacher-made materials where summaries of research publications and published books are favored. However, the over-use of handouts may lead to a stereotyped methodology where the learning/teaching sessions turn into an explanation of the papers' theoretical content without any consideration to its implementation into tasks and activities.

This is confirmed in Table 4.40, where four teachers use handouts and audio-visual aids, 44.44% others use only handouts and one teacher uses textbooks and handouts. Dominance is attributed to handouts, followed by the use of audio- visual aids. In fact, the teachers may refer to the data show when they have mentioned audio- visual aids. Its use may be a matter of displaying the content of the handouts or the diffusion of some videos in relation to the topics they teach. However, the only teacher who has mentioned textbooks may want to refer to the published textbooks for Middle and Secondary Schools that are meant to be studied and examined in the curriculum courses.

44. Do you often adapt the materials to the learners' needs and level?

Yes

No

Table 4.41: Adaptation of Materials to the Learners' Needs and Level

Options	N	%
Yes	08	88.89
No	01	11.11
Total	09	100

It is evident that before teachers adapt their materials to the learners' needs and level, they have to assess the learners' needs and level. According to Table 4.41, the majority of the respondents (88.89%) have confirmed that they proceed with adaptation. The results imply that the teachers are aware of the importance of needs assessment before engaging in adaptation. Furthermore, it is expected that the teachers are skilled in the adaptation process, especially that the nature of the curriculum they teach requires such skills. The teacher who has responded negatively to the question may lack capacity to adapt materials.

45. Are the necessary media and teaching aids available at the level of your Department?

Yes

No

Table 4.42 Availability of Media and Teaching Aids in your Department

Options	N	%
Yes	08	88.89
No	01	11.11
Total	09	100

Table 4.42 shows that 88.89% of the teachers have confirmed that the necessary media and teaching aids are available at the department. This result is positive if we consider that in the absence of media and teaching aids, the teachers may be required to provide them or simply limit themselves to what is available (in some contexts, it is the chalk-board only). Therefore, we may consider that the institution provides the required equipment that would allow for the successful implementation of the curriculum.

46. If “No”, how do you manage providing them?

The only teacher who answered “No” to the previous question, did not inform about how s/he manages providing materials and media. It is likely that s/he does not attempt providing them at all.

47. Are the trainees satisfied with the quality of materials and media you use?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.43 Quality of Materials and Media

Options	N	%
Yes	03	33.33
I do not know	06	66.67
Total	09	100

It is important for teachers to know the opinion of their learners about the quality of the materials and media they use. Not only does this allow them to get useful feedback on materials and media for the sake of their improvement, but to motivate the learners’ to learn as well.

According to Table 4.43, the majority of the teachers (66.67%) do not know whether the materials and media they use are satisfactory to the learners or not. This implies that those teachers do not analyze their students’ needs or do not trust the students’ opinions on such issues (they may think that the students should not be given the opportunity to comment on their decisions for the choice of materials and media. On the other hand, 33.33% know that the materials and media they use satisfy the needs and level of the learners. They could obtain

such information formally or informally through asking the students or through assessment procedures. All in all, the results reveal that the majority of the teaching methodology teachers demonstrate a discrepancy between the content they teach and their real teaching practices. It is unusual for a teacher to dictate instructions and methods that he/she himself does not apply.

Section Seven: Implementation

48. When implementing the curriculum, you usually adopt: (you may tick **more than one answer**)

a. the frontal mode (teacher-centered)

b. the experiential mode (peer/micro teaching situations)

c. the workshop mode

d. the pair/group work mode

e. the individualized mode

Table 4.44: Training Mode

Options	N	%
ad	03	33.33
cd	01	11.11
ade	01	11.11
abcd	02	22.22
bcde	01	11.11
abcde	01	11.11
Total	09	100

Cross (1995) has identified the above modes for the implementation of a teacher training curriculum. The choice of (a) mode(s) depends largely on the curriculum planning process. The approach, the syllabus type, the objectives, and the content may imply the type of mode.

Table 4.44 indicates that the teachers use different training modes. 33.33% use modes “ad”, 22.23% use “abcd”. On the other hand, the modes “cd”, “ade”, “bcde”, and “abcde” are used by one teacher for each mode. No teacher relies on only one mode. The results reveal that the teaching methodology teachers use varied modes that match with the nature of the courses they teach. For instance mode “b” is relevant for TEFL mainly since it allows for the application of the teaching methods and skills. The other types of modes may fit all the courses in the curriculum. In fact, the teachers are eclectic as far as the training modes are concerned, allowing themselves more flexibility to respond to the students’ expectations and to bring variety to their classrooms.

49. Does the class size allow for the kind of mode you adopt?

Yes

No

All the teachers agree that the class size does not hinder the use of any of the above mentioned modes. This justifies the variety of modes used by the respondents.

Usually, the class size would dictate one favored mode. Group work for instance would be difficult to manage with large classes. Besides, the workshop mode would not be easy to manage in a classroom or amphitheater where the sitting order is in rows. Besides, the number of students in a class needs to be appropriate to allow for the realization of projects in case the mode is a workshop.

50. Is/are the mode(s) you adopt motivating and interesting for the trainees?

Yes

No

Table 4.45: Training Mode and Trainees' Motivation and Interest

Options	N	%
Yes	07	77.78
I do not know	01	11.11
No answer	01	11.11
Total	09	100

The adopted training mode stimulates motivation and interest if it matches the students' learning styles. However, since students' learning styles are varied and different, it is necessary for teachers to adopt as many modes as the styles they would identify in their learners. Needs analysis, in this context, would be very useful and recommended.

It is shown in table 4.45 that 77.78% of the teachers have stated that the training modes they use are motivating and interesting. This reveals that those teachers demonstrate interest in knowing about the quality of their work and care about the students' motivation. Even if they do not use needs analysis procedures, they can manage getting feedback about their teaching in order to improve it. One teacher, however, has stated that s/he does not know whether it is motivating and interesting or not. This is quite inappropriate for a teaching methodology teacher if we consider that his/her role as a trainer is to equip the students with 'good practices'.

51. If "Yes", how do you know?

The seven teachers who have answered “Yes” to the previous question have mentioned different sources about the way they know about the students’ positive response to the modes they use.

- Feedback (one teacher)
- Students’ reactions (one teacher)
- Students’ responses (one teacher)
- Students’ raised questions (one teacher)
- Students’ commitment (one teacher)
- Students’ attendance and participation (one teacher)
- Students’ motivation and performance (one teacher)

On the whole, most of the teachers’ information is the result of their observation of the learners’ reactions, which is a common procedure in needs analysis. One teacher has mentioned feedback, which is also a useful source of information in needs analysis. This may confirm again that the teachers do make use of needs analysis in the design, implementation and evaluation of their courses.

Section Eight: Evaluation of the Course

52. Do you frequently evaluate the course you teach?

Yes

No

Table 4.46: Teachers' Course Evaluation

Options	N	%
Yes	07	77.78
No	02	22.22
Total	09	100

The evaluation of a course is an essential step in course design and implementation. Teachers can know about the efficiency of their course when they constantly evaluate it.

According to Table 4.46, 77.78% of the teachers frequently evaluate the courses they teach. This implies that they are conscious about the place of evaluation in course design. Those teachers are expected to constantly revise their course content, objectives, materials, and assessment procedures; making use of the information they gather throughout the implementation process. The teachers who do not evaluate their courses may be, as stated earlier, novice or unfamiliar with the process of evaluation.

53. If “Yes”, it is in the form of:

- a. Self- evaluation**
- b. Evaluation of materials**
- c. Evaluation of the whole course**
- d. Evaluation of the situation after the course**

Table 4.47: Evaluation Form

Options	N	%
b	01	14.28
d	01	14.28
ac	01	14.28
ad	02	28.57
abd	01	14.28
abcd	01	14.28
Total	07	100

According to Table 4.47, five teachers out of seven who answered “Yes” to the previous question (two for d, one for ad, one for abd, and one for abcd) have referred to the evaluation of the situation after the course. In other words, the teachers examine the students’ capacity to use the acquired knowledge in teaching during the practical training course. This is an effective summative approach to evaluation where the targeted part of the course is its objectives. The outcomes of such an evaluation may lead to the revision of the whole course through the diagnosis of the weaknesses in terms of methods, materials and content. Furthermore, five teachers proceed with self- evaluation (one for ac,two for ad, one for abd, and one for abcd,). This is an essential form of evaluation whereby reflective teachers examine their methods and techniques. In fact, a course may have sound objectives and a pertinent content, but may fail to reach the sought outcomes, simply because of the teacher’s methods, techniques, skills and experience. Self-evaluation may help teachers to redress their practices and therefore would lead the curriculum to achieve its goals. Three teachers have selected option (b): evaluation of materials (one for b, one for abd, and one for abcd), which is also an important aspect to evaluate. Materials that teachers use may be incompatible with the course objectives or fail to respond to the students’ expectations. On the basis of materials

evaluation, teachers may decide to adapt their own and would make of the course more attractive and motivating to the students. Option c (evaluation of the whole course) however, has been selected by only two teachers (one for ac, and one for abcd). Those teachers may be familiar with the process of syllabus evaluation and know that a course is a whole that should be examined accordingly.

54. On which of the following course components does your evaluation focus?

- a. The objectives**
- b. Content in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes**
- c. The training methods**
- d. The needed resource**
- e. All of them**

Table 4.48: Evaluation Focus

Options	N	%
b	01	14.28
e	03	42.86
ab	01	14.28
cd	01	14.28
acd	01	14.28
Total	07	100

According to these results, teachers have different focuses concerning evaluation. There is no consensus over one provided option which implies that the teachers have different priorities and see training from different perspectives. Option a “The objectives” has appeared twice in the table (ab+acd). It is a common practice to evaluate courses through the

examination of their objectives. Outcome based evaluation is a familiar approach since objectives are considered to be practical indicators of success or failure of a course. Furthermore, option (b) has been mentioned twice (b+ab). The teachers who have referred to it focus on content, which is also a familiar way of evaluating courses. Option (c) has also been selected twice (cd+acd) to make of the training method an additional focus to other options. The training method is a specific feature of the teacher training context. The teachers who have referred to it seem to be knowledgeable about the importance of examining their methods so that the trainees can learn from them and adopt some of them later on. Furthermore, option (d) has been favored twice (cd+acd) in combination with other items. The teachers who have reported it assume that resources are worth being examined and therefore, materials and media are subject to ongoing revision. We note that three teachers have referred to more than one item worth evaluation. This denotes that those teachers do not reduce evaluation to only one aspect but tend to be concerned with many parameters at once. In general, the results reveal that not only do teachers give focus to the evaluation they undertake, but some of them do consider that course evaluation requires the examination of many course components.

55. Has the curriculum been subject to formal evaluation(s)?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.49: Curriculum Formal Evaluation

Options	N	%
Yes	06	66.67
No	01	11.11

I do not know	02	22.22
Total	09	100

Formal evaluation is generally an administrative decision or part of a research project. If the evaluation is formal, it is then undertaken in a systematic way and makes use of agreed on data gathering tools like questionnaires, tests, interviews, and observation. Furthermore, when the evaluation is formal, it is expected that it is done by teams who have the necessary data and tools available. In addition, the outcomes of evaluation are taken into account and may even be published. This is not the case when teachers proceed with informal evaluation. In addition to using informal procedures like discussions with students and examination of students' performance, the outcomes of their evaluation are kept at a local level.

The results in Table 4.49 reveal that the majority of the respondents (66.67%) know about the curriculum having been subject to formal evaluation. This denotes that they have participated in the evaluation or at least witnessed it. The evaluation outcomes may have led to some reforms in terms of objectives, content, and materials. The teacher who has stated that the curriculum has not been evaluated, and the two who have said that they do not know, may be new comers to the ENS. By the time when the evaluation was conducted, they were not already there.

56. If “Yes”, how many evaluations have been undertaken since the first implementation of the curriculum?

Table 4.50: Number of Evaluations

Options	N	%
One	04	66.67
One or Two	01	16.67

I do not know	01	16.66
Total	06	100

It is expected from a curriculum that started to be implemented in 2001, to have been subject to more than one evaluation. Since the needs of the students and the nature of the teaching profession are constantly changing, it is expected that teacher training is adaptive to that change and responsive to its demands. Theoretically, a five year periodical evaluation is recommended. The results in Table 4.50 do not match with those theoretical expectations: four teachers (66.67%) out of the six, who have answered “Yes” to the previous question, said that the curriculum has been subject to one evaluation; one teacher mentioned one or two evaluations, while one teacher said s/he did not know.

57. Did the evaluation lead to the revision of the curriculum?

Yes

No

I do not know

Table 4.51: Curriculum Revision

Options	N	%
Yes	05	55.56
I do not know	04	44.44
Total	09	100

Logically, evaluation should lead to a kind of reform. In case it does not, the worth of the whole process of evaluation is to be questioned.

According to the results, slightly more than half of the respondents (five) know about the outcomes of the evaluation and are aware about the changing that came along. The ones who do not know (four) may have joined the ENS after the evaluation has been undertaken and may have started teaching with the revised version. In other words, they may not know the first version of the curriculum.

58. If “Yes”, what kind of improvement did it (they) provide?

- a. Reformulation of aims and objectives**
- b. Adjustment of content to the trainees’ needs**
- c. Materials revision and up-dating**
- d. Time re-organization**
- e. Approach and methods**
- f. Other: Please specify**

Table 4.52: Kind of improvement provided

Options	N	%
b	02	40
d	01	20
abcd	01	20
abde	01	20
Total	05	100

The five teachers who have answered “Yes” to the previous question have provided different options. Two teachers (40%) have mentioned that the improvement concerned the

adjustment of content to the trainees' needs; one teacher has said that it was a matter of time re- organization; another teacher has mentioned (abcd) while the last one has referred to (abde).

According to these results, there is no consensus as far as the kind(s) of improvement the evaluation brought. Despite that, it is interesting to find that the needs of the students are pointed by four teachers (b+abcd+adde), confirming that they are conscious that the needs of the learners are to be taken into account if a course aims to be successful. In addition to trainees' needs, time re- organization is also mentioned by three teachers (d+abcd+abde). This would imply that the curriculum evaluation has led to conclude that either content was too ambitious to be covered within the allotted time frame, or that time was generously provided compared to the load of content. It is also useful to manage matching time and content. The remaining teachers (2) have stated that the improvement was at many levels (abcd) and (abde). Their proposals seem logical since the areas they have mentioned are worth being revised after the evaluation has revealed they are deficient. Yet, only one teacher has referred to option (e) "Approaches and Methods". This is because the other respondents either view that the evaluation has proved they are efficient or because they may think that decisions about approaches and methods are to be taken at higher levels by decision makers.

Section Nine: Further Suggestions

59. Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

Only two teachers have provided suggestions. One teacher has claimed that the curriculum should state clear objectives, which confirms the absence of objectives in one curriculum course. The same teacher has stated that time for teaching TEFL should be raised to four hours and a half to allow for practical activities. The second teacher has insisted on the

importance of examining the needs of learners if we expect from a curriculum to be successful. Probably this is already available but improvement is always targeted.

4.3. Overall Analysis

The analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire came out with significant results. The majority of the teacher trainers of the teaching methodology curriculum hold a significant experience as teachers (88.88%) and teacher trainers (66.66%). Besides, the majority hold a magister degree in TEFL and linguistics, two areas required for the teaching of the curriculum modules. This explains that most of the teachers (88.89%) are familiar with the overall teacher training curriculum, linking therefore teaching methodology to the whole training curriculum.

For the majority of teacher trainers, the overall curriculum covers theories of teaching, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, teaching skills pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge. However, the highest rate (44.44%) of the teachers have stated that the curriculum does not refer to needs analysis and focuses on perceived needs, expert opinions, task analysis and current practice excluding' in this way, the trainees' felt needs. Yet, for 66.67%, the curriculum meets the trainees' expectations, an information they could obtain through their regular assessment of the trainees' needs in addition to feedback from alumni students. According to 66.67% of the trainers, the curriculum specifies the aims of the different modules. 55.55% believe that the aims are clearly specified and express what the trainees would achieve for 44.45%. However, 22.22% have stated that the aims reflect the overall adopted ideology. Besides, 66.67% have confirmed the availability of clearly stated objectives, 44.45% of whom have asserted that they reflect the overall aims and are subject to on-going revision performed through their assessment of the trainees' needs. As far as content is concerned, 33.33% of the teachers confirm the availability of course descriptions in the curriculum. For 44.45% the teaching

methodology curriculum exemplifies the competency based approach and for 55.56% the time allotted for the syllabuses allows the achievement of the stated objectives. Besides, for 55.56%, the curriculum integrates theory and practice and suggests a typology of activities for 77.78% in the form of courses, practice, observations and research. Assessment is envisaged to evaluate the trainees' how to use knowledge in teaching contexts for 77.78% but the curriculum does not mention any role for the teacher trainers who believe that they should play three main roles: instructor, model, and guide. On the other hand, 33.34% have mentioned that, no role is attributed to the trainees. The type of materials and media used by most trainers are handouts, and audio- visual aids that are adapted to the learners' needs and level and that are available in their department. However, only 33.33% are satisfied of the materials and media they use.

To implement the teaching methodology curriculum, 33.33% of the teachers adopt the frontal and the pair/ group work modes allowed by the class size. For 77.77%, the modes are interesting and motivating, information they obtain from trainees' feedback, reactions, responses, raised questions, attendance, participation, motivation, and performance. Evaluation, an important step in curriculum development and implementation is frequently carried out by 77.78% of the teachers in the form of self- evaluation, evaluation of materials, evaluation of the course, and evaluation of the situation after the course. The teachers' evaluation focuses on the objectives, content, methods and resources. According to 66.67% of the teachers, the curriculum has been subject to one formal evaluation that has led to improvements at the level of content adjustment and trainees' needs. Yet, the teachers still claim for the statement of clearer objectives and more attention to trainees' needs.

The overall analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire supports the hypotheses stated at the beginning of this thesis in that it confirms that the teaching methodology curriculum has been developed over the designers' perceptions, without recording them in the curriculum

document. The teachers (part of whom are the designers of the curriculum) have also confirmed that they undertake informal, unofficial needs analysis through discussions with their students and the teacher graduates of the ENS. The teachers have asserted that the curriculum meets the students' expectations and its content allows for the achievement of its stated aims and objectives. On the whole, the Teachers' Questionnaire provided information about the teachers' perceptions, interpretations and implementation of the curriculum that may help revise the official document under a common, more detailed and explicit framework.

Conclusion

The Teachers' Questionnaire has led to the gathering of significant information about the teaching methodology curriculum at the ENS. The teachers have provided answers and expressed opinions about the curriculum organization and content. The insights deriving from the teachers' questionnaire results have confirmed that curriculum development at the ENS is still limited to listing content that is perceived important. Furthermore, it has been concluded that teachers at the ENS manage their syllabi autonomously, finding little or no guidance in the curriculum document. In this way, the curriculum implementation may result in unexpected outcomes.

CHAPTER FIVE

The Supervisors' Opinions about the Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the “Higher Teacher Training School” (ENS), Constantine

Introduction

5.1. Description of the Supervisors' Questionnaire

5.2. Analysis of the Results of the Supervisors' Questionnaire

5.3. Overall Analysis

Conclusion

Introduction

The reason behind the administration of the Supervisors' Questionnaire is to get feedback from the Ministry of Education agents who are in charge of evaluating the quality of teachers. Involving them in the evaluation of a pre-service curriculum would provide the research with an external opinion. The Supervisors' Questionnaire aims at detecting the gaps between the teaching pre-requisites and the teaching methodology curriculum. It would provide an added value to the reliability of the obtained data. As for the previous tools, the Supervisors' Questionnaire would help to compare the various data obtained throughout this research.

The targeted population for this questionnaire is supervisors of Middle and Secondary School operating in the towns where the graduates of the ENS work. The ENS of Constantine trains teachers for a number of twenty two wilayas located eastern and southern Algeria. The questionnaire was handed to four supervisors and e-mailed to eight others. Returns came from twelve supervisors, and this makes the sample for this thesis. The number of questioned supervisors is quite representative of the areas where the ENS graduates work. This implies that most of the graduates are under the supervision of our targeted population.

5.1. Description of the Supervisors' Questionnaire

The Supervisors' Questionnaire consists of twenty seven (27) questions divided into five sections (see Appendix II) as follows:

Section One: General Information (Q01-Q08): This section is about the supervisors' experience as teachers and as supervisors, their degree, the wilaya (s) where they operate, the level (Middle/Secondary School), and their opinion about pre-service training. The aim was to obtain information about the representation of the different targeted profiles within the research.

Section Two: The Teacher Training Curriculum (Q09-Q14): This section targets information about the supervisors' acquaintance with the teacher training curriculum, their sources of information about it, the contribution they could bring to its design, the appropriate approach to adopt, and the areas of knowledge it should cover. Indeed, supervisors may provide valuable information mainly in the selection of content and the statement of course objectives. They know the Middle/ Secondary School curriculum and are aware of the tasks teachers should perform in both areas. This is what is referred to as task analysis in needs assessment. Besides, supervisors may be regarded as educational experts who can express opinions about teaching and the nature of teachers' activities.

Section Three: Post-Training Teachers' Profile (Q15-Q19): This is about the supervisors' opinions about the ENS graduates: whether they assess them at entry, their criteria for assessment, the aspects they focus on most, the weaknesses the teachers demonstrate and the supervisors' ways to overcome them. In this section, supervisors are meant to provide a general appreciation of the skills and capacities post training teachers demonstrate. This may help to revise the curriculum content and bridge the gap between the curriculum and the profession.

Section Four: Teaching Methodology (Q20-Q26): This section seeks to identify the supervisors' opinions about the teaching methodology curriculum modules: the most important ones, those that have impact on the teachers' performance, the abilities teachers need to demonstrate from the curriculum modules, and the important missing abilities within the curriculum. Supervisors' answers may help adjust the curriculum in terms of objectives and content to the requirements of the classroom.

Section Five: Further Suggestions (Q27): This section consists of one question where supervisors are requested to provide any suggestion(s) they see relevant to the aim of the questionnaire.

5.2. Analysis of the Results of the Supervisors' Questionnaire
Section One: General Information

01. How long have you been teaching?

.....years

Table 5.1: Teaching Experience

Years	N	%
32	01	08.33
31	01	08.33
22	02	16.70
21	01	08.33
20	01	08.33
17	03	25
16	01	08.33
15	01	08.33
13	01	08.33
Total	12	100

In Algeria, supervision is closely related to teaching experience. The common procedure to apply for supervision takes place through the demonstration of an experience of more than ten years as a teacher, in addition to the success in a specific assessment organized by the Ministry of Education.

Table 5.1 shows that the participants hold a teaching experience between thirteen and thirty two years. Indeed, all of them hold an experience beyond ten years as teachers. So, the population under study corresponds to the required profile to undertake supervision services whose main function is to inspect, control, evaluate, and or advise, assist and support teachers (UNESCO, 2007).

02. How long have you been a supervisor?

.....Years

Table 5.2: Experience as a supervisor

Years	N	%
28	01	08.33
24	01	08.33
19	01	08.34
17	01	08.34
15	01	08.33
10	01	08.33
06	03	25
05	03	25
Total	12	100

Table 5.2 provides information about supervision experience. The results show that twenty eight (28) years is the highest mentioned experience, while five (05) years is the smallest. Three teachers (25%) hold six years of experience, and three others (25%) hold five years of experience. These are the highest rates compared to the rest of data where the mentioned experience concerns only one supervisor at a time (08.33%).

According to the obtained results, the supervisors who have participated in the present study hold a considerable teaching and supervision experience. Their responses may be reliable since the respondents seem to be conscious about the skills and knowledge teachers should exhibit.

03. What is your degree?

a. Licence

b. Magister

c. Master

All the respondents hold a ‘Licence’ degree. This corresponds to the minimum academic requirement for the profession. In the context of this study, none of the supervisors holds a Master’s or Magister degree. The Master’s degree was not applied when those supervisors have graduated. Furthermore, a Magister degree holder would prefer to join the University for the many advantages it provides (research opportunities, reduced teaching hours, quality of students...).

04. Which wilaya(s) do you cover?

Table 5.3.: Wilaya(s) Covered

Wilaya(s)	N	%
Constantine	03	25.00
Batna	03	25.00
Msila	01	08.33
Bejaia	01	08.33
Setif	01	08.33

Skikda	01	08.33
Borj Bouarrerij	01	08.33
Tebessa/ Souk ahras/ Guelma/ Taref/ Khenchela/ Biskra/ Eloued	01	08.33
Total	12	100

The targeted category of supervisors covers the wilayas where the ENS graduates work, that is to say, the home places of the students. According to Table 5.3, the highest rate is of supervisors from Constantine (25%) and Batna (25%). This is due to the ease of contact with the respondents (being colleagues at the ENS or former colleagues in Batna). The rest of the population has been contacted by email which was made possible by the ENS graduates in their respective towns.

05. Which is your area of activity?

- a. Middle school**
- b. Secondary school**

Table 5.4: Supervisors' Area of Activity

Options	N	%
a	03	25
b	09	75
Total	12	100

Since the ENS trains teachers for both Middle and Secondary School levels, it is significant to identify whether both profiles are represented or not. Table 5.4 shows that 75% of the supervisors operate at the level of the Secondary Schools while 25% deal with Middle Schools. In fact, the results do not reflect the real representation of supervisors because these

results represent only those who have answered the questionnaire. we may conclude that both profiles (Middle and Secondary school) are represented by our population.

06. Is pre-service training necessary before joining the teaching profession?

Yes

No

All the supervisors agreed that pre- service training is necessary before joining the teaching profession. This confirms that the utility of teacher training is not to be questioned. Holding a degree in the language to be taught is not enough to become a teacher. Many people would consider that teaching requires the knowledge of the subject matter to be taught and that teaching methods and skills are to be learnt while doing the job in the form of in-service training. In fact, for many years, the teaching profession in Algeria used to hire unqualified teachers. That was of course done in the absence of teacher training schools. The practice continued however even with the emergence of such institutions because the number of graduates could not respond to the growing number of learners at school. Therefore, the profession relied on quantitative rather than qualitative considerations. Along with the recent reforms, quality is sought, and training has become an essential ingredient for any candidate to teaching as a profession. It is logical then that the whole number of respondents would favor trained teachers to untrained ones.

07. If “Yes”, should the training be:

- a. Theoretical**
- b. Practical**
- c. Both**

Table 5.5: Nature of Pre-service Training

Options	N	%
a	10	83.33
b	02	16.67
Total	12	100

There is a longstanding and ongoing debate about the nature of teacher training. Whether theoretical, practical or both, will largely depend on the adopted training approach. Investigating the most appropriate nature of pre- service training is of crucial importance. Supervisors' views are particularly meaningful since their role is to mentor novice teachers and contribute in teacher development. Their observation of teachers would allow them to draw conclusions about which aspects is to be given prominence.

According to Table 5.5, 83.33% of the population is in favor of a combination of theory and practice, while 16.67% view it as purely practical. The results are quite logical since practice requires theoretical knowledge and theory needs to be consolidated by practice.

08. What area(s) of knowledge should pre- service training provide? (you may tick more than one answer)

- a. Knowledge of the subject matter**
- b. Knowledge of the teaching methodology**
- c. Knowledge of the target culture**
- d. Other: Please specify**

Table 5.6: Areas of knowledge to be provided

Options	N	%
b	04	33.33
ab	03	25
bc	01	08.34
abc	01	08.33
Total	12	100

The provided categorizations are derived from the Algerian teacher training design (see chapter three). According to the results in Table 5.6, prominence is attributed to knowledge of the teaching methodology (mentioned by all the respondents: b+ab+bc+abc), while the same rate is identified concerning the two other options (ab+abc) and (bc+abc). The supervisors seem to focus on the teaching methodology because they may have noticed weaknesses among teachers in that particular domain. Yet, knowledge of the subject matter and knowledge of the target culture are not to be neglected for quality teaching.

Section Two: The Teacher Training Curriculum

09. Are you familiar with the teacher training curriculum?

Yes

No

Table 5.7: Supervisors' Familiarity with the Teacher Training Curriculum

Options	N	%
Yes	07	58.33
No	05	41.67
Total	12	100

Table 5.7 shows that 58.33% of the supervisors are familiar with the teacher training curriculum. Being familiar with the curriculum would allow the supervisors to provide with opinions about its adequacy to the nature of teaching English at the Middle/ Secondary school. In other words, their duties start when the curriculum ends, and therefore, they are in a position to evaluate the pertinence of the teachers' training. However, it is interesting to know how the supervisors who know the curriculum could be informed.

10. If "Yes", how do you get the information?

- a. From the post-training teachers you supervise**
- b. You participated in the design of the curriculum**
- c. You have been consulted by the design team**
- d. Other: Please specify**

Table 5.8: Supervisors' Source(s) of Information

Options	N	%
A	05	71.42
c	02	28.58
Total	07	100

According to Table 5.8, the seven supervisors who have answered “Yes” to the previous question, 71.42% have mentioned that they got informed from the post-training teachers they supervise. This implies that those supervisors discuss pre-service training with new teachers. This is of crucial importance if they want to identify the entry profile of those teachers so that they can develop their action plans for in-service training. Yet, what trained teachers describe is not by necessity what they are able to do. It is only through observation that supervisors can recognize the areas of strength and weaknesses of teachers. Ideally, what those teachers report about the curriculum is what they can do in the classroom. The two supervisors who have mentioned that they have been consulted by the design team are supervisors from Constantine who have the advantage to be near to the teacher training school. The design team may have easy contact with those supervisors who are a valuable source of information about the job requirements. This implies that the design team has gathered preliminary data about the required knowledge from a teacher of English. This is what is referred to as task analysis, one of the procedures of data collection in needs analysis.

11. Is it important to associate supervisors to the teacher training curriculum design?

Yes

No

All the supervisors answered “Yes” to this question, expressing herein their readiness for collaboration and coordination with the training institution to prepare qualified teachers.

Since the ENS trains teacher for the Ministry of Education, associating partners from that institution in curriculum design is necessary. Supervisors may bridge the gap between what teachers ought to know and what they actually learn at the ENS. The objective needs of the students are best described by inspectors because they are the ones who observe teachers’ performance. In addition to that, most of them are knowledgeable about the curriculum design

process since they are generally involved in syllabus or materials design for Middle and Secondary School levels.

12. If “Yes’, what kind of contribution would they provide?

- a. Information about profession requirements**
- b. Information about the discrepancy between what trained teachers are able to do and what they are required to be able to do**
- c. Other: Please specify**

Table 5.9: Kind of Provided Contribution

Options	N	%
a	03	25
b	01	08.33
ab	08	66.67
Total	12	100

Supervisors may provide various kinds of contribution to the teacher training curriculum. According to Table 5.9, 66.67% of the respondents have said that their contribution could be through providing information about both the profession requirements and the discrepancy between what trained teachers are able to do and what they are required to be able to do. In both cases, their contribution may emerge from their observation of teachers in the classrooms. Supervisors may inform about what is essential for teachers to be able to perform their job. Those requirements are going to be exploited by syllabus designers to develop content and formulate objectives. Besides, the described discrepancy may be practical, especially for syllabus evaluation and revision. Supervisors’ reports would help reconsider content, objectives, materials and even methods. The rest of the respondents have

chosen either option a (25 %) or b (08.33%) to refer to the kind of contribution they may bring to the curriculum. By and large, the majority of the respondents have confirmed that they could bring contribution at both of the suggested options. None of the supervisors however has suggested another kind of contribution.

13. Which of the following training approaches do you think is most appropriate?

- a. **Competency-Based Approach (ability to apply the acquired knowledge in teaching)**
- b. **Holistic (teachers are prepared to function in any situation rather than for a specific situation)**
- c. **Attitude adjustment (methodology is introduced after several phases for the purpose of attitude adjustment)**
- d. **Teacher-centered**
- e. **Learner-centered**
- f. **Other: Please, specify**

Table 5.10: Most Appropriate Training Approach

Options	N	%
a	01	08.33
b	01	08.33
e	03	25
ae	02	16.67
be	01	08.33
abc	02	16.67
abce	01	08.33
No answer	01	08.33
Total	12	100

The same question has been addressed to the teachers (Q28) and the results have shown that the largest number of teachers (44.44%) think that CBA is the most appropriate approach.

The results in Table 5.10 indicate that 25% of the supervisors (the highest rate) consider that the approach should be learner-centered. On the other hand, 16.67% find it CBA, holistic and learner-centered and 16.66% assume that it should be CBA and learner centered. The rest of the respondents have provided different options, where every supervisor has answered differently from the others: CBA (one supervisor), holistic (one supervisor), holistic and learner centered (one supervisor), and all the provided options (one supervisor). One respondent however, has provided no answer.

Seven respondents mentioned learner centeredness, (e +ae+be+abce), which makes of this approach a dominant choice. In fact, the learner centered approach focuses more on student learning than on what the teacher does (Weimer 2002). Among the reasons for its implementation is the increase of student engagement and long term retention. The same author has mentioned several advantages to the use of a learner centered approach, like ease of implementation and practicality. He explains that students taught through this approach understand the function of the content and find justification to why they are learning it. Besides, they have more opportunity for practice using inquiry or ways of thinking in the discipline through problem solving. The results in Table 5.10 imply that the supervisors have noticeable knowledge about which approach is most appropriate in the context of teacher training. Though the approach in use in education is CBA, learner-centeredness is seen by supervisors as most relevant in teacher training especially that it responds to one important students' demand: practice. Yet, it is to be noted that learner-centeredness is one of the major claims of CBA.

14. Which areas of knowledge should the teacher training curriculum include? (You may tick more than one box)

- a. Theories of teaching
- b. Teaching skills
- c. Communication skills
- d. Subject matter knowledge
- e. Pedagogical reasoning and decision making
- f. Contextual knowledge
- g. Other: Please, specify

Table 5.11: Teacher Training Curriculum Areas of Knowledge

Options	N	%
be	04	33.34
bcd	01	08.33
bce	02	16.67
abde	01	08.33
acef	01	08.33
bcdef	01	08.33
abcdef	02	16.67
Total	12	100

The suggested options to this question are extracted from Richards' 1998 domains of content (see Chapter Two). Table 5.11 shows that the supervisors do not share common views since their answers are varied and different. The highest rate of respondents (33.33%) has selected options (b and e): teaching skills and pedagogical reasoning and decision making. On the other hand, two supervisors (16.67%) have mentioned the options (bce): teaching skills,

communication skills, and pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and two others have mentioned all of the suggested options (abcdef). The rest of the supervisors have provided different answers (bcd, abde, acef, bcdef,). It is to be mentioned that option (a) has been selected by four supervisors (abde, acef, and abcdef). This may imply that our population does not give much importance to theoretical knowledge. Most of the answers however, are in favor of teachers being able to manage classrooms and transmit knowledge with little reliance on theories about teaching. It is evident that the results are of practitioners whose main concern is skillful action rather than stored information. We note that the same question has been addressed to the teachers (see Q10, teachers' questionnaire) who seem to hold a different attitude to the areas of knowledge. may be due to their position as higher education teachers who in addition to As a matter of fact, all of the teacher trainers have mentioned theories of teaching in association to all or some of the suggested options: abcdef (37.50%), abcdf (25.00%), abcde (12.50%), acd (12.50%) and acde (12.50%).The teachers' attitude is rather holistic and more comprehensive where aspects of theory are a major ingredient. This theoretical a more knowledge, would tend to be more ambitious than supervisors and then would adhere to integrated content design.

Section Three: Post- training Teachers' Profile

15. Do you assess the post- training at entry to the profession?

Yes

No

Table 5.12: Teachers' Assessment at Entry

Options	N	%
Yes	09	75
No	03	25
Total	12	100

One of the major roles a supervisor should play is the assessment of teachers. In the related literature, the term supervision is connoted with 'assessment and evaluation' Kayaoglu (2007). According to Goldsberry (1988) supervision is an organizational obligation associated with the assessment and refinement of current practices. In our context, the assessment of teachers at entry would allow supervisors to depict the areas of strength and weakness of the beginner teachers for purposes of maintenance and improvement of standards Duke (1987). Diagnostic assessment would allow supervisors to determine the content of in-service sessions for the purpose of providing appropriate treatment. This refers to Goldsberry's correcting model (1988) where the supervisor is expected to possess diagnostic skills and considerably higher knowledge than the teacher being supervised, in order to maximize benefits of expertise.

According to table 5.12, 75% of the supervisors do assess the post- training teachers at entry. This reveals that they adopt a diagnostic strategy. They evaluate the beginner teachers with the intention to improve instruction. Besides, they may hold a careful attitude towards what those teachers possess in terms of teaching skills and abilities and therefore prefer to identify whom among these teachers are in need for more training. On the other hand, the supervisors who do not assess the teachers at entry may hold a positive attitude towards the training those teachers have received at the ENS and would take it for granted that they are able to take charge of classrooms. It is also probable that thanks to their experience, they can

recognize the lacks teachers would demonstrate at entry and then would find assessment useless.

16. If “Yes”, do you use any specific criteria for their assessment?

Yes

No

The nine teachers who have answered ‘Yes’ to the previous question have all stated that they use specific assessment criteria. In fact, any kind of assessment requires to be done against a set of standards and criteria to determine the worth of what is being evaluated. Those standards are generally prescribed for the purpose of quality assurance. In our case, the standards/ criteria may belong to individual inspectors or are determined in the form of a common framework validated by the educational authorities. In both cases, since the supervisors have mentioned they use criteria. We may imply that their assessment is objective and systematic.

17. If “Yes”, on which aspect(s) do you focus most? (You may tick more than one answer)

- a. The knowledge of the subject matter**
- b. The knowledge of the teaching methodology**
- c. The knowledge of the target culture**
- d. Other: Please specify**

Table 5.13: Assessment Focus

Options	N	%
b	03	33.34

d	01	11.11
ab	02	22.22
ac	01	11.11
abc	01	11.11
abe	01	11.11
Total	09	100

In order to confirm that supervisors use assessment criteria, it is useful to check on which aspect they focus when evaluating teachers. The aspects provided in the form of options in the question are in fact, the domains of training knowledge provided at the ENS (see chapter three).

The results in table 5.13 show that, the knowledge of the teaching methodology is a major concern for supervisors: b(33.34%)+ab (22.22%)+abc (11.11%)+abe (11.11%). This confirms their practical orientation. The knowledge of the target culture however seems to be a minor concern probably because the Algerian English curriculum does not contain a significant cultural load compared to the linguistic and communicative knowledge.

18. In which aspects do post training teachers usually demonstrate weaknesses?

- a. The knowledge of the subject matter**
- b. The knowledge of the teaching methodology**
- c. The knowledge of the target culture**
- d. Other: Please specify**

Table 5.14: Post- training Teachers' Weaknesses

Options	N	%
b	07	58.34

ab	02	16.66
bd	02	16.66
abc	01	08.33
Total	12	100

According to Table 5.14, the teaching methodology is the major weakness mentioned by supervisors. Indeed, it has been mentioned by all the respondents: b (58.34%)+ab (16.66%)+bd (16.66%)+abc (08.33%).. The teachers may have accumulated theoretical knowledge but failed to put it in practice. Despite the fact that they have received a practical training, a two weeks induction seems to be insufficient. Besides, during that practical training, the student teachers are under the supervision of a tutor and a mentor whose presence in the classroom may provide support and assurance. Once in charge of their own classroom, post training teachers tend to face difficulties, especially at the level of classroom management. This is corroborated by the fact that two supervisors have mentioned that teachers show weaknesses at the level of educational psychology whereby classroom management is one of the major concerns (bd). Furthermore, knowledge of the subject matter has been mentioned by three supervisors (ab+abc).Therefore, the weakness does not appear at the level of knowledge but rather at the level of transmitting it. Likewise, knowledge of the target culture has been mentioned only once to. This leads us to conclude that even if the weakness is noticed, it does not affect much the teachers' performance as when they fail to manage the classroom and transmit the subject matter.

19. What do you do to overcome those weaknesses?

- a. You organize in-service training sessions**
- b. You provide teachers with feedback so that they improve their performance**

- c. **You send feedback reports to the teacher training school so that adjustments are made at the level of the curriculum**
- d. **Other: Please, specify**

Table 5.15: Supervisors’ Actions to Overcome Teachers’ Weaknesses

Options	N	%
a	04	33.33
ab	05	41.67
ac	02	16.66
abc	01	08.33
Total	12	100

Once the supervisors have identified teachers’ weaknesses, it is logical that they would attempt to overcome them. In addition to the judgmental and evaluative role, supervisors’ responsibilities have moved to a more developmental focus (Bailey 2006: 6). In this respect, the supervisors are going to lead teachers from the pre-service phase to teacher development. Besides, supervisors can play a role in the adjustment of the pre-service curriculum through reports on teachers’ main areas of difficulty. For this particular assumption, communication between both partners: teacher trainers and supervisors is to be fostered.

According to table 5.15, 41.67% of the supervisors have mentioned that they organize in-service training sessions and provide teachers with feedback. It is assumed that those sessions are to be workshops where teachers engage with their colleagues in discussions about the topics supervisors have decided beforehand. Furthermore, the feedback they provide after classroom observation is expected to be a constructive humanistic discussion of the lesson where teachers are invited to reflect over their performance. In this way, there is more likelihood that those teachers would hold a positive attitude towards being supervised.

Judgments and negative remarks would lead supervision to refer to authority and 'inspection'. Besides, 33.33% organize in-service training sessions and do not provide any kind of feedback, 16.66% do organize training sessions and provide the teacher training school curriculum with feedback, while one teacher uses the three suggested options. The supervisors who send reports to the teacher training school tend to be conscious about the role they should play in pre-service training. Indeed, it is high time both partners care about joining efforts to attain the quality standards sought from training.

The examination of the table also reveals that all the inspectors organize in-service sessions: a (33.33%) + ab (41.67%) + ac (16.66%) + abc (08.33%). This may imply that this kind of sessions is compulsory in the practice of their profession. However, six supervisors (ab+abc) provide teachers with feedback and three others (ac+abc) send reports to the teacher training school. This denotes that feedback (either to teachers or to the teacher training school) is limited to the supervisors who view their profession as constructive training rather than control.

Section Four: Teaching Methodology

20. Which of the following teaching methodology curriculum modules is/ are most important for teacher preparation?

- a. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)**
- b. Materials Design and Development (MDD)**
- c. Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)**
- d. All of them**

Table 5.16: Most Important Teaching Methodology Module(s) for Teacher Preparation

Options	N	%
A	02	16.67
D	08	66.67
Ab	01	08.33
Bc	01	08.33
Total	12	100

Table 5.16 shows that 66.67% of the supervisors find that the three teaching methodology modules are important for teacher preparation and 16.67% have mentioned TEFL only. Besides, one supervisor has referred to TEFL and MDD (ab) and one teacher has selected MDD and TESD (bc).

Eleven respondents (find TEFL most important: 91,67% (a+d+ab). This is quite logical since the module provides the students with the basic methods and techniques used in teaching. Another reason for their choice may be their familiarity with the module (TEFL). Most of them have had it themselves as students. This is not the case with the other two modules that are considered to be exclusive to the actual teacher training curriculum. Yet, from their experience as supervisors, they do recognize the utility of the three modules for teacher trainees. In fact, ten respondents find MDD important: 83.33% (d+ab+bc) and nine think so about TESD: 74.99% (d+bc). These results show that the majority of the supervisors recognize the importance of the three modules in a teacher training curriculum.

21. Which of these modules has an impact on the teachers' performance?

a. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

b. Materials Design and Development (MDD)

c. **Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)**

d. **All of them**

Table 5.17: Module(s) having Impact on Teachers' performance

Options	N	%
a	04	33.34
d	06	50
ab	01	08.33
bc	01	08.33
Total	12	100

According to the results in Table 5.17, the majority of the supervisors consider that TEFL has the biggest impact compared to the two other modules eleven out of twelve respondents: 91.67% (a+d+ab). This seems to be logical since this is the module where they learn about how to plan, execute and assess lessons. Besides, MDD has been selected by eight supervisors: 66.66% (d+ab+bc). This may be due to the nature of the module since in addition to lesson planning and evaluation, teachers are required to select appropriate materials, adapt them to the learners' needs and level for the purpose of more motivating and effective lessons. On the other hand, the module which is considered having less impact on the teachers' performance is TESD with seven supervisors: 58.33% (d+bc). Probably this is so because they do not see clearly the direct utility of knowledge about syllabus and textbook design on the teacher's performance. However, on the whole, according to the table, the three modules have in majority an impact on the teachers' performance. They deserve therefore their place in the curriculum.

22. Which of the following abilities addressed in the "TEFL" course do post- training teachers need to demonstrate? (You may tick more than one box)

- a. **The statement of aims, objectives and goals**
- b. **Lesson planning and presentation**
- c. **Teaching the four language skills and integrating them**
- d. **Teaching vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation**
- e. **Implementing teaching approaches**
- f. **Managing the classroom**
- g. **Designing tests and scoring them**
- h. **Recognizing the different learning styles and strategies**

Table 5.18:“TEFL” Course Abilities Teachers Need to Demonstrate

Options	N	%
f	01	08.33
bh	01	08.33
abd	01	08.33
adh	01	08.33
bch	01	08.33
dgh	01	08.33
abdh	01	08.34
abfh	01	08.34
abdefg	01	08.34
abcdefgh	03	25
Total	12	100

Table 5.18 shows that the respondents hold different views about the content of TEFL. 25% consider that teachers are expected to demonstrate the eight mentioned items (abcdefgh). One supervisor has mentioned six components (abdefg), two participants have referred to four items :abdh and abfh and four others have listed three adh, bch, abd, and dgh. Besides, one

supervisor has selected two items whereas one other has mentioned only one option (f) .The results reveal that the supervisors do not share the same opinion about which abilities to be demonstrated by teachers. Their conceptions are different in terms of the association of the items. In other words, some items are mentioned several times by different respondents. The table shows that every single suggested item appeared several times in the participants' responses. Item a, the statement of aims, objectives and goals , has been suggested by eight supervisors: abd+ adh+ abdh+ abfh+ abdefg+ abcdefg (75%). This is logical, considering that when planning for lessons, teachers are expected to set aims, objectives, and goals. A lesson that is not planned around specific objectives may be subject to failure since it would lack organization and a target and would be even difficult to assess. Item b (Lesson planning and presentation) has been selected by nine supervisors:bh+abd+bch+abdh+abfh+abdefg+abcdefg (75%), and the same number of respondents has opted for d (teaching vocabulary, grammar. and pronunciation): abd+adh+dgh+abdh+abdefg+abcdefg (75%), and option h (recognizing the different learning styles and strategies): bh+adh+bch+dgh+abdh+abfh+ abcdefgh (75%). Indeed, it is to be recognized that the three elements are needed by teachers. Teaching vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation requires learning how to plan and present lessons. Besides, for teachers implementing CBA, it is necessary to recognize the learners' learning styles and strategies in order to motivate them through the consideration of their learning needs. On the other hand, item f (managing the classroom) has been selected by six supervisors: f+abfh+abdefg+ abcdefgh (50%). Logically, the success or failure of a lesson would rely on the teachers' capacity to manage their classes. The 50.00% of the supervisors who have not selected this item may have already observed that the post- training teachers are able to manage their classes and therefore they do not see the utility of such an aspect to be tackled in the course. Item g (designing tests and scoring them) has been mentioned by five respondents: dgh+abdefg+abcdefgh (41.66%) who may consider that the trainees would learn

about assessment later on during the in-service sessions. In fact, these tasks are part of the teachers' duties. Literature in the field of teacher training curriculum development refers to assessment as one major component (see Richards 1998, and Graves 2009, chapter two). On the other hand, items c (teaching the four language skills and integrating them) and e (implementing teaching approaches) have been listed by four respondents: bch+abcdefgh (33.33%) and abdefg+ abcdefgh (33.33%). The reason for such a score may be the implementation of CBA as an approach. Supervisors may assume that teachers have to master the adopted approach rather than a wider range of approaches that are needless in their context. Indeed, it is necessary for teachers to know about the theoretical foundations that have led to the emergence of CBA and likewise, know about the historical development of teaching theories. In sum, according to the participants, the order of priority of abilities to be demonstrated by teachers is as follows:

- Lesson planning and presentation, teaching grammar and vocabulary, and learning styles and strategies
- The statement of aims, objectives and goals
- Classroom management and group division
- Tests design, scoring and feedback
- Implementing the teaching approaches, and teaching the four skills and integrating them.

23. Which of the following abilities addressed in the “MDD” course do post- training teachers need to demonstrate?

a. Adjusting materials to the learners' level, time, objectives and classroom settings

b. Analyzing and evaluating materials

c. Selecting authentic materials and designing them for classroom use.

Table 5.19:“MDD” Course Abilities Teachers Need to Demonstrate

Options	N	%
c	08	66.67
bc	02	16.66
abc	02	16.66
Total	12	100

According to the results in Table 5.19, the majority of the supervisors consider that teachers need to be able to select authentic materials and design them for classroom use. However, in order to be able to select materials, it is necessary to evaluate them on the basis of a set of criteria, teachers are expected to achieve through the course. Besides, once the materials are selected, the need to be adjusted to many parameters including level, time and classroom setting.

All the supervisors view item c (selecting authentic materials and designing them for classroom use) c+bc+abc. Item b (analyzing and evaluating materials) has been selected by bc+abc (33.33% of the population), while item a has been suggested by abc (16.66%). On the whole, the order of importance of the course components is shown as follows:

- Selecting authentic materials and adjusting them for classroom use
- Analyzing and evaluating materials
- Adjusting materials to the learners' level, time, objectives and classroom settings.

24. Which of the following abilities addressed in the “TESD” course do post-training teachers need to demonstrate?

- a. Defining syllabus/curriculum
- b. Analyzing learners’ needs and societal expectations
- c. Recognizing curriculum ideologies
- d. Stating syllabus aims and objectives
- e. Selecting and organizing content
- f. Recognizing the different syllabus types
- g. Evaluating syllabi
- h. Evaluating textbooks

Table 5.20: “TESD” Course Abilities Teachers Need to demonstrate

Options	N	%
H	02	16.67
abcdefg	06	50
abcdefgh	02	25
None	01	08.33
Total	12	100

Table 5.20 shows the options as mentioned by supervisors. 50.00% have mentioned all the items related to syllabus design and evaluation, 25.00% have referred to all the suggested items and 16.66% have selected item (h): evaluating textbooks. One respondent however has stated that none of the suggested items is needed by teachers, rejecting therefore the utility of the whole course. The table below will examine the participants’ selection of each item in isolation.

The importance of ‘syllabus design and evaluation’ in teacher training has been stressed in the literature about the subject (see Richards 1988, Schulman 1987 earlier in chapter two). The results in Table 5.20 confirm the place of this content in the Algerian teacher training curriculum. Except for item (h): evaluating textbooks, which is seen useful by 41.66% of the population (abcdefgh+h), the other items (a,b,c,d,e,f,g) are considered necessary by 75.00% for each course component (abcdefg+abcdefgh). Indeed, textbook evaluation may be perceived less important by supervisors for the reason that in Algeria, the textbook is a unique official, national document. Generally, textbooks are evaluated for the purpose of selection depending on their suitability to the learners and the context. Since there are no alternatives, teachers are bound to use the only available resource. Yet, it is assumed that despite the absence of alternatives, teachers still need to learn how to evaluate textbooks for purposes of materials adaptation. In sum, the course content is perceived in majority as pertinent and is needed by teachers to perform their job. The order of importance of the items is represented as follows:

- Defining syllabus/ curriculum
- Analyzing learners’ needs and societal expectations
- Recognizing curriculum ideologies
- Stating syllabus aims and objectives
- Selecting and organizing content
- Recognizing the different syllabus types
- Evaluating syllabi
- Evaluating textbooks

25. Is training in the above abilities enough to prepare teachers?

Yes

No

Table 5.21: Sufficiency of the Teaching Methodology Modules' Abilities for Teachers' Preparation

Options	N	%
Yes	07	58.34
No	04	33.33
No answer	01	08.33
Total	12	100

According to the results shown in Table 5.21, nearly half of the participants (48.34%) assume that there are missing aspects in the curriculum. The supervisors' view may be justified by the teachers' performance. Indeed, they may identify weaknesses at specific aspects that are not covered by the curriculum through the use of pre- established standards while observing teachers. It is expected that the supervisors who have answered "No" (33.33%), would provide the study with the missing course components to help revise the curriculum. The following question is meant for that purpose.

26. If "No", which other teaching methodology abilities should be covered in the curriculum?

The four supervisors who have answered "No" to the previous question have not provided information about the missing curriculum components. Their contribution would have been of great help to revise the curriculum and adjust it to the needs of teachers as perceived by their supervisors.

Section Four: Further suggestions

27. Please add any further comment or suggestion

Six out of twelve supervisors have provided comments and suggestions that can be summarized as follows:

Three respondents have stated that supervisors should contribute in the design of the teacher training curriculum; there must be coordination between people in charge of pre-service and in-service training. According to them, Communication between the two contexts is absent and it is high time to provoke it. There is no doubt about the importance of coordination between pre-service and in-service agents. Supervisors' contribution will bring the teacher training curriculum at large, and the teaching methodology curriculum in particular to more practical and realistic actions. When the curriculum is designed and executed away from the reality of the Algerian classroom, it will be limited to an accumulation of theoretical knowledge that may or may not fit the Algerian context.

Two supervisors consider that the trainees at the ENS seem to be exposed to theory more than practice and that they should put in practice their theoretical knowledge to be able to teach later on. This confirms what has been stated in the comment about the previous suggestion, in that the supervisors have referred to a deficiency in the curriculum that trainers at the ENS would not have considered if feedback from the supervisors is absent.

One supervisor, however, has raised an important aspect in teacher training: the development of critical thinking and reflection in teachers. According to that teacher, these are essential ingredients to be added in the curriculum. Indeed, recently there is a raise of consciousness about the importance of training teachers on critical and reflective thinking. The modern teacher should be more ready to take decisions, reflect on his lesson plans and execution, make the right choices, and correct his/her mistakes.

5.3.Overall Analysis

The analysis of the questionnaire has revealed that the respondents hold a significant experience as teachers before becoming supervisors. All of them have been teaching for more than thirteen years and have supervised teachers for more than five years. All of them hold a 'Licence' degree (corresponding to the minimum academic requirement for the profession). Besides, they cover 14 out of the 22 targeted cities in this research either at Middle or Secondary Schools. They all have agreed about the importance of teacher training and have stated that it should be both theoretical and practical, providing knowledge in the following domains: the subject matter, teaching methodology, and the target culture. Among the respondents, 58.33% are familiar with the teacher training curriculum. This allows them to provide opinions about the curriculum adequacy to the nature of teaching English at the Middle/Secondary School.

Most of the supervisors, who are familiar with the curriculum, got their information from the post training teachers they supervise and only a few of them have been consulted by the design team. Besides, the supervisors have confirmed the necessity for them to be associated to the teacher training curriculum design and that they could contribute at many levels: information about the profession requirements, and the discrepancy between what trained teachers are able to do and what they are required to be able to do. The supervisors have also referred to many approaches as being most appropriate to teacher training. Yet, the highest rate (25%) is of supervisors who believe that the approach should be teacher-centered. In addition, for supervisors, the curriculum should cover theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge.

Regarding the post- training teachers' profile, most of the supervisors (75%) have confirmed that they assess the post- training teachers at entry to the profession, using specific

criteria. They do this mostly to depict the areas of strength and weakness of beginner teachers for purposes of maintenance and improvement of standards, adopting therein Goldsbury's 1988 correcting model, where the supervisor is expected to possess diagnostic skills and higher knowledge than the teacher, in order to maximize benefits of expertise. Their focus is on many areas, namely the knowledge of the subject matter, teaching methodology and the target culture. The assessment they undertake has revealed that beginner teachers demonstrated weaknesses at different levels, the highest rate being at the level of teaching methodology. Consequently, in order to overcome the identified weaknesses, supervisors have mentioned that they organize in-service training sessions, provide teachers with feedback about their performance, but more importantly, some of them send feedback reports to the ENS so that adjustments are made at the level of the curriculum.

Concerning the teaching methodology curriculum, supervisors have recognized the importance of the three modules, TEFL, MDD, and TESD, and that they all have impact on the teachers' performance. Yet, prominence is given to TEFL probably because it addresses direct classroom concerns. The two other modules were seen less important since they deal with aspects that are beyond the classroom practice in that they prepare teachers for more likelihood to deliver successful teaching. At this level, the supervisors were provided with the targeted abilities from the curriculum modules and were asked to identify the ones that teachers needed most to demonstrate. For TEFL, all of the listed abilities have been judged important for teachers to demonstrate. Yet, prominence was given to some skills over the others. The supervisors have shown priorities throughout their responses, and therefore have stressed lesson 'planning and presentation', 'teaching grammar', 'teaching vocabulary', 'learning styles and strategies', 'aims and objectives', and 'classroom management and group division' over 'testing', and 'teaching the four skills and integrating them'. The supervisors' ranking of abilities may be justified by their observation of the teachers' weaknesses. The

supervisors have also expressed the importance of the suggested abilities addressed by MDD but attributed more prominence to ‘selecting authentic materials and designing them for classroom use’ than to ‘adjusting materials to the learners’ level, time, objectives and classroom settings’ and ‘analyzing and evaluating materials’. For TESD, the supervisors have also perceived the module’s abilities as pertinent and needed by teachers to perform their job. However, the ability of evaluating textbooks is seen less important compared to the other interrelated abilities of curriculum/syllabus design. The supervisors’ view may be justified by a contextual reason, since in Algeria; the textbook is a unique official national document often standing for the syllabus. Generally, textbooks are evaluated for the purpose of selection and since there is no alternative, teachers are bound to use the only available resource. Some of the supervisors have provided suggestions related to the improvement of the curriculum. They would like to contribute in the design of the curriculum through coordination (an absent parameter that should be addressed). They have raised the problem of trainees’ exposure to more theory than practice and the importance of developing critical thinking and reflection, essential ingredients for teachers.

On the whole, the Supervisors’ Questionnaire supports the third hypothesis stated at the beginning of this thesis in that it confirms that the supervisors have an important role to play in the design of the teaching methodology curriculum. Communication between the curriculum designers and the educational experts can bridge the gap between what is perceived as important and what is identified as essential for teachers to perform their job. In addition, the supervisors have identified weaknesses at the level of the targeted abilities within the curriculum so that they are taken into account when the curriculum is revised.

Conclusion

The Supervisors' Questionnaire aimed at bridging the gap between the ENS teachers and curriculum developers, and inspectors from the Ministry of Education. It has provided valuable information about the impact of the teaching methodology curriculum on novice teachers who have been trained at the ENS. The obtained results have identified weaknesses at the level of some of the abilities teachers were expected to develop and acquire during their pre-service training. The supervisors' opinions about the teaching methodology curriculum could be of great use if communicated to the curriculum developers at the ENS.

CHAPTER SIX

The Trainees' Attitudes and Expectations in Relation to the Teaching Methodology Curriculum at the "Higher Teacher Training School" (ENS), Constantine

Introduction

6.1. Description of the Trainees' Questionnaire

6.2. Analysis of the Results of the Trainees' Questionnaire

6.3. Overall Analysis

Conclusion

Introduction

The Trainees' Questionnaire is a useful tool to gather information about students. Asking the students to describe their learning styles, their interests, preferences, attitudes, and expectations would complete the data gathered previously in the curriculum evaluation, the Teachers' Questionnaire, and the Supervisors' Questionnaire.

This questionnaire was administered to 115 fourth year Bac+4 and Bac+5 students of English at the ENS of Constantine.. Eighty students returned the questionnaire.. The purpose of this questionnaire was to analyze the students' needs in terms of learning styles, motivation, interest and abilities. The questionnaire's administration was at the end of the third term of the academic year 2013/ 2014. It was meant to allow for the fulfilment of the curriculum and the end of the practical training where the students could put into practice the methodological content knowledge acquired at the ENS.

6.1. Description of the Trainees' Questionnaire

This questionnaire consists of thirty-two (32) questions divided into five (05) sections (see Appendix III) as follows.

Section One: General Information (Q01-Q06): The purpose from this section is to gather personal information from the trainees including gender, hometown, profile (B+4/ B+5), and the reasons for the choice of teaching. It is necessary to identify the respondents' representation of the different profiles available at the English department at the ENS of Constantine. Besides, knowing about the motives behind the choice of teaching would allow the determination of the students' motivation to the job and training for it.

Section Two: Learning Styles and Strategies (Q07-Q10): This is about trainees' preferred learning styles, training modes and the appropriate training approach. The utility of this section lies in the fact that needs analysis investigations require such kind of information to help the curriculum designers and teachers to select the appropriate approaches and methods

to match them with the students' preferences. Indeed, learners learn better and are more motivated to learn when their preferences are taken into account.

Section Three: Attitudes and Expectations (Q11-Q24): This section deals with the trainees' attitudes and expectations towards the most important knowledge to learn, the materials and media used by their teachers, the teaching methodology modules, the statement of objectives, theory/practice loads, and testing. The students' appreciations of the curriculum elements mentioned previously will contribute to the evaluation of the curriculum to detect its matching with the students' needs.

Section Four: Abilities (Q25-Q31): In this section, the trainees are asked about the abilities targeted in the curriculum modules: their overall appreciation of the curriculum and the abilities they could demonstrate after having been exposed to the curriculum modules' content. The trainees' responses targeted both the theoretical and practical concerns, since the questionnaire was administered straight after the end of the practical training. The outcome of this section is expected to analyze the extent to which the curriculum could attain its objectives and identify the areas of weaknesses to be adjusted within the curriculum.

Section Five: Further Suggestions (Q32): This section consists of one question where teachers are requested to provide any suggestion(s) they see relevant to the aim of the questionnaire.

6.2. Analysis of the Results of the Trainees' Questionnaire

Section One: General information

1. Are you male or female?

Table 6.1: Trainees' Gender

Male/ female	N	%
Male	70	87.50
Female	10	12.50
Total	80	100

Table 6.1 shows that the majority (87.5%) of the respondents are female. This is a representative rate of all the students of the teacher training school. The results denote that teaching is a profession that attracts female more than it does with males. The justification of such an attraction is due to many socio- cultural convictions such as the convenience and the suitability of the job to females.

2. What is your hometown?

Table 6.2: Trainees' Hometowns

Town	N	%
Constantine	15	18.75
Jijel	09	11.25
Setif	08	10.00
Skikda	05	06.25
Bejaia	05	06.25
Souk Ahras	05	06.25
Borj Bouarerridj	04	05.00
Tebessa	04	05.00
Oum el Bouaghi	04	05.00
Mila	04	05.00
Batna	02	02.50
Biskra	02	02.50
Msila	02	02.50
Guelma	02	02.50
Adrar	02	02.50
Khenchela	01	01.25
Taref	01	01.25
No answer	05	06.25
Total	80	100

The results show that the respondents come to the ENS from seventeen wilayas located eastern and southeastern Algeria. The highest representation is that of Constantine (18.75%) and the lowest is the one of Khenchela and Taref. It is to be noted that the wilayas representation is based mainly on the proximity of the school to the students' homes. For example, there are only two students (02.50%) from Adrar (in the extreme south of the country), and only one student (01.25%) from Taref (in the extreme east). Knowing that universities are available across the country, students would prefer to study near their homes. However, the ENS is one of the top choices expressed by baccalaureate holders and this is for mainly for the facility to be hired as a teacher. Therefore the admission of candidates is selective without reference to the place where the students may come from.

3. What is your profile?

B+4

B+5

Table 6.3: Trainees' Profile

Profile	N	%
B+4	46	57.50
B+5	34	42.50
Total	80	100

The results show that (57.50%) of the respondents belong to the B+4 profile and (42.50%) to the B+5 profile. This demonstrates a slight balance in the representation of the two profiles among the respondents.

4. Did you choose to be a teacher?

Yes

No

Table 6.4: Trainees' choice of the Profession

Options	N	%
Yes	69	86.25
No	11	13.75
Total	80	100

Table 6.4 reveals that the majority (86.25%) of the respondents have chosen to be teachers. The rate may demonstrate that those trainees are motivated to take teaching as a profession. It is of crucial importance that students decide by themselves about the choice of their future profession. Furthermore, the results match those obtained in question one where 87.50% are female. In fact, as stated earlier, females tend to be attracted by teaching for the many advantages they find in the profession (vacations, time convenience...). The justifications will be provided in question five.

5. If “Yes”, is it because:

a. You love teaching

b. You have been motivated by the job contract

c. Other: Please, specify

Table 6.5: Trainees' Reasons for the Choice of Teaching

Options	N	%
a	17	24.64
b	23	33.33
c	08	11.60
ab	14	20.29
ac	04	05.79
bc	01	01.45
abc	02	02.90
Total	69	100

Table 6.5 shows that the highest rate (33.33%) is attributed to option b: “you have been motivated by job contract” as a justification for the choice of teaching. In fact, choosing a university branch for the sake of a job contract is legitimate especially that very few of the available branches do provide their students with it. Besides, (24.64%) have chosen option a : “you love teaching”.

It may be true at this level to state that there are people who are born to be teachers. They start demonstrating the attraction to the profession very early in their life through the games they play imitating their own teachers. Furthermore, (20.29%) justify their choice through both of the provided options (ab): that is to say, the love of the profession and the job contract. This may be taken as the most significant category. The respondents express that they could find convenience to satisfy two essential needs: the job’s attraction as well as the security teaching provides. The rest of the respondents provided other reasons for their choice. Four trainees (05.79%) have mentioned that they have been influenced by their parents who are teachers, in addition to their love of the profession (ac). This denotes that from a sociological point of view, those students belong to families who make of teaching a family business. They may consider that they can provide their children with guidance and orientations to become successful teachers. Another reason may be that the parents feel satisfied with teaching and want their children to feel the same. However, the parents’

influence is backed by the drive of becoming a teacher. Another category of trainees (11.60%) have provided different justifications under the option c: ‘the suitability of the job for the Algerian woman’(four trainees) which is in line with the interpretations provided earlier in Q1 and Q4 where it was stated that teaching is seen as the most convenient job for women, ‘it is a job for respect, discipline and education’ (one trainee), the reputation of the ENS (one trainee), the influence of a teacher (two trainees).Two trainees have selected option abc (02.90) justifying c by the average obtained in the baccalaureate (one trainee)and the inability to attend a desired branch (one trainee). One respondent however, selected options b+c (01.45%) and has stated that it is the place where s/he should be, making of teaching a fate more than a choice

6. If “No”, who has chosen for you?

a. Your parents

b. Your secondary school teacher(s)

c. Other: Please, specify

Table 6.6: People Responsible for the Choice of Teaching

Options	N	%
a	07	63.63
c	04	36.37
Total	11	100

Table 6.6 shows that among the eleven respondents who have answered “No” to Q4, seven (63.63%) have followed the choice of their parents. From a cultural perspective, it is a sign of good education to respect and obey the parents’ decisions even if this does not match the student’s own choices and preferences. No trainee among the respondents has been influenced by the Secondary School teacher. This may reveal the kind of relationships Secondary School teachers hold with their pupils. Another reason may be the fact that

teachers avoid interfering in their pupils' own choices. On the other hand, (36.37%) have mentioned that they came to the profession not because they like teaching but rather because they love English (c). These could have joined the university instead of the ENS since their drive is to learn the language and not to become teachers.

Section Two: Learning Styles and Strategies

7. What kind of learner are you?

a. Auditory

b. visual

c. kinesthetic

d. Other: Please, specify

Table 6.7: Trainees' Learning Styles

Options	N	%
a	08	10.00
b	36	45.00
c	07	08.75
ab	13	16.25
bc	08	10.00
bd	01	01,25
cd	01	01.25
abc	05	06.25
bcd	01	01.25
Total	80	100

Learning styles would inform us about the optimum conditions that trainees would like to find in their learning context to show optimum motivation and less rejection of learning. It is of crucial importance for teachers to know about the learning styles of their learners in order to decide on the appropriate activities that would fit their profiles. Our sample shows a

majority (45%) of visual learners, (10%) are of the auditory kind, and (08.75%) are kinesthetic. The same categorization of learning styles is obtained through the trainees' combined responses. Item (a) has been selected by 32.50% of the trainees (a+ab+abc), item (b) by 80% (b+ab+bc+bd+abc+bcd), and item (c) by 27.50% (c+bc+cd+abc+bcd). In addition, the trainees' combination of the options confirms what Ehrman (1996) states about learning styles as not being dichotomous (black or white, present or absent), but generally operating on a continuum, or on multiple interesting continua. A learner may then be equally auditory and visual, kinesthetic and auditory.... However, according to Oxford (1990), there is necessarily a predominant learning style, and then the learners could be classified accordingly. Yet, since the majority of the respondents are predominantly visual, we would expect that the teachers would suggest activities that would fit mainly that category. Another interpretation of the results would reveal that the trainees know about what learning styles are and are even able to talk about their own learning styles. Therefore, we may conclude that they have tackled the issue of learning styles in their courses and are able at this level to recognize their learners' styles later on as teachers.

8. Which of the following training modes do you prefer?

- a. The teacher- centered mode**
- b. The experiential mode**
- c. The workshop mode**
- d. The pair/group work mode**
- e. The individualized mode**

Table 6.8: Trainees' Preferred Training Mode(s)

Modes	N	%
a	02	02.50
b	04	05
c	10	12.50
d	17	21.25
e	11	13.75
ae	01	01.25
ad	04	05
bc	05	06.25
bd	06	07.50
be	04	05
cd	07	08.75
de	02	02.50
abe	01	01.25
acd	01	01.25
bcd	04	01.25
bde	01	05
Total	80	100

Table 6.8 reveals that the highest rate for the preferred training mode is allotted to pair/group work mode (21.25%). As stated earlier in the review of the literature, this mode involves most of the trainees for most of the time and is used mainly for specified tasks that usually lead to some form of sharing of opinions. It may be concluded that the respondents prefer to be involved in their own learning and learn better when it is a matter of practical activities realized in pairs or groups. Besides, the individualized mode is the second preferred type by the respondents (13.75%). Those trainees would prefer research type activities as well as project works where there is little or no reliance on the trainers. On the other hand, the workshop mode, whereby the trainees are involved in materials development, lesson planning and textbook analysis, represents (12.50%) of the whole population's preferred training modes. Very few respondents have selected the teacher centered mode (02.50%) and the experiential mode (05.00%). However, Table 6.8 shows combinations of the different modes: item (a) has been selected by 11.25% of the whole population (a+ad+ae+abe+acd), item (b)

has been mentioned by 31.25% (b+bc+bd+be+abe+bcd+bde), item (c) by 33.75% (c+bc+cd+acd+bcd), and item (d) by 52.50% (d+ad+bd+cd+de+acd+bcd+bde). Besides, item (e) has been chosen by 25% of the trainees (e+ae+be+de+abe+bde). The results show the following order of preferences as expressed by the trainees:

1. The pair/group work mode (52.50%)
2. The workshop mode (33.75%)
3. The experiential mode (31.25%)
4. The individualized mode (25%)
5. The teacher-centered mode (11.25%)

On the whole, the results obtained in Table 6.8 could help the teachers of the curriculum to decide on the most preferred modes to provide the trainees with more possibilities to engage in motivated learning.

9. Which of the modes do your teaching methodology teachers (TEFL/ MDD/ TESD) use?

- a. The teacher-centered mode**
- b. The experiential mode**
- c. The workshop mode**
- d. The pair/group work mode**
- e. The individualized mode**

Table 6.9: Training Mode (s) used by the Teaching Methodology Teachers

Modes	N	%
a	04	05
c	07	08.75
d	13	16.25
e	02	02.50
ac	05	06.25

ad	07	08.75
ae	01	01.25
bc	05	06.25
bd	04	05
cd	12	15.00
de	04	05
dcd	05	06.25
ade	03	03.75
bcd	02	02.50
cde	02	02.50
bcde	02	02.50
No answer	02	02.50
Total	80	100

The results in Table 6.9 show that the trainees have provided a variety of answers. Some of them have pointed particular training modes where option (a) has been selected by 5%, option (c) by 8.75%, option (d) by 16.25%, and option (e) by 02.50%. Compared to the trainees' preferred modes as expressed in Q8, the teachers respond to a great extent to their students' expectations. However, the majority of trainees have provided combined choices. This indicates that the teaching methodology teachers use a variety of modes, instead of one particular mode. Item (a) has been combined by 31.25% (a+ac+ad+ae+acd+ade), item (b) by 16.25% (bc+bd+bcd+bcde), item (c) has been selected by 50% (c+ac+bc+cd+acd+bcd+cde+bcde), item (d) has been mentioned by 67.50% (d+ad+bd+cd+de+acd+ade+bcd+cde+bcde), and item (e) by 17.50% (e+ae+de+ade+cde+bcde). As for the previous question, the modes used by the teaching methodology teachers can be classified as follows:

1. The pair/group work mode (67.50%)
2. The workshop mode (50%)
3. The teacher-centered mode (31.25%)
4. The individualized mode (17.50%)
5. The experiential mode (16.25%)

The classification of modes shows that the teachers respond to the trainees' preferred modes to a great extent. Table 6.9 shows a variety of modes used by teaching methodology teachers. On one hand, those findings demonstrate the students' ability to recognize the types of modes used by their teachers. In other words, the students have developed some of techniques and procedures they might use themselves later on as teachers. On the other hand, the teachers may vary the modes not only to respond to the trainees' different learning styles, but to equip them with enough theoretical and practical experiences that would prepare them for teaching as well. An agreement over one type of mode would reveal that the training is stereotyped and bound to a unique practice that would condemn both the trainer and the trainee to an automatic kind of class contact whereby creativity is an absent ingredient. The students who have not provided any answer might have been unable to recognize which of the modes are used by the teachers.

10. Which of the following approaches do you think is most appropriate for teacher training?

a. Competency-Based Approach (ability to apply the acquired knowledge in teaching)

b. Holistic (teachers are prepared to function in any situation rather than for a specific situation)

c. Attitude adjustment (methodology is introduced after several phases for the purpose of attitude adjustment)

d. Teacher-centered

e. Learner-centered

f. Other: Please, specify

Table 6.10: Most Appropriate Approach for Teacher Training

Approach	N	%
a	32	40.00
b	12	15.00
d	01	01.25
e	07	08.75
ab	01	01.25
ae	16	20.00
be	03	03.75
abc	01	01.25
abe	05	06.25
ade	01	01.25
No answer	01	01.25
Total	80	100

Table 6.10 shows that 40% of the respondents find CBA as the most appropriate approach to training, 15% find that it should be holistic; one trainee believes it should be teacher-centered and 8.75% of the respondents have referred to learner centeredness. The rest of the participants have stated that they prefer it to be an amalgamation of two or more approaches opting therefore for eclecticism. Item (a) has been selected by 70% of the trainees (a+ab+ae+abc+abe+ade), item (b) by 27.50% (b+ab+be+abc+abe), item (c) has been mentioned by only one respondent: (abc), item (d) by two trainees (d+ade, and item (e) by 40% of the population (e+ae+be+abe+ade). According to these results the approaches can be classified in order of appropriateness as follows:

1. CBA (70%)
2. Learner- centered (40%)
3. Holistic (27.50%)
4. Teacher-centered (02.50%)
5. Attitude adjustment (01.25%)

The findings reveal that the trainees are able to recognize the suggested approaches. Most of their proposals opt for a humanistic learner centered approach whereby they are involved in their own learning. CBA ranks first among the students choices to confirm that they like to be involved in tasks so that they develop the ability to apply the knowledge they have acquired in teaching. In addition the choice might be related to the fact that CBA is the adopted approach in the Algerian educational system and would prefer therefore to be trained using the approach they will use themselves as teachers. However, the 27.50% who want a holistic approach might be able to recognize that they need to be trained to make choice and therefore become critical creative teachers who can adapt any of the suggested approaches to the appropriate situation.

Section Three: Attitudes and Expectations

11. Which do you think is most important for teacher trainees to acquire?

(You may tick more than one answer)

- a. Linguistic knowledge**
- b. Pedagogical knowledge**
- c. Cultural knowledge**
- d. All of them**
- e. Other: Please, specify**

Table 611: Most Important Area of Knowledge

Options	N	%
b	02	02.50
d	65	81.25
ab	06	07.50
ac	02	02.50

bc	02	02.50
de	03	03.75
Total	80	100

As shown in table 6.11, the majority of the respondents (81.25%) believe that all the proposed items are necessary for teacher training. This reveals that at the end of their theoretical and practical training, they could see the importance of the different strands of their curriculum. In fact, it is essential for language teachers to master the subject matter they are training to teach, to know how to transmit what they have learnt and master the cultural component, seen by specialists as an essential ingredient in language teaching. Furthermore, during the practical training in Middle and Secondary school they could confirm the importance of the three strands especially after having experienced lesson planning and presentation as well as the use of the textbook and the adaptation of materials.

On the other hand, Pedagogical knowledge is viewed most important by only two respondents (02.50%). However, the rest of the respondents have provided combined answers. Item (b) has been mentioned by 12.50% of the respondents, item (b) by 2.50% (ab+bc), item (c) by 02.50%, and item (d) by 85% (d+de). This confirms the prominence to all the categories of knowledge as most important for teacher training.

Furthermore, option (e) as expressed by three students in (de) provides the following proposals for the type of important knowledge to be acquired by teacher trainees: psychological knowledge (how to deal with pupils and classroom management), discipline, education and personality traits, as well as the acquisition of a sense of belief in one's abilities.

12. Does teacher training require the use of media and /or any specific equipment?

Yes

No

Table 6.12: The use of Media in Teacher Training

Options	N	%
Yes	76	95
No	04	05
Total	80	100

The results show that the majority of the respondents (95%) see that teacher training requires the use of media and specific equipment. In fact, the students' learning styles may be valuable information for curriculum designers to decide whether or not to use such media and equipment. Since most of the respondents are predominantly visual (80%) (Q07), it is obvious that they would prefer their teachers to use media in the classroom. The rest of the population (05. %) do not see the utility of the use of media and specific equipment simply because they tend to be predominantly auditory and would tend to favor a classical teacher centered approach in training.

13. If “Yes”, what type of media and/or equipment is needed? (you may tick more than one answer)

a. The data show

b. Class videos

c. Special class organization

d. Other: Please, specify

Table 6.13: Type of Media and or Equipment Needed

Options	N	%
a	11	14.47
b	01	01.32
c	01	01.32
d	01	01.32
ab	27	35.52
ac	08	10.52
ad	01	01.32
bc	02	02.63
bd	01	01.32
abc	17	22.36
abd	01	01.32
abcd	04	05.26
No answer	01	01.32
Total	76	100

Among the 76 trainees who find the use of media and necessary equipment necessary in teacher training, 14.47% have stated that the data show is needed (a). This instrument may be applicable for many uses like displaying teacher notes, showing videos, showing lecture extracts, power point presentations.... One trainee has mentioned class videos (b) and seems to like to watch concrete classroom situations through videos and comment on them making use of his/her theoretical background knowledge about teaching.

It could be assumed that actions speak louder than words. Watching real classroom situations would be a support to the learnt theories. Besides, one respondent has selected 'special class organization' (c) and one other has mentioned (d) to refer to pictures. Furthermore, 22.36% view that the three suggested options (abc) are necessary. Those students seem to like variety in teaching methods and techniques so that they may be exposed to a maximum of possibilities they will select among later on. On the other hand, 10.53% prefer the data show and specific classroom organization like 'u shape' or horseshoe.... (ad). Probably their preference is due to the fact that they learn better through opinion exchange,

group and pair work, debates..., tasks relevant to the approach they judge most suitable: CBA. (see Q 10 earlier). The rest of the respondents however have selected other combinations of items. Item (a) has been selected by 90.78% of the respondents (a+ab+ac+ad+abc+abd+abcd), item (b) by 69.73% (b+ab+bc+bd+abc+abd+abcd), item (c) by 42.10% (c+ac+bc+abc+abcd), and item (d) by 10.52% of the respondents (d+ad+bd+abd+abcd) and referred to songs, jokes, drawings, pictures, charts, handouts, posters, radio records and real objects. Most of the provided possibilities seem to be incompatible to the context of teacher training but rather to the students' own teaching context in Middle and Secondary schools. Furthermore, the respondents tend to confuse between materials and media, a topic tackled in their teaching methodology curriculum.

14. Are the media and necessary equipment available in your department?

Yes

No

Table 6.14: Availability of Media and the Necessary Equipment in the Department

Options	N	%
Yes	69	86.25
No	10	12.50
No answer	01	01.25
Total	80	100

The majority of the trainees (86.25%) have stated that the needed media and necessary equipment are available in the department. This may affect positively the training process in terms of convenience of the infrastructure and the means to the requirements as expressed by the students and therefore the achievement of some of the trainees' needs. However, 12.50% have stated that they are not available. Those students might be less

involved in their own learning than their peers or tend to be the kind of learners who keep on demonstrating dissatisfaction because they hold a negative image of what and how they learn.

15. What type of materials do your methodology teachers use? (you may tick more than one answer)

- a. Handouts**
- b. Textbooks**
- c. Internet resources**
- d. Other: Please specify**

Table 6.15: Type of Materials used by Teachers

Options	N	%
a	29	36.25
ab	05	06.25
ac	36	45.00
ad	02	02.50
bc	02	02.50
bd	01	01.25
abc	04	05
acd	01	01.25
Total	80	100

Table 6.15 demonstrates that 45.00% of the population has stated that teaching methodology teachers rely on internet resources, 36.25% have said that they use handouts and 06.25% have mentioned textbooks. The teachers' reliance on internet resources may be due to the lack of specialized books and articles in the school's library. However, though internet resources may lack reliability, yet teachers may get inspired by the methodology and training techniques suggested by lecturers in other training contexts like British and American institutes of education. On the other hand, when teachers provide handouts, they bring some kind of security to their students through including the essential information of their lectures.

Yet, the use of handouts may be risky especially when the students rely only on those notes and neglect their own contribution in their own learning. Besides, the trainees who have said that their teachers used textbooks may mean the official Middle and Secondary school textbooks that are used for purposes of materials design and evaluation as well as lesson planning and presentation. It is to be noted that no textbooks for teacher training are available unless teachers would decide to use some published texts meant to train teachers outside Algeria. Furthermore, the results in Table 6.15 show that the trainees have mentioned combined options. Item (a) has been selected by 96.25% of the respondents (a+ab+ac+ad+abc+acd), Item (b) by 13.75% (ab+bc+bd), item (c) by 53.75%, and item (d) by 05% (ad+bd+acd). The latter referred to 'the data show', 'images' and 'dictation'. Again it is to be signaled that those trainees tend to confuse materials, media and even teaching techniques. On the whole, the materials used by the teaching methodology teachers are classified by the trainees as follows:

1. Handouts (96.25%)
2. Textbooks (13.75%)
3. Internet resources (53.75%)
4. Other (05%)

This classification confirms the prominence of handouts over the other types of materials. This is probably the most available possibility for teachers to manage their courses and to provide a kind of security to the trainees, since they will have a support from which they can revise for their exams.

16. How do you evaluate your teachers' materials?

- a. Complete (you do not need to consult other resources)**
- b. Incomplete (you need to carry out further research)**

c. Adapted to your level and expectations

d. They need up-dating and adaptation

e. Other: Please, specify

Table 6.16: Trainees' Evaluation of their Teachers' Materials

Options	N	%
a	09	11.25
b	17	21.25
c	17	21.25
d	19	23.75
ac	05	06.25
bc	02	02.50
bd	08	10.00
cd	01	01.25
bcd	01	01.25
No answer	01	01.25
Total	80	100

Table 6.16 shows different opinions about the curriculum teachers' materials. 23.75% find that they need updating, 21.25% judge them incomplete, while 21.25% other students believe they are updated. Besides, 11.25% say they are complete. What is noted is that there is no total agreement about the quality of teachers' materials. The remaining students have associated two or more options to describe their teachers' materials stating that they are both complete and adapted (10.00%), incomplete, adapted and need updating (01.25%), and adapted and need updating (01.25%).

It is to be noted that the varied views are largely related to the students' learning needs. Since it is difficult to reach a consensus over students' needs, it would be strange to reach a common view of students about materials. Some may find them interesting and see that they lead to the successful achievement of the curriculum objectives. In this case, they tend to evaluate them as complete. Some students may even take it for granted that they do not know

better than their teachers concerning the materials. They do trust their teachers and what they provide them with in terms of content and materials. Others however, tend to constantly check the validity of the information they receive from teachers. In this case, they will evaluate their teachers' materials as incomplete, ignoring that teachers are bound to the syllabus objectives, time frame, overall level..., which justifies adaptation as a way to adjust resources to classroom demands.

On the other hand, it is quite appropriate to find that the highest rate of the respondents (23.75%) claim for updated materials. Through updating, teachers may bring variety but also adjustment to the newest trends in training. Updated materials may reveal that teachers are continuously attempting to improve the content and the materials to seek for quality learning. The suggested items in combination show how the trainees evaluate their teachers' materials. Item (a) has been listed by 17.50% of the trainees (a+ac), item (b) by 35% (b+bc+bd+bcd), item (c) by 32.5% (c+ac+bc+cd+bcd), and item (d) by 36.25% of the trainees (d+bd+cd+bcd). The result from that combination is a classification of the ways the trainees evaluate their teachers' materials:

1. They need updating and adaptation (36.25%)
2. Incomplete (you need to carry out further research) (35%)
3. Adapted to your level and expectations (32.50%)
4. Complete (you do not need to consult other resources) (17.50%)

17. Which module is most important for teacher trainees?

a. TEFL

b. MDD

c. TESD

d. All of them

e. None of them

Table 6.17: Most Important Module(s) According to the Trainees

Options	N	%
a	03	03.75
b	09	11.25
d	44	55
e	01	01.25
ab	15	18.75
ac	01	01.25
bc	07	08.75
Total	80	100

The results show that 55.00% of the respondents find the three modules important for teacher training, 11.25% have stated that it is MDD, and 3.75% have mentioned TEFL. On the other hand, one trainee has stated that none of the modules is important, 18.75% believe that TEFL and MDD are the most important, 08.75% have referred to MDD and TESD, and 01.25% have listed TEFL and TESD. The single items in combination show that TEFL (a) has been listed by 23.75% of the trainees and MDD (b) by 38.75%. We notice that prominence is given to MDD followed by TEFL. TESD appears only in one combination (ac) by only one trainee. These results may be justified by the nature of the subjects and the direct utility the trainees see from them. The same question has been addressed to the supervisors and the results do not correspond to those obtained from Table 6.17 since they revealed that though 66.67% find all the modules important, prominence is given to TEFL (91.67%), followed by MDD (83.33%) and TESD (74.99%).

18. Does the TEFL teacher describe the syllabus aims and objectives before s/he starts the course?

Yes

No

Table 6.18: TEFL Teacher’s Description of the Syllabus Aims/ Objectives

Options	N	%
Yes	39	48.75
No	41	51.25
Total	80	100

The results indicate that 51.25% of the trainees state that the TEFL teacher does not describe the syllabus aims and objectives at the beginning of the course while 48.75% say that the teachers do. One interpretation of the findings would be that the trainees are not taught by the same teachers. Besides, the objectives to be described may be absent in the syllabus and therefore, teachers may interpret the chapters’ titles differently to seek for different outcomes. Another assumption would concern the teachers’ own perception of the utility of describing the course objectives. One teacher may care to present the aims and objectives to the students so that they can give a sense to what they learn. Furthermore, it is a way to encourage learners to contribute in their own learning through preparation and further readings that may lead them to what they are meant to achieve. On the other hand, another teacher may not refer to the course’s objectives because s/he finds that this is a teacher’s technical concern and that it is his/her job to guide the learners towards what s/he expects them to achieve.

19. Does the MDD teacher describe the syllabus aims and objectives before he/ she starts the course?

Yes

No

Table 6.19: MDD Teacher’s Description of the Syllabus Aims/ Objectives

Options	N	%
Yes	66	82.50
No	14	17.50
Total	80	100

Table 6.19 indicates that the majority of the trainees (82.50%) have stated that the MDD teacher describes the syllabus aims and objectives before s/he starts the course while 17.50% have mentioned that s/he does not. As stated earlier in the analysis of the previous question, the syllabus may provide clearly stated aims and objectives and the teachers believe in the importance of involving learners in their own learning through providing them with guidelines but also expected outcomes to be achieved through joint efforts.

20. Does the TESD teacher describe the syllabi aims and objectives before s/he starts the course?

Yes

No

Table 6.20: TESD Teacher’s Description of the Syllabus Aims/ Objectives

Options	N	%
Yes	74	92.50
No	06	07.50
Total	80	100

The results show that only six trainees (07.50%) have stated that they are not informed about the course aims and objectives, while the majority (92.50%) has confirmed that their teachers describe the aims and objectives before they start the course. Again, like for the MDD course, it is likely that the syllabus describes its content in terms of clear objectives. In this way, the TESD teachers may hold a unified vision of the course in terms of outcomes.

Furthermore, as stated earlier, the teachers' attitude towards informing students about the course aims and objectives may emerge from their overall understanding of autonomous learning and the role of partner attributed to the learner throughout their adopted approach. Besides, the nature of the subject matter they teach where there is a focus on the importance of aims and objectives in course design may motivate them to insist on guiding learners through aims and objectives. It is to be noted as well that among the three modules of the teaching methodology curriculum, TESD ranks first concerning the description of aims and objectives, followed by MDD and finally MDD. In short, it may be assumed that the course description provided in the curriculum may determine whether or not teachers describe their courses in terms of aims and objectives, especially when the teachers lack experience and limit themselves to translating the course titles in terms of teachable content.

21. Is it important for you to know about the aims and objectives before the course starts?

Yes

No

The whole population (80 trainees) stated that it is important for them to know about the aims and objectives before the course starts. For trainees, it seems to be evident to obtain such a result: they have learnt about aims and objectives in their teaching methodology curriculum and have even experienced the use of course aims and objectives as well as the formulation of their own objectives to plan lessons during the practical training period. The next question will justify their stand position.

22. Please, explain why.

Table 6. 21: Trainees' Answers

Answers	N	%
I get a clear idea about the course content	29	36.25
I can direct learning and focus towards the achievement of aims and objectives	14	17.50
Aims and objectives help me to concentrate and feel motivated about the course	13	16.25
They help me to auto evaluate my own achievement	06	07.50
They help me to make the link between the course and the profession	01	01.25
It is important to know about what I learn before I engage in learning	01	01.25
They help me to get rid of confusion	01	01.25
No answer	15	18.75

The reasons as stated by the respondents confirm to a great extent the awareness of the trainees about the importance of aims and objectives. This may be the result of the focus of their teaching methodology teachers over that particular issue. It is to be noted that the three syllabi (TEFL/MDD/TESD) include aims and objectives as important chapters. Another interpretation would be the short teaching experience they have had through the practical training where they could engage in lesson planning and presentation making use of the syllabus objectives to state their own objectives for the lessons. Finally, the justifications they have provided reveal an understanding and even acquisition of what they have learnt in theory about the reasons behind stating aims and objectives. The trainees responses: they give a clear idea about the course (36.25%), they direct learning (17.50), they help to concentrate and feel motivated (16.25), they help in the evaluation of the students' own achievement (07.50), match the description of the characteristics of aims and objectives in the teaching literature. The fifteen trainees who have not provided a justification (18.75%) may have difficulty with understanding the importance of aims and objectives in teaching or find it a hard task to interpret and formulate aims and objectives.

23. Do you like your methodology courses to be:

a. Theoretical

b. Practical

c. Both

Table 6.22: Nature of Methodology Courses Appreciated by the Trainees

Options	N	%
B	23	28.75
C	57	71.25
Total	80	100

Table 6.22 shows that the majority of the trainees (71.25%) like their courses to be both theoretical and practical. The results are quite logical if we consider that theory and practice are inter-complementary. In fact, theoretical knowledge is best assimilated if matched with practice. Furthermore, practice is best performed if backed by theoretical foundations. The twenty three trainees (28.75%) who like their training to be only practical may belong to the category of learners who learn better through doing. They do not like to be trained through memorization of rules and theories but rather to be involved in real meaningful tasks and activities. No matter which should be taught first (theory or practice), both are, indeed, important in teacher training.

24. Which kind(s) of tests do you prefer? (you may tick more than one answer)

a. Essays

b. Multiple Choice Questions

c. Problem solving activities

d. Lesson presentations

e. Oral tests

f. Other: Please, specify

Table 6.23: Preferred kinds of tests

Options	N	%
a	03	03.75
b	07	08.75
c	05	06.25
d	03	03.75
f	01	01.25
ab	01	01.25
ac	05	06.25
ad	02	02.50
ae	02	02.50
bc	10	12.50
bd	08	10.00
be	01	01.25
bf	01	01.25
Cd	02	02.50
Ce	01	01.25
De	03	03.75
abc	02	02.50
abe	03	03.75
abd	01	01.25
acd	02	02.50
bcd	05	06.25
bde	02	02.50
cde	02	02.50
abcd	02	02.50
acde	01	01.25
bcde	01	01.25
Total	80	100

Table 6.23 shows that the trainees have different preferences in terms of types of tests. Very few trainees have selected one type of test: a (03.75%), b(08.75%), c (06.25%), d (03.75%) and f (01.25%). Besides, the options have been combined in different ways to reveal that the trainees prefer more than one type of test. Item (a) has been mentioned by 30% of the trainees (a+ab+ac+ad+ae+abc+abe+abd+acd+abcd+acde), item (b) by 60%

(b+ab+bc+bd+be+bf+abc+abe+abd+bcd+bde+abcd+bcde), item (c) 47.35% (c+ac+bc+cd+ce+abc+acd+bcd+cde+abcd+acde+bcde), item (d) by 42.50% (d+ad+bd+cd+de+abd+acd+bcd+bde+cde+abcd+acde+bcde), and item (e) by 25% (ae+be+ce+de+abe+bde+cde+acde+bcde). Item (f) however, has appeared only twice (f+bf) to refer to two tests: true/ false tests and an integrated type of test where all the suggested option could be used. This is probably is the most suitable approach to be considered by teachers.

It is important for teachers to know about the preferred types of tests of their students before they design their tests. Among the reasons why they should do so is to check the achievement of the pre-set objectives. The results indicate varied tests where teachers can respond to the common needs of the students. However there is a clear hierarchy in the classification of the trainees' preferences in terms of types of tests. The majority of the respondents tend to prefer multiple choice questions most (60%) believing that they are easier to tackle than the other kinds of tests. It is known that students generally rely on their intuition to approach these kinds of tests. Besides, 47.5% prefer problem solving activities that match the principles of CBA. These kinds of tests require a lot of skills including the use of the acquired knowledge to solve real life problems. Furthermore, 42.5% of the trainees prefer lesson presentations where they put into practice their theoretical knowledge and get quickly engaged in teaching before they join their jobs. Fewer trainees prefer essay type tests (30%) probably because they find them difficult. This may imply that there is a deficiency in the acquisition of the writing skill in the earlier years of their training. On the other hand, only 25% prefer oral tests, which may be due to the psychological frustration students may develop when responding orally to a test due to the direct contact with the teacher, the time allotted for the student, and even the classroom atmosphere. In sum, the obtained results could help

teachers to develop tests that would respond to the majority of the students, for the sake of better achievement.

Section Four: Abilities

25. Which of the following TEFL course components can you demonstrate? (you may tick more than one answer)

- a. The statement of aims, objectives and goals**
- b. Lesson planning and presentation**
- c. Teaching the four language skills and integrating them**
- d. Teaching vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation**
- e. Implementing teaching approaches**
- f. Managing the classroom and dividing groups**
- g. Designing tests, scoring them and providing feedback**
- h. Recognizing the different learning styles and strategies**

Table 6.24: Trainees' Demonstrated ability from TEFL

Options	N	%
a	01	01.25
d	01	01.25
ab	03	03.75
ad	01	01.25
af	02	02.50
ag	01	01.25
ah	01	01.25
cd	01	01.25
abc	01	01.25
abd	01	01.25
abe	01	01.25
abf	02	02.50

abg	02	02.50
abh	01	01.25
acd	01	01.25
ace	01	01.25
afg	01	01.25
bcf	01	01.25
cde	02	02.50
ceg	01	01.25
cgh	01	01.25
abcd	03	03.75
abce	01	01.25
abcf	02	02.50
abcg	01	01.25
abdg	03	03.75
abdf	03	03.75
abeg	01	01.25
abgh	03	03.75
acde	01	01.25
acdf	02	02.50
acdh	01	01.25
acfg	01	01.25
adef	01	01.25
adfg	02	02.50
bcef	01	01.25
bceg	01	01.25
bdfh	01	01.25
cdeh	01	01.25
abcfg	02	02.50
abcdf	02	02.50
abcdh	01	01.25
abdeh	01	01.25
abdfg	02	02.50
abfgh	01	01.25
abdgh	01	01.25
bcdfg	01	01.25
abcefg	01	01.25
abcdfg	02	02.50
abdfgh	01	01.25
abcdefg	02	02.50
abcdfgh	01	01.25
abdefgh	01	01.25
abcdefgh	05	06.25
Total	80	100

The above course components have been extracted from the syllabus. They are written in terms of performances students are expected to demonstrate. It is to be noted that the order in

which the course components are presented is the same order of their appearance in the syllabus as well as the order they are presented to the trainees. The trainees' responses emerge from both theoretical and practical grounds. The questionnaire has been assigned after the end of the practical training where the students have made use of the knowledge they have acquired in theory to plan and execute lessons in real teaching contexts.

Table 6.24 shows that the trainees have provided varied answers. The highest majority has provided individual combinations of abilities. This is quite logical because of the recognized feature of learner differences. Indeed, learners are different in terms of background knowledge, level, interests, motivation, and attitudes towards the course. Besides, the table shows differences in terms of the number of acquired abilities (from one ability up to the suggested eight abilities). 2.50% have of the trainees have referred to only one ability (one item), 11.25% trainees have listed two abilities (two items), 20% have answered they could perform three abilities (three items), 36.25% could demonstrate four abilities (4 items), 18.75% have listed five abilities, 5% have mentioned six abilities, whereas only 06.25% have referred to the eight provided abilities. This denotes that the trainees have reacted differently to the same knowledge. This kind of information to be derived from Table 6.25 can be of great help for teachers to identify the areas of weakness within their courses and attempt to redress them. Furthermore, they can confirm the success or failure of their courses depending on benchmarks they would set for themselves at the beginning of the course. In this way, they could engage in quality assurance and attempt to improve their courses continuously.

In Table 6.25, the single items in combination identify which abilities are acquired most. Item (a) has been selected by 86.25% of the population (a+ab+ad+af+ag+abc+abd+abe+abf+abg+abh+acd+ace+afg+abcd+abce+abcf+abcg+abdg+abdf+abeg+abgh+acde+acdf+acdh+acfg+adef+adfg+abcfg+abcdf+abcdh+abdeh+abdfg+abfgh+abdgh+abcefg+abcdfg+abdfgh+abcdefg+abcdfgh+abdefgh+abcdefgh), and item (b) by 43.75% (a

$b+abc+abd+abe+abf+abg+abh+bcf+abcd+abce+abcf+abcg+abdg+abdf+abeg+abgh+bc$
 $ef+bceg+bdfh+abcfg+abcdf+abcdh+abdeh+abdfg+abfgh+abdgh+bcdfg+abcefg+abcdfg+abdf$
 $gh+abcdefg+abcdfgh+abdefgh+abcdefgh$). We can deduce from items (a) and (b) that
 students tend to show more interest to the first chapters of the year: they are more motivated
 to learn and are curious about the subject matter. In addition, the nature of the course
 component (stating aims objectives and goals) is of crucial importance for trainee-teachers to
 engage in planning lessons. On the other hand, it is assumed that the 43.75% who have stated
 that they could plan and present lessons have experienced it during the training period. The
 rest of the respondents who have not selected this item might have had difficulty to perform
 during the training if we consider that their lesson plans as well as their presentations are
 commented and evaluated by their mentors. Item (c):teaching the four language skills and
 integrating them has been
 mentioned by 51.25% of the population ($cd+abc+acd+ace+bcf+cde+ceg+cgh+abcd+abce+abcf+a$
 $bcg+acde+acdf+acd+acfh+acfg+bcef+bceg+cdeh+abcfg+abcdf+abcdh+bcdfg+abcefg+abcdfg+ab$
 $cdefg+abcdfgh+abcdefgh$), item (d): teaching
 vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation by 55% ($d+ad+cd+abd+acd+cde+abcd+abdg+abdf+acd$
 $e+acdf+acd+adef+adfg+bdfh+cdeh+abcdf+abcdh+abdeh+abdfg+abdgh+bcdfg+abcdfg+abdf$
 $gh+abcdefg+abcdfgh+abdefgh+abcdefgh$), and item (e): implementing teaching approaches
 has been chosen by 27.50% Of the trainees. The rates for c,d,e represent more or less than a
 half of the population which might be highly motivated to become teachers and recognize the
 importance of learning how to deal with such components. The population who does not
 demonstrate ability about those items might do so because of the nature of the information
 provided by teachers where dominance is attributed to theoretical guidelines that might not
 necessarily fit the reality of the Algerian classroom. They would prefer to see a link between
 theory and what they might encounter as difficulties and constraints in the classroom. Besides,

if only 27.50% have stated they could implement teaching approaches, this is the result of the focus on CBA at the level of implementation. Though the students are provided with knowledge about the different teaching approaches, there is no real ground for them where to watch or even apply that knowledge. Even during the training period, they are restrained to implement the adopted approach (CBA). Item (f): managing the classroom and dividing groups has been mentioned by 47.5% of the trainees, revealing that nearly a half of the trainees are able to manage the classroom and divide groups. On the other hand, item (g): designing tests, scoring them, and providing feedback, has been selected by 47.50% of the respondents (ag+abg+afg+ceg+cgh+abcg+abdg+abeg+abgh+acfg+adfg+bceg+abcf+abdfg+abfgh+abdgh+bcdfg+abcefg+abcdfg+abdfgh+abcdefg+abcdfgh+abdefgh+abcdefgh). This also reveals that nearly a half of the respondents are able to demonstrate this item. This reveals that the supervisors will have to consolidate this ability during their in-service training sessions. The last item (h): recognizing the different learning styles and strategies has been mentioned by (27.25%) of the trainees, which is a lower rate compared to the previous items. This may be due to the fact that this is the last item the syllabus presents. Considering the load of tasks and activities they are required to perform at the end of the year (training report, extended essay...), that low rate may be justified. In sum, the results are in favor of an average achievement of the TEFL course components and the items where the trainees could show ability can be classified as follows:

1. The statement of aims, objectives and goals (86.25%)
2. Teaching vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation (55%)
3. Teaching the four language skills and integrating them (51.25%)
4. Managing the classroom and dividing groups (47.50%)
5. Designing tests, scoring them, and providing feedback (47.50%)
6. Lesson planning and presentation (43.75%)

7. Implementing teaching approaches (27.25%)
8. Recognizing the different learning styles and strategies (27.25%)

26. Which other components should the TEFL course develop?

Out of the 80 trainees who have participated in the investigation, 23 have answered the question and have suggested other components to be developed by the TEFL course. The information they provided is listed as follows:

- Fifteen trainees (65.22%) have stated that the syllabus should bridge the gap between theory and practice. It is of crucial importance for trainee teachers to see the link between what they learn in theory and the way they could implement it in practice. Students tend to be more enthusiastic about learning when they see its significance in reality.
- Five trainees (21.73) would like to see more focus on classroom and time management. This claim may emerge for the difficulties they may have encountered during the training period to manage time and classrooms.
- Three trainees (13.05%) have referred to pedagogical knowledge. Their suggestion seems to be irrelevant for the context if we consider that their pedagogical knowledge is tackled in educational psychology, a module they study for three years.

27. Which of the following MDD course components can you demonstrate?

- a. Adjust materials to the learners' level, time, objectives, and classroom settings**
- b. Analyze and evaluate materials**
- c. Select authentic materials and design them for classroom use**

Table 6.25: Trainees' Demonstrated Abilities from MDD

Options	N	%
a	06	07.50
b	05	06.25
c	08	10
ab	12	15
ac	13	16.25
bc	08	10
abc	27	33.75
No answer	01	01.25
Total	80	100

As for Q 25, the abilities have been extracted from the curriculum document and the trainees have answered the questionnaire at the end of the theoretical and practical training. Table 6.25 shows that 41.25% of the trainees are able to demonstrate two course components out of three, followed by 33.75% of the respondents who are able to demonstrate the total number of the suggested course components. Besides, 23.75% can perform one out of three and one trainee (01.25%) has stated that s/he can show ability at none of the proposed suggestions. The rate is satisfactory. The reason behind it may be the clear presentation of the syllabus in terms of objectives and typology of activities. On one side, the teachers have enough guidance in the syllabus as to the way they have to proceed with the module. The syllabus leaves no floor for misinterpretations of the content and therefore teachers would develop a common vision of the subject matter. On the other side, the trainees themselves are informed about the aims and objectives of the syllabus and know about the expected outcomes in order to work forward attaining them.

Table 6.25 also shows the rates of single items in combination with one or more items. Item (a) has been selected by 72.50% of the trainees (a+ab+ac+abc), item (b) by 52.65% (b+ab+bc+abc), and item (c) by 70% of the population (c+ac+bc+abc). The overall examination of the results reveals that there is a positive reaction to the course components of

the MDD syllabus. Most of the trainees have stated they could demonstrate all of the mentioned course components. The reason may lie in the teachers' method and the nature of the type of activities the trainees are engaged in. The nature of the course (workshop) allows for practice more than mere theoretical knowledge. Furthermore, it is to be noted that the trainees come to the course with pre-requisite knowledge developed in their third year TEFL and therefore feel familiar with the terminology and concepts used by their teachers. Concerning the rates' representation, it could be concluded that it is quite obvious that the trainees show the best rates at the first course component for the same reason mentioned in the analysis of Q26 (the trainees are more motivated at the beginning of the year). However, the lowest rate is expressed about the second course (analysis and evaluation). In fact, these are two higher order thinking levels most of the trainees tend to find difficult for the reason that the Algerian educational system tends to neglect in favor of lower order thinking levels. Though it is probably their first experience with analysis and evaluation, yet they could show a beyond of the average readiness to perform them.

28. Which other components should the MDD course develop?

Twenty eight trainees have provided proposals for additional components to the MDD course. Their responses are listed below:

- Designing teaching cards (04 trainees)
- Practice (04 trainees)
- Designing tests (03 trainees)
- Materials selection and design for classroom use (03 trainees)
- Lesson presentation (02 trainees)

- Strategies for materials adaptation (02 trainees)
- Teaching audio- visual materials (02 trainees)
- Teaching techniques (01 trainee)
- The structures of lessons as prepared by middle school teachers (01 trainee)
- Adjusting materials to local educational environment (01 trainee)
- Authenticity (1 trainee)
- Textbook analysis (1 trainee)
- Designing a unit (1 trainee)
- Analyzing learners' needs and interests (1 trainee)
- Teaching and evaluating materials (1 trainee).

As represented above, the trainees have expressed various proposals. Some are quite pertinent to the nature of the syllabus (designing teaching cards, designing tests), and some others are expressed in general terms and may be addressed to TEFL and TESD (lesson presentation, textbook analysis, analyzing learners' needs and interests, teaching techniques, teaching audio- visual materials). Some suggested components however are already available in the syllabus content (authenticity, strategies for materials adaptation, adjusting materials to local educational environment, teaching and evaluating materials, designing a unit). The examination of the trainees' suggestions may reveal a confusion of the curriculum's general aims. While TEFL is concerned with the training of students to handle the classroom in terms of lesson planning, teaching techniques and methods, strategies for teaching and assessment..., MDD is rather devoted to preparing the students to the design and evaluation of materials. Aspects of teaching techniques and strategies should not be a real concern in this

syllabus (though the teacher can intervene whenever necessary). Furthermore, TESD is expected to be much more interested in the planning and selection of contents that will later on be translated in terms of selection and evaluation of materials and methods.

29. Which of the following TESD course components can you demonstrate?

- a. Defining syllabus/curriculum**
- b. Analyzing learners' needs and societal expectations**
- c. Recognizing curriculum ideologies**
- d. Stating syllabus aims and objectives**
- e. Selecting and organizing content**
- f. Recognizing the different syllabus types**
- g. Evaluating syllabi**
- h. Evaluating textbooks**

Table 6.26: Trainees' Demonstrated Abilities from TESD

Options	N	%
a	02	02.50
b	01	01.25
ad	01	01.25
ag	01	01.25
ah	01	01.25
bd	01	01.25
bf	01	01.25
bh	01	01.25
ce	01	01.25
cg	01	01.25
fh	01	01.25
abd	01	01.25
abf	01	01.25
abg	01	01.25
ace	01	01.25

adg	03	03.75
adf	02	02.50
aef	01	01.25
bcf	01	01.25
bdh	01	01.25
beg	01	01.25
beh	02	02.50
bfh	01	01.25
bdf	01	01.25
cdf	01	01.25
abde	01	01.25
abdf	01	01.25
abdh	01	01.25
abeh	01	01.25
adeh	02	02.50
afgh	02	02.50
bcfh	02	02.50
bdef	01	01.25
bdgh	01	01.25
begh	01	01.25
bfgh	01	01.25
abdef	02	02.50
abdgh	01	01.25
abdfh	01	01.25
abfgh	04	05
acdfg	01	01.25
acefg	01	01.25
adegh	01	01.25
bcefh	01	01.25
abcdfg	01	01.25
abdefh	01	01.25
abdegh	01	01.25
abefgh	05	06.25
bdefgh	01	01.25
abcdefgh	15	18.75
Total	80	100

Table 6.27 shows that the trainees have provided varied possibilities of single or combined items. One reason could be the number of suggested items. We note that this is not a choice to decide on the number of items. The suggested components are exactly the ones in the curriculum document.

The results in Table 6.26 show that 03.75% are able to demonstrate one ability, 11.25% can do with two items, 22.50% show ability at three items, 17.50% at four items, 15% at five items, 11.25% at six items, and 18.75% at the eight suggested items. If we consider that average margin of demonstrated components is four out of eight, then the calculation of the rates between four and eight is equivalent to 62.50%, which is also a satisfactory result compared to the ones obtained by TEFL and MDD (Q26 and Q28).

Table 6.26 also shows the rates of appearance of every single item in the trainees' responses. Item (a): defining syllabus/curriculum has been mentioned by 71.25% of the trainees

(a+ad+ag+ah+abd+abf+abg+ace+adg+adf+aef+abde+abdf+abdh+abeh+adeh+afgh+abdef+abdgh+abdfh+abfgh+acdfg+acefg+adehg+abcdfg+abdefh+abdegh+abefgh+abcdefgh). This is logical if we consider that this is the first ability the trainees develop from the course. Furthermore, defining is a lower order thinking skill that most learners tend to develop. Item (b): Analyzing learners' needs and societal expectations has been listed by 72.50% (b+bd+bf+bh+abd+abf+abg+bcf+bdh+beg+beh+bfh+bdf+abde+abdf+abdh+abeh+bcfh+bdef+bdgh+begh+bfgh+abdef+abdgh+abdfh+abfgh+bcefh+abcdfg+abdefh+abdegh+abefgh+bdefgh+abcdefgh). This denotes that the trainees have a humanistic attitude towards education that led them to develop this ability. Besides, item (c): recognizing curriculum ideologies, has been mentioned by 32.50% of the trainees (ce+cg+ace+bcf+cdf+bcfh+acdfg+acefg+bcefh+abcdfg+abcdefgh), which is considered a low rate of expected achievement, compared to the previous items. The concept of curriculum ideologies seems to be difficult for the majority of the trainees. The reason may be the nature of the topic and the way the teachers execute it.

On the other hand, item (d), stating syllabus aims and objectives, has been mentioned by 53.75% of the trainees (ad+bd+abd+adg+adf+bdh+bdf+cdf+abde+abdf+abdh+adeh

+bdef+bdgh+abdef+abdgh+abdfh+acdfg+adehg+abcdfg+abdefh+abdegh+bdefgh+abcdefgh).

We may state that this is not a satisfactory rate if we consider that the concept of aims and objectives has been the concern of the three modules in the curriculum (TEFL, MDD, and TESD). Item (e), selecting and organizing content, has been mentioned by 50% of the trainees (ce+ace+aef+beg+beh+abde+abeh+adeh+bdef+begh+abdef+acefg+adehg+bcefh+abdefh+abdegh+abefgh+bdefgh+abcdefgh). This leads us to conclude that the 50% others who cannot select and organize content may also have difficulty in stating aims and objectives. Item (f), recognizing the different syllabus types, has been listed by 62.50% (bf+fh+abf+adf+acf+bcf+bfh+bdf+cdf+abdf+afgh+bcfh+bdef+bfgh+abdef+abdfg+acdfg+acefg+bcefh+abcdfg+abdefh+abefgh+bdefgh+abcdefgh). This is also an interesting rate to retain especially that the trainees will have to select the most appropriate materials, tasks and activities that correspond to the different syllabi. On the other hand, item (g), evaluating syllabi, has been mentioned by 53.75% (ag+cg+abg+adg+beg+afgh+bdgh+begh+bfgh+abdgh+abfgh+acdfg+acefg+adehg+abcdfg+abdegh+abefgh+bdefgh+abcdefgh). This is quite interesting if we consider that evaluation is a higher order thinking skill. Item (h), evaluating textbooks has been mentioned by 61.25% (ah+bh+fh+bdh+beh+bfh+abd+abeh+adeh+afgh+bcfh+bdgh+begh+bfgh+abdgh+abdfh+abfgh+adehg+bcefh+abdefh+abdegh+abefgh+bdefgh+abcdefgh). This also belongs to the higher order thinking level and allows the trainees to select the best materials for their classrooms. In sum, the trainees show satisfactory abilities in the syllabus items. The reason may be the nature of the course being practical. The students tend to appreciate using the knowledge they acquire in real life tasks and therefore, they develop competence in the syllabus components. The items, according to their appearance in the trainees' answers can be listed as follows:

1. Analysing learners' needs and societal expectations (72.50%)
2. Defining syllabus/curriculum (71.25%)

3. Recognizing the different syllabus types (62.50%)
4. Evaluating textbooks (61.25%)
5. Stating syllabus aims/objectives (53.75%)
6. Evaluating syllabi (53.75%)
7. Selecting and organizing content (50%)
8. Recognizing curriculum ideologies (32.50%)

30. Which other components should the TESD course develop?

Sixteen trainees have suggested some components to be added to the TESD course. Their proposals are presented below:

- Practice (06 trainees): Though the syllabus is practical by nature, the trainees still claim for more.
- Adapting the syllabus to the needs of the learners (02 trainees): Adaptation is one of skills trainees develop in MDD. Yet, it would be interesting to raise that issue in TESD as well.
- More relevant materials (01 trainee): the respondent has not been clear as to what kind of materials s/he meant: materials for the course or materials to be used in Middle/ Secondary schools. In both cases, teachers of this syllabus should take this into account
- Design of units and files (01 trainee): This is also another concern of MDD.
- Successful integration of all syllabus types (01 trainee): The teachers of the module should probably show more focus on the integrated syllabus rather than on isolated types of syllabi.
- Selection of authentic materials (01 trainee): This is also one of the concerns of MDD.
- Teaching English through games (01 trainee): This trainee has provided a suggestion that matches TEFL, rather than TESD.

- Analysis and evaluation of foreign syllabi and textbooks (01 trainee)
- Textbook use (02 trainees): This is also a suggestion that fits TEFL

31. What is your overall appreciation of the teaching methodology curriculum (TEFL/MDD/TESD)?

- a. It responds to your needs and expectations**
- b. It does not respond to your needs and expectations**
- c. It needs to be adjusted to your needs and expectations**
- d. Other: Please, specify**

Table 6.27: Trainees' Appreciation of the Teaching Methodology Curriculum

Options	N	%
a	49	61.25
b	02	02.50
c	21	26.50
d	02	02.50
ac	01	01.25
bc	01	01.25
No answer	04	05.00
Total	80	100

The results in Table 6.27 indicate that 61.25% of the respondents have a positive attitude towards the teaching methodology curriculum because they believe it responds to their needs and expectations. It may be expected that those students have acquired the skills and abilities sought from the curriculum and therefore they may demonstrate acceptable performance in their written examinations as well as effective practical performance during the training period. On the other hand, 26.25% find that it needs to be adjusted to their needs and expectations. Those students may feel that the curriculum has been built without taking

their needs and expectations into consideration. If asked, the students may have described their wants, learning styles, expectations and interests. It is assumed here that if those students have negotiated the curriculum content with their teachers, they would have given their opinions and then the content would have been adjusted to their expectations. It would be more appropriate to seek for adjustment and updating because the needs of students are constantly changing. In other words, curriculum content should be subject to updating to respond to those changing needs.

Two trainees (02.50%) find that it does not respond to their needs and expectations. We may deduce that those trainees are the ones who did not choose to be teachers and therefore their needs and expectations do not match with the curriculum content. One trainee finds that it responds to his/her needs and expectations, while another one judges that it does not respond to his/her needs and expectations. Two respondents referred to option (d) to stand for updating and more practical activities to be included and four trainees (05%) have not provided any answer

Section Five: Further comments and suggestions

32. Please add any further suggestions

The following is a list of suggestions and comments as provided by fifty two trainees who have answered the question.

- Thirty three trainees have claimed for practice. They have stated that their theoretical knowledge is not enough to prepare them for teaching. They may have come to that conclusion when they have experienced teaching during the practical training and could have realized the difficulty of implementing their knowledge in the classroom.

- Seven trainees have suggested that their practical training should be longer to allow them more opportunities for interaction with secondary/ middle school learners before they start teaching. This suggestion may be addressed to the overall curriculum rather than the teaching methodology curriculum.
- Six trainees have suggested that the three modules should be taught earlier in the training curriculum (four students have suggested it to start in the first year, one student has suggested the third year, and one student has said the second year). However, the overall curriculum does not allow for the integration of these modules before because of the overall load of subjects during the first three years of training.
- Two trainees have commented the lack of training of their teachers who “do not apply the methods they teach”. In other words, they want their teachers to act the way they want them to do using the different methods and techniques in the training classroom. This is a pertinent suggestion and an issue in teacher training in Algeria. Teachers at the ENS are not necessarily teacher trainers. Therefore, it is high time to start thinking about ways to give them the right profile they should hold.
- Two trainees have commented on their teachers’ methods in the classroom stating that they read their lecture notes from their laptops without providing any explanation or involving the trainees in the lesson. Therefore, teachers should provide more variety in their teaching techniques. This can only be achieved through teacher development courses.
- Two trainees have suggested that assessment in the teaching methodology curriculum should be more practical than theoretical. Trainers should observe trainees performance using the acquired knowledge (during the practical training or in micro teaching sessions). Assessment of trainees in examinations should be secondary. It is true to say that it is better to see trainees

in action. Yet, it is also important to assess the knowledge the way it is conventionally undertaken. The use of both kinds of assessment will be the ideal solution to reach.

6.3. Overall Analysis

The analysis of the Trainees' Questionnaire has revealed that most of the trainees (87.50%) are female; this denotes that in Algeria, teaching is a profession that attracts females more than males, assumingly due to many socio-cultural convictions such as convenience and suitability of the job to females. In addition, the respondents are representative of 17 cities from the East and Southeast Algeria, and belong to the two available profiles at the ENS (Bac +4 and Bac +5). The majority of trainees (86.25%) has chosen to be teachers for many reasons, including the love of the profession, the motivation by the job contract, and the influence of parents and some of their former secondary school teachers. The trainees have provided information about their learning styles, stating that 45% are visual. Yet, the rest of the respondents have referred to combined learning styles, confirming that the latter are not dichotomous (black or white, present or absent), but generally operating in a continuum (Ehrman 1996).

Furthermore, the trainees have expressed preferences in terms of training modes, giving prominence to the pair/group work mode that usually leads to some form of sharing of opinions. The trainees have also identified the modes that their teaching methodology teachers used and ranked the pair/group work mode in the first position. This denotes that the trainees are satisfied with their teachers' training modes, who use a variety of modes away from stereotyped unique practices that may lead to automatic classroom contact. On the other hand, the trainees (40%) have argued that among the suggested approaches, the competency-based is the most appropriate one. In terms of attitudes and expectations, the trainees in majority (81.25%) have agreed that linguistic, pedagogical and cultural knowledge is necessary for teacher trainees to acquire. Furthermore, for 95%, of the trainees, training requires the use of

media and specific equipment, including the data show, class videos, and special classroom organization. These are available in the department for 86.25% of the respondents. The trainees have also stated that their teaching methodology teachers use handouts, internet resources and textbooks probably referring to the Secondary/Middle School textbooks, since no textbooks for teacher training purposes are available. For trainees, their teachers' materials are incomplete, and need adaptation and updating. Besides, most of the trainees (55%), have considered that the three modules of the curriculum (TEFL, MDD, and TESD) are important for teacher training. According to most of them, the curriculum teachers describe the courses aims and objectives, a step they all consider important within the running of the course. The reason for them is that they get clearer ideas about what they learn, but more importantly because they can direct their own learning and identify priorities. Furthermore, for 71.25% of the students, the teaching methodology modules should be both theoretical and practical. This is quite logical, considering that theory and practice are inter-complementary. Theoretical knowledge is best assimilated when matched with practice, and the latter is best performed when backed by theoretical foundations.

The trainees' overall appreciation of the teaching methodology curriculum is that it responds to the needs and expectations of 61.25%, requires adjustment to the needs and expectations of 26.50%, and does not respond to the needs and expectations of 5%. Students, on the whole, have also identified the courses' components they could demonstrate among a suggested list extracted from the curriculum document. The trainees have also identified some missing components within the modules providing therefore, the curriculum designers and teachers with valuable information about the areas of strength and weakness within the trainees so that they could address them in future curriculum reforms or even develop treatment measure at local level within each module. The trainees have provided interesting comments and suggestions but with a loud claim for practice.

On the whole, the Trainees' Questionnaire has revealed that the teaching methodology corresponds to a large extent to the trainees' needs and expectations. This denotes that the teachers' perceptions and informal needs assessment respond to the real expectations as expressed by trainees.

Conclusion

The obtained results from the Trainees' Questionnaire show that the teaching methodology curriculum responds to their needs and expectations. The students have chosen to be teachers and are motivated to learn about teaching. In addition to the identification of their preferences in terms of learning styles, training modes, types of content, media, materials and assessment, the students have confirmed being able to demonstrate most of the targeted abilities within the curriculum modules. On the whole, the teachers' perceptions and informal needs assessment respond to the real expectations as expressed by students, which confirms hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2).

CHAPTER SEVEN

Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

7.1. The Curriculum Development Process

7.2. Design of a Standard Curriculum Format (Guide)

7.3. Training Trainers and Raising Awareness

7.4. Practice

Conclusion

Introduction

This work has highlighted some interesting issues in teaching and teacher education where particular attention has been directed towards the process of curriculum planning and design. Throughout this work, it has been recognized that this process cannot be simply limited to lists of topics that the designers perceive as important for student teachers to master before they embark into the profession, but a more extensive plan is required if quality training is sought. The study has equally identified weaknesses at the level of the teaching methodology curriculum at the level of both form and content that need to be considered and reflected over. In order to overcome the observed weaknesses, four recommendations have been provided. They concern namely the curriculum development process, the design of a standard curriculum format (guide), training trainers and raising awareness, and practice.

7.1. The curriculum Development process

The curriculum development process systematically organizes what will be taught, who will be taught, and how it will be taught. Each component affects and interacts with the other components. For these reasons, it should be a multi- step ongoing and cyclical process. Developing an effective curriculum requires the consideration of the following components: planning, articulating and developing, implementing, and evaluating. Planning is about the identification of the development team, consideration of key issues and trends in the specific content area, and assessment of needs). Articulating and developing concerns the articulation of a program philosophy, the definition of program level and course goals, the development and sequencing of course objectives, and the identification of resource materials to assist with program implementation. On the other hand, implementing is concerned with putting the new program into practice. However, within the “Evaluating” component two actions may take place: updating and determining the success of a program.

In the context of this study, the starting point of the process would be the evaluation and the determination of its worth. Once the strengths and weaknesses are visible, a planning phase would be carried out. The first step would be the identification of a development committee made up of the various stakeholders in the training process. These are namely teachers, administrators, educational experts (supervisors and senior teachers representing the educational cycles for which teachers are trained). It is important to decide on a chairperson who would be an effective, knowledgeable and respected leader. Roles are to be attributed to the different team members and actions are to be brainstormed within the group. Once the team is identified, it is essential to identify key issues and trends in the specific content area. Questions like “how is training organized elsewhere?”, “What is the philosophical orientation towards training?”, and “how is training envisaged in this particular context?” will contribute to the adoption of a training philosophy/ approach. Needs assessment is the next step. The developers need to gather as much information as possible. In addition to the teachers’ perceptions, the other stakeholders may provide valuable information mainly about the trainees’ exit profile. The needs are to be assessed in terms of task analysis where teachers and other educational experts would identify the different tasks that a language teacher is supposed to perform. Those tasks are later on translated in terms of objectives and content. The analysis of the questionnaires has identified some gaps that originate from a serious lack of communication and coordination among the various stakeholders. Indeed, the supervisors who made up the sample for this research have shown enthusiasm to the idea of being involved in the pre- service training process. Some of them have even declared that this is the first opportunity for them to give opinions. Consultations of this kind are therefore encouraged. The design team may use various data gathering tools like surveys, questionnaires, and interviews. The data they gather would be the basis for the next phase (articulating and developing).

In the next phase of the process, articulating and developing, the outcome of needs assessment may inform about the nature of the approach. In the case of this research, the analysis of the questionnaires has revealed that there is consensus about a learner centered, competency based approach. This is believed to be a trend in teaching and teacher education. Its adoption in the teaching methodology curriculum would be a drive for the trainees who consider that since this is the approach they will implement as teachers, they need to see it being implemented at least by their trainers. The approach or philosophy would automatically lead to the statement of course(s) goals as well as the development and sequencing of course objectives. Once the latter are agreed on, content is systematically identified and the resource materials are selected to assist with program implementation.

The phase where the program is put into practice is implementation. At this level, the curriculum development team needs to constantly communicate with the teachers to understand what went well or wrong and decide together on how to adjust it. The objectives may be an accountability reference. The development process should by no means end with the implementation.

Evaluation is another cornerstone in the process since it provides feedback about the development outcome and then would lead to taking decisions about the curriculum so that another cycle of development starts.

7.2. Design of a Standard Curriculum Format (Guide)

Given that the teaching methodology curriculum is made of three separate but interconnected modules, and that the syllabuses in the curriculum document do not reflect a given conventional frame, it is recommended that a standard curriculum format including conventional curriculum design elements either using one of the models suggested in the literature overview or adapting one of them to the local situation is developed by the

curriculum teachers (part of them are the designers of the courses). Such an action is important for many reasons:

- The curriculum format will guide curriculum planning. With a sample at hand, teachers would avoid the risk of ignoring essential elements in the planning process like needs analysis, statement of objectives, assessment, materials....
- Once the curriculum is designed around that format, useful information for trainers and trainees will be provided. Trainers would avoid misinterpreting content and would develop a common vision with their colleagues of the same module so that unified instruction is guaranteed. On another hand, and as identified in the students' questionnaire, an element like the statement of objectives would help the students find a focus to what they learn and then become more motivated to learn it.
- Last but not least, a curriculum built around a specific format would change the curriculum document into an explicit source of information for curriculum evaluators who will avoid the risk of wrong or subjective interpretations of the lists of content.

The above mentioned reasons are a justification for the design of the following frame to be used by teachers to rewrite the curriculum document.

Framework for curriculum planning and design

- Course Name: This is an essential item to include; it will identify the nature of the course.
- Philosophy and Rationale (where information about the philosophy behind training, the learners, their needs, expectations, interests and entry profile are provided.
- Course description: This involves an introduction to the course where a general idea about the goals, the content, the context and the participants are provided.

- Time: It is essential to determine the time frame within which the course will be run; it should be consistent with the objectives and content to be covered within the curriculum.
- Pre- requisites: This is about essential knowledge required from the learners to have acquired before they could start the course; that knowledge will be a foundation for the mastery of the new information.
- Aims: They must be stated clearly and derive from an identified training approach.
- Objectives: They must be sound, measurable, attainable, realistic, and time bound and must describe what the students are expected to be able to perform in terms of measurable outcomes.
- Content: This is about scope and sequence. Content must fit the objectives, should be interesting and motivating since it derives from the analysis of the students' needs.
- Typology of Activities: They may provide teachers, mainly novice ones, with ideas on what kind of activities they may use in the classroom to allow for the many training modes to be exemplified.
- Typology of Materials/Media: Because of the recognized lack of materials, the curriculum document may suggest some useful materials particularly for teachers who teach the module for the first time.
- Role of the Teacher: This will derive from the adopted training approach and modes.
- Role of the Students: This will also derive from the adopted training approach and modes.
- Assessment: How does the curriculum view assessment? What type of tests is mostly favored within the curriculum?
- Evaluation: This concerns the examination of the worth of the course.

- Reading list: This is to guide the teachers and the students to books related to the subject being taught so that they do not fully rely on specific types of materials.

Once the framework is adopted, teachers may rewrite the curriculum on the basis of the suggested list of elements. Not only would this be an explicit statement of the description of the situation, the targeted goals and the methodological concerns about the different courses, but it would be a useful checklist for the ongoing courses evaluation and a set of essential standards for quality assurance.

To illustrate the implementation of this framework, one of the curriculum modules has been rewritten including the above elements. The choice of TESD is justified by the researcher's own contribution to it during its design and implementation. The following is the syllabus presented according to the suggested format.

Course name: Syllabus Design and Textbook Evaluation

Philosophy and Rationale: The outcome of needs assessment has led to the adoption of a competency based approach. This is a learner centered orientation where it is believed that student teachers need to develop given competencies related to the nature of their future occupation.

Course description: This course is meant for fourth, final year students at the ENS (4B4). As the name suggests, student teachers will deal with basic principles in course design, evaluation, and textbook analysis. These have been recognized through the assessment of needs as important abilities that trainees need to develop.

Time: 90 hours (three hours per week to be managed in two sessions: lecture and workshop).

Pre-requisites: Basic understanding of key concepts in TEFL, pedagogy, cultural issues, psychology is required from students to take the course.

Aims: The course aims to provide students with an understanding of course design and evaluation as well as to familiarize them with the process of textbook evaluation

Objectives: On successful completion of this module the learners will be able to:

1. Identify the key components: syllabus, curriculum, syllabus design, and describe them orally or in writing.
2. Demonstrate an ability to use the steps in preliminary planning for syllabus design: needs analysis, situational analysis, the analysis of educational aims etc... by gathering data and preparing relevant reports on learners and their context.
3. Make the distinction between an aim and an objective by analysing the Middle School course aims and objectives making use of the SMART technique as a tool for assessment.
4. Design a course for one Middle School level making use of the components of a course (rationale, objectives, assessment...) as well as the criteria for course selection and organization.
5. Identify the strengths and weaknesses of the various syllabus types they have studied and be able to determine their appropriateness in a range of learning contexts.
6. Demonstrate an understanding of the process of syllabus evaluation (purposes, approaches, tools...) to evaluate in groups a syllabus from the middle school cycle.
7. Make the link between evaluation and design by producing a proposal for innovation / renewal of the evaluated objective.
8. Use a standard checklist or design their own evaluation model to evaluate a middle school level textbook.

Content: The following is a list of content to be presented:

1. Syllabus/ curriculum definition.

2. Planning for syllabus design (needs analysis, situational analysis, analysis of educational aims).
3. Setting syllabus objectives.
4. Content selection and organization.
5. Syllabus types: The presentation of syllabus types will follow a chronological organization pattern. Focus is on the type in use in the Algerian Middle School. Teachers need to recognize the importance of the adoption of an integrated syllabus as well.
6. Syllabus evaluation.
7. Syllabus renewal.
8. Textbook evaluation: Students will be familiarized with the use of an evaluation checklist. They may also train to develop their own evaluation frames depending on the focus they give to their evaluation.

Typology of Activities: The teacher may use a variety of activities to engage the trainees in learner centered activities. Problem solving tasks, class discussions, and critical thinking are fostered. During the workshop, teachers may observe and guide the performance sought in the objectives. The teacher may engage the students in group work activities and research exercises in and outside the classroom. They may for instance gather data about Middle School learners in order to assess their needs; the presentation of their findings can be done through classroom presentations or wall posters. Such activities are engaging and highly motivating. They allow the trainees to give a sense to what they learn and experience their learning to raise the likelihood of success.

Typology of Materials and Media: The course requires that all the trainees should be equipped with the following materials: the Middle School syllabus and the four Middle

School textbooks. Teachers may use foreign materials for the purpose of comparison. Concerning media, teachers may use the available equipment in the training school.

Role of the Teacher: In a CBA course, the teacher's role is that of a guide, a resource person who directs the activities and is responsible for assessment. In this particular context, the following roles have been identified:

- Assigns tasks,
- organizes activities,
- manages workshops,
- provides feedback,
- selects materials,
- assesses students' work,
- assesses achievement of objectives,
- regularly communicates with colleagues, curriculum development team and education experts at middle school level to regulate and up-date content.

Role of the Students: Since the course is CBA, the student has to be active during most of the classroom contact time. The student has to perform the following roles:

- Realize of the projects assigned by the teacher through getting involved in a group and selecting a role that fits his learning style,
- Learn autonomously through research and self-organized learning, and seeking assistance from the teacher whenever needed,
- Engage in dynamic contribution in classroom activities.

Assessment: Teachers should make use of both formative and summative assessment procedures. They need to constantly assess the students' classroom work, correct the workshop reports, provide feedback during the poster presentations, and validate creative and critical thinking as well as students' personal contributions. Teachers should also proceed with two end of semester examinations to respond to the regulations in use at the ENS and higher education. Above all, the assessment should match the training approach. Problem solving tasks are to be fostered and the higher cognitive level orders should be addressed.

Evaluation: Teachers should participate in the evaluation of the course. The objectives need to be constantly checked for a possible revision. They may use objectives to examine the abilities students can demonstrate through questionnaires or tests, they may also make use of the nature of the subject and exploit the course component 'curriculum evaluation' to gather useful data from teachers at the ENS and even supervisors, learners and teachers from the Middle School.

Reading List: Teachers should provide an exhaustive reading list for the students to assist them with useful titles that serve the goals of the course.

7.3. Training Trainers and Raising Awareness

One important international issue in teacher training is the status and profile of teacher trainers who should by no means be considered as just university lecturers in charge of specific subjects. Indeed, their role is not limited to lecturing and assessing but to supporting trainees' knowledge with pedagogical skills. They have to play various roles for which they require training and qualification. According to Diadori (2012), language teacher trainers should be high quality teaching professionals, who possess a strong background as language learners and language teachers. They must be competent in classroom management, cooperative learning and assessment of teaching competencies. They must be familiar with information and communication technologies (ICT) for personal development and training

purposes. They must mediate between the emerging social needs in the field of language learning and the responses likely to be offered depending on local priorities and constraints. Furthermore, they are resources and guides for less expert colleagues. Yet, teacher trainers who hold those qualities have gained them through experience (Diadori 2012). It is now high time to give a new impetus to this emerging profession, which is likely to be so crucial in generating a positive cascade effect on future generations of successful foreign language teachers and learners.

In this respect, some actions have to be undertaken at the level of teacher development, and training and recruitment of the people who choose to be language teacher trainers in Algeria. Teacher development should be a personal concern for every individual teacher trainer. The most experienced ones are supposed to organize regular workshops where less experienced and novice trainers participate in order to acquire 'good practices'. Furthermore, since the ENS holds a research profile, seminars in this issue are to be organized to raise the trainees' consciousness about the importance of teacher development. Research projects could also be concerned by the topic and the findings have to be implemented within the context. The administration should encourage the above suggested actions through providing facilities and considering that these are also pedagogical tasks teachers undertake in addition to their scheduled teaching time. Besides, reflective practice is of great help for trainers who would learn from their own errors and be uplifted by their successes.

On the other hand, recruiting teacher trainers would use different criteria from those used in hiring university teachers due to the nature of the activities. A didactic profile would be required from candidates, probably with a condition that they should have explored teaching issues for their magister dissertation. They should also be informed that their training phase as teachers would require that they observe experienced teachers of the modules they are meant to teach. They should also be involved in the observation of the school environment

(Middle/Secondary Schools) so that they develop awareness about the classroom and get in touch with teachers and supervisors for the adoption of a common strategy. New trainers should also be involved in student training supervision where they could practise the assessment of teacher practice, and learn from the comments addressed to the trainees during their performance in classrooms. Another way trainers could be trained is through class demonstration in front of the more experienced trainers who would provide them with advice and comments. Last but not least, these trainers should be allowed more opportunities in foreign exchange programs where they could have contact with worldwide teacher trainers and share experiences and ideas.

7.4. Practice

Among the weaknesses identified through the Students' Questionnaire is the lack of practice of theoretical content they receive at the ENS. The kind of practice students have claimed for can be interpreted in two different ways: practice inside the training institution (the teaching methodology classroom), and training in Secondary and Middle Schools. In both cases, suggestions could be provided.

For classroom practice, it is suggested that teachers should avoid their teacher led instruction and involve students more in classroom activities where, in addition to the application of the acquired knowledge, they are given opportunity to manage the classroom and design tasks. This can be done through micro-teaching sessions (TEFL), workshops for materials adaptation and development (MDD), and examination and reflection over syllabus and textbook issues (in TESD workshops).

Concerning the practical training in Middle/Secondary School institutions, trainees need to have more possibilities to observe classroom phenomena learnt in the curriculum. This could be done through the revision of the observation grid to allow for most of the curriculum components to appear. Furthermore, more time is to be devoted to the full time

training phase where the trainees are given opportunity to explore their knowledge and apply it in real contexts. It is to be noted that the coordination and communication among the different stakeholders, mentioned earlier in (7.1), should be fostered for more likelihood of the curriculum success.

Conclusion

In the light of the results of the present thesis, suggestions have been provided as an attempt to adjust some of the weaknesses identified within this study. It is hoped that the curriculum design team at the ENS takes these suggestions into consideration. We recognize that there are many other alternatives to redress the deficiencies in the curriculum, but the researcher's contribution remains one proposal that may lead to further studies that would engage the curriculum designers in a continuous process of improvement. It is to be recognized that the key for change is on-going evaluation. Quality training is only achieved through questioning the curriculum content and implementation.

CONCLUSION

Most curriculum evaluation approaches and frameworks establish needs analysis as a central standard for quality assurance within a developed curriculum. Evaluators tend to rely on various sources of information using various data gathering tools. They may rely on planners' records about the development process and/or prefer to address the different parties concerned by the curriculum, including learners, through for example, the use of questionnaires, interviews, observation. Their choice of one tool and/or another will depend on many factors including feasibility, access to the sources, and ability to interpret the obtained data. Nonetheless, the starting point is generally the consultation of available documents. At this level, the curriculum guide is expected to provide maximum information about the various development phases, and outcomes of needs analysis are expected to be available within it since they are the background for goal setting and content selection.

The present study is based on the investigation of the ability of the teaching methodology curriculum in use for training English language teachers in Algeria to respond to the student teachers' needs. At the beginning of this thesis, it has been stated that little information about the development process is available in the curriculum document. More importantly, needs analysis is mentioned nowhere within the guide. The first interpretation was that either the developers did not record their planning process or relied on their own perceptions to decide on objectives and content. In order to develop insights about this issue, the research has relied on a number of theoretical foundations and frameworks where teacher training curriculum development and evaluation theories, models and frameworks were stressed.

It is by means of three questionnaires addressed to teachers, supervisors, and trainees that the teaching methodology curriculum has been evaluated. The findings support the three hypotheses this thesis departed from: First, if the teaching methodology curriculum is planned around the trainees' perceived needs, the information will emerge from the trainers'/designers' own perception of the profession and the trainees' felt needs will be secondary; second, there is informal, unofficial analysis of trainees' needs and the curriculum meets their expectations and interests; and third, if the curriculum takes into account the information provided by educational experts known as supervisors, it is more likely to achieve its goals and respond to the trainees' needs. They reveal that the curriculum is planned around the developers' perceived needs and that the students' felt needs are informally and unofficially continuously assessed by subject matter teachers. They also reveal that despite the significant role the curriculum client (the Ministry of Education) can play in the identification of students' needs in terms of description of the various tasks they will perform in their job, there is a serious gap between the two sides (the ENS and the Ministry of Education experts) and that coordination is rare. Nevertheless, the Teachers' and the Trainees' Questionnaires have revealed that the way the curriculum is implemented satisfies the trainees' needs and highly responds to their expectations. The supervisors on the other hand have provided positive feedback concerning the pertinence of the curriculum content to the training of qualified, skilled teachers. However, the curriculum is not without weaknesses. No curriculum is perfect. The curriculum examination has shown that the curriculum document is on the whole an ambiguous, general list of topics that miss to support its users with useful information. Besides, the Trainees' Questionnaire has led to the emergence of the need for practice which is felt missing in the curriculum and the identification of the curriculum abilities that the trainees fail to demonstrate. On the other hand, in addition to the identification of areas of minor importance to the training of teachers, the Supervisors'

Questionnaire has also led to information about the weaknesses the teachers show in terms of knowledge acquired from the curriculum.

In the light of these results, we have drawn the conclusion that the teaching methodology curriculum necessitates a revision for purposes of improvement. Future developments should follow a design pattern that cares for the identification of the students' needs and the coordination with the different stakeholders. In addition, the curriculum guide should be reshaped to include essential elements like needs analysis, objectives, materials, assessment so that teachers and evaluators can find essential information to act. It is also important to provide teacher trainers with specific training to respond to the requirements of their job which is not limited to lecturing. Furthermore, the weaknesses that this research has identified are to be communicated to the curriculum teachers so that actions are planned to respond at least to the actual needs. Last but not least, this thesis is an attempt to raise awareness among education researchers in Algeria about the importance of the exploration of the local teacher training practice, totally ignored so far. Further studies are expected to handle other domains (language and culture for example) from the overall training curriculum.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, L.W. (1989). *The Effective Teachers, Study Guide and Readings*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Anderson, R.D. & Mitchener, C.P. (1994). *Research on Science Teacher Education*. In Gabel, D.L. (ed.), *The Handbook on Science Teaching and Learning*. (pp. 3- 44). New York: Mcmillan

Bailey, K.M. (2006). *Language Teacher Supervision: A Case- Based Approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press

Bassey, M. (1988). *Action Research for Improving Educational Practice*. In R. Halsall (ed.), *Teacher Research and School Improvement; Opening the Doors from the inside* (pp. 93-108). Buckingham: OPEN University Press.

Bell, R.T. (1981). *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics: Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. London: Batsford

Bell, M. and Lefoe, G. (1998). *Curriculum Design for Flexible Delivery. Managing The Model* ASCILITE 98 Conference

Ben- Peretz, M. (2011). *Teacher Knowledge: What is it? How do we uncover it? What are its Implications for Schooling? Teaching and Teacher Education. An International Journal of Research and Studies* Volume 27, issue 1 January 2011. Elsevier.

Benesch, S. (1999). *Right Analysis: Studying Power Relations in an Academic Setting. English for Specific Purposes*, 18. 313- 327

Benesh, S. (2001). *Critical English for Academic Purposes: Theory, Politics, and Practice*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Benziane, A. & Senouci, Z. (2007). *La Formation Initiale dans les Ecoles Normales Supérieures en Algérie : Défis et perspectives*. In *La Formation des Enseignants dans la Francophonie. Diversités, Défis, Stratégies d'Action*. Montréal : AUF.

Berwick, R. (1989). *Needs Assessment in Language Programming : From theory to practice*. R.K. Johnson (Ed.), *The Second Language Curriculum*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Bloom, B.S. (1956). *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The Classification of Educational Goals*. Co Ltd

Bradley (1986). *Curriculum Leadership and Development Handbook*. Englewood and Hall

Breen,M.(1999). *Teaching Language in the Postmodern Classroom*. Bells: Barcelona English Language and Literature Studies

Brindley, G. (1989). *The Role of Needs Analysis in Adult ESL Program Design*. New York: Cambridge University Press

Brookfield, S.D.(Ed). (1988). *Learning Democracy: Eduard Lindeman on Adult Education and Social Change*. London: Routledge

Brown J.D (1995). *The Elements of Language Curriculum: A Systematic Approach to Program Development*. Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Bruner,J. (1960). *The Process of Education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press

Burke, P.J. (1987). *Teacher Development*. London: Falmer Press

Camphell, R.N. Ghali, M. & Imhoof, M. (1975). The Jordanian Inservice Teacher Training Program. TESOL Quarterly. Vol. 9. n1. March 1975.

Carter, R. and Nunan, D. (2001). The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. (Ed. Carter, R. and Nunan, D. Cambridge University Press

Colin j. Marsh(1997). Perspectives- Key Concepts for Understanding Curriculum 1. Falmer Press

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). Choosing your coursebook. Oxford: Heinemann

Cross, D. (1995). Language Teacher Preparation in Developing Countries. Structuring Pre-service Teacher Training Programs. English Teaching Forum volume 33 n 4- October-December 1995.

Diadori, p. (2012). How to Train Language Teacher Trainers. Cambridge Scholars Publishing. British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

Djouima, L. (2011). The Impact of the Pedagogical Content on the Observation Phase of the Practical Training: (Case of the Department of English at the Teacher Training School of Constantine). Forum de L'Enseignant, Périodique Académique de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine. N 09 juillet 2011.

Djouima,L. (2011). An Analysis of the Training Content at the Department of English of the Teacher Training School of Constantine. Forum de L'Enseignant, Périodique Académique de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine. N 08 juin 2011.

Dubin,F. & Olshtain, E. (1986). Course Design: Developing Programs and Materials for Language Learning . Cambridge University Press.

Dudley- Evans, T. & St. John, M.J. (1998). *Developments in ESP: A Multi- disciplinary Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Duke, D.L. (1987). *School Leadership and Instructional Improvement*. New York; Random House

Eggly, s. (2002). An ESP program for International Medical Graduates in Residency. In T, Orr (ed.), *English for Specific Purposes* (pp. 105-116). Alexandria, Virginia: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Ehrman, M.E. (1996). *Understanding Second Language Learning Difficulties*. SAGE Publications.

Fanselow, J.F. (1977). Beyond Roshomon: Conceptualizing and Observing the Teaching Act. *TESOL Quarterly*, 11 (1), 17-14

Feinman- Nemser, S. (1990). *Teacher Preparation. Structural and Conceptual Alternatives*. In R.W. Houston (Ed.). *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. New York: Macmillan.

Firehammer, R. (2007). Postmodernism. Retrieved from <http://www.spaceandmotion.com/philosophy-postmodernism.htm>

Ferroukhi,D. (1994). *Système de Formation des Enseignants en Algérie*. In CEAR, UNESCO, (1994). *La Formation Initiale et Continue des Enseignants, Algérie*. UNESCO. Secteur de L'éducation.

Freeman, D. 2001. *Second Language Teacher Education*. In R. Carter and D. Nunan. *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Gauthier, C. and Tadif, M. (1996). *La pédagogie. Théories et Pratiques de L'Antiquité à nos Jours*. Montréal : Gaëtan Morin.
- Genesee, F. & Upshur, J.A (1996). *Classroom – based Evaluation in Second Language Education*. Cambridge University Press
- Glatthorn A. A(1987). *Curriculum Leadership*. New York: Harper- Collins
- Glatthorn,A. &Jaillal,J.M, (2000)*Shaping what is taught and Tested: The Principal as Curriculum Leader*. Third edition 2009, Corwin Press, SAGE Publications
- Goldsburry, L. (1988). *Three Functional Methods of Supervision*. *Action in Teacher Education*, 10 (1), 1-10
- Goodson, I.F. (1994). *Studying Curriculum: Cases and Methods*. Open University Press
- Graves. K (1996). *Teachers as Course Developers*. Cambridge University Press
- Graves. K (2000). *Designing Language courses: A guide for teachers*. Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Graves, K. (2009). *The Curriculum of Second Language Education*. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards. *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Graves, K. (2009). *Evaluation of the Programme de Formation d'Anglais at the Ecoles Normales Superieures of Bouzareah and Constantine, and the Third Year English Degree Curriculum at the University of Algiers*. Submitted by World Learning/ SIT, 2009.
- Grellet, F. (1981). *Developing Reading Skills: A practical Guide to Reading Comprehension Exercises*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Guba, E. & Lincoln, Y. (1981). *Effective Evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass Publications

Gupta, K. (2007). *A Practical Guide to Needs Assessment (2nd Edition)*. Pfeiffer. Co-published with ASTD

Gusky, T.R. (2000). *Evaluating Professional Development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Hamada, H. (2007). *The Impact of Information Processing Strategies and Discourse Functions on Materials Design*. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis). Mentouri University, Constantine.

Head, K. and Taylor, P. (1997). *Readings in Teacher Development*. Oxford: Heineman.

Hewitt, Thomas w. (2006). *Understanding and Shaping Curriculum (What we Teach and Why)*

Hill. L. A. and Dobbyn.M. (1979). *A Teacher Training Course for Teachers of EFL. Lecturer's Book*. Cassell Ltd.

Holec, H. (1988). *Autonomy and self- directed Learning: Present Fields of Application*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Holliday, A.R., & Cooke, T.M. (1982). *An Ecological Approach to ESP*. In A. Waters (ed.), *Issues in ESP (Lancaster Practical Papers in English Language Education 5)* (pp. 124- 144). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A.(1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning- Centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Johnson, R.K. (1989). *The Second Language Curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press Publications

Jordan, R. (1997). *English for Academic Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Kamhi- Stein, L.D. (2009). *Teacher Preparation and nonnative English Speaking Educators*. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.). *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 91- 101). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Karsenti, T. Raymond. Garry, P. Bechoux, J. Ngamo, S.T. (2007). *La Formation des Enseignants dans la Francophonie. Diversité, Défis, Stratégies d'action*. RIFEFF, Montreal : AUF. Creative Commons

Kayaoglu, M.N. (2007). *The unbearable Heaviness of Being Supervised for EFL Teachers*. TTED Newsletter; *Teacher Trainers and Educators*, 1, 15-20

Kemmis, S., & Mc Taggart, R. (1988). *The Action Research Planner* (3rd ed). Victoria: Deakin University Press

Lantolf, J.P (2000). *Introducing Sociocultural Theory* . J.P. Lantolf (ed.). *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Larsen- Freeman, D. (1983). *Training Teachers or Educating a Teacher*: In J. Alatis, H.H.Stern, & P. Stevens (eds.), *Georgetown Round Table on Languages and Linguistics 1983*. Washington, DC. Georgetown University Press. 264- 274

Lawton, D. (1983). *Curriculum Studies and Educational Planning* , British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

Le Francois, Guy.R. (2004). *Theories of Human Learning*, Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

- Long, M.H. (2005). Second Language Needs Analysis. Cambridge University Press.
- Long, M.H. (2005a). Methodological Issues in Learner Needs Analysis. In M.H. Long (Ed.), Second Language Needs Analysis (pp.10- 76). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Long, M.H. (2005b). Overview: A Rationale for Needs Analysis and Needs Analysis Research. In M.H. Long (Ed.), Second Language Needs Analysis (pp. 1-16) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Longstreet, W.S. and Shane, H.G. (1993). Curriculum for a New Millennium. Allyn and Bacon, Incorporated
- Loughran, J. & Russell, T. (1997). Teaching about Teaching. Purpose, Passion and Pedagogy in Teacher Education. Edited by J.Loughran & T. Russell. Falmer Press.
- Lunenburg Fred C (2011). Curriculum Development: Deductive Models. Schooling journal, volume 2, number1, 2011
- Marks, R. (1990). Pedagogical Content Knowledge: From a Mathematical Case to a Modified Conception. Journal of Teacher Education. May- June, 3-12
- Marsh j. Colin (2009). Key concepts for Understanding Curriculum. Fourth edition, Routledge.
- McKillip, P. j. (1987). Needs analysis: Tools for the Services and Education. California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- McNiff, j., & Whitehead, J. (2002). Action Research: Principles and Practice (2nd ed.). London: Routledge Falmer.
- Munby, j. (1978). Communicative Syllabus Design. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

Mudraya, O. (2006). Engineering English: A lexical Frequency Instructional Model. English for Specific Purposes, 25, 235-256.

Nation I.S.P and Macalister J (2010). Language Curriculum Design. Routledge. ESL & Linguistics Professional Series

Nation, P. (2000). Designing and Improving a Language Course. Forum 3 8.2

Nunan, D. (1988). Syllabus Design. Oxford University Press.

Nunan, D. (1992). Research Methods in Language Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ochs, R.(1774). Some Implications of the Concept of Life- long Education for Curriculum Development and Evaluation. Retrieved from <http://unesco.org/il/>

O’neill , Geraldine (2010). Programme Design: Overview of Curriculum Models. UCD Teaching and Learning/ Resources. www.ucd.ie/teaching

Oxford, R. (1990). Language Learning Strategies: What every Teacher Should Know. NY: Newbury House Publisher.

Pennington, M. (1989). Faculty Development for Language Programs. In R.K. Johson (ed.). The Second Language Curriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pont,T.(2003). Developing Effective Training Skills. From Personal Insight to Organizational Performance. The Chartered Institute and Development, CIPD House

Pratt,D. (1980). Curriculum Design and Development .Harcourt Brace Jovanovich,Inc.

Priestley, M and Minty, S (2012). Curriculum for Excellence: ‘A brilliant idea, but...’ School of Education, University of Stirling. Paper presented at the European Conference for Educational Research, 21 September 2012, Cadiz

Rata,E. (2012). The Politics of Knowledge in Education. British Educational Research Journal ,38 (1), 103 – 124

Richards,J. C. (1998). Beyond Training. New york: Cambridge University Press

Richards, J.C. (2001). Curriculum Development in Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.

Richterich, R. & Chancerel, J.L. (1978). Identifying the Needs OF Adults Learning a Foreign Language. Strasbourg: Council of the Cultural co- operation of the Council of Europe.

Riviere, R. (1996). Needs Assessment: A Creative and Practical Guide for Social Scientists, Taylor and Francis: Washington. DC.

Robinson, P. (1991). ESP today: A practitioner’s guide. Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd

Stake R.E (ED). (1975). Evaluating the arts in education: A responsive approach. Columbus. OH: Bobbs- Merrill

Smith, B. Othanel. (1952). Procedures of Curriculum Development and Procedures for Effecting Changes in the Curriculum. International Advisory Committee on the School Curriculum.

Songhori, M.H. (2008). Introduction to Needs Analysis. English for Specific Purposes World, Issue 4, 2008, www.esp-world.info

Schulman, L. (1986). Paradigms and Research Programs in the Study of Teaching. In M. Wittrack (Eds.), Handbook of Research on Teaching. (pp.3-36). NY: Macmillan

Shulman, L.S. (1987). Knowledge and Teaching Foundations of the New Reform. Harvard Educational Review, 51(1), 1-22

Taba, H. (1962). Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice. New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace and World

Tomlinson, B. (2003). Developing Materials for Language Teaching. A&C Black.

Tyler, R.W. (1949). Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Chicago: University of Chicago Press

UK NARIK .Research Report DFE- RR243a. An Assessment of International Teacher Training Systems: Country Profiles (The National Recognition Information Centre for the United Kingdom. Algeria (pp. 12-18)

Usher, R. and Edwards, R. (1994). Postmodernism and Education. Routledge, London

Vandermeern, S. (2005). Foreign Language Need of Business Firms. In M. H. Long (ed.), Second Language Analysis (pp. 159- 179). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yates.L, & Collins.C, (2010). The Absence of Knowledge in Australian Curriculum Reforms. European Journal of Education. 45 (1), 89 – 101

Young, M. (2008). From Constructivism to Realism in the Sociology of the Curriculum. Review of Research in Education 32:1 – 28

Young,M. and Muller,J. (2010) Three Educational Scenarios for the Future: Lessons from the Sociology of Knowledge. London: Routledge

West, R. (1994). Needs Analysis in Language Teaching, 27/1. 1-19.

White, R. (1988). *The ELT Curriculum, Design, Innovation and Management*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell

Zheng, y. (2010). On Needs Analysis and College English Teaching in China. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. Vol.1.No 4, pp.447- 479. July 2010. Academy Publisher 2010. Finland

Appendices

Appendix I: The Teachers' Questionnaire

Appendix II: The Supervisors' Questionnaire

Appendix III: The Trainees' Questionnaire

Appendix I

The Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Teacher,

This questionnaire is part of a research work.

It aims at gathering information about the teacher training curriculum: the strengths and weaknesses within the curriculum as well as the extent to which it succeeds or fails to address the trainees' needs.

You are kindly requested to answer the following questions.

Please tick the appropriate box or provide full statements where necessary.

May I thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Mrs. Leila Djouima

ENS, Constantine

Section one: General Information

1. How long have you been teaching?

.....Years

2. How long have you been a teacher trainer?

.....Years

3. What is your degree?

a. Magister

b. Master

c. PhD

d. Other: Please specify:

.....
.....

4. What is your area of specialization:

a. Linguistics

b. TEFL

c. Literature and Civilization

d. Other: Please, specify

.....
.....

5. Module (s) taught:

a. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

b. Materials Design and Development (MDD)

c. Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)

6. Have you been trained to be a teacher?

_ Yes

_ No

7. Have you been trained to be a teacher trainer?

_ Yes

_ No

8. If “Yes”, what type of training was it?

a. Lectures

b. Seminars

c. Workshops

d. Other: Please, specify

.....
.....

Section Two: The Teacher Training Curriculum

9. Are you familiar with the overall teacher training curriculum?

_ Yes

_ No

10. If “Yes”, which areas of knowledge does it cover? (You may tick more than one box)

a. Theories of teaching

b. Teaching skills

c. Communication skills

d. Subject matter knowledge

e. Pedagogical reasoning and decision making

f. Contextual knowledge

g. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

11. Did you participate in the design of the curriculum?

_ Yes

_ No

12. If “Yes”, was your contribution at the level of (You may tick more than one box)

- a. The analysis of students’ needs
- b. The approach
- c. Aims and objectives
- d. Content selection and organization
- e. Materials development
- f. Evaluation

Section Three: Needs Analysis

13. Is there any reference to needs analysis in the teacher training curriculum document?

- _Yes
- _No
- _I do not know

14. If “Yes”, the analysis focused on: (You may tick more than one box)

- a. Perceived needs
- a. Felt needs
- c. Task analysis
- d. Expert opinions
- e. Current practice
- f. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

15. Do you think the curriculum meets the students’ expectations?

- _Yes
- _No
- _I do not know

16. If “Yes” or “No”, please explain how you know:

a. As a trainer, you regularly ask the students' about their needs and expectations

b. You receive feedback from alumni students

c. Other: Please, specify:

.....

Section Four: Aims and Objectives

17. Have the aims of the module you teach been specified in the curriculum?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

18. If "Yes", are they clearly specified?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

19. Do the aims express what the trainees will achieve?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

20. Do they reflect the overall adopted curriculum ideology?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

21. If "Yes", What is the curriculum ideology?

.....

.....

22. Does the curriculum list objectives?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

23. If yes, are they clearly stated?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

24. Does the targeted performance reflect the overall aim (s)?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

25. Are the objectives subject to ongoing revision?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

26. If Yes, on what basis are the objectives evaluated?

a. The analysis of the students' needs

b. Discussions among teachers

c. The ongoing evaluation of the curriculum

d. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

Section Five: Content

27. Does the curriculum document contain course (s) description (s)?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

28. Which approach does the teacher training curriculum exemplify?

a. CBA (ability to apply the acquired knowledge in teaching)

b. Holistic (teachers are prepared to function in any situation rather than for a specific situation)

c. Attitude adjustment (methodology is introduced after several phases for the purpose of attitude adjustment)

d. Teacher centered

e. Learner centered

f. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

29. What is the time allotted per week to the syllabus you teach?

a. One hour and half

b. Three hours

30. Does the time allotted to the syllabus you teach allow achieving the stated objectives?

_Yes

_No

31. If "No", how much time per week is needed to cover the syllabus content?

.....

32. Does the curriculum integrate theory and practice?

_Yes

_No

33. If "No", which aspect does it favor more?

_Theory

_Practice

34. Does the curriculum suggest a typology of activities?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

35. If "Yes", which of the following types of activities are suggested in the curriculum?

a. Courses

b. Practice

c. Observations

d. Research

e. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

36. If "No", which of the following types of activities do you usually use?

a. Courses

b. Practice

c. Observations

d. Research

e. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

37. Which do you think is more appropriate to assess?

a. The trainees' theoretical knowledge

b. The trainees' know how to use knowledge in teaching contexts

c. Both

38. Do you assess the trainees' language proficiency?

_Yes

_No

39. What role(s) do(es) the curriculum attribute to the teacher educator?

a. Instructor

b. Model

c. Guide

d. It does not at all refer to the teacher's role

40. If "d", what do you think the teacher educator's role should be?

.....

41. What role (s) does the curriculum attribute to the trainees?

.....
42. In case it does not, what do you think the trainee's role should be?
.....

Section Six: Materials/Media

43. What kind of materials do you use?

- a. Textbooks
- b. Workbooks
- c. Handouts
- d. Audio- visual aids

44. Do you often adapt the materials to the learners' needs and level?

_ Yes

_ No

45. Are the necessary media and teaching aids available at the level of your department?

- Yes

_ No

46. If "No", how do you manage providing them?
.....

47. Are the trainees satisfied of the quality of materials and media you use?

_ Yes

_ No

_ I do not know

Section Seven: Implementation

48. When implementing the curriculum, you usually adopt : (you may tick more than one answer)

a. The frontal mode (teacher centered)

b. The experiential mode (peer/ micro teaching situations)

- c. The workshop mode
- d. The pair/group work mode
- e. The individualized mode

49. Does the class size allow for the kind of mode you adopt?

_Yes

_No

50. Is the mode you adopt motivating and interesting for the trainees?

_Yes

_No

51. If “Yes”, how do you know?

.....

Section Eight: Evaluation of the Course

52. Do you frequently evaluate the course you teach?

_Yes

_No

53. If “Yes”, it is in the form of:

- a. Self- evaluation
- b. Evaluation of materials
- c. Evaluation of the whole course
- d. Evaluation of the situation after the course

54. On which of the following course components does your evaluation focus?

- a. The objectives
- b. content in terms of knowledge, skills , and attitudes
- c. The training methods
- d. The needed resources
- e. All of them

55. Has the curriculum been subject to formal evaluation (s)?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

56. If “Yes”, how many evaluations have been undertaken since the first implementation of the curriculum?

.....

57. Did the evaluation lead to the revision of the curriculum?

_Yes

_No

_I do not know

58. If “Yes”, what kind of improvement did it (they) provide?

a. Reformulation of aims and objectives

b. Adjustment of content to the trainees’ needs

c. Materials revision and up-dating

d. Time re-organization

e. Approach and methods

f. Other: Please, specify:

.....

.....

Section Nine: Further Suggestions

59. Please, add any further comment or suggestion

Appendix II
The Supervisors' Questionnaire

Dear Supervisor,

This Questionnaire is part of a research work.

It aims at identifying what post training teachers are required to know and be able to do to teach.

Your contribution will help detect the gaps between the teaching pre-requisites and the teaching methodology curriculum adopted by the ENS.

Please tick the appropriate box and provide full statements whenever necessary.

May I thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Mrs. Leila Djouima,

ENS Constantine

Section One: General Information

- 1. How long have you been teaching?
.....years
- 2. How long have you been a supervisor?
.....years
- 3. What is your degree?
 - a. Licence
 - b. Magister
 - c. Master
- 4. Which wilaya(s) do you cover?
.....
- 5. Which is your area of activity?
 - a. Middle school
 - b. Secondary school
- 6. Is pre- service training necessary before joining the teaching profession?
 - _Yes
 - _No
- 7. If “Yes”, should the training be :
 - a. Theoretical
 - b. Practical
 - c. Both
- 8. What area(s) of knowledge should pre- service training provide? (you may tick more than one answer)
 - a. Knowledge of the subject matter
 - b. Knowledge of the teaching methodology
 - c. Knowledge of the target culture
 - d. Other: Please, specify:
.....
.....

Section Two: The Teacher Training Curriculum

- 9. Are you familiar with the pre- service teacher training curriculum?
 - _Yes
 - _No
- 10. If “Yes”, how do you get the information?
 - a. From the post –training teachers you supervise
 - b. You participated in the design of the curriculum
 - c. You have been consulted by the design team
 - d. Other: Please, specify:
.....
.....
- 11. Is it important to associate supervisors to the teacher training curriculum design?
 - Yes

No

12. If “Yes”, what kind of contribution would they provide?

- a. Information about profession requirements
- b. Information about the discrepancy between what trained teachers are able to do and what they are required to be able to do
- c. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

13. Which of the following training approaches do you think is most appropriate?

- a. CBA (ability to apply the acquired knowledge in teaching)
- b. Holistic (teachers are prepared to function in any situation rather than for a specific situation)
- c. Attitude adjustment (methodology is introduced after several phases for the purpose of attitude adjustment)
- d. Teacher-centered
- e. Learner-centered
- f. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

14. Which areas of Knowledge should the teacher training curriculum include? (You may tick more than one box)

- a. Theories of teaching
- b. Teaching skills
- c. Communication skills
- d. Subject matter knowledge
- e. Pedagogical reasoning and decision making
- f. Contextual knowledge
- g. Other: Please specify:

.....
.....

Section Three: Post –training Teachers’ Profile

15. Do you assess the post –training teachers at entry to the profession?

_Yes

_No

16. If “Yes”, do you use any specific criteria for their assessment?

_Yes

_No

17. If “Yes”, on which aspect(s) do you focus most? (you can tick more than one box)

- a. The knowledge of the subject matter
- b. The knowledge of the teaching methodology
- c. The knowledge of the target culture

d. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

18. In which aspects do post training teachers usually demonstrate weaknesses?

- a. The knowledge of the subject matter
- b. The knowledge of the teaching methodology
- c. The knowledge of the target culture
- d. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

19. What do you do to overcome those weaknesses?

- a. You organize in-service training sessions
- b. You provide teachers with feedback so that they improve their performance
- c. You send feedback reports to the teaching training school so that adjustments are made at the level of the curriculum
- d. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

Section Four: Teaching Methodology

20. Which of the following teaching methodology curriculum modules is/are most important for teacher preparation?

- a. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)
- b. Materials Design and Development (MDD)
- c. Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)
- d. All of them

21. Which of those modules has an impact on the teachers' performance?

- a. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)
- b. Materials Design and Development (MDD)
- c. Textbook Evaluation and Syllabus Design (TESD)
- d. All of them

22. Which of the following abilities addressed in the "TEFL" course do post-training teachers need to demonstrate?

- a. The statement of aims, objectives, and goals
- b. Lesson planning and presentation
- c. Teaching the four language skills and integrating them
- d. Teaching vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation
- e. Implementing teaching approaches
- f. Managing the classroom and dividing groups

- g. Designing tests and scoring them
- h. Recognizing the different learning styles and strategies

23. Which of the following abilities addressed in the” MDD” course do post- training teachers need to demonstrate?

- a. Adjusting materials to the learners’ level, time, objectives and classroom settings
- b. Analyzing and evaluate materials
- c. Selecting authentic materials and design them for classroom use

24. Which of the following abilities addressed in the” TESD” course do post- training teachers need to demonstrate?

- a. Defining syllabus/ curriculum
- b. Analyzing learners’ needs and societal expectations
- c. Recognizing curriculum ideologies
- d. Stating syllabus aims and objectives
- e. Selecting and organizing content
- f. Recognizing the different syllabus types
- g. Evaluating syllabi
- h. Evaluating textbooks

25. Is training in the above abilities enough to prepare teachers?

- Yes
- No

26 .If “No”, which other teaching methodology abilities should be covered in the curriculum?

.....

Section Five: Further suggestions

27. Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

Appendix III
The Trainees' Questionnaire

Dear Trainee,

This questionnaire is part of a research work.

It aims at analyzing your needs in terms of learning styles and strategies, attitudes and expectations, as well as abilities.

You are kindly requested to answer the following questions.

Please tick the appropriate box(es), and provide full statements where necessary.

May I thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Mrs. Leila Djouima

ENS Constantine

Section One: General Information

- 1. Are you male or female?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

- 2. What is your hometown?
.....

- 3. What is your profile?
 - a. B+4
 - b. B+5

- 4. Did you choose to be a teacher?
 - _Yes
 - _No

- 5. If “Yes”, is it because:
 - a. You love teaching
 - b. You have been motivated by the job contract
 - c. Other: Please, specify:
.....
.....

- 6. If “No”, who has chosen for you?
 - a. Your parents
 - b. Your secondary school teacher (s)
 - c. Other: Please, specify:
.....
.....

Section Two: Learning Styles and Strategies

- 7. What kind of learner are you?
 - a. Auditory
 - b. Visual
 - c. Kinesthetic
 - d. Other: Please, specify:
.....
.....
.....

8. Which of the following training modes do you prefer?
- a. The teacher centered mode
 - b. The experiential mode
 - c. The workshop mode
 - d. The pair/ group work mode
 - e. The individualized mode
9. Which of the modes do your teaching methodology teachers (TEFL/ MDD/ TESD) use?
- a. The teacher centered mode
 - b. The experiential mode
 - c. The workshop mode
 - d. The pair/group work mode
 - e. The individualized mode
10. Which of the following approaches do you think is most appropriate for teacher training?
- a. CBA (ability to apply the acquired knowledge in teaching)
 - b. Holistic (teachers are prepared to function in any situation rather than for a specific situation)
 - c. Attitude adjustment (methodology is introduced after several phases for the purpose of attitude adjustment)
 - d. Teacher centered
 - e. Learner centered
 - f. Other: Please, specify:
-
-

Section Three: Attitudes and Expectations

11. Which do you think is most important for trainee- teachers to acquire? (you may tick more than one answer)
- a. Linguistic knowledge
 - b. Pedagogical knowledge
 - c. Cultural Knowledge
 - d. All of them

e. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

12. Does teacher training require the use media and/ or any specific equipment?

_Yes

_No

13. If “Yes”, what type of media and/ or equipment is needed? (you may tick more than one box)

a. The data show

b. Class videos

c. Special class organization

d. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

14. Are the media and necessary equipment available in your department?

_Yes

_No

15. What type of materials do your teaching methodology teachers use? (you may tick more than one answer)

a. Handouts

b. Textbooks

c. Internet resources

d. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

16. How do you evaluate your teachers’ materials?

a. Complete (you do not need to consult other resources)

b. Incomplete (you need to carry out further research)

c. Adapted to your level and expectations

d. They need up-dating and adaptation

e. Other: please, specify:

.....
.....

17. Which module is most important for teacher trainees?

a. TEFL

b. MDD

c. TESD

d. All of them

e. None of them

18. Does the TEFL teacher describe the syllabus aims and objectives before s/he starts the course?

_Yes

_No

19. Does the MDD teacher describe the syllabus aims and objectives before s/he starts the course?

_Yes

_No

20. Does the TESD teacher describe the syllabus aims and objectives before s/he starts the course?

_Yes

_No

21. Is it important for you to know about the aims and objectives before the course starts?

Yes

No

22. Please, explain why

.....
.....

23. Do you like your teaching methodology courses to be:

a. Theoretical

b. Practical

c. Both

24. Which kind(s) of tests do you prefer? (you may tick more than one answer)

a. Essays

b. Multiple Choice Questions

c. Problem solving activities

d. Lesson presentations

e. Oral tests

f. Other: Please, specify:

.....
.....

Section Four: Abilities

25. Which of the following TEFL course components can you demonstrate? (You may tick more than one answer)

a. The statement of aims, objectives and goals

b. Lesson planning and presentation

c. Teaching the foreign language skills and integrating them

d. Teaching vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation

e. Implementing teaching approaches

f. Managing the classroom and dividing groups

g. Designing tests , scoring them and providing feedback

h. Recognizing the different learning styles and strategies

26. Which other components should the TEFL course develop?

.....

27. Which of the following MDD course objectives can you demonstrate? (you may tick more than one answer)

- a. Adjusting materials to the learners' level, time, objectives and classroom settings
- b. Analyzing and evaluate materials
- c. Selecting authentic materials and design them for classroom use

28. Which other components should the MDD course develop?

29. Which of the following TESD course components can you demonstrate? (you may tick more than one answer)

- a. Defining syllabus/ curriculum
- b. Analyzing learners' needs and societal expectations
- c. Recognizing curriculum ideologies
- d. Stating syllabus aims and objectives
- e. Selecting and organizing content
- f. Recognizing the different syllabus types
- g. Evaluating syllabi
- h. Evaluating textbooks

30. Which other components should the TESD course develop?

31. What is your overall appreciation of the teaching methodology curriculum (TEFL/ MDD/ TESD)?

- a. It responds to your needs and expectations
- b. It does not respond to your needs and expectations
- c. It needs to be adjusted to your needs and expectations
- d. Other: please, specify:

.....

Section Five: Further comments/ Suggestions

32. Please add any further comments or suggestions.

Résumé

Le but de cette thèse est l'investigation des besoins des étudiants d'Anglais du programme de la méthodologie de l'enseignement à l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine. La contribution théorique de cette recherche essaye d'attirer l'attention sur l'élaboration des programmes de formation des enseignants comme étant un processus systématique impliquant diverses étapes de planification, de design, d'exécution et d'évaluation ; l'analyse des besoins étant une étape centrale. Une attention particulière est consacrée au programme de méthodologie d'enseignement, étant le domaine le plus concerné par les besoins et les attentes des élèves enseignants. Dans cette perspective, le but est d'évaluer le programme de méthodologie d'enseignement en termes de compatibilité avec les besoins et attentes des étudiants en assumant que dans ce contexte précis, l'analyse des besoins se limite aux perceptions des élaborateurs du programme, négligeant ainsi les opinions des autres parties prenantes de l'opération de formation, y compris les besoins tels que exprimés par les étudiants ainsi que les attitudes des experts de l'éducation nationale. La recherche a été menée à travers l'évaluation du guide du programme, en utilisant le modèle de Brown 1995 et qui a révélé que non seulement les besoins des étudiants sont ignorés dans le processus de développement, mais aussi qu'il s'agit uniquement d'une liste de contenus sujets à diverses interprétations et des exécutions de la part de ses utilisateurs potentiels. D'autres informations utiles ont été obtenues à travers l'utilisation de trois questionnaires adressés aux enseignants formateurs, aux étudiants stagiaires et aux inspecteurs. Les résultats de l'analyse de ces questionnaires ont démontré que le guide du programme ne reflète pas la façon dont il est exécuté par les enseignants de l'ENS. Ces derniers analysent les besoins de leurs étudiants d'une manière très informelle et officieuse. Les enseignants ont également confirmé que les modules enseignés à travers ce programme répondent aux attentes des étudiants. Par ailleurs, en plus de confirmer les propos de leurs enseignants, ils ont identifié les compétences qu'ils

ont pu acquérir à l'achèvement du programme. Ils ont aussi identifié quelques défaillances que les enseignants devraient prendre en considération afin d'améliorer les contenus. D'autre part, les inspecteurs de l'éducation nationale ont confirmé la pertinence d'une grande partie des contenus du programme dans la formation des enseignants et ont aussi identifié quelques lacunes qu'ils ont pu constater durant leur observation des enseignants diplômés de l'ENS. De ce fait, quelques recommandations pédagogiques ont été apportées et adressées aux enseignants formateurs et concepteurs du programme.

Mots Clés : Besoins, méthodologie de l'enseignement, curriculum, formation des enseignants, évaluation, analyse des besoins.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الأطروحة الى تحري رغبات طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة من مفردات منهاج التعليمية. نظريا يهدف هذا البحث الى المساهمة في تسليط الضوء على منهاج التعليمية باعتباره نظاما علميا ودقيقا مبنيا أساسا على رغبات الطلبة وشاملا لعدة مراحل هي: مرحلة التخطيط، مرحلة البناء، مرحلة التطبيق ومرحلة التقويم. ولقد سلطنا الضوء على منهاج التعليمية باعتباره أساسا موضعاً لرغبات ومتطلبات الطلبة الأساتذة. تهدف في هذا الإطار الى تقويم هذا المنهاج من زاوية تطابقه مع رغبات وتوقعات الطلبة الأساتذة بافتراض أن رغبات الطلبة لا تتعدى كونها توقعات المسؤولين على المنهاج ويتجاهل تام لرؤى الأطراف المشاركة الأخرى بما فيها رغبات الطلبة كما هو معبر عنها وكذلك آراء الأخصائيون التربويون. ولقد تم انجاز هذا البحث من خلال دراسة دليل المنهاج باستعمال نموذج Brown 1995 والذي أظهر أن الدليل يتجاهل تماما رغبات الطلبة، بل يتعدى ذلك كونه عبارة عن قائمة محتويات قد تؤدي الى تأويلات وتطبيقات مختلفة من طرف مستعمليه كما قد تم جمع معلومات قيمة من خلال دراسة ثلاثة استبيانات موجهة لكل من الأساتذة المكونين، الطلبة، وكذلك مفتشي التربية والتكوين. ولقد أظهرت النتائج أن دليل المنهاج لا يتطابق مع ما هو معمول به بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة بحيث أن الأساتذة المكونين يقومون بدراسة رغبات الطلبة ولكن بطريقة غير رسمية بل وقد أثبتوا الى حد بعيد مدى تطابق مفردات المنهاج مع ميول الطلبة ورغباتهم. هذا الأمر أثبتته الطلبة الذين من جهتهم عرفوا بمكتسباتهم ومهاراتهم بعد الانتهاء من دراسة المنهاج. حيث أنهم أظهروا بعض النقائص التي قد تغير الأساتذة المكونين في تحسين أدائهم في المستقبل. من جهة أخرى أثبت مفتشو التربية والتكوين قدرة المنهاج عموما على تحضير الطلبة الأساتذة لأداء مهامهم في المستقبل. كما أظهروا بعض النقائص التي لاحظوها في الأساتذة المتربصين المتخرجين من المدرسة العليا للأساتذة. وعلى أساس هذه النتائج، تم تقديم بعض الحلول البيداغوجية للطاقت البيداغوجي والتربوي للمنهاج بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة.

كلمات مفتاحية: رغبات- منهاج التعليمية-منهاج-تكوين الأساتذة-تقويم-دراسة الرغبات.