ACTION RESEARCH BASED IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS (INSET) AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT) CURRICULUM INNOVATION IN BENIN: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY.

by

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DEDICATION

This work is a small contribution to the weaving of a long 'rope'. It is dedicated to:

- my parents, Gnihadé Soumadou Bernard A. AKOHA, née Kpohihein, and Soumadou Bernard A. AKOHA, for sacrificing so much in order that it can be continued after them; and through them to the Beninese People.

- my children, Léonie Patricia and Sêna Juvenal so that they can weave it on, better than ever; and through them, to the Beninese youth.

- Henry Penrose, alias 'papa tea' whose enthusiasm for teaching, dedication to the English language and civilisation, and integrity 'spurred' me on; and the late Adrian Sewell, who died in action for the improvement of English Language Teaching in Benin; and through them, to the British People.

May it strengthen the link of solidarity between our two People and their languages for a better and peaceful world.
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Editorial Note

Throughout the text the masculine and the feminine forms of the third person singular have been jointly used except, in quotations where their authors' choices have been respected. Some readers might find this somewhat cumbersome. It is however hoped that it contributes to the growing awareness that it needs two to make society.
ABSTRACT

This study originates from an ELT curriculum innovation in Benin, leading to the adoption of a textbook which emphasizes the development of communicative skills, chiefly through pair/group work. It describes the experimental INSET set up to introduce its new methodology, and which has been evaluated through the comparison of teaching and learning by experimental classes with control classes. It also identifies, through a questionnaire, INSET processes considered as most effective.

It finds that teachers with the Action-Research based INSET improved their abilities to use the new book for more communicative teaching as seen through the evaluation of teacher performance by inspectors, pupils and teachers themselves and as compared with control group teachers.

It also finds that the project and the implementation of the curriculum it aimed to facilitate did not adversely affect pupil progress. On the contrary the experimental group pupils scored moderately higher than the control group pupils on all the English general proficiency tests used for the study. But the difference is not statistically significant. However, the experimental group pupils' subjective impression of progress as well as their views on communicative language teaching are significantly more positive than those of control pupils.

It also finds that diagnostic class observations, practical workshops at school based INSET meetings and residential seminars, with active involvement of teachers through action research, and formative class observations, are considered as more effective than summative class observations, feedback and advice by trainers and inspectors.

It concludes that priority should be given to in-service education to ensure the success of the curriculum reform, with a systematic programme drawing on the problem solving approach to educational innovation for ELT. This should be progressively generalised to other subjects. Some suggestions are also made as to the contextualisation and relevance of communicative teaching.
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Almost inevitably, new curricula involve new teaching strategies, as well as new content. New teaching strategies are extremely difficult to learn and to set oneself to learn, especially when they cut across old habits and assumptions and invalidate hard won skills. It is not enough to assume that teachers are in a good position to develop new strategies independently on the basis of common professional skills. Cooperative and well organised effort is needed, and teachers working cooperatively together have the same right and need as other professionals -such as doctors or engineers- to have access to consultancy and to draw on research. (Stenhouse, 1975: 25)
CHAPTER ONE: PROBLEM STATEMENT AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1-1 Problem statement

1-1-1 Main aims

This research project examines the relationship between provisions for the in-service education and training of teachers (INSET) for secondary school teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and their effectiveness in implementing English Language teaching curriculum innovation. This effectiveness is seen through their ability to set up, monitor and evaluate pair/group work for reading activities in the general framework of communicative language teaching, and through their own evaluation of the INSET project as implemented. It is also seen through their pupils' progress as evidenced by their achievement test scores and their evaluation of the communicative language learning which underlies the experimental INSET.

On the other hand the study also identifies through teachers' views on INSET and its relationship with pre-service education and training of teachers and on the experimental INSET, the policies, methods, procedures and provisions which they consider as the most efficient ways of ensuring an effective in-service provision for EFL teachers in Benin.

1-1-2 Specific objectives

A/ Survey the state of formal English Language Teaching and teacher Education and training in Benin
B/ Study teachers' perceptions of their initial professional training and of current provisions for in-service training.

C/ Organize an experimental action research based integrated INSET course and investigate the relationship between teachers' participation in it and effectiveness in integrating pair/group work into their classroom activities for more communicative teaching.

D/ Evaluate the effectiveness of the INSET course and its process as perceived by participants and identify those forms, methods and procedures which they consider as most effective in promoting teachers' professional development.

E/ Examine the relationship between teachers' participation in the experimental INSET and pupils' progress and perception of communicative language teaching.

F/ Evaluate the suitability to the Beninise context of the textbook whose use the INSET project aimed to facilitate as perceived by participants.

1-1-3 Research questions

- Objective A: English Language teaching and teacher education in Benin

1- What is the current situation of English Language teaching in Benin? Does it show a need for the curriculum innovation under way?

2- What provisions are there at present for the initial and inservice education and training of teachers?

3- How satisfactory are they in view of the documentary evidence and in practice?
Objective B: Teachers' perceptions of their training

4. How do teachers perceive their initial professional education and training? How satisfied are they with it?
5. How do teachers perceive their in-service education and training? How satisfied are they with current provisions for it?

Objective C: Participation in the INSET project and effective communicative teaching through pair/group work

6. How does participation in the experimental action research based INSET relate to teachers' ability to organize, monitor, evaluate and build on pair/group work for language teaching as part of their classroom activities compared with 'conventional' class visits, feedback and recommendations to teachers by trainers?
7. Is there any difference in performance between pre-service trained and untrained teachers who participated in the course?
8. Are there any differences between teachers' own assessment, pupils' assessment and trainers' assessment of teachers' classroom performance related to participation in the INSET programme?

Objective D: Subjective evaluation of the INSET effectiveness by participating teachers

9. How applicable do teachers think communicative language teaching is in the context of their classes?
10. How confident are they in organizing activities considered as characteristic of communicative language teaching?
11. Which policies, forms, methods and procedures do teachers consider as most effective in promoting their
professional development in view of their experience of the experimental INSET?

12- To what extent do teachers think and feel that the experimental INSET has met their expectations and has therefore been effective?

Objective E: Pupil progress

13- Do teachers' participation in the action research based INSET and their integration of communicative language teaching into their classroom practice adversely affect the performance of their pupils as seen through the comparison of these pupils' general English proficiency test scores with those of pupils whose teachers did not? How marked is the difference between the performance of both groups of pupils, if any?

14- Is there any marked difference between pupils whose teachers are pre-service trained and those whose teachers are not?

15- How do pupils perceive the communicative language teaching underlying the experimental INSET and their progress in English language learning?

16- Is there any difference in perception between pupils whose teachers participated in the INSET course and those whose teachers did not?

Objective F: The evaluation of the new textbook

17- What are teachers' impressions of the newly adopted textbook, English Africa, on which the INSET project was based?

18- Is there any marked tendency for teachers who participated in the experimental INSET to rate the book differently from teachers who did not?

19- What are pupils' impressions on this textbook?
20- Is there any difference in assessment of the textbook between pupils whose teachers participated in the experiment and those whose teachers did not?

21- Are teachers' assessment markedly different from pupils' assessments?

1-2 Background to the study

1-2-1 Personal Motivation to undertake the study

The drive to investigate the topic of in-service teacher education related to teachers' effectiveness in language teaching springs at a personal level from three sources: the researcher's early interest in languages, his childhood fascination for the process of Education and the challenge of his MA research on the use of micro-teaching to train pre-service teacher trainees for effective language teaching using pair and group work.

When a child, he was nicknamed 'AKOWEVI' (white collar man's son) in reference to his illiterate father's proficiency in rudimentary French learnt at evening classes. These evening classes were given by an extraordinarily gifted semi-literate villager who happened to be the researcher's maternal grandfather and who reportedly could 'speak' over twelve languages and dialects including Portuguese, French, English, Hausa, Djerma and other local languages. People would then jokingly challenge the researcher to explain incomprehensible rudimentary French or even any other invented 'language' as his grandfather would have done to help any stranger calling on the villagers when he was alive. He would be urged to do so in honour of his 'white collar' father. This myth about his polyglot grandfather, the high esteem in which people who could speak many languages were held in that tiny village community, and the good humoured jokes and friendly provocations of his
family's friends deeply affected the researcher, aroused his curiosity and sustained his interest in language learning up to this stage of higher education.

Besides, as the eldest son of his parents, he very early started acting the role of 'teacher' to his junior brothers and sisters, teaching them children's games, helping them make their own toys, and later on sharing tips with his village age group about informally organised wrestling matches against neighbouring village youths. He was always fascinated by how he managed to communicate his own experience to others so that they could build on it to do things they were not able to do before. These early emotional, spontaneous and unconscious involvements with education contributed to a great extent to the researcher's interest in teacher education.

Since he officially entered the teaching profession he has closely associated himself with local and national institutions concerned with pedagogy, methodology and teacher education. He was thus involved in teacher training activities at his teaching posts at provincial levels as well as at national levels and in ELT curriculum development activities. The relative inefficiency of these activities sometimes angrily aired by dissatisfied teachers, pupils' parents and pupils themselves (MEMB, MEMGTP & MESRS, 1981; CTIS, 1985) stimulated the researcher to question the validity of current practices and increased his desire to look for more adequate alternatives which could, on the one hand help teachers to be more effective and on the other, help pupils to learn better and to feel less frustrated when confronted with English in real life.

In line with this need, the researcher while on his MA course in 1985 undertook some 'experimental' research to examine the effectiveness of micro-teaching techniques as a
competency based teacher training instrument in pre-service initial training (Akoha, 1985). The focus was on the use of pair and group work for language learning. Both micro-teaching and pair/group work were new concepts and practices for both trainees and pupils. Micro teaching was proved less effective with peer teaching than with real pupils. The pupils liked and enjoyed the pair/group work and said they learnt a lot from it. Trainees also appreciated it as well as the micro-teaching.

Most trainers shared the same view. But some experienced and influential trainers in the training college expressed strong reservations about the validity of micro-teaching, to train teachers for large classes and doubted the feasibility and even the desirability of pair/group work and communicative language teaching, putting forward arguments related to class size, time and curriculum constraints, examination oriented teaching. Although the results of the research were positively conclusive the seed of doubt was sown. In suggestions made for further research it was stated, in relation to communicative English teaching and the use of pair/group work:

In view of the criticism voiced against the applicability of that teaching method to the Beninese 'context' and of the enthusiasm it however raised in student teachers it would be of interest to undertake some experimental research work on the use of English as a Foreign Language in a disadvantaged setting taking Benin as a case study.' (Akoha, 1985: 91)

The main questions then were: Could these innovations really work outside the pressure-free walls of the teacher training college? Could pair/group work work in real classes and in large classes? Could communicative orientated language teaching help students cope more effectively with both fluent English use and accuracy centred, writing focussed
examinations? In what ways could practising teachers be helped to re-educate themselves, to understand and to integrate an alternative teaching approach to their current pedagogical views, and to train themselves to implement this approach more effectively? Which forms of teacher education practices would be more appropriate for that purpose? Could micro-teaching be of any help in this process? In which form and under which circumstances? To what extent were current provisions for in-service education and training of EFL teachers adequate in ensuring 'effective teaching' by existing methodological standards? Could they accommodate the training of teachers for alternative approaches?

These were the questions arising from the first research into teacher education at pre-service level. They all led to the need to follow that study up with an investigation into in-service teacher education and training of practising teachers in the context of real classrooms.

These three sources of personal motivation to study these issues through a higher level research project were activated by a more general, national, malaise in the educational system in the country.

1-2-2 Setting: Benin: a brief presentation

1-2-2-1 Basic Data

The Republic of Benin, formerly known as Dahomey up to 1975 and People's republic of Benin up to March 1990, is a 43,484 sq miles (112,622 sq km) wide West African country situated between 1 and 3 longitude East and 6 and 12 latitude North, with a 78 mile coastline on the Gulf of Guinea extending 'northwards inland for 437 miles' (Whitaker's Almanac 1988, Whitaker 1987: 799). The country stands on the Atlantic Ocean between Togo Republic in the West, and Nigeria in the East
and is limited in the North by Burkina Faso and Niger Republic. (see map on figure 1 overleaf). Its population which was 3,338,240 inhabitants according to the last general census in 1979 is estimated at 5-million in 1990 and 7-million in the year 2000 according to the World Bank (1984) projection on the basis of a 3.2% annual growth. 53% of this population is under 20.

Benin is a warm country with sunshine, moonlit nights and blue bright starred sky. Its Equatorial climate in the South with its humidity, its high temperature, its immense grasslands, rivers and forests defying the destructive encroachment of modern civilisation contrasts with the tropical climate in the North, land of beautiful hills, impressive mountains, meandering streams, scattered trees, grasslands and pastures, land of hot days and cool nights. This contrasting, yet complementary climate gives the country a geophysical balance, a richness and fertility which makes it a place of hidden and largely untapped treasures, with a mosaic of nationalities speaking about 52 languages and dialects dominated by three main linguistic groups: Bariba, Yoruba and Fon. French is the official language used in administration, education, law and international relations.

European contacts with the people of present day Benin date back to the 15th century when Portuguese sailors frequented its coasts and traded with its kings, followed by the French and the English in the early 17th century. It was notorious for the slave trade which historically paved the way for the prosperity of the Americas through the notorious Triangular Trade, Europe-Africa-America, and which made the coastline known at a point in history as the "slave coast" (Cornevin, 1962: 239).
Figure 1: Map of BENIN with the 6 main administrative regions (provinces)
The modern state of Benin Republic, with its present borders, was carved out of the ancient kingdoms and chieftaincies conquered by the French between 1894 and 1899 when the country became a French colony integrated to the then "French West Africa", after negotiation with the Germans in the west (the 23rd July 1897 convention) and the English in the east (the 19th June 1898 Agreement) (Direction de la documentation Française, 1966: 5)

It became independent in 1960 after more than a half century of a tumultuous "partnership" with France. The first decade after independence was a decade of political instability. Three main political parties and their leaders alternated in power about every two years in various combinations, with intermittent military take-overs. In 1972 the army took over once again and established a stronger, one party political system, inspired by socialist democracy based on what was called democratic centralism. It managed to stay in power with its socialist-oriented ideology up to 1989, in different forms of power sharing with civilians putting an end to the earlier political instability for almost two decades. But current serious economic and social difficulties forced it to renounce its socialist orientation and its one party system. A new constitution was drafted to facilitate evolution to Western European multi-party system under the pressure of international lending agencies and of the former colonial power. In line with this I.M.F prescribed liberalism the educational system is also being reviewed in the sense of more realism and less radical ideological emphasis than was the case previously.

1-2-2-2 Education

Western-type formal education in Benin started right at the beginning of its European contacts even before the country formally became a French colony. The first schools were
founded by missionaries who considered them as necessary tools for their evangelical apostolate. Thus as far back as 1680, the Portuguese founded a Catholic school in Ouidah. Protestant schools were also created around 1853 by Thomas Birch Freeman, a black English man of the London Wesleyan Mission Society.

But it was not until the last half of the 19th century that these denominational schools really took off and spread throughout the country. Lessons were taught in Portuguese in some schools, eg. Father Borghero's schools in Ouidah, in English and French in other schools, eg. Reverend I J Marshall's schools in Porto-Novo. However, French gradually replaced Portuguese and English as the medium of instruction when state schools started in the 1890s.

It is interesting to note that, with the exception of a few secondary schools, mostly owned by missionaries where local languages were taught, and a short lived experience of Yoruba language medium primary schools in the centre of the country, initiated by Methodist ministers of British nationality (Yai, 1976) and the translation of the Bible in some local languages, not much was done from the evidence of existing documents (Cornevin 1962) to transcribe and teach local languages.

In the colonial period schools were seen and operated as part and parcel of the colonial scheme of cultural domination and economic exploitation. Originally the intention was just to train local chiefs' children as second order administration clerks so that they could help the colonial authority administer the colony. Later on schooling was broadened to the training of children in some practical skills and rudimentary knowledge in areas such as accountancy, civil engineering and agriculture. Then any children in the local community were conscripted and
cursorily trained to serve in trading companies or as foremen or forwomen in civil engineering, agriculture or as monitors in primary schools.

It was not however until after the Second World War that the whole enterprise developed into a full blown network system covering the whole of 'French West Africa'. It was then that the French colonial philosophy of assimilation and civilising missions clearly emerged. Schooling was then seen in addition to the traditional goals referred to earlier on, as a way of educating the colonial subjects in the 'greater' cultural values of the colonial power. This should help them to better understand the benefits of colonisation, and induce a more co-operative attitude on the part of the educated subjects and through them the whole population, and establishing thus the settlers' hegemony in the Gramscian sense of the term. (Buci-Glucksmann, 1980 Forgacs, 1988). The system was therefore a priori geared towards the satisfaction of needs and interests alien to the colonised people and to a great extent detrimental to their cultural and economic development.

At independence one would have thought that the whole educational policy would be re-oriented towards the achievement of national cultural, social and economic development policy goals. But in spite of the numerous conferences at national, continental and international levels under the auspices of UNESCO, and OAU (Addis Ababa 1961, Abidjan 1964, Nairobi 1968) the then Dahomean state was not concerned with re-orienting the goals of schools; it simply facilitated the continuation and evolution of the process engaged before independence (MEMB 1983).

A project known as Grosse-tête Dossou Yovo Educational Reform Project was developed in the early 1970s; but it was considered as alienating as the prevailing system inherited
from the colonial period. Protests and strikes broke out against its adoption and it never took off. The left wing government which took power in 1972 adopted a political programme with Educational Reform high on its agenda. A project was elaborated by a national committee and was adopted in its fundamental orientation as the Ordinance 75-30 of 23rd June 1975 related to the Orientation Law of the National Education System.

The first chapter of this law stated the main goals education was to achieve in the country. In sum it had to be liberated from foreign domination and cultural alienation, integrated to the social environment, relevant to the needs of the country, democratic and geared towards giving equal opportunities to each citizen, compulsory, free, secular and state controlled. It had to ensure the harmonious growth of people, see to their physical, intellectual and moral equilibrium; help the union of the different ethnic groups constituting the national community, safeguard, improve and develop the cultural values which were compatible with the country's economic and social progress. It had to link theoretical learning to productive work and educate citizens who would be politically conscientious and technically competent. National languages were to be gradually introduced, first as teaching subjects and later as media of instruction.

However, Article 2 of this chapter stipulated that the new system had to be open to the main world issues and trends so as to assimilate experiences of other educational systems confronted with similar problems of economic, cultural and social development.

The organisational structure of the educational system was redefined along two main 'degrees' and one remedial and post schooling non-formal educational institution.
the first degree comprised nursery, primary and secondary schools of general, technical and professional instruction. The second degree was concerned with Higher Education at University and Research. The remedial institution, called 'Centre Populaire d'Education, de Perfectionnement et d'Initiation à la Production' ('CEPEPIP'), was designed to train those who would not have been able to follow the normal route or needed perfection or reconversion in vocational skills through non-formal education. (See Figure 2, p ).

The academic year was to begin in February and end in December. Learners were to spend two years in nursery, five years in primary schools, instead of six as in the previous system, three years in the lower (first cycle) secondary schools instead of four, three years in the upper (second cycle) secondary school as before. But they were to follow different curriculum orientations with new disciplines such as ideology and productive work. Teaching syllabuses were to be reshuffled to fit in these new orientations in all disciplines at all levels and forms. The new curricula in all subject areas were to be oriented towards:
- delivering well-balanced and well adapted knowledge, know-how (skills) and know how to be (attitudes).
- achieving in practice the principle of linking school to life by emphasising the study and transformation of the national natural and social environment,
- preparing people for conception and innovation tasks necessary for a harmonious social and economic development by sharpening their creativity and initiative faculties.

The methodological approach of the new school, it was stated, required a radical change in teachers' and pupils' attitudes and in the way classes were conceived of. Teachers had to get rid of their view of themselves as the sole bank of knowledge in the classroom.
Figure 2: The structure of the New Educational System

Legend:

- PhD: Doctor of Philosophy
- MSc: Master of Science
- BSc: Bachelor of Science
- EN: Engineering
- Management

Structure du Systeme d'Enseignement

École Nouvelle
They should rather see themselves as advisors, awareness raisers and stimulators of the social environment (social change agents). Pupils should adopt an active and dynamic attitude towards learning and change the old schema: "speak-listen-recite-write" for a new attitude which would take advantage of a methodological approach allowing for a direct experience of life and an awakening of their potential. As pedagogic groups, classes were to become an occasion for specific relationships between teachers and pupils. They should replace the conventional image of 'auditorium class' with a more dynamic image of 'discussion class' 'workshop class' and 'inquiry class'.

The general enthusiasm for change in that period when the 1972 revolution was in full swing, the entrepreneurship of its political leaders and their revolutionary fervour gave a tremendous impetus to the reform movement. So between 1977, the first academic year of full scale implementation of the new system and 1981 when it was evaluated, both primary and secondary schools sprouted up like mushrooms all over the country.

In 1974-1975, before the reform started, there were 89 secondary schools, including 16 with second cycle. 17 of them were private schools, 11 with second cycle. In 1988 there were 147 secondary schools, 42 of them with second cycle. Since the 1977 take over of private schools by the state, it was only in 1987-1988, apart from one or two aborted exceptions, that some private schools started an unsteady resurgence. Four were opened that year and four others applied to open in 1988-1989. (Head of the the statistics Office, Ministry of Middle and Higher Education: personal communication, September 1988). So over 60 schools more were created between 1975 and last year. At primary level there were 2715 schools in 1987 (MEMB 1987:81) against
1325 in 1974-1975 including 9, private schools at that time (MPSAE, 1980: 247). 1390 more schools were thus built.

The school enrollment rate also shot up during this first decade of the reform implementation. From 34.28% in 1971-1972 (MPSAE, 1980: 244) when the present government took over, enrollment rates in primary education went up to 50.98% in 1982, ten years later (UNESCO, 1982: 3) but dropped back to 48.7% in 1986 (UNESCO 1986).

As for secondary education, there were 27,073 pupils in 1972 (MEMGTP, 1980). In 1982 their number went up to 113,887 (MEMS, 1987: 78). There had thus been a fourfold increase of the secondary school population in just a ten year period, with a gross enrollment ratio of 22%. The average number of pupils per class was 52. But a gradual decreasing of that population has been going on since 1983 (see evolution curves on pages 18 and 19). There still is an average of 47 pupils per class in 1987-1988.

As could be noticed on the evolution curves of the school population in both cycles (see page 20) the downward trend is sharper in the second cycle than in the first cycle, showing that more and more pupils have been dropping out or being pushed out after the first cycle of secondary education (11-13 to 14-16 year olds.) over the last five years or so. It is important to realise nonetheless that the evolution of the school population has not been linear. So in spite of this globally decreasing trend, the overall result of the reform movement in its first decade had been a giant step forward in the democratisation of schooling and education, democratisation understood as quantitative increase in access to school.
Figure 3: Evolution curve of the school population in the first cycle 1975-1988

Figure 4: Evolution curve of the school population in the second cycle 1975-1988
Figure 5: General evolution curve of the school population in GNFR: 1975-1988
Has there, however, been an equivalent improvement in school quality, understood minimally as adequacy and efficiency of resources (classrooms, trained teachers, materials) and as positive outputs from the system (improvement in success rates at examinations, decrease in repetition and drop out rates, and higher promotion rate from one form to the other, one cycle to the other), let alone other hard-to-compute outcomes such as interest in productive work, commitment to the ideals of the ideological underpinning of the political system, better national consciousness as opposed to ethnicist or microregionalist allegiance?

As shown by the 1981 national evaluation of the Reform implementation (MEMB, MEMGTP, MESRS, 1981, Présidence de la République, Commission Nationale de Supervision 1981) completed under the pressure of growing discontent and bitterness of people about Education, the success of the Reform Movement in the first decade of implementation seems rather questionable.

Although local communities, in application of the principle of self-reliance did their best to build schools, there were more pupils than classrooms, less furniture in them than pupils, scandalously fewer learning materials than required, and fewer teachers available than needed. Most of those recruited as expedients to palliate the shortage of teachers were secondary school leavers and students known as Jeunes Instituteurs Revolutionaries (JIR, young revolutionary primary teachers) or Jeunes Professeurs revolutionaries (JPR, young revolutionary secondary teachers). They were relatively under-educated, untrained for their new responsibilities, and incredibly underpaid and therefore not very highly motivated for the job. They constituted 45-50% of the teaching force in secondary and primary schools between 1975 and 1985 when this mode of recruitment was terminated due to dissatisfaction with the results.
This unsatisfactory state of affairs was not ignored by the political leaders and administrators of the Reform Movement. They were aware that beyond the expediency of the 'Young Revolutionary Teachers' there was a dire need for real professional teachers. As the present writer puts it elsewhere:

The issue was not one of solving a quantitative problem, but rather one of educating educators, equipped to put into practice the principles and ambitions of the New School. The issue was for the government to provide the human means needed to carry out their policy. It was then historically necessary for them, not only to retrain and update practising teachers recruited in circumstances described earlier, but to train a lot more new teachers if we were to meet the requirements of the democratisation of instruction.' (Akoha, 1988: 8)

Thus the government launched an ambitious teacher education project in 1978, three years after the Reform was started. Five new primary teachers' colleges were created in each of the other provinces where there were none, in addition to the one already in existence in Porto-Novo (the Oueme province). In the same year, the upper secondary school teachers' college was also opened to train certified teachers at national level. The creation of lower secondary school teachers' colleges in each province was envisaged. But eventually it was a first cycle of the Advanced Teachers' Training College in Porto-Novo, which was started in 1981 within the Arts, and Science and Technology departments of the national university.

Meanwhile an agreement was signed by Benin jointly with the World Bank and UNESCO to set up a complex of three Teacher Education Institutions, called Integrated Normal Schools (Ecoles Normales Intégrées, ENI), two in the north (Parakou, Natitingou) and one in the south (Lokossa) where primary teachers, junior secondary school teachers and technical and agricultural education teachers would be trained. They were
due to open in 1985, but only managed to make a late start in 1987-1988. All trainee teachers due to be trained in initial primary teacher training colleges or in the university departments were transferred to these integrated Normal Schools. If everything went according to the terms of the project they should have an output of 260 qualified junior secondary school teachers per year, the first batch being due for October 1990. But even if these terms were respected it would not markedly increase the teaching force. Indeed most of the trainees recruited in 1989 were already practising teachers although the schools were conceived of and operated as initial teacher training colleges. There has been no other recruitment since.

The Advanced Teacher Training college with its first cycle taught in the University faculties has, in its part, greatly contributed to the provision of qualified teachers. From 1978 to 1987, it trained 602 qualified senior secondary school teachers including 141 females and 160 teachers of English, in nine batches. In 1987-1988 and 1988-1989 about 120 teachers more should be graduated, including 17 more teachers of English. It also trained 296 qualified junior secondary teachers, including 68 females and about 80 teachers of English in five batches excluding about 150 due to graduate in 1987-1988 and 1988-1989.

As a result of this contribution, teacher shortage at secondary level has been greatly contained as shown by the latest forecasts of teacher supply in the six provinces for 1988-1989 (See Table 1 on page 25 and table 2 on page 27). There is even an apparent surplus of offer over demand in some disciplines such as English in the second cycle as is visually represented by the histograms on pages 26 and 28.
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Table 4. Provision of teacher supply by province and discipline for 1988-1989; first cycle secondary school.

Legend: n = needed a = available w = wanted

Note: In the first cycle teachers teach the cluster of disciplines as presented in the table.

Source: Computed from available provincial statistics at the planning unit of the Ministry of Middle and Education.
FIG 6: TEACHER SUPPLY IN BENIN 1988-1989
FIRST CYCLE

LEGEND:
FHG = FRENCH/HISTORY/GEOGRAPHY
FRE = FRENCH/ENGLISH
MAB = MATHS/BIOLOGY
MAP = MATHS/PHYSICS
PHB = PHYSICS/BIOLOGY
PHE = PHYSICAL-EDUCATION
HOE = HOME-ECONOMICS

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FIG 7: TEACHER SUPPLY IN BENIN 1988-1989
SECOND CYCLE

SUBJECTS

TEACHERS

FR = FRENCH  HIG = HISTORY/GEOGRAPHY  PHI = PHILOSOPHY
MAT = MATHS  BIO = BIOLOGY  PHY = PHYSICS  ENG = ENGLISH
GER = GERMAN  SPA = SPANISH  PHE = PHYSICAL-EDUCATION
EHE = ECONOMICS/HOME-ECONOMICS

Legend:
- Bold: Teachers Needed
- Dashed: Teachers Available
So in general 3,114 teachers are needed in the country to operate the education system at secondary level and 2,532 are available. Theoretically, as shown by the tables, 582 more teachers should be hired. Of course this is a rather artificial view as it supposes that redundant teachers in some disciplines can be trained overnight to teach in other disciplines lacking teachers. A more discriminating look at the figures shows the following reality.

In the first cycle 631 more teachers were needed than available in five disciplines among which were 138 teachers of French-English. In the second cycle 191 more teachers were needed in 7 disciplines (French = 7, Maths = 51, Physics = 45, Biology = 33, Spanish = 23, Physical Education = 30, Economics = 2) than were available. On the other hand 157 teachers were redundant in four disciplines (Philosophy = 5, History-Geography = 79, English = 64, German = 9). All these redundant teachers should have been redeployed in other sectors or lost their jobs. So there is an overall lack of 822 teachers and an overall surplus of 240 teachers. It should also be noted that if teaching load were 18 hours a week instead of the 22 hours on the basis of which surpluses and shortfalls were calculated, more teachers might well have been actually needed than forecast.

The statistical year books consulted for this work in the Ministry of Education in Benin, as well as those of UNESCO and the special study by Berg and Malungila (1987) were significantly deficient as regards information about the proportion of trained teachers and non-trained teachers in the total teaching force, especially in the last 10 years. It seems that there was more concern about how wide the gap was between the quantity of teachers required and the quantity of those available than with how wide it was between the quality of both.
So it has only been possible for this study to make a rough estimate from available incomplete documents, discussions with provincial authorities and particularly with the head of the staff control and training office at the General Middle Education department (Chef Service Controle et Formation pedagogique, DEMG 1988: personal communication) in relation to the specific discipline of English (French-English in the first cycle). Thus it has been estimated that 70% of teachers teaching English in the first cycle last year, 1987-1988, had no systematic professional training.

In the second cycle about 75% of teachers of English completed their initial training at the Advanced Teacher Training College in Porto-Novo, and 7% were 'certified teachers' from the older generation. This left 18% of teachers directly recruited from university and teaching in the second cycle with no professional preparation. In sum 44-45% of the total teaching force were untrained. As shown by the statistics on the Advanced Teacher Training Colleges output, English was the discipline where the greatest number of teachers has been trained.

So considerable effort was put into teacher education after the reform movement had been launched. But at secondary level, this effort was mostly in pre-service teacher education. Although some institutions were set up to supervise and see to the improvement of practising teachers, no clearly defined and systematically executed in-service teacher training, retraining, and upgrading programmes existed. The best which has been provided so far has been a four hour general pedagogic activities course at the beginning of each academic year consisting of lesson observation and discussion. In ten years (1977-1987) there had been only two two-day seminars of more in-depth discussion of the methodology and content of the school curriculum and this only for second cycle teachers.
It is no wonder then that educational standards have dropped. Indeed, in terms of output the statistics on examination success rate and repetition rates are quite revealing. Particularly illuminating are the following. On average there were a 73.75% promotion rate in the first cycle and 49.33% in the second cycle in 1974-1975, the year preceding the Reform Movement. 15.27% of pupils repeated their classes in the first cycle, and 18.63% did so in the second cycle (OIT, 1984). In 1981 when the Reform Movement was evaluated 31.70% of pupils in the first cycle repeated their classes on average, against 42.87% in the second cycle, both rates being more than twice those of 1975.

The examination success rates are also rather disappointing. In 1972-73, 38.8% of the pupils registered for BEPC (end of first cycle education certificate) passed against 63.1% for 'Baccalaureat' (end of second cycle education degree). In 1981 it went down to 28.06% for 'BEPC' and 17.57% for 'Baccalaureat', and sank to 2.33% at 'BEPC' in 1984-85, and 12.39% for 'Baccalaureat'. A slow upward movement has begun since 1986 as far as the 'Baccalaureat' is concerned with 15.17% in 1985-86, 16.27% in 1986-87, and 16.33% in 1988 (Office du Baccalaureat: and DECSU statistics for those years).

The overall image one gets after perusing the educational statistics of the first 10 years or so of the Reform Movement is one of a sinking boat. This impression was unambiguously borne out by the nationwide evaluation of the implementation of this reform in 1981 which made a number of recommendations. Among these were the return to the old school calendar starting in October and ending in June, the deemphasising of productive work and ideology in the school curriculum at all levels, the need for the latter to take more account of traditional domains of knowledge, adequate provisions of teaching/learning materials for students as
well as for teachers. Above all the regular retraining of practising teachers and training of new teachers had been highly recommended together with the need for more effective supervision of teachers particularly in the secondary school.

In line with these recommendations and thanks to international cooperation, especially with UNESCO, the WORLD BANK, the African Bank for Development, France, a number of projects had been launched. Among them, the following are worth noting in relation to this study: firstly the establishment of a National Centre for School Book production and the creation of the Integrated Normal Schools for the training of primary, junior secondary, technical and agricultural education teachers (World Bank Second Education Project). All these are already in operation. Secondly the creation of three polytechnic colleges (Pobe, Bohicon and Natitingou), financed by the African Bank for Development. Besides, a more selective system with a more and more open emphasis on privatisation and on the need to make individual parents bear the cost of their young boys' and girls' education has been set up sine die, especially in professional and higher education.

As a whole, education in Benin went through many ups and downs. It is not in the scope of this study to delve into the whys and hows of successes and failures in the educational innovations started off by the 1975 Reform Movement. It is hoped that the description of the evolution of the system in general has clarified the context in which English Language Teaching and English Language teacher education will be discussed.
CHAPTER TWO: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION IN BENIN

2-1 Language Planning and the Need for English

Language planning here is understood in Fishman's terms as 'the organised pursuit of solutions to language problems typically at the national level' (Fishman 1974). As explained by Fergusson (1985), the nature of these problems could be conceptualised in two ways. Some scholars (e.g. Tauli, 1968, 1974) consider the improvement of language as an instrument of communication by reference to such criteria as economy, clarity and beauty as the essential problem language planning has to solve. Others (e.g. Jernudd and Das Gupta, 1971; Rubin 1973) reject this strictly linguistic and technical view and argue that 'the understanding and subsequent treatment of language problems requires not merely an appreciation of the technical linguistic aspects of these problems but also insight into the socio-political motivation underlying their initial identification and the demands that they should be addressed' (Fergusson, 1985: 23-24). The latter approach, seen as more comprehensive and more relevant to issues to be raised here, will prevail throughout this section. The discussion will firstly briefly make a critique of language planning in the colonial period and in the first decade of independence before focussing on language planning issues and the need for English in the present Educational Reform context.

2-1-1 The colonial legacy of assimilation

The thrust of language planning activity in the colonial period had more to do with language status planning, understood as the planning of changes in the standing of a language and its societal functions vis a vis other languages in a community, than corpus planning involving
changes in language code, its structure, vocabulary, spelling and script (Kloss 1969, in Fergusson 1985:24)

Indeed the French colonial language policy aimed to assimilate indigenous peoples through a process of 'civilisation' whose main vehicle was the French language. A near perfect mastery of that language and the assimilation to the culture it conveyed were the key objectives of the whole educational enterprise. So, very little was done to encourage the study of local languages. Instead the colonial administration deliberately depreciated them and considered them as mere dialects or vernaculars so as to justify their ruthless repression.

So pupils were ridiculed, beaten and fined for 'speaking vernacular' to their fellow school boys or girls, not only at school but also at home. Various devices known as 'signal' or 'symbole' were used not only to identify and stigmatise culprits, but to better sink into their mind and their self esteem and self concept, the humiliation and opprobrium incurred by speaking the 'ignominious vernacular'. (see detailed accounts of this experience in Hountondji (1967:15); Yai (1976:67); Moumouni (1964:56) Dadié (1953, reedited, 1973:27 in Treffgarne, 1985). This policy underwent no fundamental changes during the first decade of national sovereignty.

Even though a few intellectuals managed to become excellent French speakers, the classical humanism curriculum model with its grammar analysis and literary text study emphasis through which languages were taught did not help to modify the linguistic map of the country. Less than 15% of the population is estimated to speak fluent French today. The vast majority of the population continue to use their mother tongues as ethnic monolinguals, and more commonly other local languages as internal bilinguals speaking two or
more dialects of the same language group and even as external bilinguals speaking a language belonging to another linguistic group (Yai 1976: op. cit). Besides, practical communication and methodological problems forced teachers, especially in primary schools, to introduce the forbidden 'vernacular' in their classrooms, even though it was limited and used somewhat surreptitiously against recommendations in teacher guides, and with some feeling of guilt. At secondary level some nationalist reactions against the neglect of national languages led to a sporadic and short lived introduction of courses in national languages in one or two schools in the 1970s, more or less condoned by the ministerial authorities of the time. But they were discontinued due to lack of motivating factors.

The overall picture remains then one of the quasi total neglect of national languages in the process of colonial education and more conspicuously in 'national' education in the first decade after independence when no clear language policy was adopted. But as Yai put it, 'absence of policy is a policy since the gap thus created is promptly filled by the presence of the colonial status quo' (Yai (1977: 241) (Present writer's translation of the French version)). That situation is not specific to Benin (then known as Dahomey) but characterises the whole African Educational scene despite the declaration of intent and some timid steps towards the promotion of local languages. As ruefully regretted by Dr Kahombo Mateene, Director of the OAU Inter African Bureau of Languages (BIL), an institution created in 1966 and set up only in 1973 with the responsibility of promoting the practical use of African languages within each state and between the member states of the OAU:

The foreign colonial languages are more favoured now than they were before independence. The idea of linguistic independence is in practice not followed by the very large majority of African leaders and elite. Linguistic unification by means of an African language within one country and among neighbouring countries is
not one of the preoccupations of the African leaders either. Whereas linguistic independence is a rejected idea, it is believed that African linguistic unity will be better achieved through foreign European languages. (Mateene 1980:vii)

This state of affairs, or rather state of mind was reflected by the 1965 session of the OAU Educational and Cultural Commission held in Lagos. It considered as desirable bilingualism in English and French, the most widespread official and working languages in Africa. It recommended the teaching of both in order to break down language barriers and facilitate contact between French and English speaking Africa (hopefully at least for the educated elite).

Unfortunately, and this introduces the role of English in the colonial and neocolonial period, the teaching of English was not geared towards the resolution of practical communication difficulties between people who by historical accidents happened to have received their formal education in different European languages. Its choice as 'First Modern Language (Première Langue Vivante), seemed justified mainly by the intention to reproduce the French educational patterns in the colonies on the one hand, and by its potential usefulness as a mind-forming and mind broadening discipline. Pupils had no more than an immediate instrumental motivation to learn about it to pass examinations and forget it.

2-1-2 Language planning and the 'scape goat syndrome' in the post-colonial Reform Era

In a stimulating article, provocatively titled "Language policy in Francophone Africa: scapegoat or panacea?", Treffgarne (1985) says, 'A shift in language policy can be hailed as a solution or a panacea to a particular problem; or it may emerge as a scapegoat if the educational policy
The account that follows lends some weight to this view.

In 1972, the predominance of foreign languages, especially French, in education was accused of contributing to the cultural alienation and implicitly to the academic underachievement of pupils in the country by the new government. Therefore, in their programmatic statement issued on 30 November 1972, it was declared:

A genuine reform of education must be drawn up in line with the requirements of the new policy. We must reinstate our national languages and ensure the development of popular culture by organising mass literacy work, which is essential for development, in our languages. An institute of linguistics must be established to devise ways of removing obstacles to the use of our national languages as means of communicating knowledge.

So, a need for a reconsideration of language planning in general and especially in Education was envisaged. The issues addressed in the programmatic statement were taken up by the Commission Nationale de Linguistique Appliquée (CNALA, National Commission for Applied Linguistics) established in 1978 for the rehabilitation of national languages. This commission inherited the experience of earlier organisations interested in the same field. Among them were missionaries, and voluntary and private organisations operating in rural development.

A particular mention is due to its predecessor, the National Commission of Linguistics, a non-governmental organisation, created on January 6th, 1972, which aimed to coordinate individual research work, organise a seminar on the transcription of national languages, study the literatures and cultures conveyed through these languages for their eventual integration into the educational system, and draw up a ten year programme for the promotion of African languages in collaboration with UNESCO. This commission set
up five sub committees dealing with Fon, Yoruba, Bariba, Adja and the languages of the North West (Atacora Province). It started corpus planning work in Fon, Bariba and Yoruba, with the publication of a Fon syllabary, a Fon reader's guide for literates, a Fon grammar, works on Fon proverbs, Fon numeration, a Bariba grammar, a French-Bariba dictionary, a collection of Bariba stories (Yai 1976: 80).

But due to various reasons, among which, insufficient field work (fact-finding stage) and confusion about the statuses of national and foreign languages (policy determination stage (Rubin (1971, 1977) in Fergusson (1985: 26)), disagreements on graphisation, i.e. the development of the writing system of the national languages, non standardisation (Fergusson 1968), insufficient elaboration, i.e. the refinement and enrichment of those languages for use in new functions (Haugen 1983) the CNALA had to take up all the issues of language planning almost from scratch in terms of status planning as well as corpus planning. Thanks to their painstaking fact finding field work an updated linguistic map was drawn up in 1983 with fifty two languages registered (see map overleaf).

In a government approved policy statement (CNALA 1983) the status and role of foreign languages were clearly specified. French, which up until that time was considered as First Language in Benin, and even sometimes referred to as a national language, was declared the first foreign language, used as an 'official' working language, while national languages are to be developed to replace it at national level. Other foreign languages, with English taking the lead were co-operation languages. Their teaching and learning were to be maintained and encouraged at secondary level and at university. They, as well as French, remain powerful weapons for the struggle for peace and international understanding to which the state is committed.
MAP REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES
English in particular, was seen as a means for access to a wealth of scientific, technological, medical, economic and philosophical knowledge originally available in that language. In addition, because it is spoken by a majority of countries in the world, it is a preferential tool in the battle to be undertaken against underdevelopment and for South-South and South-North trade and business relations. But the teaching and learning of these foreign languages were not to be at the expense of national languages.

None of the local languages has however been selected and adopted as 'national language'. They were to be simultaneously developed in terms of codification, elaboration, cultivation, from the triple angle of graphisation, standardisation and modernisation (Fishman 1974 in Fergusson 1985: 26) and in terms of the promotion of the various cultures of the various nationalities speaking them as mother tongues in line with the UNESCO national languages promotion policy (Sow 1977: 13-15). It was hoped that some of them would eventually emerge as national linguae francae and would be de facto adopted for wider communication.

In line with this policy statement, twelve linguistic subcommittees were instituted for the promotion of various national languages. Since the late 1970s they have been busy working on these languages and organising implementation tasks through mass literacy work, writing post literacy readings such as short stories, proverbs, anthologies, periodicals, agriculture and primary health care extension materials. But in spite of UNESCO's support progress has been slow and motivation low due to contradictions between proclaimed political and ideological positions derived from aspiration towards cultural relevance in language policy on one hand, and practical steps taken and adequacy of resources made available to implement these declarations of
intent, dictated by short term functional instrumentality of language use in Education and by short sighted views of development. As Treffgarne puts it, issues of educational and cultural relevance have sometimes conflicted. "The functional rather than cultural reasons for retaining French as official language, continues to exert a negative influence on attempts to incorporate local languages into the curriculum." (Treffgarne, 1985:144)

This reference to languages and the curriculum calls for a brief examination of the national versus foreign language issue in education with special reference to the role and need for English within the context of the Reform Movement and its re-adaptation to present day realities. In the Educational Reform document the intention to rehabilitate national languages and gradually phase out the predominance of foreign languages was unambiguously stated.

'As Language is both the basis and the vehicle of culture, we must work to rehabilitate and defend our cultures and lend them new lustre by introducing national languages into our educational system, regarding them and treating them as a powerful instrument of national unity. Their introduction will be gradual:

1) They will first be introduced as subjects, i.e. they will be taught on the same basis as others.

2) They will then be introduced as languages of instruction, i.e. in teaching all subjects.' (Yai's (1976) translation)

In practice, however, this statement was not followed up by systematic training of teachers, production of appropriate materials in sufficient quantity for the teaching of national languages and by their systematic introduction into the national curriculum on equal footing with other subjects. They were not even accepted on the list of optional examination subjects to encourage the efforts of some individual schools which introduced literacy in national languages to the curriculum with the help of local community literacy committees and school co-operatives. And
yet the backlash of examinations on motivation to learn subjects on the curriculum is well known in Benin (Yai 1976: 66, Treffgarne 1985: 158) and their role as a powerful evaluation instrument both for the planned and the achieved curriculum is readily acknowledged in theoretical works (Fergusson, 1985: 31). To the knowledge of the present writer not even a systematically planned experimentation of the introduction of national languages as subjects in a few schools has been undertaken.

But these failures have not been exposed to imply that nothing was done in terms of the implementation of the reform's language planning. Although little was officially done to promote national languages, at primary and secondary levels, important actions were taken to reduce the predominance of foreign languages on the national curriculum. Thus at nursery school level, local languages are used as the medium of instruction during the first two preparatory years of schooling. In primary and secondary schools the teaching periods attributed to French and English were reduced in favour of scientific and/or new subjects. The syllabuses of all foreign languages were recast in the new mould of the educational reform objectives with a shift from emphasis on West European civilisation and culture to relevance to national socio-political development needs.

Five years of practice of these policies, as shown by the reform evaluation seminar referred to in previous sections, have proved inconclusive. The decline of educational standards in the period, as measured by class promotion and examination rates, has been blamed, among other factors, on the neglect of French, and on the conception and implementation of foreign languages curricula in general. The 'scape goat/panacea syndrome' may be said to be at work here. However the complexity of the situation, characterised
not so much by a shift from one language policy to the other, but by a shift from a literature oriented and foreign interest focussed education to a science and technology oriented and national interests focussed education, may not exactly fit in this dichotomy.

Given this present state of affairs, although the view is shared here, with Mateene (1980:12-17) that most of the justifications for the de facto maintenance of the domination of foreign languages in Education in Benin, and in the whole of Africa for that matter, are arguable; and that there are invaluable advantages in pursuing a real linguistic independence policy (Mateene op cit:17-24), the fact is that those foreign languages remain dominant. Besides, as matters stand in the world, even if a circumstantially appropriate balance were struck in language planning to solve the foreign language/national language debate at state level, the demands of a more and more universalised modern civilisation, and internationalised labour market and economy would rather suggest a policy of linguistic interdependence. In this policy, both foreign and national languages will have specific functions and contributions to make to the overall national development plans (Bokamba and Tlou, 1980:54). In these circumstances, some European languages implanted in Africa, 'are likely to be there, in some form or other and for certain purposes, for a long time' (Davies, 1985:7). It seems therefore justified and non contradictory to investigate the adequacy of in-service training provisions for teachers of English in an overall national languages rehabilitation orientated planning, and in the context of the ELT curriculum innovation under way.

2-2 The ELT Curriculum

2-2-1 The ELT curriculum before the Reform
In the 1960s, English Language Teaching with its classical humanist orientation was mainly geared towards the initiation of learners into the English speaking world's traditional cultural heritage with specific focus on British literature and civilisation. It was essentially based on the Grammar-Translation method with abstract grammar rules learning, artificial exercises in sentence construction and translation. As a result learners were quite competent in talking about English sentence patterns and English civilisation - in French - but most of them were unable to do shopping in nearby Lagos streets, or chat with a Ghanaian lady on a business trip in Cotonou.

Learning materials consisted mainly of a series of bilingual textbooks written by Richards and Hall and published by Hachette. Student achievement evaluation consisted of a written test dominated by translation from and into English and French, with a comprehension text in English and an Essay. A 15 minute oral exercise, again dominated by grammar and translation was added to the end of first and second cycle examinations.

2-2-2 The ELT curriculum in the Reform era.

By the time the present political leaders took power and launched a process of social revolution, questioning the established status quo in all spheres of public life, the teaching of English through (Wright, 1987:96) the Richards and Hall European culture oriented textbooks was already being challenged. Dissatisfied Teachers had started selecting texts considered more relevant to the new context in terms of their ideational content (Lewy, 1977). They were used for grammar translation lessons but also for teacher led discussion lessons. Then came the reform and the official reorientation of the ELT curriculum.
The official instructions related to the elaboration of the ELT curriculum sets as general goals the education of cadres able to use the language after they had left college for communication and academic purposes. To achieve these goals the following objectives were set.

1. Help students understand the language and be able to speak it fluently and accurately. In other words, communicate easily, orally first, then in writing with native speakers or those using English as their second language.

2. Relate the teaching to students' environment and to the requirements of its development.

3. Stimulate students' awareness of political, economic and socio-cultural problems in Benin, in Africa and in the world.

4. Sensitise him through the language on the necessity for him to be consciously committed to the struggle for effective liberation and edification of his country.

5. Take into account in the acquisition process of the complementarity of all the subjects on the curriculum.

(Akoha, 1985's translation)

The new ELT curriculum in the first cycle advocated the 'Natural Method', which de-emphasised the systematic teaching of grammar rules and emphasised reading comprehension practiced mainly a reading aloud session followed by questions and answers. The use of English throughout the lesson was highly recommended. No grading and ordering of linguistic items were prescribed. It was simply stated that the stress would be put on the traditional four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Further clarification was given by the head of the curriculum unit...

A four-year course, already in use in the early 1970s, in the first cycle the 'English for French Speaking Africa' series (EFSA), written by David Mills, Boniface Zodeougan, Barry Tomalin, and Tim Doust, was adopted as suitable and of high surrender value (West 1926, Wilkin 1976) for the achievement of this key objective (Bell 1981) of quick mastery of the spoken language. But when the three-year system by the Reform came into effect from 1977, the content of the second year and fourth year textbooks was used to constitute a selection of texts to be studied in the third year. The third year book was often simply dropped. Students' achievement was evaluated through a test consisting of reading comprehension texts with general questions, multiple choice questions followed by grammatical exercises and an essay. Translation was removed from the test at that level.

In the second cycle, the course was similar to the curriculum model known as the culture epoch curriculum (Neagly and Evans 1967) organised as it was around three main historical periods, the pre-colonial, colonial and post colonial periods, in coordination and complementarity with other subjects on the curriculum. Each period was studied through a novel or two of English medium African literature dealing with relevant cultural and socio-economic and political themes. In addition to the ideological and socio-cultural relevance, the rationale for this programme, actually adopted since 1973, while the Reform National Commission was still at work, was to 'get our pupils into the habit of reading, and reading extensively in English in order that they are not disoriented and overwhelmed at university by the quantity
of works in English to be studied' (Ahouansou 1981: 1-2). Two methods were prescribed for the study of these novels, the exposé of chapters by pupils, vaguely comparable to extensive reading for main ideas, and the 'explication de texte' a sort of intensive reading practice led by the teacher.

The content of tests in this cycle was modified. English tests at Baccalaureat as well as in progress evaluation in class included a guided commentary, a discussion of the main ideas of a text within the framework and progression of three or four interpretation and evaluation questions, a translation from English into French ('version') and another from French into English ('theme') for Arts option pupils. The duration of the test was fixed at three hours. Pupils in the Science option took a two-hour test consisting of a reading comprehension with two questions on a reading passage, an essay of a maximum of 20 lines and a translation from English into French. Although grammar translation was still influential (half of the total marks for Arts pupils), its omnipotence was mitigated by the importance given to writing in the form of commentary or essay. Unfortunately oral tests during which teachers were free to ask grammar questions and give translation, as part of the Baccalaureat examination reduced the significance of this breakthrough.

In fact the whole curriculum renewal in the wake of the Reform Movement, did not result in a serious questioning of the prevailing status quo. There had been no radical but realistic action, taking into account, the reconstructionist ideology of the Reform (Skilbeck 1976) as well as the actual capacities and needs of both pupils and average teachers (Munby, 1978, Nunan 1988) for a qualitative in-depth change in ELT. No wonder then that the whole enterprise led to a period of confusion, uncertainty and
malaise which contributed to the general dissatisfaction with the Reform and led to its re-evaluation and re-orientation in the early 1980s.

2-2-3 The ELT curriculum in question: the need for re-orientation

At the end of his talk on the second cycle ELT curriculum, at the seminar held in the summer of 1981, year of the nationwide re-evaluation of the Reform Movement, Ahouansou invited the audience to consider a number of questions worth quoting at some length.

'Given our pupils' achievement in class, given the Baccalaureate examination answer sheets, we are justified in raising the question: Has the experience of English language teaching, as done so far in our country been conclusive? Have pupils mastered the system and structures of the English language to the extent of reading it, speaking it, and understanding it easily?'

Clearly here, the stated aims of the first cycle ELT curriculum were at stake. He went on with other thought-provoking questions on the second cycle in these terms:

'Are [our pupils] able, even with the constant help of the teacher, to cope with the study of novels? Isn't it high time we went back to less ambitious, but extraordinarily more efficacious objectives, namely the learning of English as we did it ourselves at school, through texts taken from different authors, with the advantage of variety in tones, topics, provenances and which made it possible, by means of an in-depth work, to focus more on form than on content? In instituting the novels haven't we aimed too high, especially when we take into account our present working conditions? (Ahouansou, 1981:4)

And he answered: "Our innermost conviction is that we wanted to have heaven and earth - as Odili's father would have put it - and in the end we got nothing at all!" (Ahouansou, 1981:4). In response to this hard look at the recent experience of ELT in the country, the seminar
carried out a thorough evaluation of the first cycle programme and suggested some changes.

The scathing criticism of the second cycle curriculum led to a number of resolutions among which was the suspension of 'Learn English for Science' in Science option classes due to its unavailability on the market and mainly because teachers were not trained to teach English for science and felt very insecure about it. (see Sai, 1985). It was also admitted that the learning of English through literature (novels) was not necessarily beneficial to pupils. The decision was taken to put an end to the study of novels in science option classes. Teachers were asked to send extracts of texts from various sources to help the technical commission issue a compilation of texts for use in the science option. So although the criticisms showed the need for a major reorientation no radical changes were proposed.

2-2-4 Towards a more communicative approach

In spite of the enthusiasm and dedication of the members of the technical commission set up at INFRE to advise on ELT curriculum matters very little was done before 1985-1986. This was partly due to lack of resources and partly due to the weight of tradition and past language learning experiences on the commission.

In 1985-1986 the pressure to revitalise the curriculum in all disciplines in response to the reform evaluation recommendations, and teachers' bluntly aired disgust with the staleness of the books in use were so compelling that a series of meetings was held to think seriously about a new ELT curriculum. In addition to these pressures other favourable conditions helped the commission to make a move in the right direction. These were the publication of the
revised editions of the first two books of EFSA in 1983 and 1986 with some of the current ideas on communicative language teaching such as pair work, role play, and on reading such as silent reading, introduced into an overall structural and audio-lingual framework. On the other hand, thanks to British and American scholarships, some members of the commission had had the opportunity to go either for short course or MA courses in TEFL, which exposed them to alternative approaches to language-teaching pedagogy and language curriculum design in addition to the grammar translation and audio-lingual approaches of which they had a practical, as opposed to theoretical knowledge.

Thus these meetings resulted in the reassertion of the need to teach English for communication and comprehension, and not do it as if it were only "intellectual discipline, valid in itself without reference to any practical uses to which it might be put" (Parrot, 1988: 30). The new 'official instructions' issued in 1987, in line with this orientation clearly stipulated, among other objectives that "at the end of their course in English, pupils must be able to:

- understand and speak English in a variety of situations. In other words, they must be able to communicate orally with native speakers and all those who use the language fluently.
- understand a text in its content, its arguments, its narrative chronology; be able to infer information, meaning, attitudes, and intentions and be able to present these in different ways,
- appreciate the importance of English as an instrument for the promotion of comprehension among people" (Translated in Akoha, 1988: 6)

As far as method was concerned it was said:

At all levels, teachers should realise that it is not enough to practise vocabulary and structure in an automatic and controlled
way, although this is basic to language teaching/learning. Students should be encouraged to use what has been taught for communication. The heart of the matter is whether or not we want learners to be able to use the target language in real life circumstances or be excellent at doing exercises and building model sentences instead.

(translated in Akoha 1988: 6)

So English language teaching, in Benin, although recognising the importance of accuracy work in the teaching/learning process moved a step forward in the direction of communicative language teaching.

In line with this move the new edition of EFSA 6e and 5e were recommended and were officially adopted for use from 1987-1988. A new book, Nation Wide English published by Evans was chosen to replace EFSA 4e. But the status quo was maintained in the fourth year with the continued use of EFSA 3e. In terms of methodology, it was stated in the introduction to the programme sent to schools:

Students are given systematic practice in the basic structures of the English language. Structures are contextualised and presented within an African cultural framework. Lesson moves are as follows: Presentation - controlled practice of different kinds (eg. drilling), freer activities of various kinds (eg: pair work, role playing and games). The course embodies some of the new ideas of the functional/notional approach. Language therefore is not merely a set of structures but a vehicle of communication. Lessons, therefore, provide both accuracy practice (structures), semantic practice (vocabulary) and communicative practice (use of functions). Attention is paid to the four skills - listening, speaking, reading, writing. New items are presented and practised in this sequence.'

(Programme d'Anglais: 17)

Besides, specific directives and objectives were given about the practice of the four skills. Particular attention was paid to reading comprehension, where silent reading was recommended alongside the traditional reading aloud exercises. There was no change in the test format.

In the second cycle, the ambition of the CTIS-Anglais was to design a new course and a syllabus for each class which
would serve as the basis for the writing of new materials or criteria for the choice of commercially available textbooks. For this purpose, the CTIS in 1986 chose a series of themes that should serve as the backbone of new syllabuses. The main themes were: African civilisation for and literature for seconde, English civilisation and literature for première and American civilisation and literature for terminale. In addition other topics such as youth, games, science and technology, politics, sports, education, were to be studied in various levels of depth according to according to classes and in relation to the main themes.

The methodological approach favoured by the commission was the notional/functional approach. In the light of these guidelines and of the general official instruction related to the ELT curriculum the present writer put forward, in an unpublished document (Akoha 1987: 4-5) for use by the commission, a set of criteria that may serve as a national conceptual framework for the production of and/or adoption of textbooks.

1- Nature of materials The main material should be a textbook understood as a selection of texts with their pedagogical treatments and other teaching/learning activities, as opposed to whole novels.

2 Orientation of text content and other accompanying illustrative materials: Texts should, as much as possible,
   - be relevant to students' environments, i.e., within their social, cultural, political and psychological experience both locally and internationally.
   - pose problems relevant to national development, i.e, economic, scientific, cultural, social, political.
   - increase students' awareness of political, economic and socio-cultural problems in Benin, in Africa and related to other people in the world by order of priority.
   - present a positive image of the culture, traditions, customs and belief systems of the people of Benin, of Africa and of other people in the world, i.e, from those people's own point of view and not from an Afrocentric or Eurocentric, etc. point of view, without racial, religious or sexual prejudice and without subtle use of terms which, historically, have had negative connotations.
   - promote a positive image of women and their role in society as
equal partners of men in the struggle for the education of a free and prosperous country, continent and world.

present people's struggle against all forms of oppression and alienation and for liberation and development in a positive light or at least in their own terms, whether it concerns Africa or elsewhere in the world.

3 Methodological approach: The methodological approach... should be predominantly functional with a structural flavour. In other words, in paraphrasing Brumfit (1984), the pedagogical approach in the second cycle should be a core of functional activities around which a spiral of structural polishing will be wound, whereas Brumfit's original proposal of a grammatical core with a functional communicative winding should be appropriate for the first cycle. (Akoha, 1987: 76)

Due to the need to palliate the confusion and problems already prevailing among teachers and learners, and given the difficulty of writing a whole three-year course in a short time, it was decided to adopt commercially available textbooks. Thus ENGLISH AFRICA SECONDE, ENGLISH AFRICA PREMIERE a series written by Kenneth Cripwell (1986), published by Macmillan, and SAY WHAT YOU MEAN TERMINALE, written by Gremy et al (1979) and published by Fernand Nathan were adopted in 1986 and their use in class actually started in 1987-1988.

Although these books do not adopt a strong line on communicative language teaching both series have a fairly comprehensive view of language teaching/learning within the general framework of the notional/functional approach. They are both focussed on reading and speaking. They contain and suggest language teaching/learning activities such as silent reading, cloze exercises, innovative approaches to vocabulary teaching, pair and groupwork, various reading comprehension exercises, such as putting a jumbled text in the right order.

Along with these new developments in curriculum orientation it was felt necessary to revise the test format in use in the second cycle. As Allochenou (1987) put it "Teaching and
testing are so closely related that it is impossible to modify one of them without influencing the other." (Allochenou, 1987: 1).

It was therefore necessary to devise a test which would be more suitable to test competencies in these new skills than the guided commentary and translation dominated tests formerly used. So the new test format in the second cycle and baccalaureat was designed to combine subjective as well as objective elements. These were considered as a suitable way of testing learners in the new curriculum context in concurrence with Carrol and Hall's view that Faced with the subjective-objective alternatives our inclination is to make the best of both worlds by putting in our tests elements which can be objectively assessed, accompanied by tasks whose value is best assessed by informed judges (Carrol & Hall, 1985 in Allochenou, 1987)

Thus the CTIS adopted a test format based on the English examination for the Baccalaureat in France (Samuel 1988: 77-89). It consisted of three parts:

a) The written assessment: It consists of three parts; linguistic competence concerned with the knowledge of the formal system, reading comprehension where the learners' ability to understand a written text, its gist, its details and their ability to appreciate and infer implicit meanings and implications was tested and composition where learners were given two types of essays; free composition and guided composition: to test pupils' ability to combine their knowledge in grammar, vocabulary and punctuation to write coherent and meaningful texts is assessed.

Humanity option pupils did translation exercises from French into English, but not from English into French. They did both free and guided compositions. Science option pupils made the translation from English into French but not from French into English. They were not also required
to do the free composition. The duration of the test in both cases was three hours.

b) Oral assessment. Oral Baccalaureat and mock baccalaureat examinations were focussed on discussion of texts studied in class. No grammar questions or translation exercises were given.

As a whole, most of the activities required of teachers, in the approach to teaching and testing adopted were unfamiliar to them. The problem then arose to know to what extent those teachers who were to implement these activities and use the new books to teach English for communication were prepared for the change.

2-3 EFL Teacher Education and Training in Benin

2-3-1 Pre-service Teacher Education and Training

Before the opening of the Advanced Teacher Training college in 1978, although 98% of the expenses on Education representing over 35% of the National budget were spent on teachers, only 2% of it was used for teachers' professional training, and almost all of this was devoted to primary teacher education (Pliya 1981:219). So apart from an insignificant number of teachers of English who received an initial training between 1965 and 1970 in the one teacher training college in the country - Ecole Normale Felixien Nadjo - most teachers were Baccalaureat Licence or Maitrise holders directly recruited from secondary schools and the university.

2-3-1-1 The Ecole Normale Supérieure (E.N.S. Advanced Teacher Training College) with focus on the English Section
The E.N.S was opened in order to train and retrain teachers and inspectors in all school subjects for secondary education. But no inspectors have so far been trained or retrained. It trains teachers in 14 groups of school subjects in three departments: the department of Exact Sciences, the department of Natural Sciences and the department of Arts and Social Sciences.

The English section in the department of Arts and Social Sciences opened at the outset in 1978 for second cycle teachers. It was extended to first cycle teachers in 1981. Although it has undergone some changes over the years the following description represents its essential features with a quick view of projected future developments.

2-3-1-1 Recruitment policy, duration of course and certification procedures.

First cycle trainee teachers were baccalaureat holders, admitted after passing a competition entry exam. They had received an academic education for two years, sanctioned by DUEL2 (Diplôme Universitaire d'Etudes Littéraires, First Degree). Those who had passed the DUEL2 but whose averages were inferior to 12 out of 20 (12/20) went for a probationary year of practical professional training resulting in a professional qualification, the BAPEM (Brevet d'Aptitude Professionnelle à l'Enseignement Moyen Général). They became thus qualified first cycle teachers.

Those whose averages were equal or superior to 12 were admitted directly to Level II ENS to train as second cycle teachers without having to take an exam. The first cycle trainee teachers who had an average of 10 over the two years of their training took an entry exam for Level II like other DUEL II holders. Faculty 'Maitrise' holders also took an entry exam to the third year of level 2 ENS. The training at
level 2 lasted three years of which the first two were devoted to foundation courses (subject study and theoretical pedagogy) and the last one to practical pedagogy and teaching practice. At the end of their three year course they were awarded an academic degree, the 'Maitrise', in addition to the 'Licence' degree given by the Faculty in the first year, and a professional qualification, the CAPEM (Certificat d'Aptitude Pedagogique à l'Enseignement Moyen Général). They then became certified second cycle secondary teachers, with a 'Maitrise' (probably equivalent to B.A.) in their subject.

2.3.1.1.2 Content of courses and time allocation.

The following tables present the programme and time table of the English section at both level 1 and level 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Teaching period per week</th>
<th>1st year</th>
<th>2nd year</th>
<th>3rd year</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>ave</th>
<th>percen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language studies and translations (phonetics, listening, speaking, grammar, reading, writing, stylistics, business English)</td>
<td>8 10 0 18 6 30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature and civilisation studies (British, American, African commonwealth)</td>
<td>4 4 0 8 2.7 13.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complementary subjects studies (French, second Foreign Languages)</td>
<td>6 6 0 12 4 20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional education studies (Educational psychology, EFL methodology, practical pedagogy)</td>
<td>2 4 4 10 3.3 16.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class observation and Teaching practice</td>
<td>0 0 12 12 4 20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20 24 16 60 20 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Level 1 ENS programme and time table in English Section (1986-1987 programme).

Given that the variation in subject areas and time allocation for the last five years are insignificant and do
not affect the overall orientation of courses, the following observations could be made from the table. While an average of 30% of the time available was devoted to the upgrading of trainees' knowledge and awareness of the English language structure, and 33.5% to their general culture (literatures, civilisations of English speaking countries and study of complementary foreign languages as French, German, Spanish, etc.) only 16.5% is used for their professional education. It is fair to take into account the classroom observation and teaching practice strand of the programme which takes 20% of the time even though there may be some doubt about the efficiency of these practical aspects. The least that could be said in these circumstances is that there was an apparent disproportion between the professional preparation strand and the general education strand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Teaching period per week</th>
<th>year1</th>
<th>year2</th>
<th>year3</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>ave %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language and translation</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature and civilisation</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional education</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(educational psychology, practical pedagogy, EFL methodology)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching practice</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>18.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: E.N.S 2 Programme and Time Table 1984-1985

As shown by Table 4 above while 64.28% of the training time was devoted to the academic aspect of trainees' education, clearly dominated by literature and civilisation, less than 15% was devoted to their professional education and 21.44% used for teaching practice.
Given these data one is inclined to think that so much time is spent in compensating for 'gaps' in trainees' general education that little is made available for their professional preparation. Awareness of the inadequacies of that system, sharpened by cost considerations in a time of severe economic recession and of growing unemployment of trained teachers (the last three promotions have not been posted) as the result of the policy of reduction of the civil service recommended by the IMF, led the educational authorities to suggest a reorientation of the recruitment policy and of the curriculum.

So at the national seminar on the problems confronting the National University of Benin in February 1988 it was suggested that students should complete their academic education in faculties before taking an exam for entry to the Ecole Normale Supérieure. Then the curriculum would be exclusively geared towards the professional education of trainees, and would last two years. In preparation for such a curriculum a guide for TEFL studies was prepared (Datondji & Hounzangbé, 1985, Datondji, 1988). It stated three main aims.

First, to make available to lecturers, trainee teachers, and students, the main data and recent discoveries in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages, namely English as far as we are concerned.

Second, to show these different categories of "practitioners" of English how to use these principles to improve their teaching and learning of English.

Third, to contribute to the development of a well-established science and profession known as TEFL = teaching English as a Foreign Language" (Datondji, 1988:1) (writers' translation from French.)

In terms of performance objectives the proposed TEFL curriculum should enable students to

1- have an opportunity for in depth investigation of key issues in the study of second language acquisition (SLA)
2- consider how these issues in SLA can inform current and
future language learning teaching experiences;
3- have clear ideas about important research methods that have been employed in SLA research during the past several decades.
4- know about common approaches, methods and techniques of teaching English as second/foreign language;
5- Know about some of the traditional/innovative second language teaching methods
6- share new ideas regarding language teaching methods and materials.
7- interpret existing syllabuses.
8- assess learners attainment and aptitude;
9- devise performance objectives for learners
10- evaluate textbooks and other learning resources
11- design schemes of work.
12- devise teaching and learning strategies;
13- write individual lesson plans
14- produce materials;
15- organise learning situations
16- assess achievement of objectives.
(Datondji, 1988: 5)

It was hoped that this move towards more professional development orientation would be encouraged and sustained by a more and more qualified training staff.

2-3-1-1-3

The training staff

Two categories of trainers contributed to the education of trainee teachers at the ENS:
- University lecturers: most of them had a doctorate degree, generally in literature and civilisation of English speaking countries. Only two had some qualification in Applied linguistics, and TEFL. But most of them have been on short courses related to TEFL, abroad. They were mainly in charge of the foundation courses. There were 18 of them in 1986-1987.
- Experienced secondary school teachers and inspectors: they were themselves certified teachers of a minimum of three years' experience. They were employed part time to supervise trainee teaching practice. About 10 of them are involved each year.
The Ecoles Normales Intégrées (E.N.I. Integrated Teacher training colleges)

Recruitment policy, duration of courses, and certification procedures

The three ENIs as explained earlier were designed to train junior secondary school, technical and agricultural education teachers. Although planned and run as initial pre-service teacher training colleges, the 1988's intake consisted mainly of practising teachers who passed a competitive entry exam. But in principle the majority of the trainees was to be directly recruited by a competitive exam from baccalaureat holders school leavers for an innovative and high quality pre-service training. About 40 of those trainees were EFL teachers. Their course was planned to last 3 years at the end of which they would have been awarded a professional diploma qualifying them to teach in junior secondary schools.

Content of courses and time allocation

The ELT curriculum has not yet been well established. The curriculum implemented so far was not very different from the former level 1 ENS curriculum, predominantly geared towards academic education and general culture at the expense of professional education and training. However as a result of a working tour by the Director of the Key English Teaching Benino-British project, Mr Adrian Sewell, and the present writer in the schools, a seminar was held in June 1988 with lecturers and administrators to redraw the programme with more emphasis on teachers' professional education and TEFL studies along the same lines as the new ENS guides, for TEFL studies. Trainees were to spend one year in the school one year in teaching practice, and one final year in the school.
2.3-1-2-3 The training staff

Eight lecturers, recruited among qualified and experienced secondary teachers were in charge of the training. Thanks to ODA scholarships, a systematic MA level training project was started in 1988-1989 with four of them currently training in British universities to upgrade their qualification for the job.

2-3-2 In-service Education and Training of Teachers

2-3-2-1 Structures and regulations of INSET in Bénin

2.3-2-1-1 At National Level

Before the Reform Movement in the late 1970s, the I.P.N. (Institut Pédagogique National - National Institute of Pedagogy) and the body of inspectors in cooperation with the appropriate ministerial departments were the official institutions providing for the supervision and training of practising teachers. The bulk of their work was however focussed on primary teachers. Apart from infrequent summative evaluation of language teachers by state inspectors, the most efficient organisation for in-service training of EFL teachers at the time was the Modern Languages Teachers Association, the APLV (Association des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes) working under the aegis of the National Secondary and Higher Education Teachers' Union (SYNAESS = Syndicat National des Enseignants du Secondaire et du Supérieur). They organised regular seminars for teachers, published newsletters and broadcast an English by Radio Programme for teachers and learners known as "Learn and Teach" dramatising extracts of Novels and textbooks for radio broadcasts. But more tightly state controlled institutions were established in the wake of the reform movement.
The Institut National pour la Formation et la Recherche en Education (INFRE)

The National Institute for Training and Research in Education -INFRE is the central institution for the in-service education and training of teachers and for the coordination of educational research. It replaced the Institut Pédagogique National. Although operating since the late 1970s it was officially instituted by Decree No 784/MEMGTP/DGM/INFRE of 17 June 1981, reactualised by Decree No 123/MEMS/DGM of 12 February 1986. It takes care of formal and nonformal education related to nursery, primary, secondary and higher education as well as to other institutions. Article 3 of the 1986 decree stipulates that it is the institution's responsibility to

- take charge of the pedagogic and methodological supervision of initial teacher training institutions in collaboration with the administration of these institutions
- have a say in the definition and conception of inspection programmes, and class observation grids by relevant technical offices.
- assume responsibility for the pedagogic strand of the continuing education of teachers in consultation with interested offices.
- promote the national policy of educational research
- design, in all fields of education and in a spirit of interdisciplinarity a programme of applied research in education, monitor its experimentation and plan its generalisation and dissemination.
- suggest appropriate remedial measures needed at various levels of education in line with general educational goals and specific objectives.
- take part in reflexions related to accreditation of studies, and to school orientation norms and texts.
- stimulate, develop and promote educational innovations in line with scientific progress.
- guarantee the publication and dissemination of educational research results.
- implement school textbooks publication policy.
- receive, develop and disseminate teaching and learning materials adapted to local realities in cooperation with interested technical offices.

(Decree No 123/MEMS/DGM, 1986:2-3) (present writer's translation)
In order to accomplish this duty, a number of units have been created within the Institute among which are the 'Service de la Formation' (=training unit) and the 'Service de la Recherche en Education' (=research unit). The training unit is in charge of the pedagogical aspect of teachers' continuing education, and of pedagogical training in schools. The research unit is in charge of curriculum development; it takes part in pedagogical training, stimulates and coordinates the work of the subject specific technical commissions, the Commissions Techniques d'Intervention Spécialisées (CTIS), set up under its auspices by interministerial order No 884/MEMGTP/MEMB/MESRS/DGM of October 4th, 1982 as the Institute's think tank in each school subject.

2-3-2-1-1-2

The Direction de l'Enseignement Moyen Général (D.E.M.G) and the Direction de l'Inspection et de la Méthodologie (D.I.M)

These tasks are completed in cooperation with other institutions such as the D.E.M.G (=Direction of Secondary Education) concerned with the administration of schools, the supply and deployment of teachers and the (D.I.M) concerned with the pedagogical supervision of teachers, appointing inspectors and acting inspectors (Inspecteurs Delégués de l'Enseignement Moyen Général (I.D.E.M.G) for this purpose.

At regional, district and school level

In each province, there is a Direction Provincial de l'Enseignement (D.P.E provincial bureau of education) which has special responsibility for the supervision and in-service training and retraining of secondary school teachers. They are comparable to the British Local Education
Authorities (LEAs). But they enjoy less autonomy. They nominate pedagogical advisors known as Conseillers Pédagogiques (CP) on a yearly basis in cooperation with the Direction of Secondary Education and the Directions of Inspection and Methodology. The CPs are experienced practising teachers whose teaching load is reduced by a third of the official load to give them time to work with other teachers.

The DPEs delegate some of their power and responsibility to a lower structure at district level, the District Division for Education known as the Division du District de l'Enseignement (DDE). The DDE should in principle work in close cooperation with the School Staff Meeting and the School Subject Council. School staffs meet in principle twice each term and discuss in addition to administrative matters, issues of curriculum implementation and students' achievement tests and evaluation. These issues are later taken up by each subject council chaired by a group leader or school based subject specific INSET facilitator known as Animateur d'Etablissement (A.E).

2-3-2-1-3 Official instructions related to "pedagogical animation"—school focussed and school based INSET.

In 1984, an open notice ("lettre circulaire No 0009/MEMGTP/DGM/DEMG/DIM/INFRE) was sent to secondary school headmasters, to remind them of the pedagogical aspects of their roles delineated by decree No 1062/MEMGTP/MENCJS/CAB of 13/6/1974.

The document expressed the need to revive school focussed and school based INSET known in Benin as "animation pédagogique." with joint consultation and planning at national, regional and school levels. Thus it was
recommended that the annual staff development seminar organised before each academic year to familiarise school headmasters and directors of studies ("censeurs") with the basics of school administration routines, should have a pedagogic component to be attended by pedagogical advisers. This would focus on specific aspects of the secondary curricula (understanding, interpretation and staging of content harmonisation of teaching methods) and would initiate participants into pedagogical animation techniques. It should be followed up by dissemination seminars at province, and school levels.

As a whole, from a centralised top/down approach to management of educational innovation, the administrative and organisational structure, described in this section, appears to be a very comprehensive and systematic plan, backed up with firm operational instructions and regulations for the in-service training and retraining of teachers. But how effective it has been in practice is another matter.

2-3-2-2 The practice of INSET in the wake of the educational reform

2-3-2-2-1 Successes

Among the positive achievements of provisions for INSET, the creation of the above mentioned administrative structures, and the appointment and training of some of those who were to operate them in cooperation with developed countries such as Britain, France and the United States of America could be pointed out.

It has also been possible to organise in periods of acute crises national seminars in 1978, 1981, and 1987, in addition to crash INSET courses of 5 to 10 days, organised
each year for students and baccalaureat holders in teaching missions from 1975 to 1985. Since the 1984 open notice to headmasters, a one day pedagogical seminar is held at least once a year in each province and in each secondary school.

2-3-2-2-2-2-2-2-2-. Weaknesses and failures.

When the gap between apparently adequate structures and declarations of principles and good intentions on the one hand and the reality of practical implementation of these principles and intentions through efficient use of the structures on the other is considered, the image that comes to mind is that of a powerful train with beautiful coaches, full of passengers, but with neither railway nor fuel.

Indeed one of the fundamental problems facing INSET in Benin is the lack of a clearly defined policy with realistic goals, objectives, programmes, time limits and evaluation procedures backed up by appropriate material, human and financial resources for its execution. When the reform was launched, the bulk of the government's effort was spent on pre-service teacher training with little more than lip service to in-service teacher education. There was more concern about providing teachers in sufficient quantity for classes than the provision of effective INSET. Demographic pressure and popular demands (see Coombs 1985) seemed to have forced them to set a priority on quantity rather than on quality.

So although structures were set up for in-service training, very few resources were made available to facilitate their work. Thus CTISes could not work properly as their members were not seconded to schools and there was little funding for their activities. Pedagogical advisers could not visit schools. Even inspectors could hardly afford to assess teachers in their schools once every two or three years.
Meanwhile a lot of money was put into pre-service training without making allowance for a follow up policy. This underrating of in-service training might be interpreted as a lack of conviction about its effectiveness. As a matter of fact most of the pedagogic seminars, criticised in the 1984 ministerial notice, consisted mainly of observations of classes largely given by unqualified and inexperienced teachers, without specification of particular teaching skills or objectives to focus on, followed by a criticism of how the methodological orthodoxy had been followed. The "ritual teaching behaviours" (Maingay, 1988) prescribed by ministerial officials, far from classroom realities became the main objective.

In these conditions those who should have most benefited from these seminars actually dreaded them and resented the criticisms and humiliations they experienced on these occasions. More and more openly they began demanding that pedagogical advisers should give examples of model lessons at seminars. When these demands were taken into account in the ministerial notice, young teachers were delighted to be given the opportunity to see what their assessors themselves were worth, and enjoyed criticising them. The result was an unhealthy atmosphere which was not conducive to real improvement. Besides, no systematically planned evaluation of these experiences were carried out to prove their effectiveness.

Those seminars were anyway irregularly held as a one off event. Even when national and provincial seminars over the last 5 years, were no longer limited to the former "observe -criticise" approach, and included more discussions of curriculum content and methodological issues, teachers and pedagogical advisers themselves complained that they understood very little and were not quite sure of what to do in their provinces. They also complained that things were
done in a rush at national seminars. Some issues closely related to problems they and their colleagues were confronted with in their classes such as clear understanding of techniques for grammar and vocabulary teaching, how to teach guided composition, how to cope with unavailability of textbooks in the classroom, how to organise pupils' participation in large classes, how to motivate them for English lessons could not even be really addressed. To make matters worse there generally was no money to organise more than one seminar in a year, if at all, to take up these issues or even to go to them for help. Furthermore, due to lack of a general policy backed up by a subject specific programme, most school subject councils' meetings (school based INSET) when they did meet limited their discussions to who should set the next test, and on what the right answers to the last one were as most schools give common tests to pupils of the same level.

Linked to these issues was the centralised top down nature of the innovation management model and strategy underlying the structural provisions for INSET and to some extent its mode of operation. Although some kind of consultation used to take place, time pressure, financial constraints, and the overall political uncertainty turned the process into one in which central authorities decided from their offices on the best way to teach and learn English, and on the materials to be used. These were then disseminated among teachers who were seen as mere consumers of information through a power coercive strategy (Havelock, 1971, Chin and Benne, 1976 in White 1988). The teachers' own channels of communication were banned as they were linked to disgraced teachers' unions. The level of motivation and of enthusiasm of those appointed to organise INSET activities was fairly low as they were not given enough material incentives for their work and did not all necessarily share the same political motivation as the Reform initiators. Most of them were
themselves the direct targets of the proposed changes and certainly had mixed feelings about what was to be done.

Teachers themselves were given no incentives for INSET and were required to attend seminars in addition to their overloaded timetable. The fact of the matter was that in EFL, the changes that occurred in the wake of the Reform were not perceived as real innovations by teachers (Rogers, 1983: 11 and National synthesis of ELT programme evaluation questionnaires, 1982). They were seen merely as a recasting of old programmes and methodologies already in use before the Reform.

As a whole it has been shown that so far the emphasis has been on a quantitative increase of teachers to meet the demands of the democratisation of Education. At present, the school population has been decreasing for various reasons. More EFL teachers appear to be available than are needed. But in spite of the laudable work of the pre-service teacher training colleges, the proportion of untrained teachers remained an important factor. The academic education orientation of the curriculum of teacher training has not equipped trained teachers with the professional skills needed to be effective classroom practitioners. Furthermore they may need as much help as untrained teachers in the context of the curriculum innovation under way. If account is taken of all these considerations, it may be necessary to focus issues of teacher supply in the 1990s towards quality as opposed to the earlier focus on quantity in the 1980s. Thus the apparently redundant EFL teachers, could be retrained and qualified to help improve the quality of the whole EFL teaching force through a more adequate policy, programme, and organisation of INSET.
CHAPTER THREE: THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS 1: FROM CONCEPTIONS OF TEACHING TO CONCEPTIONS OF TEACHER EDUCATION.

3-1 Preliminary considerations.

The education and training of teachers aims to improve teachers and teaching. It is therefore in order to start the discussion of the main issues involved in this process by first examining conceptions of teaching, of teachers' roles, of teacher/teaching effectiveness and mainly to discuss the extent to which teachers and teacher training matter in the first place as determinants of pupil achievement.

3-1-1 Teaching

Teaching has been defined according to different perceptions of its functions (see Gage (1972:96)), using different criteria to distinguish it from other closely related activities such as indoctrinating, conditioning, or remotely related ones such as propagandizing and intimidation (see Smith (1987), Robertson (1987)), and taking account of different factors and stages in its activities (Gage (1972)). But in its generic sense teaching "denotes action undertaken with the intention of bringing about learning in another" (Robertson 1987:15), and could be seen in Widdowson's (1989) terms as the art of appropriate parameter setting. In the field of language teaching he identifies three of those parameters having to do with educational purpose, educational process and conception of language.

As process, teaching is considered in this study as the activities and behaviours of the teacher in the classroom whose systematic observation and study (see for example Long 1980, Fanselow 1987) lead to more and more empirically validated statements about teacher performance. These

In this sense teaching is an art as well as a field of enquiry amenable to scientific study. It is believed along with Gage (1978) that scientific methods - as postures of the positivist paradigm - can be employed in understanding more about teaching. This gives teaching a scientific basis in the form of "established relationships between variables in teaching and learning" (Gage, 1978 in Dunkin, 1987: 19). In this line of thought teachers are made rather than born. They are made, as Wallace (1977) puts it, because they must acquire the knowledge of a specific subject and of how to teach it before they can teach it to others. It is how they impart this knowledge that makes them effective or ineffective. But there is still scope for connoisseurship (Eisner (1978) and individuality, for as Gage puts it, the artist whose lawfulness is revealed does not become an automaton. Cronbach (1967) in this connection shows how the teacher uses judgement and intuition to adapt instructional methods to individual learners:

[He/she] barely acknowledges the comment one pupil makes in class discussion, and stops to praise a lesser contribution from another who (he thinks), needs special encouragement. He turns away from one pupil who asks for help-'you can find the answer by yourself if you keep at it' and walks the length of the classroom to offer help to another, because he has decided to encourage independence of the former pupil and minimize frustration of the latter... The significant thing about these adaptations is their informality (pp 28-29, in Gage, 1972: 97)

So at individual levels decisions depend on contexts and individual teachers' teaching styles and leave scope for intuition, expressiveness, improvisation and creativity. The way these different ingredients are combined in a given
social context discriminates good teachers from poor teachers. As Scriven (1981) sees it "teachers are meritorious to the extent that they exert the maximum possible influence towards beneficial learning on the part of their students, subject to three conditions: 1- the teaching process used is ethical, 2- the curriculum coverage and the teaching process are consistent with what has been promised. 3- the teaching process and its foreseeable effects are consistent with appropriate institutional and professional goals and obligations". (Scriven, 1981: 248).

3-1-2 Teacher/teaching effectiveness

Teaching can also be conceived of in terms of the efficiency of teacher activities and behaviours, that is, the extent to which the teacher uses the resources available in the classroom and its environment to create optimal learning opportunities for students. It is also seen in terms of effectiveness, that is the extent to which classroom contrivances provide worthwhile learning experiences resulting in more positive immediate behaviours, and long term growth in the pupils according to specified criteria. As Medley (1987) puts it

The production of learning outcomes is generally agreed to represent the ultimate purpose of teaching and the final criterion on which any assessment of teaching must be based. "Good" teaching generally means teaching which produces maximum pupil learning outcomes, that is maximum progress towards the goals of education (Medley in Dunkin, 1987:105)

Teaching effectiveness in this sense can be equated to teacher effectiveness, except that it is not mainly concerned with teachers' personal qualities which correlate with student learning as in classic teacher effectiveness research. But teacher effectiveness raises a lot of controversies, due to the complexity of teaching. As pointed
out by Graham et al (1985) "it cannot be assumed that identical teacher behaviours and strategies will produce identical results in even marginally different contexts" (Graham et al, 1985:3). However two broad categories of definitions can be identified: those based on expected teacher behaviours and those based on expected outcomes on the child and on society (see Yoloye, 1980). It also seems widely accepted that the ultimate criterion of teacher effectiveness is "teachers' effects on the realisation of some value" generally expressed in terms of some educational objectives to be achieved by pupils. (see Gage, 1963).

In general, as pointed out by Wragg (1987) those passing an opinion on teachers' classroom competence typically look at one or more of three aspects:
- the behaviour and experiences of pupils (whether what they are doing is worthwhile, whether they appear to be absorbed in their tasks or are misbehaving, the extent to which the task matches the pupils' ability and previous experiences).
- the behaviour of the teacher (professional skills, such as the ability to explain new concepts, ask appropriate questions, manage the badly behaved, prepare lessons, organize a classroom, assess and monitor progress).
- outcomes of teaching (what pupils appear to have learnt, including knowledge, skills, attitudes and values they acquire as a direct or indirect result of what the teacher has done).

But although the teacher is ultimately interested in pupil gain or pupil growth, it is important, as suggested by Jackson (1968), that a distinction be made between teachers' primary concern and their ultimate concern. While their ultimate concern is pupil growth, their primary concern, it is assumed, is with the activities and tasks that achieve and maintain student involvement. In other words the primary focus is on process. This primary focus requires teacher
effectiveness to be looked at from perspectives which have not been given due attention in the past. Thus, to name just a few areas, Fensternacher (1979) advocates an 'intentionalist' account of teacher effectiveness stressing the need to learn about the subjectively reasonable beliefs of teachers; Shulman & Lanier (1977) argue for investigation of the relationship between teacher behaviour and teacher thought; Hunt (1976) pleads for the need for teacher effectiveness research to be concerned with teachers' perspectives, for failure to do so will result in changes or adoption of new procedures not being implemented.

So many factors account for teacher effectiveness and are responsible for the controversy about the issue. These different factors and the ensuing controversies may be attributable to the multiplicity and complexity of the roles expected of teachers, not only in the classroom, and in the school but also in the community as a whole, and their conflicting demands on them.

3-1-3 Teacher roles

3-1-3-1 Some general observations

The issue of roles in society has received considerable attention in sociology literature. The relation of this literature to the discussion of teacher roles with special reference to language teachers has been thoroughly examined by Wright (1987). The present discussion will not go into the details of these studies. It is however important to note from the outset that there are more expectations from the multiple role networks and role sets that teachers are involved in than any one teacher can fulfil at the high level of competence required. Besides like any other person, teachers' actual behaviour results from the interaction between these social expectations (the
nomothetic dimension) and individual needs and personality (the ideographic dimension) as diagramatically represented below:

![Diagram of nomothetic and ideographic dimensions]

So as could be inferred from the diagram social expectations about teacher roles require, as pointed out by Hoyle (1969), a minimum pattern of behaviour, the flouting of which might result in sanctions; but beyond this minimum the teacher has in principle a high degree of autonomy. These observations i.e., the "unmanageable" complexity of teacher roles and the relative freedom of the teacher as to decisions about how and how much he/she can conform to these expectations, should be kept in mind throughout the present discussion.

3-1-3-2 A kaleidoscope of roles

3-1-3-2-1 Hoyle's (1969) study

Many educationists have tried to identify the roles of the teacher drawing their specifications from commonsense, subjective experience and inspiration, or on the basis of more or less clearly defined criteria. Thus Hoyle (op. cit) among others devotes a whole book to teachers' roles with focus on Britain and America. From his discussion a particularly long list of roles emerges.
Teachers are expected according to circumstances to be in any one or in combinations of several of the following roles: representative of society, representative of the established social order, conservative agent, custodian of traditional values, transmitter of a high culture, model for pupils' socialization, educator for citizenship, educator for family life, provider of good life, representative of the adult group, mother figure, father, grandfather, elder brother/sister, uncle, cousin, tutor, surrogate parent, counsellor, social worker, friend, object of identification, limiter of anxiety, confidante, ego supporter, promoter of welfare, informal secretary, staffroom lawyer, headmaster's nark, referee, detective, target for hostility, group leader, instructor, innovator, subject specialist, knower, stage manager, resource, helper, judge. (Hoyle op. cit)

3-1-3-2-2 Gobble & Porter's (1977) study

In the wake of the Unesco International Conference on Education (ICE) in 1975, Gobble & Porter (1977) examine the changing roles of teachers and their implications for teacher education. They stressed the shift of teachers' roles from source and purveyors of knowledge to that of mediators in the encounter in which selection and use become more important than absorption. Teachers were accordingly seen as organisers of opportunities and instructors in the techniques of inquiry and thought, catalysts promoting learning and growth. Their roles changed from that of protectors of the status of the institution and of its internal criteria of social differentiation, which helped maintain the power relationship between teacher and learners, to that of managers of liberation, integration and commitment. These emerging roles emphasised diagnosis (needs analysis), response (organisation of solutions to the diagnosis such as curriculum development), evaluation of the response as well as the management of personal relations.
(motivators, interpreters, winners, of pupils' confidence, and self esteem, builders and developers of positive self image).

The teachers' roles in the community as agents of development and change, and their collaboration with other educational agents in the community to create an optimal growth environment for the learner as pointed out by recommendation No 69-B of the 1975 ICE were prominent in their vision of the emerging roles of the teacher.

3-1-3-2-3 Studies in language teachers' roles

With special reference to language teaching, Hoyle cites Wilkinson's "amusing and suggestive typology of teaching styles among teachers of English". According to their styles teachers have been classified as Grendel's mother acting as the guardian of the heritage of literature; sergeant major taking English as a discipline to be practised through drills; Sigmund Freud, releasing conflicts and tensions; group psychotherapist using drama as therapy; printer's reader regarding a written text as a proof to be corrected, and finally the teacher in the role of 'teacher' playing a routine role, teaching 'facts' and avoiding 'frills'.

Nearer us in time language teachers' roles have been perceived as those of informants, guides, conductors, (see Byrne 1976); Directors, stage managers, discussants, critics, commentators (Malley & Duff, 1978); controllers, assessors, organisers, prompters, participants, resources (Harmer, 1983). Teachers are also seen as producers, advertisers, poets, novelists, editors, publishers, (Peter Hill's 1985 lecture notes). They could also be seen as adapters or resisters of innovations. One could go on and on but such strings of roles can be useful only in a very limited way especially as far as decisions on the content of
teacher education and training are concerned. What seems to be lacking is a general organising and theoretical framework.

3-1-3-3 Towards a structuring theoretical framework

In this connection the influential investigation carried out by Barnes & Shemilt (1974) is worth discussing. Barnes & Shemilt analysed their questionnaire to teachers about their reasons for setting written work to their learners, and about their treatment of the work. From their analysis they identified two categories of teachers, as the answers pointed to two main directions which they called transmission and interpretation. These two directions were seen as two distinct attitudes whose differences they described as in figure 10 (page 78).

Differences in attitude between transmission and interpretation teachers

MAP REDACTED DUE TO THIRD PARTY RIGHTS OR OTHER LEGAL ISSUES

Figure 10 Transmission and interpretation teachers by Barnes & Shemilt, 1974 in Young & Lee 1985:185)
In later developments Barnes (1976) related these attitudes to classroom behaviour. As reported by Young & Lee (1985):

Barnes' hypothesis is that a transmission attitude is consonant with the teacher's role as provider of information, it encourages students to contribute to classroom communication only through the presentation of a finished draft of a well-thought through idea; and this attitude fosters an academic kind of learning which is not directly related to the learners' purpose and needs. On the other hand an interpretation attitude encourages a role for the teacher in which the learners' replies to the teacher's questions are treated as of value in their own rights, and not simply in function of whether they correspond to the teacher's view of correctness; the students are free to explore the subject in collaboration with other students and with the teacher without the fear of the teacher's judgement of right or wrong; and lastly the interpretation attitude fosters a kind of learning which goes beyond the bounds of normal academic knowledge, and can be related to the students' needs and interest outside school (Young & Lee, 1985: 184).

Barnes and his colleagues' work have given an important empirically based insight into teachers' roles and actions related to their attitudes. It has given some evidence of the probable link between behaviour and attitude. But their distinction, although quite useful theoretically, represents only different perspectives on the same role, namely the mediator between learner and learning in the teaching/learning process. Its capacity to serve as an overall organising framework for the conceptualisation of teachers' roles in general is therefore limited.

Another work worth examining is that of Earl Stevick (1976, 1980). Stevick identifies five functions which determine teachers' roles and interactions with pupils: a cognitive function, a management function, a goal setter function, an interpersonal function and enthusiasm radiator function. These functions imply some degree of teacher control in the classroom, as the one who structures the learning activity in the classroom, and evaluates its outcomes against what he calls the "native speaker's performance". In order to exercise this control he/she has to adopt some form of
authority. His/her success may depend on how adequate the one adopted is for the circumstance. Adapting Zinalski & Moment's categorisation, Stevick distinguishes four authority structures which operate in the classroom.

- **Paternal - assertive**: in this authority structure, the teacher is dominant, aggressive and in full control, and demands respect; but he/she has what he/she considers as good for his/her pupils at heart.

- **Maternal - expressive**: this pattern of authority applies to situations where the teacher shows warmth, affection, friendliness, is caring and sharing and acts as a counsellor.

- **Fraternal - permissive**: In this type of structure, the teacher tends to share responsibility with the pupil, adopts a non directive stance, encourages and guides, is understanding, tolerant, sometimes to the border of complicity.

- **Rational - procedural**: this is the business like teacher exercising an impersonal authority with very little emotional commitment, keen on rules and coverage of the syllabus as it is set down.

Stevick's contribution may be considered as one of the more important insights into the issue of teachers' roles. But the extent to which it helps systematise various views on the issue seems limited since it is almost exclusively focussed on the rapport of the teacher with his/her pupils.

In this search for a conceptual framework, many have resorted to an evolutive account of teachers' roles according to the major methodological traditions. Dubin & Olshtain (1986) for example explain how, in the grammar translation tradition, the teacher is the knower, even if he/she is not necessarily a fluent speaker of the target language. His/her role is to explain faithfully the content
of textbooks which have all the necessary information. In audiolingualism he/she is expected to have near native fluency and serves as a model for the learner. In this tradition his/her role is mainly a role of conductor of oral practice, of driller. In cognitive approaches, the teacher facilitates pupils' hypotheses testing activities, analyses their learning difficulties, and is a keen observer of their learning styles in order to guide them in their discovery learning. The affective humanistic tradition has expanded the roles of the teacher/facilitator including the role of resource person, evaluator, and mainly of director where the teacher uses the classroom as a stage to simulate the real world with pupils as players. In this role the teacher provides the overall coherence by setting long range goals and explaining short term objectives. He/she projects an attitude of being interested in each individual player's performance.

This connects with Brumfit's (1986) 'review of teachers' roles seen as the "demands that we are making of our teachers". He enumerates eight of them:

1. Teachers should like their students, and if they do not they should disguise it so well that no-one else realises.
2. They should be as clear as possible about why their students are learning English.
3. They should be clear to themselves about their beliefs on the nature of language learning and teaching.
4. They should always be open and free in discussion and of help to their colleagues, senior and junior.
5. They should be professionally well informed.
6. Their approach to teaching should be principled without being dogmatic, flexible without being merely fashionable.
7. They should be constantly trying to improve.
8. They should be humble, willing to recognise the merits of the past as well as the present, and the wisdom of the outside critic as well as the professional (Brumfit, 1986:58).

Elaborating on these demands in the context of communicative teaching he shows how the first demand has taken on new importance with present emphasis on affective learning, and
on the need to give learners maximum positive support. This, it is claimed, helps his/her self-confidence and encourages him/her to use the language naturally. As far as other demands are concerned, suffice it here to just point out that, after criticising the narrow conception of language as exclusively a social vehicle for message transmission, and stressing the need for humility, openness to discussion, relaxed attitude to language in conversation, principled flexibility in approaches to students' learning objectives and problems which no amount of advanced syllabus specification could accurately predict, he shows the role of the teacher as being mainly one of communicator rather than one of judge.

These method specific specifications certainly are valuable insights into the roles of teachers. But they may have overlooked the general aspects of teachers' roles whatever the methods, and the overlap and interplay of roles considered as typical to different methods at different stages of the teaching/learning process as shown by Harmer's (1983) roles specification. On the bases of these arguments the method bound framework for role specification, although quite useful, may be considered as rather misleading.

Another conceptualisation, similar to the method bound framework but at a higher degree of generality is suggested by Moore (1986). It presents two views of education the mechanistic and the organic views, based on different assumptions about the nature of human beings:

On the one hand, there was the assumption that man is analogous to a machine, a system of inputs and outputs, whose outputs or behaviours could be shaped and directed from without. On the other hand, the assumption was that man is essentially an organism, growing and developing from within, whose development could be facilitated by the provision of congenial and stimulating environments. The distinction translates into different notions or theories about the role of the teacher and of his pupil. (Moore, 1986:74).
Thus under the *mechanistic approach*, education is seen as a transaction between a teacher, a repository of knowledge, an expert, and the pupil as an empty vessel to be filled with intellectual goods whose role is restricted as far as possible to the passive role of listening to the teacher, receiving, imitating and emulating the teacher's example (Moore, op. cit: 77). This approach is congruent with the banking theory of learning developed by Freire (1976). It calls for maximum pedagogical activity by the teacher. This activity, mainly didactic, expository and regulatory consists in providing pupils with as much input as necessary to shape their behaviours from without by "giving them such experiences as are likely to produce correct associations of ideas by modifying their responses to serve desired ends" (Moore, op. cit: 78).

The *organic, child centred theory*, conversely sees education as a process of discovery. The teacher's role is mainly one of supervisor, consultant, adviser and helper, limiting himself/herself to arranging and preserving a congenial environment to enable the pupil to engage in activities which interest him/her, and will allow him/her to develop his/her capacities and grow up as a person, as a developing, exploring creature. The pupil is encouraged to develop his/her own methods of working and acquiring knowledge and skills on his/her own initiative, to make sense of his/her environment and build up an accurate picture of reality by exploring, experimenting, dealing with concrete reality presented to him/her through trial and error and insights. In this enterprise, the bipolarity of teacher/pupil, characteristic of the mechanistic approach is lessened to the maximum as is the individualistic participation of learners, in favour of a more lateral polarity whereby the learner is cooperating with his/her fellows in joint learning enterprises.
Of course, this non interventionist view, assuming that the child grows as a plant is questionable. Moore contends that to educate is to structure pupils' minds and give them the proper conceptual apparatus. To do this the teacher must take up more than a mere supervisory sideline stance:

Teaching and educating are enterprises in which both parties have to commit themselves to some extent. The teacher commits himself to monitor the pupil's learning and to make himself responsible for it and also to see that what is learned is worth learning. The pupil commits himself to submission to the authority of the teacher and also to take some pains to enter into the spirit of the enterprise. Finally the enterprise requires that the teacher should be an authority on what he teaches since unless he is so he is in no logical position to enter into that structuring of the pupil's mind which constitutes education (op. cit: 81)

This conception goes a long way towards the elaboration of the conceptual tool thanks to which teachers' roles could be systematically seen against the corollary of the roles of learners. However Moore's contribution is of the same kind as the method bound view, but its insights on the need for authority (de jure or de facto and in the subject) opens up a promising avenue fruitfully and independently explored by Widdowson (1987).

Widdowson explains that classroom practice is characterised by two kinds of complementary engagements with different role realisations, the interactional engagement and the transactional engagement. Ideally a particular kind of the former facilitates a particular kind of the latter, but they can happen to be at variance.

The interactional engagement, he says "is a microcosmic version of the macrocosm of social life and reflects the way educationists believe pupils should be socialised. It serves the hidden curriculum of acculturation and the promotion of established values". (Widdowson, 1987:3-4). The authority structure, social and affective relations operating in a
class belong to this engagement. Thus in a position oriented (Bernstein, 1971) interaction pattern, reminiscent of the mechanistic view or the idealist position (Lawton, 1975) the teacher is accorded high status and commands deference, and there are ritualistic practices to be adhered to. As Widdowson describes it, with his usual flavour of humour:

Pupils are addressed by their surname, the teacher by his title. The interaction itself is tightly controlled; only the teacher has the right to initiate exchanges. Pupils can only contribute when they make a bid by raising the hand and when this is acknowledged and ratified as claim for a speaking turn. Only one pupil speaks at once, the teacher only asks questions to which he already knows the answers. The rights and obligations associated with the teacher and pupils' roles are clear, fixed and non-negotiable (Widdowson, op. cit :5)

In a person oriented interaction (Bernstein, 1971), roles are less rigidly defined and suppose an authority structure more in line with the maternal - expressive and fraternal - permissive type (Stevick, 1976) characteristic of the organic theory. This interaction is more congruent with the pedagogic transaction needed to facilitate language teaching.

The _transactional engagement_ responds to the need for the class to meet certain explicit learning objectives. It involves patterns of teacher and learner roles related to the _overt_ curriculum of specific knowledge and skills in a specific subject for the demands of the examination.

The ways in which these roles are interpreted and realised in the teaching/learning process depend on particular methodological approaches within a general educational theory paradigm (the mechanistic or the organic for example). But it is assumed that in the transactional engagement, teachers' authority is derived from "school mastery, the claim to be able to teach" (Widdowson op. cit), from a claim to knowledge, and not from an assertion of
right. The learners roles and autonomy are more strictly determined by the exercise of "authoritative" authority by the teacher as distinguished from "authoritarian" authority.

This approach proves to be a more powerful theoretical angle from which different roles that teachers and learners might take on, and different patterns of responsibility (authority, power) sharing in the teaching/learning process could be explained within different approaches to educational theory, and their methodological realisations. So with the proviso that the different approaches are not so clear cut in reality, the following conceptual framework is proposed by the present writer. It draws on Moore's views on education as well as on Widdowson's conceptualisation of teachers' roles as building blocks or organising principles.

It proposes an analysis of teachers' roles within and across methodological approaches from the points of view of the two main general theories of education, which places discussions of teachers' roles in a relatively firm philosophical and ideological background.

It puts different roles into the two main kinds of classroom engagements determined by Widdowson within these main educational theories. The roles indicated within each cell according to different methodological approaches are mere illustrations based on some of the roles discussed earlier and are not meant to be exhaustive. It could be observed on the table that to a great extent many roles, particularly those of an interactional kind, apply to different methodological contexts, but some of them take on new values as those explicitly repeated in the figure instead of being just referred back to. This has serious implications for the way teacher education and training programmes should be viewed.
### MECHANISTIC PARADIGM

**Methods**: Grammar, Audiolingualism, Cognitive
**Nature of Classroom Engagement**: Representative of society; apologist, translation

### ORGANIC PARADIGM

**Methods**: Direct methods, approaches, approaches and communicative
**Nature of Classroom Engagement**: As in previous methods plus: previous methods plus, methods plus; most of the roles in

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**figure 11**: A conceptual framework for the analysis of the roles of teachers in language teaching.
Indeed it appeared that many roles cut across specific methods. So an educational approach which conceives of teacher education programmes in terms of both interactional and transactional roles from either educational paradigm, or from both, may be more effective in helping teachers adapt to various teaching contexts and methods than a narrow training perspective which limits trainees to the learning of the specific techniques of a given method.

3-1-4 The effectiveness of teachers and teacher training as determinants of pupil achievement with special reference to INSET

The evaluation of INSET and of teacher training in general is part and parcel of the concern for the effectiveness of teachers as a determinant of pupil achievement which has preoccupied educationists and educational financing agencies both in developed and developing countries. Interest in the question grew when the faith in education as the key to development and social welfare was deeply shaken in the late 60s. It became clear then that the world was confronted with a serious educational crisis (Coombs, 1968). It was observed that "traditional school inputs such as teacher training or expenditure per student, do not seem to be having the effect on student test scores that educators had anticipated" (Simmons, 1980: 1). It became necessary to identify the most significant determinants of pupil achievement to guide investment policies.

An impressive number of studies within the framework of Education Production Function were conducted in the developed countries, particularly in the United States, and in the United Kingdom, inspired by the Coleman report in 1960. They consistently showed the greater impact of socio-economic background on school achievement compared with the
school inputs. These findings were unambiguously summed up as follows.

Our research suggests that the characteristics of school output depend largely on a single input, namely the characteristics of the entering children. Everything else, the school budget, its policies, the characteristics of the teachers is either secondary or completely irrelevant (Jenks et al, 1972:256)

But as teaching and school processes are alterable variables; investigations of the question continued in spite of this pessimism. Later studies, particularly those sponsored by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (Thorndike, 1971, Combe & Keeves, 1973) confirmed Jenks et al's conclusions.

In the less developed countries studies reviewed by Alexander and Simmers (1975) were not markedly different in their findings from those of developed countries. The school inputs effects on academic achievement are for most of them either weak or statistically insignificant. As Alexander & Simmons put it, "the impact of any significant policy controlled schooling variables will almost certainly be very small in relation to other determinants of student performance such as home background and individual personality" (Alexander & Simmons, 1975:51). It was however noted that this influence of non school factors was less important in developing countries, particularly in upper secondary grades, than in developed countries. Subsequent reviews of these and other studies contradicted Alexander & Simmons findings as far as the predominance of non school factors are concerned. Thus, Heyneman (1982) drawing on other studies (e.g. Heyneman (1976) Heyneman & Currie (1979), Fry (1980) Heyneman 1980a, 1980b) reported:

The evidence we have to date would suggest that school quality in low income countries can explain twice or even three times the level of achievement variance than it can in high income countries, and the poorer the country in economic terms, the
greater the impact on achievement school quality seems to have. (Heyneman, 1982: 8)

The problem then became that of identifying which of the school characteristics were the most significant determinants of pupil achievement. Studies reviewed by Heyneman et al (1978) indicated that the availability of textbooks appeared to be the most positive school factor in predicting academic achievement. Other studies commissioned by the World Bank (Husen, Saha & Noonan, 1978; Fagerlind & Saha, 1983) to assess the effects of evidence of teacher effects on pupil achievement clearly showed among other findings that teachers' qualifications, length of experience, amount of education and verbal knowledge have a positive effect on pupil achievement as well as teachers' attitudes and particularly their expectations of pupils.

Another review was commissioned by the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) in which teacher effectiveness was more broadly defined than in the World Bank studies to "include teacher attitudes and behaviour as well as their effects on pupil achievement" (see Dove, 1986: 196). In spite of the discovery of relative inconsistency of some of the studies, the review globally confirmed the World Bank study. Indeed Avalos's (1980), Avalos & Haddad's (1981), and Avalos's (1985) reports based on this research, as summed up by Dove (1986) showed that trained teachers had better professional attitudes and relationships and were less authoritarian and made better lesson preparations than untrained teachers (especially in India, Iraq and Sierra Leone). Trained teachers also had more positive effects on pupil achievement than untrained teachers at both primary and secondary level (Malaysia and India).
With specific reference to INSET effectiveness, the picture as depicted by Avalos (1985) seemed less optimistic:

No guidance emerged from survey research that examined the effects of teacher participation in in-service courses. Isolated schemes in the Philippines reported positive effects (Avalos & Haddad, 1981). But in Chile, Schiefelbein & Farrell (1982) found that the situation was different. In fact the massive programme of intensive training carried out in Chile as a result of the 1965 educational reform did not seem to benefit teachers except for those who, being university graduates nevertheless had no training in education. A similar conclusion as to the effect of in-service schemes was reached in Commonwealth countries, the only exception being the highly visible Distance Training Programme (Thompson, 1982). (Avalos, 1985: 294-295)

A study by Ifeanyi (1980) on the relationship between pupils' achievement in The Bendel State Primary School Science Programme in Nigeria and the participation of teachers in the Ministry of Education sponsored three month inservice course also found no significant improvement of pupil achievement. The scores of experimental and control teachers in terms of pupils' participation were very close and the slightly higher scores of inservice trained teachers' pupils were not statistically significantly different from those of non in-service trained teachers' pupils. However the training had positive relationships with teachers' own knowledge and attitudes towards science (Ifeanyi, 1980: 81-82).

With special reference to English Language teaching, Young & Lee's (1985) study of the in-service retraining programme for Chinese teachers of English as a foreign Language in Hong Kong to help them adopt more communicative classroom practices also found that although there was a slight movement towards that direction on the part of teachers who participated in the programme, the change was small and not statistically significant. (Young & Lee, 1985: 190).
However, allowing for regional variations, and a few exceptions such as those of Young & Lee (op.cit) in Hong-Kong and Schiefelbein et al (1982) in Chile many studies have found that although the effects of inservice training on pupil achievement may be limited, its effects on teachers' knowledge, attitude and performance are markedly positive. (Dove, 1986) This indicates that while one may contain expectations about the effects of teacher education on pupils' academic achievements, within realistic limits it is shown to be a worthwhile undertaking at least as regards teachers' professional development.

The problem with most INSET effectiveness studies is that they take INSET as a black box in which untrained teachers or teachers about to embark upon the implementation of an unfamiliar curriculum are processed in ways which are not explicitly considered but whose outcomes are compared with the entering teachers to draw conclusions on the effectiveness of the black box. Although some training might be better than no training at all, a closer look into the process of the training and its quality may help a better assessment of its effectiveness. The few studies that looked at this aspect, such as those done in Thailand, India and Nigeria, (See Avalos & Haddad, 1981) for example, have shown that active training methods such as microteaching, simulation and role play and case study discussions resulted in participatory and discovery teaching behaviours. So one of the weaknesses of most INSET effectiveness studies as pointed out by Dove (1986) is that they tell us "little else about what structures, patterns, and processes of training are most useful for producing effective teachers defined in terms of pupil outcomes" (Dove, 1986: 203).

In spite of these weaknesses which call for caution in wholesale acceptance of the findings more and more studies are reported in the literature which have found marked
positive differences between both trained teachers' attitudes and performance and their pupils' classroom involvement and achievement as compared with untrained teachers' attitudes and performance and their pupils' classroom involvement and achievement (see for example studies by Nitsaisook & Anderson (1989) in Thailand, Bazo, (1986) in the Canary Island specifically focussed on English Language teaching, and studies reviewed by Crossley & Guthrie, 1987, most of which were also concerned with language teaching, Lockheed & Komenan 1989 who in their general review of the question in developing countries reported that, "of 60 studies examining the effects of teacher education and student achievement 60% found positive relationships" (Lockheed & Komenan, 1989: 94).

So teacher training, along with textbook availability appear to be significant complementary and not competing determinants of school effectiveness and pupil progress particularly in less developed countries as pointed out by Schiefelbein, Farrell & Sepulveda-Stuardo (1983), because, it is argued, in these countries, especially in rural areas, teachers represent almost the only source of knowledge as prescribed in the school curriculum, whereas more alternative or complementary sources exist in developed countries (see Dove, 1986). This is certainly true. It is however interesting to note that recent research in developed countries, especially in Britain (Gray et al, 1983) and in the United States (Rutter, 1979 and 1983) have also found that school related factors do have significant effects even after controlling for the effects of intake variables such as social class of school catchment area (Reynold, 1985). As a whole it could be said therefore that school related factors do affect student achievement.

In developing countries in particular, trained teachers do make a positive difference both in classroom performance
and, to some extent in pupil achievement. It is therefore worth not only investing more in teacher education and in INSET in particular, but it is also necessary to investigate the strategies that are most efficient in helping teachers to be more effective practitioners.

3-2 Conceptions of teacher education and training

3-2-1 Perspectives on teacher preparation and improvement

3-2-1-1 The education/development versus teacher training perspective.

A number of terms are used in the literature to refer to the preparation of teachers such as teacher training, teacher education, teacher development, staff development and professional development. Some consider both teacher training and teacher development (and also staff development) to imply a narrow interpretation of teaching focussed on a set of techniques which can be learned for application in a directive teacher centred classroom. Teacher education and professional development on the other hand are supposed to allow for more open-ended interpretations suggesting self development whereby teachers are encouraged to take responsibility for their own development over and above lesson preparation and formal language teaching. This conceptualisation takes account of teachers' need to increase their knowledge, improve their skills, and widen their experience. (Burton, 1988:129-30).

Some take teacher education as the generic term with teacher training or teacher development as variants (Richards, 1989). But in general distinctions are more frequently made between teacher education and teacher training following on the education/training dichotomy. Although training has a good press in business, management and military circles,
where skills training seems more valued than general knowledge, the term has a relatively negative connotation nowadays in educational institutions, especially in Britain.

Training is defined as "a process of preparation towards the achievement of a range of outcomes which are specified in advance" (Widdowson, 1990: 62). These outcomes are generally taken to be the acquisition of specific skills needed to solve a set of predictable problems. As such it is seen as a habit formation process somewhat like Skinner's operant conditioning, or like drilling, focussed on inducing in the trainee the mastery of automatic goal oriented behaviours, and making him/her a technician, a skilled performer of tasks prescribed by others. It transmits ready-made formulae, patterns of response, gimmicks and tricks of the trade to be used as solutions to foreseen or foreseeable problems of routine tasks directly related to trainees' present or future job. It is essentially job orientated. It provides knowledge and skills and inculcates attitudes needed for specific tasks. Its effects are more immediately observable in short term (Buckley and Caple, 1990).

Viewed in this light training "sets a premium on unreflecting expertise" and its "capacity for accommodation to novelty is therefore very limited". (see Widdowson op cit). It focusses, "on learning which is narrow, inflexible and uninformed by the point of the activity undertaken" (Robertson 1987:17). Training thus conceived of "depends on the stability of existing states of affairs since it assumes that future situations will be predictable replicas of those in the past" (Widdowson, op.cit:62). Training in this sense although admittedly useful, is somewhat undervalued in comparison with education. Education is indeed granted a higher status. To quote Widdowson once again, it provides for situations which cannot be accommodated into preconceived patterns of response but which require a
reformulation of ideas and the modification of established formulae. It focusses therefore, not on the application of ready made problem solving techniques but on the critical appraisal of the relationship between problem and solution as a matter of continuing inquiry and of adaptable practice. (Widdowson, op. cit: 62)

This conception of Education is in line with the demands of the modern ever changing world. Faure et al (1972) put it this way:

Educational action to prepare for work and active life should aim less at training young people to practise a given trade or profession than equipping them to adapt themselves to a variety of jobs, at developing their capacities continuously in order to keep pace with developing production methods and working conditions. It should help achieve optimum mobility in employment and facilitate conversion from one profession or branch of a profession to another. (Faure et al, 1972 : 196)

Education therefore embraces a broad range of problems to be defined, analysed and hopefully solved. It is person orientated. Its long term effects affect the individual profoundly. It provides theoretical frameworks to stimulate individuals' analytical and critical abilities. It engages the rational faculties of learners, develops their power to gather evidence and assess its adequacy for themselves. It is perhaps why there is no 'educatee' as there is a trainee. Education is an active and interactive process involving the teacher as facilitator and the learner as responsible for his/her own learning. It is rational as well as practical. If education is successful, the student is empowered to interpret reality and ideas, to subject them to scrutiny and change them if necessary rather than accept them on trust.

This kind of education, as Widdowson (op. cit) explains goes beyond the informal primary socialisation within the family circle and the immediate environment whereby views, attitudes, skills, knowledge are more or less unconsciously acquired by unplanned and incidental exposure. It is a purposeful, and deliberate mediation between the learner and
society at large, designed as second order culture consisting of schemes of conceptual organisation and behaviour which supplement the first order process of the primary socialisation of family upbringing. It gives ideas, attitudes and beliefs which prepare learners to participate in areas of social life beyond their immediate environment and expand on their individual experience.

It is organised as formal education within a traditional interconnected and mutually supporting network of formally established institutions, or as non formal education, provided to special subgroups of the population through other channels and structures such as professional associations, youth clubs etc. outside the official educational networks. (Coombe 1985: 23-25) Education thus conceived differs from training in many ways. The figure below sums up these differences in their essential features.

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figure 12: Distinction between training and education in terms of process and effect. (from Buckley and Caple, 1990)

Attention needs to be drawn in the figure to the uniform character of training, that is, its tendency to emphasise standard models of techniques to be performed by everybody in the same way with the risk of transforming people into robots. On the other hand education as indicated in the figure allows for individual variability and encourages individual differences.
This conception of education when transferred to teacher preparation is also referred to as teacher development and seen as a tonic for teachers, a means by which they keep "in trim" and escape degeneration. It "should provide the intellectual, pedagogical and personal enhancement without which the teacher becomes flabby, and breathless. It should also broaden the teachers' horizons. As teachers we find it all too easy to retreat into the familiar and to remain blinkered to what is happening outside our own little classroom kingdom" (Ron White, in IATEFL Teacher Development Newsletter (T.D henceforth), No 1: 1). But it seems that teacher development, broadly defined beyond this 'deficit' view is, in O'Brien's (1986) terms,

a life long autonomous process of learning and growth by which as teachers we adapt to changes in and around us and enhance our awareness, knowledge, and skills in personal, interpersonal and professional aspects of our lives (O'Brien 1986: 163)

Although generally focussed on the autonomous growth of the individual teacher, it is mainly conceived of as a self development process collaboratively organised by teachers themselves within a support group network at local, regional, national and even international levels, within the profession. It encourages teachers to identify their needs, and to suggest ways in which these needs can be met. The question as Ellis (1986) puts it, is: "What can we do to improve our circumstances and to develop in the way we feel is best for us as staff and as individuals?" (in IATEFL (T.D) Newsletter No 2 1986: 5). Attempts to answer these questions, working together with other teachers as shown by Underhill (1989) with special reference to his experience in India help teachers discover that "there are many areas of classroom practice where significant changes can be initiated by teachers even within the constraints of the existing teaching environment" (Underhill, 1989: 4 in IATEFL T.D Newsletter No 10). In this sense teacher development is
inextricably linked with teachers' personal experience of life. It merges education with training to ensure personal development. In this connection Willingson (1989) has this to say:

Personal development means planned and committed efforts, sometimes in the form of training, that help us find, and make use of our aptitudes and releases us from our belief systems which have blinkered our perceptions and made our thoughts, behaviours, and judgements, so embarrassingly stereotyped and predictable (Tom Willingson in IATEFL T.D Newsletter No 1 1986:8)

Teacher development thus envisaged is not just a series of isolated events but a continuous process, an integrated, ongoing, cumulative and coordinated part of teacher education, focussed on problems as well as on people (Underhill op.cit), on individual personal needs while also catering for system efficiency. It is worth stressing this broader view which does not see teacher development only in terms of the individual teacher but in terms of a group endeavour resource and supported within institutional contexts (see Keith Morrow 1989 in IATEFL T.D Newsletter.) This is the place to recall Terryl Lundquist's call for collaborative involvement in teacher development:

What is important to our empowerment here is to avoid the autonomy, so typical of teaching, that breeds isolation, territoriality, stagnation, and often a sense of victimisation... When we create community and collaboration we can let go of our own fearfulness and competitiveness. We can create a more fertile growth environment for our own development. When we mix and feed the soil, water and nurture the seedling of new approaches, we can share our ideas and wishes and growing edges as teachers in order to hold a clearer view of the bigger picture, the broader perspectives or vision that too often is lost (Terryl Lundquist IATEFL T.D Newsletter No 10 1989)

It is this broader perspective which distinguishes teacher education as development from teacher education as training.
As viewed and summarized by Richards (1989) the distinctive features of these two perspectives are as follows:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Training</th>
<th>Development</th>
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<tr>
<td>deficiency view</td>
<td>development view</td>
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<tr>
<td>methods based</td>
<td>on-going process</td>
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<td>Approach</td>
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<td>external knowledge</td>
<td>internal knowledge</td>
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<td>improvement oriented</td>
<td>awareness oriented</td>
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<tr>
<td>prescriptive</td>
<td>non prescriptive</td>
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<tr>
<td>atomistic approach</td>
<td>holistic approach</td>
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<td>top down</td>
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<td>Content</td>
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<td>performance based</td>
<td>value based</td>
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<td>skills &amp; techniques</td>
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<td>received curriculum</td>
<td>negotiated curriculum</td>
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<td>modelling</td>
<td>inquiry based</td>
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<td>Process</td>
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<td>practice</td>
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<td>imitation</td>
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<td>short term</td>
<td>long term</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher role</td>
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<td>technician</td>
<td>knower</td>
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<td>apprentice</td>
<td>investigator</td>
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<td>passive</td>
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<td>subordinate</td>
<td>co-participant</td>
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<td>Teacher educator</td>
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<td>expert</td>
<td>collaborator</td>
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<td>model</td>
<td>facilitator</td>
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<tr>
<td>interventionist</td>
<td>participant</td>
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Table 5: Training and Development perspectives on teacher education. (From Richards, 1989:8).

However, although it may be theoretically and ideologically useful to distinguish education from training, the dividing line particularly as concerns language teacher education and training seems rather thin. In practice most of the arguments used to underscore training may be no more than caricatures of reality. As a matter of fact training even in the strict sense of skills training, is rarely a simple passing on of formulae and automatisms. As pointed out by
Robertson in his criticism of the narrow view of training, teaching someone a skill" requires developing the learner's capacity to respond to the unexpected, to understand what he or she is doing and why, to be intelligent and reflective in the exercise of his/her skill" (Robertson 1987: 17)

In this connection Ellis (1986) with special reference to EFL teacher training identifies two training practices: experiential teacher training practice and awareness raising teacher training practice. The former involves teachers in actual teaching and the latter develops trainees' conscious understanding of the principles underlying EFL teaching and/or the practical techniques that teachers can use in different kinds of lessons (Ellis, 1986: 92). He observes that the two types of training which are similar to the parallel between training and education, with the awareness raising type corresponding to teacher development as defined by O'Brien (op. cit) are not mutually exclusive. They need not be separated. They may even be combined in a single activity. Larsen-Freeman (1983), a strong advocate of the need to 'educate a teacher' rather than 'training teachers' in order that he/she can be an independent learner empowered to make informed choices also recognises that they are not completely distinct processes and that "the training processes can be subsumed under the process of educating" (Larsen-Freeman 1983: 265)
On the other hand education, especially formal education as applied to teacher education, may be to a great extent a process of preparation for the achievement of outcomes generally specified in advance just as training is. It would seem indeed that any deliberate purposeful educational enterprise whether called training or education supposes some specification of outcomes in so far as it aims to satisfy some felt individual or societal needs. The difference, it seems, is not in kind but only in degree. Decisions on teacher preparation have to do with how much specific and restricted to precise models of teaching and routine tasks of classroom management the specification of outcomes should be, with how to strike the balance between personal development, professional needs and systems efficiency; between theory and practice. Decisions on these issues imply, not the need for a clear cut distinction and separation of education and training but the realization of their complementarity. In this connection it is useful to point out that although Faure et al (1972 op. cit) advocate a wide angle view of education in the statement reproduced earlier they also recommend that this education or instruction, as they put it, "must be followed by practical training at places of work, all of which must above all be completed by recurrent education and vocational training courses" (Faure et al 1972:196). In line with the recognition of this complementarity, already acknowledged by Ellis (1986) Widdowson (op.cit) suggests that the educational approach is more appropriate to in-service teacher formation whereas the emphasis should be on training in pre-service formation.

Before drawing the implications of this discussion for the present study two more points need to be made. Underlying the education/training issue there seems to be a presupposition of the universality of modern West European dominant "high culture" whose values and beliefs about
education is taken as the norm. In spite of the influence of western cultures on the world the economically and technologically dominant Western countries education is too context specific to be reduced to a mere celebration of western individualism and positivism irrespective of different social and material conditions and even of stages of educational development (see Beeby, 1966).

Finally, teacher preparation understood as the promotion of teachers' professional development involves not only the preparation of well educated individuals but mainly the formation of well educated professionals. This means, as James Pandian (1988) puts it in an article provocatively titled "Too much education and too little training" with special reference to TESOL, that "they need to be trained for the job they do" (Pandian 1988:14). He then advocates the resuscitation of 'teacher training' to refer to the preparation of TESOL teachers.

Without sharing his restricted use of teacher training, the term will be used in this study interchangeably with teacher education in view of the above discussion and of the fact that it is more commonly used in the literature on EFL teacher preparation. (see Strevens, 1974; Larsen-Freeman, 1983; Brumfit, 1983). This decision also expresses the fusion of both terms in the acronym INSET and the focus of the present study on informed skills improvement.

3-2-1-2 The growth versus deficit/defect perspectives.

It has been argued that if we are to promote teachers' professionalism an educational approach to teacher preparation is needed rather than a training approach. Closely linked with this argument is the advocacy of a
'growth' perspective as opposed to a 'defect' perspective to inform the design of in-service activities in practice.

As argued by Jackson (1971) the 'defect' view assumes that something is wrong with the way in which teachers do their work and some remedial action needs to be taken to repair it. Teachers' 'ignorance' resulting from the lack of exposure to the latest developments of instructional techniques is generally considered as the main 'sickness' that needs to be cured. The point was strongly and unambiguously made by Levin in the early 60s as follows:

The further training of teachers in service works like a tonic, like an injection that helps to protect the body from different diseases, and the commonest disease teachers suffer from is arteriosclerosis, that is, long set habits that become a second nature forcing them to act always in the old well established way, independently of the transformed world around them (Levin, 1962 in Henderson, 1978: 13).

Jackson questions this justification for INSET activities on many grounds. First, he argues, changes in education and educational processes and procedures, when closely looked at are not as dramatic and radical as they look: "This year's model may look shinier than last year's, but strip away the chrome fixtures, turn off the ad man's banter and the difference is insignificant" (Jackson, 1971: 24). This opinion is vindicated by Howatt's (1984) review of the evolution of English language teaching and by his conclusions about the mitigated success of current natural approaches and of communicative language teaching in particular. Speaking of communicative language he shows that it has only enriched and extended the tradition of language teaching initiated by the reformers of the end of last century (emphasis added).

Second, he says, there is no consensus on what the solutions to the defect approach should be, simply because at present
"we have no meaningful definition of what a person must know or be able to do in order to be a teacher" (op. cit: 28). Indeed in spite of a sizable corpus of two decades' research since Jackson's article his view is as true now as it was then.

But the problem goes beyond the lack of sufficient knowledge on teaching. The complexity of teaching is such that there is more to know than can ever be known by any one person. He then questions the notion of the 'complete' teacher because he says: "though some people obviously know more about pedagogy than do others those who know the most conform to no single model of perfection. In teaching as in life, the roads are many" (op. cit: 27)

The question one should then ask in relation to in-service work is whether the teacher should be considered as a sick person needing professional help from outside experts in the form of remedial emergency treatment, or whether they, like their pupils, simply have a lot more growing to do, with the trainer just helping to facilitate normal development. If it is agreed as he contends that "the motive for learning more about teaching is not to repair a personal inadequacy as a teacher but seek greater fulfilment as a practitioner of the art' (op. cit: 26) then a growth approach is clearly what is needed.

The growth perspective, as Jackson presents it, is firmly grounded in the education and continual development of teachers. It assumes that the single most important source of knowledge teachers have on their work is the act of teaching itself, that is their experience. But in order for this experience to stimulate continued growth they must not just have it, they must benefit from it:

This means we must reflect on what happens to us, ponder it, and make sense of it - a process that in turn requires a certain
distancing from the immediate press of reality. As everyone who has been in charge of a classroom knows, it is very difficult to teach and to think about teaching at the same time. What is needed therefore is both the time and the tools for the teacher to conceptualize his experience, to imbue it with personal meaning in a way that alters his way of looking at his world and acting on it. (Jackson, op. cit: 28)

This view implies that teachers should take responsibility for their own development. If that is to be practically possible, he argues, in-service training should be reformed in such a way as to give teachers more time to think about what they are doing. For that purpose the power structure in education must be altered so that teachers have more control over their own professional destinies and administrators have less.

3-2-1-3 The holistic versus competency based training perspectives.

Ashton (1981) in his criticism of skills training points out that the dominant pattern of skills training in teacher education is one that strongly emphasises cognitive behavioural approaches in the wake of a general movement towards a conception of teaching as science. These approaches are based on the identification of individual skills and the setting of a minimum level of mastery of those skills. Then a 'competent' teaching profile is constructed from these skills and a 'mastery' profile is taken as the indicator of competence in teaching skills. This focus on behavioural aspects of teaching is closely associated with the defect view. It is characterised by the reduction of teaching to "what happens when teachers and students are confronting each other", that is, to the interaction aspect of teaching. It ignores "the ability to plan ahead, to make decisions about the choice of materials and activities, to ponder the consequences of alternative actions" (Jackson, op-cit p 25).
This approach to skills training is at the base of the Performance/Competency Based Teacher Education (P/CBTE) movement in the United States and also characterises classic microteaching programmes which, as observed by Coulter (1980) focus on the acquisition of knowledge and overt teaching skills rather than "the developments of students' confidence and accurate professional perception" (Coulter 1980, quoted in Ashton 1981: 160).

These competence based skills, in Ashton's opinion, being imposed on trainees may not be congruent with their feelings and values. Moreover the approach also tends to ignore their feelings and emotional states, whereas as pointed out by Brumfit (1983)

...Trainee teachers recognise that they are not simply preparing for another job, but entering a profession in which they will be judged for the kind of person they are. Mere possession of skills will never suffice, for their own past experience of schools is enough to remind them that teachers succeed or fail on the basis of complex relationship between the kind of people they are and their effectiveness in assisting their own pupils to develop specific abilities. Sensitive and committed trainee-teachers will thus perceive the process of learning how to teach as inherently stressful for they will not succeed or fail simply on what they learn, but on what they are (Brumfit, 1983: 60).

If we are to account for this reality pointed out by Brumfit that teachers teach what they are the emphasis should be less on the training of teachers as 'skills masters' and more on their holistic education as 'persons'.

As Britten (1985) defines it "holistic approaches work towards training goals, not all of which can be broken down into individually verifiable training objectives, and they stress the development of personal qualities, of creativity, judgement and adaptability" (Britten, 1985: 113). This perspective caters for the development of the whole person, with, not only their knowledge and store of information
about teaching and subject matter, but above all with their feelings, emotions, attitudes, beliefs and individual personalities. Such training helps teachers develop their own personal teaching styles and how to utilize to the fullest their individual talents. It accounts for the fact that learning involves intuition and insights as well as rationality and analysis, feelings as well as thinking. (Ashton, 1981: 60). This point is powerfully made by Brown (1983) when he criticises the tendency of many courses in teacher education to be analytical with a consequent neglect of intuition, which he thinks should be taught. This, he says, could be done by developing trainees' knowledge and practical experience for "intuitions are formed at the crossroads of knowledge and experience", and by encouraging a healthy attitude of risk taking. Such a cultivation of intuition in teacher training is necessary because, he says, it is "the tension between intuition and analysis, between believing and doubting, between insight and system, between art and science, that enables the human mind to function fully and dynamically." (Brown, 1983: 57)

The holistic approach recognises that "the skills developed and the ways in which they are used directly reflect the kind of person one is" (Ashton 1981: 166). It considers that for a student to understand his/her skills development properly he/she must be enabled to relate them to his/her predispositions, personal constructs, frames of reference, for skills are not separate and uninfluenced by these, they are determined by them. (Ashton, 1981: 166). This concurs with Bush's (1971: 45) view that in-service programs must, not only consider the needs of each teacher, taking into account his/her unique qualities and enable him/her to understand the features at work in a school situation, but also help him/her adapt his/her behaviour to the needs of the situation. This, he says, is the difference between a professional training and a craftsmanlike training:
The professional proceeds according to certain principles and makes adjustments according to the different situations he confronts, whereas the craftsman refines a particular way of doing something but does not provide for alterations in the design of the product produced (Bush, 1971: 46).

He draws the methodological implications of this approach as follows:

Teaching is an extremely complex matter. In the beginning it may be helpful to break it down into more simplified components. As the beginner learns many of the basic skills that underlie good teaching, he should also then begin to have practice in putting these skills together, in applying them in increasingly complex teaching situations in which he is called upon to make professional decisions concerning their application. The ability to select and integrate techniques is as important as the acquisition of specific skills (Bush 1971: 45).

The problem is that by breaking down teaching into specific trainable skills through microanalysis and regrouping them later may not help to understand teaching as a holistic process. As Richards (1987) put it, with special reference to language teaching:

Even if we were able to identify relevant categories of teacher behaviour in different kinds or aspects of L2 programs would we have identified the nature of effective teaching? As many observers have noted, effective teaching cannot be described only in terms of low inference skills or competencies... High level categories are also necessary to a theory of teaching. (Richards, 1987: 215)

So the macro analysis in terms of larger units with an educational perspective which examines the total context of classroom teaching/learning is needed for the development of goals for teacher preparation. The question of how to accommodate both micro-analysis and macro-analysis constitutes what Richards (1987) calls the dilemma of teacher education.

3-2-2 Typology of teacher training
The generic term teacher training is familiarly used to cover what has been called, the Triple I continuum of initial, induction and in-service training (see Bolam 1986:15). It embraces all the planned activities undertaken with a deliberate educational and training intention to prepare teachers to adequately fulfil their responsibility for educating and training young or adult members of society as agents and objects of development. In the specific context of this study it applies to the preparation of teachers to fulfil their responsibility for facilitating the mastery and use of English by learners as a tool for personal and social development. A distinction needs to be made at this stage between different types of teacher training.

3-2-2-1 Pre-service teacher training and initial teacher training

Initial teacher training is generally used to mean pre-service teacher training, that is, the training received by prospective teachers to introduce them to the teaching profession usually in teacher training institutions before they are actually engaged to teach. In the context of developing countries and in this study it also refers to the preparation and certification of already practising but untrained teachers.

3-2-2-2 In-Service Education and Training of Teachers (INSET)

3-2-2-2-1 Definitions

Although the focus here is on practising teachers, in-service training equally concerns other staff members in educational institutions, which perhaps explains why it is sometimes referred to as staff development, as well as members of
other professional sectors such as business, health agriculture, etc. Thus Harris (1980) with special reference to education broadly defines in-service education as:

any planned program of learning opportunities afforded staff members of schools, colleges, or other educational agencies for purposes of improving the performance of the individual in already assigned position (Harris, 1980: 21)

This definition clearly points out the beneficiaries of in-service education. But it only stresses as objective the improvement of the performance of the individual with no reference to the effects of this improvement on students and on the institution as a whole. A more encompassing definition is offered by Bolam (1981): He sees INSET as:

Those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals following their initial certification and intended primarily or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively. (Bolam, 1981 in Hopkins, 1986: 18)

It is clear here that the ultimate goal of INSET is the effective education of children and more generally of all learners. It should be noted however that 'initial professional certification' may result from pre-service training as well as from in-service initial training as pointed out earlier. Besides although primarily intended to improve professional knowledge, skills, attitudes, INSET may include the personal education of teachers as could be seen by the James' report definition, in Britain, which sees INSET as:

The whole range of activities by which teachers can extend their personal education, develop their professional competence and improve their understanding of educational principles and techniques (Department of Education and Science, 1972 in Hopkins, 1986: 19)
Henderson (1978) in the same broad perspective defines in-service training as "everything that happens to the teacher from the day he takes up his first appointment to the day he retires which contributes directly or indirectly to the way in which he executes his professional duties" (Henderson, 1978: 11). These differences in definitions of the same concept are expressive of differences in the purposes that INSET might be used to attain.

3-2-2-2-2 Purposes

3-2-2-2-2-1 The context of continuing life long or recurrent teacher education

Bolam (1986) rightly places discussions of the purposes of INSET in the context of a conceptual framework for continuing teacher education as part and parcel of what is, with very little change of emphases, called adult education, 'l'education permanente', lifelong education or recurrent education for teachers.

As with most concepts in education there is no unanimity on the definition of recurrent education, (see for example the definitions offered by OECD 1973, and Stoikov 1975 in Wood 1986, where the former excludes compulsory formal education while the latter includes it). However by and large, recurrent education as indicated by Davis 1986) is seen as an overarching concept referring to

- the allocation of educational opportunities
- available to all people
- in a variety of formal and non formal contexts
- throughout their life span
- on a recurrent basis
- tailored to their different needs
- closely related to and supported by other policies and program in the employment and social welfare sectors
- with schooling as only the first, albeit compulsory phase

(Davis, 1986: 59)
Recurrent education thus conceived of as lifelong education includes formal, non-formal and informal patterns of education. It has two broad components, general and professional. Continuing teacher education like lifelong education has been seen as consisting of two main components: personal or general education and professional or vocational education and training of teachers. INSET, strictly defined, corresponds to the professional and vocational education and training of teachers. But the promotion of teachers' professional development involves the interplay of three elements as James Pandian (1988) points out: the job to be done, the individual who is in the job, and the organisation of which he/she is a member. Although INSET is mainly focused on professional competence and understanding, that is, the individual teachers' career and professional development, as well as on system (e.g. school) improvement and effectiveness, it recognizes the importance of personal general education for the overall formation of the individual. At this stage it is in order to clarify the whole notion of profession as related to teachers.

3-2-2-2-2-2 The context of teaching as a profession and teachers as professionals

In the Western tradition the term profession is used to refer to the high prestige status of an occupation. Many attempts have been made to establish a set of criteria by which a profession can be distinguished from a non-profession. Hoyle (1969) offers six such criteria: A profession performs an essential social service; a profession is founded upon a systematic body of knowledge; a profession requires a lengthy period of academic and practical training; a profession has a high degree of autonomy; a profession has a code of ethics; a profession generates in-service growth. (Hoyle, 1969: 80-85)
Given the difficulty of agreeing on a definite list of criteria to discriminate between professions and non professions, the symbolic value of the term as "a desired conception of one's work and hence of one's self" (Hughes, 1958) and its ideological value have been gradually recognised. Professions are therefore more and more seen on a continuum according to approximation to the ideal type, on the basis of the degree of professional control and practitioners' autonomy, two criteria which are generally on all lists of criteria. As such, each occupation is engaged in a process of professionalisation. The term 'profession' expresses then the quest for improved status, salary and conditions. But professions do not only pursue these objectives of improvement in the pay, conditions and status of their members, which Lieberman (1962) has termed 'vocational objectives', they also pursue what he has called 'service objectives', that is their duties and responsibilities towards society. Professions thus understood represent as Hoyles puts it "the rights and privileges which an occupation desires for itself and also the social service which it offers" (Hoyle, 1969: 93). In this connection Hoyle, in a seminal article published in 1974 distinguishes between professionalism and professionality as follows:

A crude distinction can be made between the service interest and the self interest components of the concept of a profession by using the term professionalism to refer to those strategies and rhetorics employed by members of an occupation in seeking to improve status, salary and conditions, and the term professionality to refer to the knowledge, skills, and procedures employed by teachers in the process of teaching (Hoyle, 1974: 14).

Professionalism could roughly be equated with Lieberman's 'vocational objectives'. It connotes the concept of career as a "commitment to a form of life work or calling and the process whereby an individual progresses upward through a hierarchy of professional roles" (Hoyle, 1969: 92). It
relates to the current emphasis in the field of education on teachers' participation and collaborative decision making whereby teachers demand or are encouraged to be involved in and collaborate in determining syllabuses, methods, materials, etc.

Professionality on the other hand, corresponds to Lieberman's 'service objectives'. It involves what Hoyle terms collaborative teaching. This could be understood as a vertical hierarchical collaboration between teachers at different levels of the hierarchy and which may lead to a high degree of standardisation, routinisation and limitation on professional choice by teachers on lower scales of the hierarchy. But it could also be seen as a horizontal collegial collaboration when teachers working together as equals on the basis of shared knowledge common expectations, group norms, and informal leadership define appropriate levels of work to be done. (see Lortie 1964 and Hoyle, 1974).

The more professionalised teaching becomes the more the professionality aspect needs to be developed from a restricted form to an extended form as indicated by Hoyle:

In an increasingly open school situation where formal structures are being broken down and teachers are free to create and recreate their own orders, there would appear to be a case for teachers extending their professionality by acquiring a wider range of knowledge and skills which would enable them to contribute to policy and planning (Hoyle: 1974:17).

This extended professionality differs from restricted professionality in terms of the following considerations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Restricted professionality</th>
<th>Extended professionality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills derived from experience</td>
<td>Skills derived from a mediation between experience and theory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perspective limited to the immediate in time and place</td>
<td>Perspective embracing the broader social context of education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom events perceived in isolation</td>
<td>Classroom events perceived in relation to school policies and goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introspective with regard to methods</td>
<td>Methods compared with those of colleagues and with reports of practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value placed on autonomy (table continued from page )</td>
<td>Value placed on professional collaboration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited involvement in non teaching professional activities</td>
<td>High involvement in non teaching professional activities (exp. teachers' centre, subject association, research).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrequent reading of professional literature</td>
<td>Regular reading of professional literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement in in-service work limited and confined to practical courses</td>
<td>Involvement in in-service work considerable and includes courses of a theoretical nature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching seen as an intuitive activity</td>
<td>Teaching seen as a rational activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Restricted and extended models of professionality from Hoyle (1974:18)

The advocacy for extended professionality is not at the expense of professionalism. On the contrary a higher professionality may have beneficial influence on professionalism by bringing together systems needs (service objectives) and individual teachers' personal and professional needs (vocational objectives). It helps teachers to become professionals in the full sense of the term. In this connection INSET can be a powerful means by which a combination of purposes could be attained and potentially conflicting needs (individual and system) could be integrated in the formation of teachers as professionals.

3-2-2-2-3

Professionalising teachers through INSET: from system needs purposes to personal needs purposes

Bolam (1986) has identified five such purposes in relation not only to INSET as restrictedly defined but also to the whole continuing teacher education:
- improving the job performance skills of the whole school
staff or of groups of staff (e.g. school focussed programme i.e. retraining).
- improving the job performance skills of an individual teacher (e.g. an introduction programme for a beginning teacher, i.e. induction).
- extending the experience of an individual teacher for career development or promotion purposes (leadership training course, i.e. further training)
- developing the professional knowledge and understanding of an individual teacher (e.g. Master's degree in educational studies i.e. additional training)
- extending the personal or general education of an individual e.g. a Master's degree course not in education or a subject related to teaching i.e. lifelong education) (Bolam 1981 in Hopkins 1986: 28-29).

As could be seen the five purposes are on a continuum from staff or group purposes mainly concerned with individual teachers' needs, including his/her personal education as part of his/her continuing education with no direct link to his/her profession, as illustrated by the figure below:

![figure: 13 System and individual needs factors and purposes of continuing teacher education (from Bolam, 1982 in Hopkins, 1986: 28).](image-url)
While the first four purposes are part and parcel of INSET concerns, with the first two emphasising systems needs and the last two emphasizing individual teachers' needs, in relation to their professional development, the fifth purpose, although important for teachers' continuing education, is generally seen as incidental and outside the essential concerns of INSET.

With relation to system needs, Fox (1980 in Hopkins, op. cit: 222) indicates in addition to improvement of school practice the implementation of social policy such as desegregation, multicultural education, anti-racism and anti-sexism awareness. On the basis of these concerns different types of INSET have been advocated, some of which need to be briefly discussed for the purpose of this study. But before that, it is tempting to summarize the discussion so far by quoting a fairly long extract from the interview the present writer had with Mr Vincent Rosewell who was head of the INSET Department at the Institute of Education University of London in 1987. He expressed some reservations on the educational reform in Britain and Wales in preparation then to introduce the National Curriculum, as concerns INSET. He illustrated his reservation with the example of the training of teachers for the teaching of French as follows:

- Vincent: It is very important that an independent agency such as the University is involved in INSET. Suppose they came to me and said: "would you, at the Institute of Education, run a course for teaching French in these middle schools? "We could have said to these teachers on the course: "look there are a lot of ways of teaching French. You can teach it this way or you can teach it that way. You can teach it another way, or maybe you may not want to teach it at all at this stage. You might find that it was more efficient to use more intensive language lab like course in a short period, immerse the children as it were in French, and do it more efficiently that way; that would be another possibility". Now, those of us who are involved in the training of teachers but do not have direct responsibility for the efficient running of the schools can afford the luxury of looking at different ways of doing things. It would at least have opened up the minds of these teachers to a number of
different possibilities. I think that is important and that is the essence of the different sort of contribution you would expect from us; and that you wouldn't get from the Local Authorities themselves or from the Department of Education and Science who might also run courses.

- Joseph: So you're saying that in the case of the Local Education Authorities, there is a less wide range of possibilities offered to teachers than in a University Education Department.

- Vincent: Yes, I would say that is true. But the reason for it is that the local authorities have a direct responsibility for the efficient running of their schools... But you would also conceive that it's important that the teachers are not narrowly concerned with just the short term, but they've got to look more broadly at the whole problem of education, the whole culture, the whole society, the whole ways in which schools are operating, and I think, it's very important that we should, as a university, have as well our ideals, so we look to long term objectives as well. I'm not saying that Local Authorities don't do that as well. It's a matter of emphasis.

- Joseph: This then means that in INSET there might be two objectives: short term objectives preparing teachers for doing the job now and making it efficient, and long term objectives, helping them to get a wider objective of teaching.

- Vincent: I wouldn't disagree with that. I would simply say that it's not just a matter of 'either or'. It's a matter of emphasis. I think those concerned with the efficient running of schools would put more emphasis on short term objectives; those of us who don't have this same commitment feel that we can afford more widely longer term objectives. (From an interview with Mr Vincent Rosewell, Head of the INSET Department at the Institute of Education University of London, 1987:2-3)

3-2-2-2-3 Types

In this study INSET is meant to include the initial training received by untrained teachers and the induction of newly recruited teachers as well as retraining, additional training and further training of practising teachers.

*Induction teacher training*, the middle term of the British Triple I continuum mentioned earlier, is the help provided to newly recruited teachers after their initial training to facilitate their integration into the profession and the adaptation of their theoretical competence to the practical
demands of their jobs generally during their probationary year (for more details see Bolam, 1982)

Retraining refers to the refresher courses undertaken by formerly trained teachers in-country or out-of-country to keep abreast of innovations and recent developments in the profession as well as to adapt to new circumstances. This corresponds to Erraut's (1985) category of general professional training.

Additional training enables in-service teachers to acquire more adequate professional qualification while further training enables them to attain higher professional positions. This corresponds to Erraut's career/credential category.

These main different types of INSET are provided for in various settings and in different forms. Many attempts have been made to establish a typology of the various forms of INSET (see Howey, 1976; Joyce et al, 1976; and Erraut, 1985 for example). As a result of these efforts a whole range of terms have been coined to characterise INSET: These include course based INSET (residential, correspondence or distance teaching (see Young et al, 1975 for distance teaching); school based, school focussed, school centred, school oriented INSET; job-embedded, on the job, off the job, job related INSET; on site, off site INSET; In-country, out-of-country INSET and more recently IT-INSET. They do not necessarily express air tight distinctions of categories. Most of them are little more than different ways of looking at one and the same thing. For the purpose of this study the following are however worth discussing.

3-2-2-2-3-1 School Based INSET
School based INSET is often presented as a shift away from the traditional off the job and off site course based model of in-service training organised outside the school in colleges and universities, in the country or abroad (especially for less developed educational systems), generally for the professional development of individual teachers through academic studies. It is initiated and planned in the school as a learning community by members of a specific school staff, to serve the institutional and educational needs of the school. It is led and executed by members of the staff using the school's physical resources and takes place on the school premises (see Morant, 1981). It is seen as "an on going activity usually teacher initiated which focuses on the teacher's role as a curriculum developer and researcher within a specific classroom setting or school situation" (Hopkins, 1986: 5).

School based INSET appears as the first response to the realisation that "to ensure true implementation of change ... we must work with teachers in the place and in the situation where change is to take place" (Perry, 1977). But although job embedded in the sense that it is integrated into the ongoing activity in the classroom and emphasises the analysis of actual classroom performance, school based INSET has been criticised on the ground that it runs the risk of parochialism (Henderson, 1979), shutting itself to all the potential learning experience in the wider system outside the school, of too much concentration on internal problems, of pursuing the school's needs at the expense of the individual teacher's concerns. To overcome these weaknesses school focussed INSET has been conceived.

3-2-2-2-3-2 School focussed INSET

It is defined as "all the strategies employed by trainers, and teachers in partnership to direct training programmes in
such a way as to meet the identified needs, of the school, and to raise the standards of teaching and learning in the classroom." (Perry, 1977 in Hewton, 1988). Here both the individual teacher's needs and the need for improvement of the quality of education in the school as a whole are catered for. (Howey, 1980 in Hopkins, 1986: 46). The contribution of both internal and external sources of expertise are sought. Although the problems of a specific school may be the focal points of the training, activities may be located anywhere deemed appropriate in the circumstances. These activities are job related in the sense that they are specially related to teachers' jobs regardless of when or where they take place. But they need not be job embedded.

3-2-2-3-3 School centred and school oriented INSET

School centred INSET as described by Rudduck (1981) is an approach embracing both "school based activity, a mode of in-service education which takes place on the school premises, and 'school focussed' activity, a mode which accepts that the professional requirement of the school and the staff as a whole provide a focal point around which a whole programme of in-service work is planned" (Rudduck, 1981 in Easen 1985: ix). School centred INSET defined this way is, to a great extent similar to school oriented INSET which although focussing on the problems of schools, occurs outside of the school setting and is usually initiated by an external agency. (see Hopkins 1988: 5)

3-2-2-3-4 IT-INSET

IT-INSET (initial training-in-service education and training of teachers) is "a process through which teachers, student teachers, and tutors can work together at improving the
quality of children's learning" (Everton and Impey, 1989: 4). Its originality lies in the fact that it links initial training with in-service training and stresses the need to develop teachers' positive attitudes towards classroom evaluation while they are still in training. It gives a central role to teachers' ability to look critically at classroom practice so that they can judge the worthwhileness of learning outcomes. It is based on the principle that adults, like children, learn by doing (see Everton and Impey, 1989). In sum it involves student teachers and their tutors collaborating with practising teachers to review aspects of the curriculum as implemented in a given class. The process goes as follows: - a class teacher working in partnership with student teachers and their tutor(s) on an aspect of the curriculum, identifies the focus of concern i.e, decides on a particular aspect or problem of his/her classroom practice whose thorough investigation and solution is likely to enhance student learning and which is relevant to his/her preoccupation. - all the group as a team plans the work to be done together - they share the teaching and observation in the classroom - they evaluate the relevance and value of what pupils have gained from each session - they reflect on what has been learned - they use this reflection to plan the next stage. - the work is done on an equal footing. Consequently teachers', student teachers' and tutors' roles are blurred in the process, with tutors avoiding taking a central role and dominating sessions.

The Leicestershire experience of IT-INSET in Britain as reported by Everton and Impey (op. cit) shows that IT-INSET is quite an effective and worthwhile way of, not only linking initial training to in-service training but above all of ensuring that training is closely related to its
effectiveness in improving, not only teaching skills but also pupils' learning.

Much of the above typology is based on the British educational system which is greatly decentralised and gives wide ranging powers and independence to the local educational authorities in matters of policy administration and finance, although much of this independence may be practically threatened by the implications of the 1988 Educational Act which introduced the national curriculum. This relative autonomy of schools may explain the overemphasis on specific schools in the organisation of most forms of INSET.

In the context of highly centralised and/or underresourced systems as in Benin, school based, school focussed, school centred or/and school oriented INSET would more often than not be concerned, not with specific schools' needs, but with the practical problems confronting most teachers at a given level in a given subject throughout the system in a province or even the whole country, with regard to the application of a centrally adopted curriculum, syllabuses, materials and methods in the context of their schools and classrooms. These activities are school focussed/centred/oriented only in so far as they take account of problems confronting teachers in most schools in the system at district, provincial or national level.

More often than not they will also need the intervention or consultancy of external expertise as well as external financial support since most of the 'decentralised structures' as pointed out in Chapter Two have very few resources. So the problem is more a material and financial problem than a problem of a power thirsty bureaucratic administration. But it may be argued that the very fact of unavailability of funds to operate those structures is the
result of a deliberate policy of social control. As pointed out by Sylvain Lourié, ex-Director of the International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris,

Since the financial autonomy of local authorities (provinces, municipalities) is more often than not an illusion ... in some cases decentralisation may actually accentuate social and political control. Under the guise of transferring responsibility it is in fact the problems that are delegated without the necessary resource to solve them (Lourié, 1989: 260-261).

Before leaving this issue of the typology of INSET it is important to note that it has been discussed with no reference to specific level of education or subject. It should however be borne in mind that the ways in which it works in practice may well depend on specific subject areas at specific levels of education.
CHAPTER FOUR: THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS 2:
STRATEGIES AND PRACTICE

4-1 How do teachers learn?

The present section introduces this chapter on strategies and practice of teacher education by examining theories of teacher learning with special reference to the integration of theory and practice and in relation to adult learning and education on the assumption that, in formal education, teachers are in general expected to be adults.

4-1-1 Teachers as adult learners

4-1-1-1 Adults and adult learners

Many writers in adult learning and social psychology have attempted to identify characteristics considered as typical to adults with special reference to adult learners. Those who have been consulted for the present discussion include Brookfield (1986), Kidd (1973 in Brookfield, 1986), Smith (1982a in Brookfield, 1986), Andiron & Lindeman (1927 in Brookfield, 1986), Knowles (1978), Ribeaux & Poppleton (1978); Jarvis (1988).

Those characteristics involve a complex interaction of physiological, psychological, social, cultural, sociological, legal, and contextual factors. Thus references are made to the greater differentiation (compared to children) of the organs and functions of adults, to their development through a number of physical, psychological and social phases, to the attainment of the final stage of intellectual development, to maturity and experience, to the legal and chronological status of adults, to their attitudes as regards ageing and the prospect of death, to the physical, cultural and emotional meaning of time to them, to their growing awareness of self, to their readiness to make existential choices, to the multiplicity of their roles and
responsibilities, to their accumulation of many experiences, to their experience of anxiety and ambivalence as concerns learning and to their self-directing nature. Jarvis (1988) after discussing many of those characteristics proposes the following definition adopted for the present discussion:

Adulthood refers to the fact that both an individual's own awareness of himself, and other people's perception of him accredit him with a level of social maturity accorded to the status of an adult in that society (Jarvis, 1988: 31)

The key characteristic singled out in this definition seems to be social maturity and awareness of that maturity by the individual himself/herself and its acknowledgement by other members of society. This concurs with Knowles's (1978, 1984) view of the adult learner. In Knowles's opinion five main assumptions characterize the adult learner:

- Changes in self-concept: Knowles assumes that "as a person grows and matures his self-concept moves from one of total dependency (as is the reality of the infant) to one of increasing self-directedness" (Knowles, 1978: 55). He considers self-directedness as a major characteristic of adulthood. The psychological definition of adult, he explains, is "one who has arrived at a self-concept of being responsible for one's own life, of being self-directing" (Knowles, 1984:9). At this stage he argues, we feel the need to be perceived and treated by others as capable of taking responsibility for ourselves.

- The role of experience: In the process of maturation an individual "accumulates an expanding reservoir of experience that causes him to become an increasingly rich resource for learning, and at the same time provides him with a broadening base to which to relate new learning" (Knowles, 1978:56). Experience here is appreciated not only for its quantity, but also for its quality attributed to the different roles adults play in society, e.g full time worker, spouse, parent, and voting citizen. Moreover, he
contends, experience "becomes increasingly the source of an adult self-identity" (Knowles, 1984: 10-11). To an adult "his experience is who he is" (Knowles, 1978: 56). To devalue, ignore or reject an adult's experience is to reject him/her as a person. Experience is useful, not only for the individual, but also for others. Indeed he argues, "for many kinds of learning, adults are themselves the richest resources for one another (see Knowles, 1984: 10).

- Readiness to learn: Knowles (1978) assumes that "as an individual matures, his readiness to learn is decreasingly the product of his biological development and academic pressure and is increasingly the product of the developmental tasks required for the performance of his evolving social roles" (Knowles, 1978: 57). In other words "adults become ready to learn when they experience a need to know or do something in order to perform more effectively in some aspects of their lives" (Knowles, 1984: 10). Periods of transition from one developmental stage to the other as well as significant life experiences such as wedding, birth of a child, divorce, death, of a friend or relative, change of residence, experience of war, appointment to a new post, change or loss of job could be powerful sources or triggers of this readiness to learn.

- Orientation to learning: this assumption assumes that the adult "comes into an educational activity largely because he is experiencing some inadequacy in coping with current life problems. He wants to apply tomorrow what he learns today, so his time perspective is one of immediacy of application" (Knowles, 1978: 58). So adults engage themselves in education with "a life centred, task centred, or problem centred orientation to learning (Knowles, 1984: 12).

- Motivation to learn: This assumption is that although adults will respond to some external motivators- a better job, a salary increase and the like, "the more potent motivators are internal- self-esteem, recognition, better
quality of life, greater self-confidence, self-actualisation
and the like (Knowles, 1984: 12).

But although internal factors may be the major driving
forces in adult learning, adults come to education with
different purposes in mind. In this connection Houle's
is of interest. He identifies the following three main types
of adult learners on the basis of the major conception they
hold about the purposes and values of adult education.

-The goal oriented learners: they are adults with clear cut
objectives they wish to attain by undertaking the
educational activity.

-The activity oriented learners: their participation in
adult education may not be motivated by the announced
purpose of the activity, but simply by the social contact
and human relationship that the activity may provide.

-The learning oriented learners: they are those who seek
knowledge for knowledge's sake. They join educational
activities for educational reasons and for the potential for
growth that those activities may offer.

But a more comprehensive typology seems necessary to reflect
more accurately the characteristics of those who engage in
educational activities which are closely associated with
adult learning, particularly in the educationally
disadvantaged environment of developing countries. The
classification proposed by Dodds (1990) with special
reference to adults as distance learners is of interest in
this regard. He identifies five types of distance learners:
mature adults seeking higher or second accreditation, mature
adults seeking basic functional non-formal education, mature
adults seeking self-fulfilment through leisure time
learning, adolescents seeking substitute secondary school
education and finally children being given improved primary
education. This reference to adolescents and children in a
learning experience mostly directed towards adults brings up
the issue of the relationship between learning as conceived of by pedagogy and adult learning as advocated by andragogy.

4-1-1-2 Learning and adult learning

As pointed out by Durkös (1982) a study of andragogy could be fully understood only in the context of what he calls "anthropagogy", i.e the study of human learning. Indeed adult learning is so inextricably linked to issues of human learning in general that a concise presentation of the main views of the latter is perhaps in order.

Definitions and conceptions of human learning differ from one school of thought to another. Many theories have been proposed to explain how people learn or suggest how they should learn, from Thorndike's connectionism and Skinner's operant conditioning to Dewey's pragmatism and the humanist psychologists' student centred learning (see Knowles, 1978 Chapter 2 for fuller discussion). Many attempts have also been made to classify these theories into main categories. For the purpose of this brief discussion Mackie's (1981) and Rogers' (1986) classification will be used. They have identified three main approaches to learning:

- The behaviourist approaches put emphasis on learning by association, stimuli-response and reinforcement. They also stress the reward function of feedback and the central role of the teacher.

The cognitive approaches emphasise the internal organisation of perceptual and thought processes, the active engagement of the mind in relation to the matter under consideration. They put the stress on structuring knowledge, on understanding, on information processing and mastery of the material to be learned, on the informational function of feedback, and on the centrality of the subject matter.

- The humanist, social learning and personality theory approaches focus on personal goals, motives, abilities, on control, increased autonomy, competence and growth, on self-
formative processes and self-emancipation with emphasis on conscientisation, active search for meaning and for control of one's own life processes, for self-direction; on the realisation of a fully functioning, self-actualising person, with clear awareness of cultural, social and interpersonal aspects of the learning situation and of the need for its transformation.

Although differences exist on means and strategies a common element in those approaches seems to be the achievement of some change or awareness in the learner as a result of reflection on some experience in a given situation, in a given context. Many writers (e.g. Lewin, 1946; Bloom, 1956; Gagné, 1972; Rogers, 1986) have questioned the conception of learning as a single process. They have identified several domains of learning. But the dominant positivist paradigm premised on technical rationality tends to give priority to cognitive outcomes of learning (knowledge and skills) with a relative neglect of other aspects, a view which is not shared in the present study.

Indeed it has been argued that learning is a multi-dimensional process (More, 1974, Kolb, 1984). Although as pointed out by Rogers (1986), it is useful for a teacher to be clear about which dimension he/she is concerned with in a particular teaching episode to help specific programmes planning, it is believed here along with More (1974) that a one dimensional or two dimensional process is less than learning. More (op. cit) distinguishes three main dimensions of learning: cognitive, affective, and behavioural.

- The cognitive dimension he explains, is concerned with "the perception, selection, organisation, processing, storage, and recall of information" (More, op.cit: 136). It corresponds to 'knowing' and 'understanding' and leads to 'thinking' and 'believing'.
- The affective dimension is concerned with the emotional evaluation of perception and cognition. In More's (op. cit)
opinion, within this dimension "all new information is measured against the individual's life-system" (More, op. cit: 137).

- The behavioural dimension, he explains, "is concerned with the adjustment of the body of parts of the body, to its environment. This includes skills such as reading, writing, jumping, cycling, driving, typing, sewing, bricklaying, operating machinery, and so on" (More, op. cit: 139). He contends that

Real learning takes place when we exercise and realise the potential activity at these three levels, the cognitive, the affective, or emotional and the behavioural. When this full activity takes place in interaction, then the resultant activity or change is learning. (More, 1974: 134).

The following lists compiled by Mackie (1981) and Rogers (1986) represents a number of key principles or factors often cited in the literature across approaches to learning as to how to facilitate this learning.}

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The last two lists although coming from different authors with over five years' difference appear to be fairly similar, indicating that the principles and factors cited by each author are probably representative of the current state of knowledge in the field.

These factors and principles of human learning relating to the essential elements of any learning event, that is the learner, the teacher/facilitator, the material/content and the context are mostly derived from studies of children and sometimes of animals (see Knowles, 1978 Chapters 2 and 3). The question arises to know how, if at all, these principles apply to adult learning. In other words how different is andragogy from pedagogy?

Before addressing these questions some clarification of the notion of andragogy and of adult learning may be in order. Andragogy is variously defined as a theory of adult education, a theory of adult learning, a method of adult education, a theory of the technology of adult learning, a technique of adult education, and a set of assumptions about the art of helping adults learn (see Brookfield, 1986, Chapter 5). It appears from the literature on adult learning that both the notion and practice of andragogy involve a whole series of closely associated approaches to learning such as experiential learning (Kolb, 1984), action learning (Revans, 1982), open learning (Jeffries et al, 1990), reflective practice (Argyris & Schön, 1974), non formal and informal education (Coombs, 1985) which constitute whole areas of study in themselves. It would be difficult in the context of this brief discussion to do justice to the complex relationship between andragogy and these approaches to learning which, although mainly concerned with adults are often presented as general principles of human learning. So the question of the specificity of andragogy and its relationship with other fields of study of human learning is a moot question. It will be discussed here with special reference to pedagogy.
The characteristics of adult learners identified by Knowles (1978) and presented earlier were specified to differentiate the andragogic model of learning from the pedagogic model characterised by dependence on the teacher for direction, little importance paid to the learner's experience, readiness to learn largely function of age, subject centred view of learning, and external factors serving as the main motivational force.

But although he started out by opposing the two as evidenced by his first major book in the field, The Modern Practice of Adult Education: Andragogy Versus Pedagogy in 1970, he soon realised the complementarity and relationship between them. He expressed this in the second edition of the book ten years later by modifying the title which became The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From Pedagogy to Andragogy. He admitted that the differentiation between adults and children as learners may not be clear cut. But he insisted that it was necessary to distinguish the assumptions traditionally made about how children learn from those being made about adults. He supported the view that assumptions of andragogy apply to children and youth as they mature and that they, too, will come to be taught more and more andragogically (see Knowles, 1978: 54-55). So this seems to imply, not that the assumptions about adult learning were wrong, but that theories about children learning may have been misconceived in so far as what was assumed to be good adults was seen as good for children as well. So He considered that the pedagogical and andragogical models "are probably most useful when seen not as dichotomous but rather as two ends of a spectrum, with a realistic assumption in a given situation falling in between the two ends" (Knowles, 1980:43 in Brookfield, 1986: 122). This view is supported by Brookfield (op.cit) who considers, that "pedagogy and andragogy are both appropriate, at different times, and for different purposes, with children, adolescents, young adults, the middle aged and the elderly" (Brookfield, op.cit: 121).
This realisation would appear to solve the ambiguity of the term adult learning or adult education which, as pointed out by Jarvis, (1988) could mean the learning or education of adults or the fact of learning or educating in an adult manner. In the last view, adult learning implies changing ideas about how children learn for an improved learning as discussed earlier. This supports Dodds's (1990) reference to adolescents and children in his categories of distance learners. So, as pointed out by Mackie (1981) it may be that "the principles of teaching are common to both adults and children(...), and any differences are a matter of degree rather than kind" (Mackie, 1981:5). But although studies of adult learning tend to focus on formally organised and institutionalised education, a broader view of adult learning is needed which does not restrict it to formally organised centres. Thus adult learning as "a transaction among adults in which experiences are interpreted, skills and knowledge acquired, and actions taken" (Brookfield, 1986:4) and perhaps also as a transaction between adults and children or adolescents with the latter in the role of facilitators may occur in informal settings such as families, community action groups, voluntary societies, support networks, work groups and interpersonal relationships. The overemphasis on formal settings may be due to the synonymy that has been de facto established between adult learning and adult education noted in the definitions given earlier.

The term learning is used in andragogy both as a noun and as a verb. As a noun it is used to refer to the phenomenon of internal change in consciousness, an alteration in the state of the central nervous system externally manifested by some lasting behavioural or attitudinal change. As a verb it refers to the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience.

This process is based on what Pope (1980) after Kelly (1966) calls individuals' personal constructs that is, the way in
which a person structures and articulates his/her experience and anticipates events, the ways in which he/she "develops a set of models of the world through experience, some verbal, and some non verbal, propositions about the world being discovered by further inquiry and in terms of anticipated events" (Pope 1980:71). As described by Kolb (1984), it involves individuals, on the basis of their hereditary equipment and socialisation experience in using, with varying emphases, four kinds of learning abilities to develop personal learning styles. These four learning abilities are: concrete experience which enables learners to engage in new experience without bias; reflective observation whereby they observe and reflect on their experience from many perspectives; abstract conceptualisation which involves learners in creating concepts and categories that integrate their observation into logically sound theories; and active experimentation which enables them to use the theories developed in decision making and problem solving to confirm and validate the theories.

So there is an abstract/concrete axis to learning which enables learners to grasp experience either through a conceptual interpretation and symbolic representation of that experience (comprehension) or through the immediately felt qualities of the experience (apprehension). There is also an active/reflective axis which involves learners in an active manipulation of experience (extension) and internal reflection (intention), all of which lead to the transformation of experience into knowledge. Learners differ in styles according to the learning abilities emphasised in the learning process and the ways in which they resolve the potential conflict between the active/reflective poles and the abstract/concrete poles.

Kolb (op. cit) identifies four basic types of learners according to their learning styles

-The divergent-oriented learners; they rely on apprehension
transformed by intention with emphasis on concrete experience and reflective observation. They are people with imaginative abilities, and the capacity to view concrete situations from many perspectives and to organise disparate elements into meaningful gestalt. They are better at generating alternative ideas, are interested in people and are feeling oriented.

- The assimilation-oriented learners: They rely on comprehension transformed by intention with emphasis on abstract conceptualisation and reflective observation. They are good at inductive reasoning with the ability to create theoretical models. They are more concerned with logically sound theories than the practical values of ideas.

- The convergence-oriented learners: They rely on comprehension transformed by extension with emphasis on abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. They are people with hypothetico-deductive view of knowledge. They are good at problem solving, decision making, and practical application of ideas. They prefer dealing with technical problems involving single correct answers rather than with social and interpersonal issues.

- The accommodation-oriented learners: They rely on apprehension transformed by extension with emphasis on concrete experience and active experimentation. They are good at action, at execution of plans and tasks. They are ready to discard theories and plans if they do not fit, and solve problems by trial and error with heavy reliance on others for information.

In Kolb's opinion, the ultimate goals of education should be, not only to assist learners develop to the full their personal learning style, but mainly to help them attain a fully integrated personality. This assumes the optimal development of and balance between the four learning abilities and styles thanks to which learners will be
empowered to achieve a holistic learning. Such holistic learning is seen as a continuum of adaptive postures, starting from short-term adaptation to immediate circumstances (performance) through longer term mastery of generic classes of situations (learning) to life long adaptation to one's total life situations (development). Such learning is assertive, forward moving and proactive. It moves the individual from undifferentiated emotional reaction to environmental stimuli and embeddedness through "defensiveness, dependence, and reaction to a state of self-actualisation, independence, proaction, and self-direction" (Kolb, op. cit: 140). It ensures a process of growth and development which brings the self from a state of immersion marked by the acquisition stage of development and performance form of adaptation through an increasing differentiation of the self in interaction with the world, marked by the specialisation stage of development and the learning form of adaptation, to an increasingly complex integration of the self in transaction with the world when the individual attains the stage of integration and the development form of adaptation seen as a proactive adaptation.

This attainment of integrative knowledge corresponds to the resolution of the dialectic conflict between value and fact, meaning and relevance, courage and justice, love and wisdom. In the resolution of these conflicts, he says, integrity is the master virtue integrating value and fact, meaning and relevance, as well as the specialised virtues of courage, justice, love and wisdom. Such a fully integrated personality could be achieved only through personal commitment. As he puts it

Only by personal commitment to the here and now of one's life situation, fully accepting one's past and taking choiceful responsibility for one's future, is the dialectic conflict necessary for learning experienced. The dawn of integrity comes with the acceptance of responsibility for the course of one's life. For in taking responsibility for the world, we are given back the power to change it. (Kolb, 1984:230).
The whole point of adult education is to manage the external conditions that facilitate these internal changes and these developmental processes which constitute adult learning.

4-1-1-3 Principles of adult learning and adult education

Since the pioneering work of Lindeman (1926) and Knowles (1970) many attempts have been made to specify conditions and principles of adult learning with implications for adult education program design and the role of the teacher/facilitator. From the reading of the fairly comprehensive review of the literature by Brookfield (1986: Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) the following principles devised by James (1983) on the basis of an extensive research appears to be representative of the main points often cited as characteristic of adult learning:

1- Adults maintain the ability to learn.
2- Adults are a highly diversified group of individuals with widely differing preferences, needs, backgrounds, and skills
3- Adults experience a gradual decline in physical/sensory capabilities
4- Experience of the learner is a major resource in learning situations.
5- Self concept moves from dependency to independency as individuals grow in responsibilities, experience and confidence
6- Adults are motivated to learn by a variety of factors.
7- Active learner participation in the learning process contributes to learning.
8- A comfortable supportive environment is a key to successful learning. (James, 1983: 132 in Brookfield, 1986: 38)

Although these principles recognize the adverse effects of ageing on adults' physical and sensory capabilities in agreement with Agruso's (1978) study of educational gerontology (principle 3) they reaffirm the points made by Knox (1977) that "almost any adult can learn anything they want to, given time, persistence, and assistance" (Knox, 1977: 469 in Brookfield op.cit: 28) (principle 1). They also emphasise and rephrase Knowles's (1978, 1984) assumptions related to adult learners' self-directedness (principle 5), experience (principle 4), orientation to learning (principle
6), needs oriented readiness to learn (principle 2) and motivation to learn (principle 7). The last two principles on the list refer to conditions for effective learning and link principles of adult learning to principles of adult education in terms of effective facilitation of adult learning.

Rogers's (1986) specification of the characteristics of adult learning and their implications for the facilitation of that learning, reproduced below gives more explicit and practical guidelines for adult learning and adult education.

This list does not contradict the one compiled by James. But includes two characteristics not specified on James's list, namely characteristic 1 emphasising the episodic nature of adult learning and characteristic 4 related to lack of interest in general principles. Characteristic 1 might be
interpreted as a corollary of the view that adults have a problem centred approach to learning and learn best when there is an immediate need to be satisfied. As for characteristic 4 Rogers (op. cit) contends that once the specific learning episode is over, the learner brings the process of investigation to an end and "what is stored is the way to cope with the particular situation, not the general principle" (Rogers, op. cit: 71). Although this point seems to confirm, in relation to teacher education, complaints about teachers' alleged lack of interest in theory he does not suggest that one should avoid theory but avoid its imposition on learners and be cautious about how to bring it into the learning episode. Teachers' critical reflection, on practice as well as on underlying theory is encouraged. This is a major point in Brookfield's (1986) view on effective practice of facilitation of adult learning. He identifies six principles: voluntary participation, mutual respect, collaborative spirit, praxis, critical reflection, and self-direction.

The principle of Voluntary participation emphasises that although external circumstances may trigger the need for learning the decision to do so should be made by the learners themselves. So effective facilitation in accordance with this principle excludes coercion and intimidation. Voluntary participation can ensure high motivation on the part of learners. For the efficient application of this principle curricular themes should be grounded in learners' experiences and current preoccupations. Presentation methods should make these themes comprehensible to the learners in terms of their experiences.

The principle of mutual respect states that "effective practice is characterised by a respect among participants for each other's self-worth" (Brookfield: 10). The facilitator should see to it that participants feel that they are valued as separate and unique individuals with no fear of being denigrated or embarrassed. However he points
out that this does not mean that participants should bury fundamental difference. But a setting should be created on the basis of group consensus regarding acceptable behaviour where dissension or criticism is not construed as personal denigration and where adults could feel free to challenge each other and be comfortable with being challenged. This principle brings to the fore the important issue of climate setting which will be discussed later.

The principle of collaborative spirit assumes that in adult education "facilitators and learners are engaged in a cooperative enterprise in which at different times and for different purposes, leadership and facilitation roles will be assumed by different group members". (Brookfield, op.cit: 10). Members of the learning group are seen and treated as equals who meet to explore issues and concerns, and take action on the basis of these explorations. Thus they collaborate in assessing needs, generating objectives, methods and evaluative procedures. It should be noted however that there may be occasions where adults engage in learning with a competitive spirit which may not necessarily be counterproductive. This may be the case, for instance, in many formally assessed courses.

The principle of praxis which he also calls the principle of action and reflection conceives of adult education as a process of "alternating and continuous engagements by teachers and learners in exploration, action, and reflection" (Brookfield, op.cit:15) which enables them to become gradually aware of the socio economic forces and structures responsible for their conditions and experiences in line with the views expressed by Freire (1973, 1985).

For this awareness to occur explorations of new ideas are set in the context of learners' life experiences. So they "become acquainted with skills, apply these in real settings, reflect with other learners on their experiences in these settings, redefine how these skills might be
altered by context, reapply these in other real settings and so on" (Brookfield, op.cit: 17). Such a process assumes an approach to learning based on critical reflection.

The principle of critical reflection views education as the development of a critically aware frame of mind as opposed to the uncritical assimilation of previously defined skills and knowledge. It considers that encouraging learners to be aware of and challenge existing policies, objectives, norms, practices and structures, to view them as relative and context dependent, and to imagine alternatives are essential for effective learning, change and innovation in organisations. This point is central to the work of Argyris & Schön (1974, 1978) Schön (1983, 1987) on reflective practice.

The last principle, that of self-direction goes as follows:

Brookfield's view of self-directedness goes beyond a technical view which emphasises learners' ability to seek out and process information by developing skills such as how to specify goals, identify resources, implement strategies, and evaluate progress. At the heart of self-directedness, he argues, "is the adult's assumption of control over setting educational goals and generating meaningful evaluative criteria. One cannot be a fully self-directed learner if one is applying techniques of independent study within a context of goals and evaluative criteria determined by an external authority" (Brookfield, op.cit: 47). In other words self-directedness supposes the empowerment of adult learners beyond the narrow perspectives of inculcation of self-study techniques. This is instrumental in maintaining their motivation to learn.
4-1-1-4 From theory to practice: against orthodoxy.

From the foregoing discussion it appears that adult education is mainly concerned with the empowerment of the adult learner. If that goal is achieved adult learning takes care of itself. The question arises as to how to achieve this in practice without violating the sacrosanct principles of respect for adults' self-direction, experience and life centred orientation to learning which appear as the overriding principles of adult learning. Before considering this question some observations are needed about the general validity of the principles themselves.

First although these principles have been developed from extensive research one needs to be cautious in taking them as universal. As pointed out by Brookfield (op. cit, Chapters 1 and 3) most of the studies from which they are drawn are based on samples representing mainly West European and North American well educated, white, middle class individuals. Therefore to "assume that the behaviours exhibited by these educationally advantaged adults will be displayed by adults from a range of different class and ethnic backgrounds is, to say the least, highly questionable" (Brookfield: 51).

Secondly a simplistic and purely technical interpretation of these principles with little regard to contextual factors and to what Brookfield (op. cit) calls "second order questions" related to "prescriptive preferences", "moral commitments" and "categorical imperatives" (Brookfield, op. cit: 290) may jeopardize the success of adult education in real life situations. Some elaboration of this point is needed drawing on a critique of some of the principles starting from that of self-directed learning.

Self-directed learning is generally interpreted as the process whereby individual learners take initiative in diagnosing their needs, setting goals, designing learning experiences, locating resources and evaluating learning. It
supposes the autonomy of learners who take responsibility for the curriculum of their learning in terms of their experiences and their needs.

But contrary to the myth underlying self-directed learning that once learners' needs and experiences are acknowledged, and learners are given the freedom and autonomy to direct the learning process learning becomes a joyful release of "latent potential in which the learner is stimulated, exhilarated, and fulfilled" (Brookfield, 1986: 22), it is believed here that at the heart of adult learning lies a process of conflict resolution fraught with anxieties, self-doubts, and challenges. Although adult learners' experiences are rightly seen as rich sources for learning materials and building blocks for new learning, they could constitute a hindrance. Indeed these experiences have forged the adult learners' value frameworks and their personalities with deeply held beliefs, attitudes, and views about learning processes which might need to be unlearnt or challenged for new learning to take place.

This can be a deeply destabilising process during which the learner is constantly and anxiously measuring the new learning against yardsticks such as the acceptability of the new personality which will result from the learning to is/her own view of himself/herself, to the group he/she belongs and to the subculture he/she is a part of. (see More op. cit. Chapter 1). The extent to which a fully self-directed, independent, autonomous learning could successfully come to terms with these conflicts with no external stimuli and support may be very limited. As argued by Brookfield (1986) "we are trapped in our own history in that we cannot logically conceive of alternative frameworks (...). It is hard to imagine an adult's deciding to engage in paradigm shifting, perspective transformation or the replacing of one meaning system with another purely on his or her own volition. What will induce this exploration of alternative perceptions and meanings is some kind of external event or
imperative" (Brookfield, p. cit: 49-50). This he explains could be a calamitous circumstance or another individual "prompting the adult to engage in very painful process of analysing critically his or her state of being and the assumptions underlying that state" (Brookfield, op. cit: 50). In this connection Corrigan (1986) has this to say:

Movement from one state of personal and professional development to the next occurs through cycles of challenge and response, cognitive dissonance, cultural discontinuity, differentiation and integration. It occurs when a person confronts situations for which old ways are not adequate, which require new ways of thinking and acting. The experience may be upsetting and uncomfortable; coping with disequilibrium, learning new skills, assimilating new knowledge, resolving value conflicts does not always happen simply and smoothly. The trick is to achieve that optimal distance between where the student is and what the new situation requires so that the student is challenged, but not bowled over, so that change is possible without providing trauma, entrenchment or flight (Corrigan 19 in Hopkins, 1986:106).

In other words self-directed learning needs to be considered as a transactional dialogue, not only between the learner and the situation but mainly between him/her and a "teacher" who takes on the role of a facilitator. Such a view of self-directed learning gives the facilitator an active role. Limiting facilitation of learning to giving learners what they want on the basis of a felt needs rationale can be an abdication of responsibility. It supports a view of facilitation and facilitators' role which does not leave to the students the exclusive responsibility for defining the curriculum only in terms of their life experiences. It contends that facilitators must develop learners' awareness of the culturally constructed nature of knowledge, beliefs, values and behaviours. In order to achieve this "the facilitator must present alternative interpretations of learners' work lives, personal relationships, and views of the social and political world" (Brookfield, op. cit: 17).

But Brookfield (op. cit) warns against using this as an excuse to try to convert and brainwash learners.
Facilitation is not about reproducing learners in the image of the facilitators and training learners who can demonstrate no capacity for critical reflection. It is an essentially educational process whose objective is to encourage learners to examine the assumptions underlying the acquisition of skills, knowledge and attitudes and place this acquisition in a broader context. It requires both learners and facilitators to recognize that education is value based and to be explicit concerning the values on which their ideas are based, to invite criticisms and analytical scrutiny of these ideas and to be open to revising them as a result of this dialogue. In other words it requires critical reflection in the process of the transaction on the part of all participants.

Such a critical reflection assumes that both learners and facilitators adopt a model of behaviour which Argyris & Schön call a "model II theory-in-use" as contrasted with a model I behaviour based on a manipulation of others and unilateral protection of self. The model II behaviour is characterised among other features by the provision of valid information, free and informed choice, internal commitment to the choice, constant monitoring of its implementation, joint control of tasks, protection of self conceived of as a joint enterprise oriented towards growth and bilateral protection of others. Such a behaviour allows disconfirmable processes, double-loop learning, that is, the acquisition, not only of skills, knowledge and attitudes, but also the understanding and the questioning of their underlying assumptions and principles, and public testing of theories (see Argyris & Schön Chapter 5).

But the facilitators' role goes beyond helping to bring to the learner's awareness alternative views and behaviours. He/she must be present in the student's experience as a potential support. This, as More (1974) puts it "demands that the teacher comes down from his platform, and takes off his gown; it demands that the teacher, as a person, moves
towards his students as persons" (More, 1974: 109). It is also the facilitator's responsibility to create experiences in which the students are able to invest fully, and from which they are fed back information about themselves. In other words the facilitator must "find ways of helping the student recognize feelings, and at the same time to support the student as he attempts to bring them into awareness" (More, op. cit: 106). For this facilitators need the following qualities considered by Tough (1979) as those of "ideal helpers"

- They are warm, loving, caring, and accepting of the learner.
- They have a high regard for the learner's self-planning competencies and do not wish to trespass on these.
- They view themselves as participating in a dialogue between equals with learners.
- They are open to change and new experiences and seek to learn from their helping activities. (Tough, 1979 summarized in Brookfield, 1986: 63).

They must also establish a relationship, create an environment in which students feel that it is safe to be themselves. This climate setting as explained by Knowles (1984) requires attention to the physical environment as well as the psychological atmosphere. All these aspects are taken into account in the following suggestions by Knox (1986) relating to the building of supportive and active adult learning environment:

1- Choose attractive facilities.
2- Help participants get acquainted.
3- Present yourself as a person.
4- Reduce apprehension
5- Encourage active participation
6- Provide an overview
7- Obtain feedback
8- Encourage return
9- Be available
10- review for planning.

(for details see Knox Chapter 7: 132-135)
In the organisation of effective adult learning, the facilitator is jointly responsible with learners for the choice of the most appropriate learning activities.

Knowles & Associates (1986) explore the potentialities of learning contracts focused on individual learners who, on the basis of their personal needs, write learning contracts specifying learning goals, activities, and criteria for judging performance. The contract is negotiated with the facilitator, and executed after agreement and assessed according to the prespecified criteria.

Boud (1989) discusses three series of teaching approaches for the development of autonomy: the individual centred approach, the group centred approach, and the project centred approach (for details see Boud (1989 in Weil & McGill, 1989: Chapter 3).

Knox (1986) offers a whole gamut of activities ranging from those appropriate for individual learners interacting with the facilitator or other resources (coaching, computer assisted instruction, project, tutoring, etc.) and for small groups (discussion, seminars, case analysis, role play simulations, etc.) to those appropriate for large groups (lecture, panel, debate, subgroup discussion, forum) and for organisations or communities (self-study, work team sessions, action learning, field trip, etc.) (for details see Knox, op. cit Chapter 5: 85-95).

In a survey of activities used in experiential learning with strong relevance to adult learning, Henry (1989) identifies 50 learning activities categorised in 5 types: independent learning, personal development, social change, non-traditional learning, prior learning, work experience, learning by doing, problem based learning (for details see Henry in Weil & McGill, 1989: Chapter 2: 29-33).
So far the discussion has shown that self-directed learning should not be interpreted as the hegemony of an isolated individual over learning. It needs to be facilitated in a "transactional encounter in which learner desire and educator priorities will inevitably interact and influence each other" (Brookfield, 1986: 98). This transaction need not be limited to a one to one relationship between an individual learner and the facilitator. It has been shown that adults work best when they are in collaborative groups (see Nottingham Andragogy Group, 1983) But the importance of the group is not limited to to its role as a supportive setting of like minded people helping one another to reach individual goals and objectives.

Although a great deal of the literature on adult learning and its facilitation stresses the supremacy of the individual, of his/her personal experience, needs, growth and development, his/her personal relationship with other individuals, on his/her autonomy in the Rogerian tradition of client centred therapy and counselling, the view is shared here with Brah & Hoy (1989) that by overconcentrating on the individual's unique experience one runs the risk of reducing the elicitation of that experience to a mere learning technique, confusing learning from experience with "experiential learning" and at best to an exercise in psychotherapy. It is believed that individual experience is not "independent of the power relations in society. Instead, individuals are enabled to make sense of their personal stories by making links between autobiography, group history and social and political processes" (Brah & Hoy, 1989: 73). Facilitating adult learning in this sense is a contribution to the process, not only of individual people's growth, but to a broader process of social change as discussed more fully in Chapter 7 of the present study.

Apart from the risks of a simplistic interpretation of learners' autonomy and self-directedness there is also a need to take account of other socio-cultural constraints in
the application of adult learning principles in real life situations.

It has been shown in the foregoing discussion that there are wide ranging differences among adult learners in terms of the extent to which they manifest the general characteristics identified as typical of adult learners and in learning styles. So it needs to be acknowledged that self-directed learning might not be the preferred mode of learning for all adults. In addition, although they might be willing to develop that mode in the context of the promotion of an integrated personality, as discussed earlier, facilitators need to take account of the fact that the particular group of adults he/she is dealing with may be composed of individuals at different levels of readiness for self-directed learning. This is perhaps particularly true for societies, such as the Beninese society in which the present study is set, where formal education is predominantly of the transmission mode with the teacher seen as an authority figure who knows it all and knows what is best for the learners, and where socio-cultural norms may not conform to the Western democratic assumptions underlying the model of adult learning being discussed here. In such contexts, teachers may not easily take on facilitators' roles and may need some education for that purpose. Learners' expectations may also be seriously frustrated by a free-wheeling, democratic equal power sharing approach to adult education.

There are also a number of contextual variables which may lead to considerable alterations of those principles to fit the concrete situation at hand. Sometimes they might force participants to relapse into traditional didactic transmission mode of learning as pointed out by Brookfield (1986) on the basis of his own experience,
Institutional timetables standardised curricula and unofficial norms of "what works in the real world" all conspire to nudge the educator into more didactic, authoritarian attitudes and behaviours than he or she might wish. The conspiracy of contextual constraints become all the more compelling when learners repeatedly declare that they want facilitators to "put more of themselves" into the learning encounter. (Brookfield, op.cit:296).

Having pointed out the limits of the theories behind approaches to adult learning and the contextual constraints which might distort them in practice, it needs to be reaffirmed that adult educators and adult learners do need a theoretical orientation to guide their practice. Theoretical orientations, as explained by Corrigan, Haberman & Howey (1979), "provide a rationale for explaining the assumptions being made" (quoted in Hopkins, 1986: 116).

So the criticisms raised against the assumptions and concepts discussed did not aim to say "It's all irrelevant to Benin, don't apply at all" but to say "It's context dependent, apply with caution and sensitivity to context". Indeed, principles such as experiential learning, problem centred motivation to learn, and to a large extent self-directedness appeared consistent in the present writer's opinion with the apprenticeship model and trial and error nature of traditional education in Beninese society. Much could be learnt therefore from the present discussion how Western writers on adult education approach the complex issue of adult learning. It will help to develop a rationale for the INSET project which is the main thrust of the present study and will inspire the way in which the question of the integration of theory and practice in teacher education with special reference to the present project can be approached.

4-1-2 The integration of theory and practice
Brumfit (1983) in a seminal paper on the integration of theory and practice points out that it is a perennial complaint of trainee teachers that their courses are too theoretical. They, he adds,

often feel the need for instant panaceas, right rules of thumb, clear statements of practice, and absolute generalisations, when they are preparing for a world of constantly fluctuating personal relationships, renegotiated behaviour patterns and expectations for education which will be constantly responding to new demands from society and government. (Brumfit, 1983: 60)

One would think that this shifting nature of the terrain of teaching requires theory understood as underlying descriptive and explanatory categories that go beyond appearances to the abstractions which help us make sense of diverse, specific instances of practice; as schematic knowledge that makes private experiences publicly accessible and enables us to probe the familiar and accommodate the new. It has been argued (Richards, 1987; Kemmis, 1983; Hoyle, 1974) that one of the criteria by which an occupation is upgraded to the status of profession is its knowledge base. So the development and awareness of knowledge about teaching by practitioners, no matter how incomplete, and contradictory, are clear requisites for increased professionalism in teaching. However, the proliferation of particular language and language teaching/learning theories and methods more or less directly imposed on teachers, have led to the latter's resistance to theory. But as Widdowson (1989) argues,

\[\text{it is precisely when particular theories proliferate that the need for theory in general becomes most urgent, but theory as a set of bearings by reference to which practical decisions can be made, theory which activates enquiry into what is appropriate for particular aspects of language, for particular learners in particular situations. (Widdowson, 1989:21)}\]

Having thus pointed to the need for theory, the question arises as to how to integrate it into practice. Widdowson, 1987, 1990) proposes the concept of pragmatic approach to teaching, defined as the pedagogic mediation between
understanding and action by the referring of techniques to principle and the realizing of principle as technique (Widdowson, 1987: 4). It involves a perpetual dialectical process between theory and practice whereby principles inform techniques which in turn lead to a reappraisal of principles. In other words it is "the working out of a reflexive, interdependent relationship between theory and practice, between abstract ideas and their actualisation in the achievement of practical outcome". (Widdowson, 1990: 30) through a model of mediation involving both teachers and applied linguists in a process of conceptual and empirical evaluation as represented below.

![Diagram: Teaching as a pragmatic activity]

figure 44: a model of pedagogic mediation (after Widdowson, 1990)
As can be seen in the figure, conceptual evaluation is a process of appraisal of theory by interpretation, i.e., the proper understanding of ideas in their own terms, and evaluation which helps to establish the transfer value of those ideas. This leads to the working out of a set of valid principles relevant to the domain and context of application. Two strategies are generally used in this process: assimilation whereby new ideas are fitted into existing schemata and adjusted so as to make them conform to conventional, familiar categories; and accommodation whereby existing schemata, conventional categories and existing modes of thinking are altered to accommodate new ideas and allow for change in concepts and attitudes.

Empirical evaluation is concerned with practice and teaching experience. It is a process of application of the ideas previously appraised involving the devising of effective techniques specific to particular circumstances which are put into operation. Another process of evaluation is engaged to monitor the consequences of the operation so as to establish the practical effects of the ideas as operationally realized. This may lead to a reappraisal of the ideas or their retention if they stand the test of practice. As pointed out by Freeman (1989) in relation to the role of the trainer as collaborator in teacher change "change does not necessarily mean doing something differently. It can mean a change in awareness. Change can be an affirmation of current practice. The collaborator is able to trigger a change in the teacher awareness so that it [the effective practice] is recognized and thus affirmed" (Freeman, 1989: 38)

Of conceptual evaluation he shows how most of the time it is assimilation rather than accommodation which dominates the appraisal of new ideas in language teaching. He does this through a powerful argumentation which submits most of the
fundamental issues in language and language teaching to his own conceptual evaluation, drawing a parallel between conceptions of language and corresponding approaches to language pedagogy. He starts from Chomsky's distinction between internalised language (I-language) and Externalized language (E-language) (Widdowson 1989: 17).

The I-Language corresponds to a semantic approach to language with emphasis on the self-contained meanings of linguistic forms, described with categories and concepts such as types and symbols. It leads to what he calls systemic knowledge and a medium conception of pedagogy imparting the systemic knowledge through text control, exercise for practice and hinged on syllabus, particularly structural oral and situational syllabus (S.O.S) (Prabhu, 1987).

The E-language corresponds to a pragmatic approach to language teaching linguistic forms as resources whose meaning potential can only be realized in terms of given interactional procedures and contextual conditions. It leads to what he calls schematic knowledge and a mediation conception of pedagogy, negotiating meaningful interactions through task control, for problem solving using a communicative syllabus generally but hinged on methodology.

Dissatisfaction with the former has stimulated interest in the latter and has led to the current movement of communicative teaching. But Widdowson (1990) argues that because interpretation in language pedagogy has been characterised by assimilation rather than accommodation the whole conceptual evaluation of communicative competence has meant very little more than the replacement of grammatical items by functional items and a confusion between means and ends, essential conditions and enabling conditions, usage
and use, competence and performance, accumulation and
investment, purpose and process.

There is then a need for reappraisal of communicative
language teaching both as conceptualised in theory and as
operationalised in learning materials and classrooms, which
brings us back to the relation between theory and practice.
Two issues need to be addressed, namely the question of the
traditional division of labour between language teachers as
practitioners and applied linguists as researchers, and the
question of which theory and whose theory.

As could be seen on the figure above the model of mediation
proposed by Widdowson gives the teacher a major role in the
mediation process. He/she is the one who establishes the
relevance of ideas and theories through their
operationalization in the classroom and their empirical
evaluation. The applied linguist is said to have a
subordinate and supporting role. "What they have to say in
way of appraisal, has no effective force unless it is
incorporated into the mediation process enacted by teachers
and under their control" (Widdowson, op. cit: 33). But
although the role of teachers and applied linguists may
exist in different degrees of convergence there is a
relatively clear distinction of labour between them in
principle: Appraisal is seen to be principally the activity
of applied linguists and application the main activity of
language teachers.

When this view was visually represented at a research
seminar by the present writer, Widdowson objected that it
was the relationship between the roles that was crucial,
which explains the design of the above figure to represent
this relationship and the continuous nature of the process
by the open ended circle reinforcing the chain of
interactions hinged on the teacher in a process of
reappraisal. In other words although the applied linguist does not have a full time commitment to the classroom, and the teacher little opportunity to seek insight from 'informing disciplines', there is some overlap with the teacher being more involved in the appraisal process at least in its evaluation aspect than is traditionally the case. However the model and subsequent explanations suggest that it is definitely the role of applied linguists to "identify ideas of likely relevance and to present arguments and evidence for validity in an accessible way. Their business is to propound ideas in such a way that their claimed transfer value is made explicit for the consideration and possible operationalization by the teacher". (Widdowson, op. cit: 33). In other words ideas and theories come from applied linguistics.

But he agrees with Brumfit (1983) that the starting point of these ideas and theories considered, not as specific schools of thought in language and language learning studies, but as a general theoretical perspective on pedagogy is in the problems of classroom practice and the teacher is the ultimate arbiter of relevance. This view is perhaps a step in the right direction compared with views such as those of Krashen, whom he says, takes theory to be particular theories of language and language learning or rather of language acquisition to be directly applied in a process of making practice conform to a particular conceptual pattern, somewhat like Procrustes cutting people's feet to fit his bed, a position which will be more thoroughly discussed in the coming chapter on paradigms of research.

The problem remains however that practitioners' capacity to generate theory in the process of their practice in addition to the empirical evaluation of other people's theories is dangerously understressed in the Widdowsonian model.
Indeed he seems to have strong reservations about teacher initiation of ideas, at least as advocated by proponents of what he calls 'inside research', calling, as he put it, for "the free ranging exploitation of what goes on in the classroom without the constraints of any preconceived theory" (op. cit: p 59). Such a view, he says, "would, of course, be in conflict with the model I am proposing here, which involves the teacher in an experimental application of ideas" (op. cit: p 59).

He goes on to launch an attack on some interpretations of action research which, he says, advocate the formation of groups of teachers to generate their own ideas without reference to theory and research of a more rigorous and academic character:

"Be your own expert" is sometimes the cry and the do it yourself attitude extends to educational thinking. This, it seems to me is symptomatic of a very dangerous anti-intellectual trend in the profession... The academic disciplines of linguistics, psychology, sociology and education provide the essential bearings for the professional teacher both in the ideas they generate and in the processes of enquiry, and it is the task of applied linguistics to make the insights these disciplines offer accessible for appraisal and application (Widdowson, op. cit: 61)

The only quarrel he has with the traditional conception of the relationship between theory and practice is his call for the independent appraisal of ideas and of the theory which advocates them as a precondition for their implementation because through this process they will be more clearly understood and more systematically carried out. The conventional view requires teachers to implement second order realisations of new ideas in the form of teaching materials used as prescriptions and not as illustrations, rather than helping them to consider the ideas themselves and how they key in with their own experience of teaching. In other words theory determines practice instead of supporting it.
This position is in line with his distinction between applied linguistics and what he calls 'linguistics applied' (Widdowson, 1984). The latter implies a conformist application of a given theory in teacher education and in teaching while the other involves an appraisal of theory to generate more relevant principles and ideas that teacher may consider for operationalization in the classroom context.

So, in its essence, Widdowson's views remain orientated towards theory verification with a relative undervaluing of theory generation as advocated by Glasser & Strauss (1976). In their essence they remain grounded in the ideology of rationalism. They appear as variants of this ideology which, in Elliot's (1979) terms, assumes that "intelligent practice is derived from a theoretical knowledge of propositions about practice, which can be understood a priori to and quite independently of the study of the concrete activities it is claimed to apply to." (Elliot, 1979 in Hopkins, 1986: 138). Besides, Elliot (op. cit) continues, it endorses the view that all theories which apply to education can be differentiated in terms of the formal disciplines of knowledge such as sociology or psychology. One could easily see the echo of the view in the accounts of Widdowson's conceptions given in this section.

Indeed the pragmatics of pedagogy seems to understress the fact that theories, principles and rules and their understanding derive from the analysis of practice in the first place. They represent syntheses, abstractions and abridgements of practical knowledge. Practical knowledge, it is argued, springs from being inside of a tradition, from what has been called the idiom of the activity. As pointed out by Elliot, "the initiator's acts spring from his unspecifiable sense of the 'coherence' of the concrete activity he is engaged in" (op. cit: 140). Therefore intelligent practice like teaching or evaluation or
curriculum development cannot directly spring from a knowledge of the theoretical principles about practice which generally break the practice down into its constitutive parts. It derives from what Schön (1987) calls 'professional artistry, that is the competence by which practitioners actually handle "unique, uncertain and conflicted situations of practice" (Schön, 1987:22). Such a competence does not depend on practitioners' ability to spell out the inherent knowledge underlying it. It derives from what Polanyi (1959) calls "tacit knowledge" or knowing in action in Schön's terms, that is the sorts of know-how we reveal in our intelligent action by our spontaneous, skilful execution of the performance and which we are characteristically unable to make verbally explicit (see Schön op.cit:25).

Moreover, drawing on his experience in the Ford Teaching Project and on Polanyi's (1958) distinction between a subsidiary attention and a focal attention, he shows that conscious application of rules and principles in the process of action is deskilling because it brings into focal attention the theoretical knowledge about the constitutive elements of the activity, which should remain in subsidiary attention to allow the focal attention to be on the main purpose of the activity itself. Indeed the sum total of our theoretical knowledge about these elements can never constitute the meaning of the complex activity of which they are parts. So, he concludes, using the example of 'questioning', "if skills in the activity of questioning is to be improved then the teachers must at some point cease to focus their attention on eliminating faulty techniques and incorporating others into their repertoire of behaviours and integrate the new techniques into some meaningful pattern of questioning" (op.cit: 143). It may be assumed, although he does not make it clear, that this could be achieved through sustained practice since it is argued that for theoretical knowledge to be effective in improving practice some prior
practical knowledge is necessary (see also Elliot, 1981 in Chambers (ed) 1982: 23-46).

The unanswered question in Elliot's view of how teachers learn is how the analysis of the concrete activity on which understanding of theory depends is to be accomplished without some theoretical bearings in the form of categories or some sort of metalanguage to describe what is observed. These categories and metalanguage might have been elaborated originally from an intuitive and tentative vision and classification of the world as experienced in practice but which need not be reinvented each time a similar practice occurs unless they are shown to be unsatisfactory. It is believed here that, although practice is prior to knowledge, given the dialectical unity between them and the mutual shaping and improving process going on between them, caution needs to be exercised in 'going practical' against theory.

In this regard the apparent dichotomy between theory and practice, between reflection and action or rather between focal awareness of theory in the process of action and effective intelligent practice needs a conceptual evaluation as advocated by Widdowson (op.cit) to avoid a narrow interpretation of Elliot's "deskilling" theory. Indeed although there is some truth in the view that reflection in action can paralyze action and many might prefer to reflect on action post facto, it is rightly argued that such a view depends largely on a misconception of the relationship between thought and action. Indeed Schön shows that although there are times when it is dangerous to stop and think such as when one is on a firing line or in the midst of traffic, not all practice situation are of this sort.

"The 'action present' that is the period of time in which we remain in the same situation varies greatly from case to case,
and in many cases there is time to think what we are doing” (Schön, 1983: 278)

It is believed here that the implementation of a new curriculum is of the latter sort, as it extends over weeks, months and even years. In addition it should be recalled as explained by Ryle (1949 in Schön, 1987) that "thinking what I am doing does not necessarily mean both thinking what to do and doing it. When I do something intelligently I am doing one thing and not two" (Ryle, 1949: 32 in Schön, 1987: 22)

So what has to be more clearly asserted and operationalised in teacher education programmes than is evident in the Widdowsonian model of teacher education is the elimination of the wall between practitioners and theoreticians and the recognition of the invaluable contribution of the former to theory as makers of knowledge. As advocated by Elliot (1990) teachers should, not only take responsibility for realising a pedagogical theory in practice, but also for generating such a theory from practice" (Elliot, 1990: 11).

In this connection it has been pointed out in a recent article by Julian Edge (1989) that there may be a risk that this distinction which places the applied linguist between linguistics and the teacher may alienate the latter from linguistics altogether. Instead it has been suggested:

we can work towards a situation in which the data and the experience, the ideas and the working hypotheses of language teachers will play a fuller part in the development of a branch of linguistic theory; a branch, not an application (Edge, 1989: 409)

Such a relationship between Linguistics and language teaching would be based on a two-way communication and would pave the way for what Dilthey calls the hermeneutic circle, i.e. "the unending movement back and forth between
intellectual understanding and the lived data of experience which can lead to the development of theory in human studies" (Edge, op. cit: 409). Although there may be some practical problems in the full application of this suggestion it seems essentially more empowering than Widdowson's pragmatics of pedagogy which falls short of fully acknowledging teachers' own contributions of ideas to theory.

In spite of its limitations the pragmatics of pedagogy provides a rationale for teacher education, which is unmistakably educational in approach as summarized below.

I am proposing that language teaching is an essentially pragmatic activity in the sense that it presupposes an authority to intervene in the affair of learners, this authority being based on the ability to mediate between theory and practice so that understanding is recycled as action and action leads to further understanding. Conceived of in this way, teaching yields immediate returns by way of learner progress and also provides a continuing investment in professional development. Teacher education is concerned with the encouragement and guidance of this kind of pragmatic operation (Widdowson, 1987: 5).

Teacher education in this view encourages professional self appraisal, as a corollary of practical teaching. It suggests methodologies and approaches to their implementation in materials so that they can be critically examined and the principles informing them made clear. It provides guidance to teachers on how to devise procedural techniques for applying these principles, for making them immediate and accountable in the actuality of practical teaching.

The present study supports the pragmatics of teacher education as an essential aspect of teacher empowerment. In a situation where teachers have not had a fully satisfactory initial training including an aspect of awareness training in the process of teacher as researcher, as is the case in Benin and probably in most developing countries, it may be a
necessary preparation for teacher initiated enquiry and generation of action theory. However the job would be only half done if we do not move from the pragmatics of teacher education to the praxis of teacher education which gives initiative to teachers who might or might not want to use the guidance provided and the theory proposed as the only starting point for his/her investigation.

Indeed the praxis of teacher education, as understood here is a process of facilitation, not only of problem solving but of problem setting and generation of ideas on the basis of reflective teaching. It is a dialectical relationship between production and consumption of theoretical ideas in the process of informed practice. It encourages critical thinking which is not only thinking about ideas and their realization in practice, but thinking about practice itself, and developing insights from the reflection which will help point to the direction of new ideas contributing to theory in the line suggested by Edge's view of teachers' theoretical contribution to linguistics. It assumes that practice is pregnant with theory, not only because it is informed by theory, but also because it produces theory by changing the framework of tradition and expectations within which the practical action is carried out, by reconstructing the socio-historical setting of its operation.

It is an approach to teacher education which goes beyond a technical and practical view of education. It takes a strategic view of the whole educational process (see Carr and Kemmis 1986) and of teacher education in particular whereby thought and action are mutually constitutive through a process of reflection, enlightenment and political struggle for emancipation. It encourages, not only an informed action, but also a committed action guided by the wise and prudent practical judgement of actors taking account of the socio-political constraints as well as of
values and factors influencing their perceptions of those constraints in their concrete, particular, historical context. This approach assumes that in the present developing world where education, pupils, students, and teachers are in the forefront of the struggle for national self-determination, freedom, democracy and development, and are the first victims of the repressive actions of the defenders of the status quo, where a demand to learn English and be educated through English may and has been met with bullets, teaching and teacher education is a highly political act. So the praxis of teacher education does not only aim to ensure effective teaching within existing terms of reference but to enable practitioners to transform themselves in the process of transforming their situation.

In sum this approach adopts the pragmatics of teacher education as a necessary component but differs from it in this that it does not merely stimulate informed action for effective teaching but it also instigates committed action for liberated teaching. It is an approach which liberates the teacher through practical action research and builds on it to develop his/her full professionalism through emancipatory action research as will be discussed in more detail in the second part of this study concerned with paradigms of research.

4-2 The practice of EFL in-service training

4-2-1 The language teacher education curriculum with special reference to INSET in Africa

4-2-1-1 Objectives

The selection of objectives and content of teacher training programmes as, pointed out by Dove (1986) with reference to teacher education in developing countries generally depends
on the policy goals and aims of the educational system concerned, the characteristics and needs of the trainee, the roles expected of the teachers and the findings of evaluation and research.

But although goals and aims differ, with reference to Africa some general features have been observed in the goals of most in-service training programmes. Indeed in two surveys, conducted with almost fifteen years of distance from each other (Trevaskis, 1969; Greenland, 1983) it appeared that implementation of curriculum change was the most often stated objective of INSET activities in most 'English speaking' African countries, and it is suggested, in most other African countries. This confirms Greenland's observation mainly concerned with primary teacher education but relevant here, as evidenced by Trevaskis's earlier survey embracing both primary and secondary teacher training, that

If we consider INSET curriculum activities as a category on its own, the balance of concern is tipped strongly towards the curriculum and its implementation rather than towards the teacher and his/her educational and professional development (Greenland 1983:95)

It is, however, to be observed that the personal education purpose is subsumed under the heading of upgrading professional qualification as shown in the full list of objectives below. The main purpose of these upgrading programmes was indeed to raise the general education of teachers to enable them to teach specialist subjects or to teach at a higher level in the system, from primary to secondary teaching or teaching in teacher training college.

The full list of objectives as presented by Trevaskis and later confirmed in its content by Greenland in a slightly different format was as follows:
- pre-service training, i.e. initial training in the
terminology used in this study
- upgrading professional qualification
- implementing curriculum change
- developing and evaluating curriculum materials
- developing professional skills
- improving administration and supervision
- orienting participants to new responsibilities.

It could be observed that these objectives covered the whole range of purposes of INSET as discussed earlier (see section 4-1-2-2-3 page 130-133). It should however be pointed out that the last objective concerns teachers appointed to administrative posts with no prior management education and for whom special seminars are generally organised a month or so before official dates for resuming school, which is beyond the scope of this study.

4-2-1-2 Content

4-2-1-2-1 Sources

It is a perennial complaint in the literature on language teaching, language teacher education and their evaluations that in spite of decades of research "we have not exactly opened up an easy avenue to a scientifically well founded pedagogy" (Stern, 1983: 349). We know very few generalizable principles of language teaching and language learning from which we can infer the various skills and competences teachers need to perform the different tasks required from the various aspects of their roles for use in determining the content of training programmes and evaluation checklists. The few generalizations that have been drawn from second language research for example tells us little about what to teach and what it tells about how to teach is rather concerned with how not to teach.
In this connection Lightbown's (1985) ten generalizations from second language acquisition research in an article significantly titled "Great expectations: Second Language Acquisition Research and Classroom Teaching" are worth recalling here:

1- Adults and adolescents can 'acquire' a second language.
2- The learner creates a systematic interlanguage which is often characterised by the same systematic errors as the child learning the same language as the first language, as well as others which appear to be based on the learners' own native language.
3- There are predictable sequences in acquisition such that certain structures have to be acquired before others can be integrated.
4- Practice does not make perfect.
5- Knowing a language rule does not mean one will be able to use it in communicative interaction.
6- Isolated explicit error correction is usually ineffective in changing language behaviour.
7- For most adult learners, acquisition stops - 'fossilizes' - before the learner has achieved native-like mastery of the target language.
8- One cannot achieve native-like (or near native-like) command of a second language in one hour a day.
9- The learner's task is enormous because language is enormously complex.
10- A learner's ability to understand language in a meaningful context exceeds his/her ability to comprehend decontextualized language and to produce language of comparable complexity and accuracy (for details see Lightbown, 1985: 176-180).

This list is congruent with Ellis's (1985) summary of the subject. It confirms the view that "language acquisition research can offer no formula, no recipes" (Lightbown, op. cit: 183). It should be noted nevertheless
that language acquisition research has, on the one hand
brought some explanatory support of great importance to
communicative language teaching. On the other hand it can
give teachers appropriate expectations for themselves and
their learners. In this regard it makes an invaluable
contribution to teacher education as opposed to teacher
training, which justifies its place in teacher preparation
and improvement programmes.

Another source for the content of language teacher education
is language pedagogy. We are no better off with research in
language pedagogy than in language acquisition since it has
been shown that given individual differences in learners'
strategies and styles a set of pedagogical principles proved
effective by research, say, those of direct teaching as
identified by Rosenshine (1971) for example, may put as many
as half the class at a disadvantage. The problem is
compounded by diverging and sometimes conflicting
conceptions and expectations of good teaching and of
teachers' roles, in different socio-cultural environments,
at different times and even by different pressure groups and
philosophies within the same society at a given moment in
its evolution. This goes without mentioning the necessary
differences in content resulting from different purposes
and different characteristics of trainees.

In spite of these uncertainties and conflicting views, or
rather because of them there is a plethora of blueprints and
guidelines for teacher training programmes according to
different perceptions of what teachers need to know, do or
even be in order to offer good teaching and good language
teaching in particular.

4-2-1-2-2 Blueprints and guidelines

4-2-1-2-2-1 Some examples à la carte
Some advocate "modest proposals" based on systematic task analysis and development and prescription of performance criteria in general areas of teachers' roles such as "content knowledge" "behavioural skills" and what has been called 'personological skills" (see Allen 1971). Others like Thelen (1971), Fisher (1971), suggest" immodest proposals" covering up to fourteen broad areas of knowledge, attitudes and skills considered as necessary to a conception of a fully functioning professional teacher. These include first rate general and liberal education, comparable to that of those entering high status occupations; competing psychological theories of human development and learning, educational philosophy, educational research, methodology, subject area curriculum, understanding of the ideals of democracy, cultural awareness and the relationship between the classroom as a microcosm, i.e a miniature model of society and the macrocosm, i.e. the larger society and particularly of the educative microsociety.


For illustration purposes we may recall Alatis's (1974) LAPSE acronym (=Linguistics, Anthropology, Psychology, Socio-linguistics and English education), but Strevens's (1974) "scheme for training teachers towards the ideal"
needs some elaboration. He identifies four main elements in most teacher training courses namely *selection*, both initially for acceptance as trainee, and terminally, for acceptance as a teacher; *continuing personal education*; *general professional training* as an educator and teacher and *special training* as a teacher of a foreign or second language.

Special training, particularly relevant here, comprises: the *skills component* addressing topics such as command of the language to be taught, teaching techniques and classroom activities, the management of learning and including practical training; the *information component* concerned with information about education, about the syllabus and materials, about language; the *theory component* which connects the language teaching profession with "rigorous theoretical studies in several disciplines, notably in linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, social theory, education."

In 1982, at the Dunford Conference Strevens elaborated his vision of teacher training and gave it the following "mathematical formulation:

\[
\text{SEL} \quad \text{PR} \quad \text{EVAL} \quad \text{Acc?} \quad \text{EXP} \\
\text{G} \quad \text{S} \quad \text{TH} \\
\text{F} \quad \text{EXP} \\
\text{X} \quad \text{X} \\
\]

It embraces the training process from the first experiences (EXP) before selection (SEL) for initial training (I) done through a mixture (X) of general (G) and specialised (S) training with varying emphases (X) on practical (PR) and theoretical (TH) training followed in some cases by a period of apprenticeship (APPR) and evaluated (EVAL) through written assessment and practical teaching. It extends to
experience as a qualified teacher (EXP) and optional further in-service training (F) and continued experience (EXP) of teaching after this further training. This formulation is probably an agenda for life long teacher education.

Finochiaro (1983) also suggests, under the acronym COMET six areas of a language teacher training programme which will allow the trained teacher to cope with the universal human needs and the needs and goals of education in society as well as the specific tasks of lessons which determine the language learning classroom as she sees it. They are: curriculum, realistic objectives, methods and materials, evaluation, teaching strategies and the teacher with his/her attributes and attitudes.

4-2-1-2-2-2 A Framework for systematic discussion of content selection

One could go on citing examples but it might be more productive to follow Candlin's (1983) fundamental questions which determine the curriculum for language teaching in a more systematic and structured way: 1- What is to be learned? 2- How is the learning to be undertaken and achieved? 3- to what extent is the former appropriate and the latter effective? These questions directly and respectively address the issues of content, method and evaluation. In order to deal with them systematically in the designing of the curriculum one can follow a detailed checklist similar to the one suggested by Dove (op. cit :257-259). But for the purpose of this more general discussion of the issue with reference to language teaching, Stern's (1983) model of language teacher education which indicates the various factors to be considered in order to identify what he calls the 'universals' of language teacher training may be more helpful:
Fig 15 Factors in language teacher education from Stern in Alatis 1983:347

He argues that the careful consideration of cells 1, 2 and 3 is essential to an effective identification of the content of cell 4. The base of the model, language teaching theory, is basic for all decisions and judgements to be made in language teacher education (LTE). Language teaching theory, he says,

comprises the more or less systematic body of knowledge, beliefs and interpretations that enter into making decisions and judgements about language teaching. Language teaching theory ... implies a view of the nature of language, a concept of language learning, an awareness of social context, an interpretation of teaching in general, and a view of language pedagogy. Theory is not to be understood as fixed or final, but as a constantly evolving body of thought, concepts, beliefs, values, and knowledge. (Stern in Alatis et al, 1983:349)

It is interesting to note that although this interpretation of theory leans more towards Krashen's view of theory as a specific body of constructs related to a particular aspect of language and language acquisition than towards
Widdowson's view of theory as a general theoretical perspective, it embraces and extends to awareness of social context the three components of Candlin and Widdowson's scheme of teacher education, that is: *language knowledge*, concerned with explicit knowledge of aspects of language such as grammar and discourse; *modes of behaviour*, concerned with language skills such as reading and speaking and *modes of action* concerned with methodology issues such as classroom interaction, roles of teachers and learners, syllabus design.

Stern's advocacy for language teaching theory, which acknowledges the contribution of linguistics and other human sciences could be considered as a less radical suggestion than a proposal by Jarvis (1983) which calls for the need for a pedagogical knowledge, as the corner stone of effective teacher education and of teachers' knowledge. Teacher knowledge also includes general knowledge and language proficiency. He uses the term in Smith's (1980) sense as "those concepts and principles which guide and illuminate practice and those which provide the overall intellectual context within which policies and decisions are made" in (for us) second language education." (Jarvis in Alatis et al, 1983: 235).

For him we have for too long "turned to research in linguistics, psychology, and generic education and we have attempted to transplant that knowledge into our specific subfield of second language education" (Jarvis, op.cit: 237). He criticizes' applied linguistics' understood as the direct application of research and knowledge from these areas to teaching learning process. He contends that it is high time we recognized the unique properties and characteristics of second language learning and teaching, that "only knowledge specifically about second language situation can guide a teacher in designing and implementing
instruction", that knowledge from other disciplines must be relegated to the role of helping us to generate hypotheses that we must then test in our own field" (Jarvis, op.cit:237). He maintains therefore that 'our' knowledge must come from our own research and we must therefore stop seeing ourselves as 'beggar academics' looking for a knowledge hand out. He consequently recommends that language teacher education institutions should have a language education specialist, reduce general education requirement to a single course dealing with schooling in society, replace other general courses in educational psychology, general methods, philosophy of education with language education specific courses. Even there, content knowledge should be reduced by approximately 10% in favour of language knowledge and proficiency.

4-2-1-2-2-3 A special place for Language improvement

This emphasis on language education specific courses is in line with Coste's (1983) suggestion that a distinct place should be given to language learning as a component on its own in language teacher education, separate from academic knowledge and professional preparation, especially in situations where the foreign language teacher-to-be will not teach his or her native language, but a language initially foreign to him or her and which he/she has to continue studying during his training. Such an emphasis on language knowledge will help teachers develop their interaction skills which he says is a very determinant factor in the educational process and should be given more attention than they have received so far.

This is needed, he says, because "in so far as language teachers will exert their roles through various interactions with learners, the interactions they themselves must engage
in, during their first formation and notably in the language they will teach are of no small importance" (Coste in Alatis et al, op.cit: 117).

This claim has been empirically validated by Berry's (1990) research in Poland which found that teachers ranked language improvement as the most needed component of their in-service training coming even before methodology. This confirmed the general observation that foreign language teachers feel a real need for in-service improvement to their language proficiency "wherever they do not have extensive access to the target language culture and native speakers" (Berry, op.cit: 98). If sufficient account is not taken of these feelings serious misunderstandings may arise in the interpretation of the objectives of in-service training between providers and beneficiaries especially when the former are native expatriate specialists (see Malay, in Valdes, 1986, in Berry 1990).

These arguments for a special place for language education and language proficiency on the language teacher education curriculum are even more strongly made by Freudenstein (1983) with special reference to communicative teaching when he suggests that the language command of the teacher should be given absolute priority. He then goes on and proposes:

Taking theory out of the curriculum and putting in language practice instead seems to be an appropriate way to provide language teachers equipped for the communicative tasks of today's curriculum objectives. In other words: teachers who know their language for language teaching purposes only will hardly succeed in teaching this language for the purpose of communication outside the classroom. (Freudenstein in Alatis, op.cit: 191)

He grounds these suggestions on the observation that "language instruction is in many cases successfully conducted by persons who have not had any professional training as language teachers at all" (op.cit: 188). This
observation, he reports, was given full recognition at a symposium in Switzerland in 1979 on the teaching of foreign languages to young children. On the basis of this acknowledgement the conference recommended: "Any person whose individual profile includes the elements of love, language and teaching can be considered qualified...regardless of age, sex or previous training" (Pinthon, 1979: 74). The statement continued to point out that on these grounds a wide range of people were qualified language teachers: from a dedicated housewife and mother to the professionally trained teachers.

In a general survey of aspects of foreign language teacher training commissioned by UNESCO and completed in 1987 the same author, commenting on differences in course durations reports the results of a survey on language teaching in industry and commerce, which, in vindication of the view that one need not be professionally trained before doing good language teaching, found that the following qualification criteria had equal status when teachers were being recruited:

1- foreign language teaching diploma
2- any proof of language teaching ability, of experience in adult education, of general knowledge and the like
3- native speaker (in J. Queertz, A. Raash (eds) in Freudenstein 1987:13)

So some would like to narrow down the first cell of Stern's model concerned with language teaching theory to target language command for more effective communication and interaction on the part of the trainees. It is assumed in this study that although a development of non-native teachers' command of English should be one of the main concerns of a teacher training programme, there is more to teaching than can be provided by mere near native proficiency and 'love'. As put by Stern we expect more from our physicians than comforting bedside manners. It might be
even argued along with Medgyes (1983) that overemphasis on native speaker proficiency might provoke schizophrenia on the part of trainee teachers and defeat the very purpose of language teaching. In addition the whole concept of native speaker as a passport for the language teaching profession is being increasingly and seriously questioned (e.g. Kachru, 1990; Rampton, 1990; Widdowson, 1990).

4-2-1-2-2-4 The other aspects of the content specification

The second cell of the model is concerned with the teaching situation as defined by the social context. The development, change and/or evaluation of a language teacher education programme, he argues, requires an understanding of the language teaching situation the programme is intended to prepare teachers for, taking account of what is expected of them in the context of existing social order, and what is expected of them if that order is to be improved or radically altered. In many cases he says, it is a mixture between language teacher education for the status quo and language teacher education for change.

The implication of this analysis for the content of the training programme in the context of Benin, for example, would be the need to include topics related to language planning and language policy with special reference to the role of foreign languages in the overall development and programme of the country in its political, social, cultural and economic aspects. It would also mean the need to have some room for discussion of the role of the foreign language teacher in raising awareness of major international issues such as human rights and education for peace and international understanding. A broader view of the cell highlights the social roles of the language teacher besides his/her role as the link between a foreign language and the
learners. It addresses the fundamental question of what the language is for, not only for the individual learner but also for the society at large. It also includes issues related to attitudes towards the target language culture (see Edelhoff 1981, 1983). A teacher training programme particularly at in-service level which does not have enough room for teachers' awareness of these issues may reduce long term effectiveness.

Cell three of the model is concerned with trainees on the language teacher education programmes. He particularly stresses the need to know how much can be assumed that trainees already know in terms of target language proficiency, formal linguistic knowledge about the target language and about their own native language and familiarity with the socio-cultural setting of the teaching situation. These would help to more clearly identify trainees' needs. It can be observed that Stern's interpretation of trainee characteristics leaves little room for considerations related to their affective and emotional needs. This confirms the point made by Gowers (1988):

What tends to be forgotten, however - perhaps because of time- is everything which isn't language and everything which isn't methodology: in particular the learner as a learning person (…) and learning something which isn't just a predetermined process but also (…) something natural, unpredictable, and very individual. (Gowers 1988: 21)

Still as pointed out by Peretz (1982) in amendments to specifications of teacher education curriculum components, "if education is to be effective it will include meaningful and appropriate affective components. This means that teacher education programmes must incorporate a fifth broad component that is the training and preparation of teachers for and in affective roles" (Peretz, 1982: 10). If we were to extend the interpretation of the third cell to include these considerations then the course would allow time and space,
and provide encouragement for trainees to think about questions such as "What ability does every individual in the group in front of me really have? What are their talents? their emotional blocks? their emotional and mental needs? What do they think and feel towards each other? What are their human strengths" (Gowers, op cit: 21) and many more.

Although Gowers seems to dismiss humanistic approaches, building in the training programme an awareness of these approaches in their essence might contribute to increased effectiveness of teachers' work with learners. Organising the course itself along humanistic lines might help take into account the human side of language teaching whose importance cannot be overemphasised as shown by Brumfit (1980). In this connection Brown's (1975c) suggestion that sensitivity training, group therapy human dynamics and humanistic curriculum development be included in training teachers for affective roles is worth mentioning. (see Peretz, 1982: 16)

Stern's last cell is the core of the model. It sums up the interpretation of other boxes in the form of the actual specific programme. Although each teacher training programme may have particular characteristics and put more emphases on specific elements, he contends that there are common elements which must be represented in every scheme of language teacher education. These are broadly divided into an academic (or substantive) component and a professional training component. However these two parts are combined in the process, language teachers, in his opinion, must know the language they teach and they must know how to teach it; they must be both linguists and language educators.

To prepare them as linguists the language teacher education programme should cater for:
- proficiency in the target language
- conceptual knowledge about the language
- experience and skill in the target culture
- conceptual knowledge of that culture

As language educators they need:
- educational orientation, that is, knowledge of the educational context and philosophy of the system where the language is to be taught
- language teaching theory, as defined earlier
- general personal education to facilitate higher abilities to communicate and develop their personalities
- practical language teaching experience to make practice and theory support one another.

One aspect of teacher training programmes which appears to have been overlooked by most suggestions of programme content is the question of pace. Still as pointed out by Cripwell (1979), "the mark of a true professional in the classroom is someone who is able to pace his lessons effectively" (Cripwell, 1979: 47). But pace as he understands it, is neither speed nor personal endeavour and performance. It refers as in the theatre to the degree of variety of content or tone. But above all he says, pace is a matter of tension, tension between the actors and the audience, between the actors themselves, and between the members of the audience. It is rather like a net which holds all the participants together. Although teaching and acting are not to be equated, the teacher, like the actor, needs, not only in the teaching of the spoken language but in other skills as well, to foster the same continuing sense of development, the same carefully balanced variety, the same effort to prepare, to be aware of and concerned with the learners which a sense of pace assumes. This skill can be developed through patience, frequent practice, careful preparation, understanding of the rationale behind each activity and each teaching act. To prepare teachers for this
sense of pace, he suggests, many options are available, from demonstration which, he warns, could quickly become model lesson in which he does not believe as an effective teacher training method in spite of its advantages, to simulated experience involving students as learners and observation using modern technology.

As a whole this section has presented the general aspects of the language teacher education curriculum as discussed in the literature. The problem is how to organise this curriculum in such a way as to successfully provide trainees with worthwhile teacher training experience whether initial or continued inservice training. This leads to issues of strategies.

4-2-2 Strategies

Five points will be discussed under the general heading of strategies: shortcomings of most current practices of teacher education with special reference to INSET, speculative proposals for more effective INSET, research based lessons for more effective INSET, and specific activities for integrating theory and practice in teacher education, and practicalities.

4-2-2-1 Criticism of current practices of teacher education with special reference to INSET.

Current provisions for Teacher education, both initial (see Phillips & Jones (1984) and in-service (see Fullan 1982, Rudduck 1981) have been found wanting in many respects. With regards to INSET, the evidence seems to corroborate Fullan's (1982) view that "nothing has promised so much and has been so frustratingly wasteful as the thousands of workshops and conferences which led to no significant change in practice when the teachers returned to their classrooms" (Fullan,
1982: 263). The reason for this inefficiency and ineffectiveness, as he sees it are as follows:

1- One shot workshops, are widespread but are ineffective
2- Topics are frequently selected by people other than those for whom the in-service is intended.
3- Follow up support of the ideas and practices introduced in in-service programmes occurs only in a very small minority of cases.
4- Follow up evaluation occurs infrequently.
5- In-service programmes rarely address the individual needs and concerns.
6- The majority of programmes involve teachers from many different school districts, but there is no recognition of differential impact of positive and negative factors within the system to which they must return.
7- There is a profound lack of any conceptual basis in the planning and implementation of in-service programs that would ensure their effectiveness. (Fullan, 1982: 263).

These shortcomings are closely related to Rudduck's (1981) observation with reference to short courses that teachers are critical of:

- courses which are not well prepared, and where lack of coherence among the various parts or activities of the course are quite evident,
- courses which are not efficiently managed,
- courses where the contents are not related to the age group pupils course members are interested in,
- courses which do not recognize and start from where they are and offer tempting alternatives considered irrelevant by participants instead of helping them with their concrete problems,
- courses which do not sufficiently build on what they have to offer (see Rudduck, 1981 in Hopkins, 1986: 304 for details).

On the basis of these criticisms and drawing on aspects of in-service training found to be "positive" or considered so from experience and/or theoretical considerations, a number of models for effective organisation of INSET and effective
design of its programme have been suggested. By way of illustration some of them will be presented in the next section and evaluated with special reference to the integration of theory and practice and to attention to teachers' needs and to provisions for teachers' own initiative and contribution to the agenda of their development.

4-2-2-2 Speculative models for INSET programme implementation

4-2-2-2-1 The E.R.O.T.I model

O'Brien (1981) suggested a model of teacher training on the basis of five elements he considered as essential to any teacher training course. He called his model the "E.R.O.T.I. model, using the acronym for the five elements: 'E' for 'experience', 'R' for 'rationale', 'O' for 'observation', 'T' for 'trial', 'I' for 'integration'.

- Experience is concerned with making trainees experience as learners the approach, method or techniques being proposed with "his/her whole body, physically as well as cognitively so that his whole personality is activated and involved" (O'Brien 1981:55).

- Rationale here involves as much the exposition of the theory behind the new ideas and approaches proposed as well as trainees' and learners' reactions to them in an attempt to answer the fundamental question of "does it work? and how?". In this sense rationale is central to the model and serves to clarify and evaluate all the other four elements in the model as well as the content of the ideas being suggested.

- Observation this allows the trainees "to take a more detached look at the effect of the idea on teaching and learning without being under pressure themselves" (O'Brien,
op.cit : 56)

- **Trial** is the process by which trainees are given the opportunity to try ideas or techniques out for themselves after it has been observed and understood. The trial may be conducted in a peer group, or with a real class.

- **Integration** is the process of fitting new ideas and or techniques into the existing set up, i.e. the individual teacher's own teaching styles and personalities, as well as the syllabuses and curricula of their institutions. As to how these five elements should be related and sequenced he proposed the following model.

Figure: 16 The elements of the E.R.O.T.I model (from O'Brien, 1981: 54)

According to the model trainees may start a course by direct experience of a technique or idea, or by observing the technique in operation or by studying its rationale but not by trying it out or attempting to integrate it. But although these three entry points are possible in principle he suggests that if the element of experience is included, it is better to introduce it as early as possible, perhaps with a little prefatory rationale, but certainly before observation since otherwise the personal impact on the
trainees would be lost. Hence the broken arrow from observation to experience. The other broken arrow from observation to trial expresses the fact that trial, requiring careful planning and classification of objectives, cannot be directly engaged from observation, but needs to be done via rationale.

The positive aspect of this model lies in its emphasis on experience. Although this contradicts traditional practice as exemplified, for example, by classical microteaching consisting of a cycle of explanation, modelling (where trainees are given a model/demonstration after the rationale or description of the technique to be practised before any form of personal experience of it), planning, teaching, and feedback, it seems however somewhat consistent with the adult learning principle discussed earlier in subsection 4-1-1-4 which stresses the need for learners to be confronted with new situations for which old ways are not adequate.

But although experience in the E.R.O.T.I. model can provide such a situation it should be noted however that experience in the adult learning principles discussed earlier involves more than encounter with ideas as learner. It also implies confrontation with situations which generate or require the use of these new ideas.

In addition there are some reservations about the value of the experience step in the E.R.O.T.I. model as an equivalent to what Roger Berry (1990) calls the "throwaway demonstration" which consists in demonstrating certain techniques and materials using trainees as learners in order to familiarize them with these techniques or materials. Berry comments on it as follows:

Typically what happens is that trainers (myself included, I confess) rush through the activity at a rate of knots, suspending many pedagogic principles on the way, and end with
the disclaimer: "of course I wouldn't do it in class that way". (Berry, 1990: 101).

This, he argues, gives trainees a distorted picture. But following the normal procedure may bore trainees and lacks authenticity. A way around this might be to use the exotic language lesson technique whereby trainees experience the new technique through learning a language they do not know, which reduces the artificiality of the procedure.

But it remains that O'Brien has not clarified the relationship between trial and appraisal of the original idea as part and parcel of the integration process. This omission might lead one to assume that his model leaves little room for teachers' own contribution to the original ideas in a process of empirical evaluation as Widdowson (1990) proposes. There was also no indication of the need to take account of trainees' needs to work out priorities and balance between the different elements of the model.

4-2-2-2 The Master of Art in Teaching (M.A.T) programme planning model

Diane Larsen Freeman (1983) in her article "Training teachers or educating teachers?", referred to earlier, proposed a model of programme planning intended to develop teachers' ability to make informed choices as independent learners, able to adapt to any situation. To reach this objective, she argued, the educating process should focus on "awareness", "attitude", "knowledge" and "skills".

- Awareness: it is the process by which the learner is helped to focus attention on a specific aspect of behaviour such as error correction, examine it with detachment and objectivity so as to be able to consider alternative ways of behaving or even of viewing the situation itself.
- **Attitude**: for teachers to make informed choices they need to have a positive, open attitude, a willingness to take risk. This is necessary because "all the awareness in the world would not bring about change if the individual refuses to consider exploring the choices available. And learning is change. In order for learning to take place there must be a willingness to examine and often risk one's beliefs and patterns of action and thought" (M.A.T programme statement, 1982 in Freeman, 1983). So students are asked to examine their attitudes and their practices and provision is made for them to discuss these with their fellow trainees.

- **Knowledge**: it is a necessary condition for informed choice because we need knowledge of what options exist in order to have a choice to make. Thus she says:

  In the language teaching profession, teachers should have knowledge in the area of language (e.g. conceptual knowledge of the language to be taught), language learning (e.g. knowledge of how people acquire language), language teaching (e.g. knowledge of the culture of the language to be taught), and interpersonal communication (e.g. knowledge of the process of communication) at the very least). (Freeman, op. cit: 26)

- **Skills**: skills are just as necessary as knowledge. Teachers need to develop skills in the areas of language, i.e. conducting language analysis, in language learning, i.e. error analysis, in language teaching i.e classroom management in culture, i.e. entering a new culture sensitively and interpersonal communication, i.e. listening to others.

In the application of the model great account is taken of the need to include the four characteristics of her educating process, that is, individual orientation, learner independence, emphasis on process and assessment based on progress.
Larsen-Freeman's model is mainly concerned with factors which in her opinion, make teacher preparation an educative process. The importance of the awareness and attitude components of the model in this regard could not be overstressed. But the absence of reference to practice and its relationship with theory needs to be pointed out as a limitation which calls for caution in the adoption of the model in contexts similar to that of the present study.

4-2-2-3 Lessons from research

Many researchers have suggested guidelines for INSET on the basis of their analysis of "successful" professional development programmes. Three such programmes will be examined here: Joyce & Showers (1980, 1981), Fullan (1982) and Avalos (1985)


Joyce & Showers' (1980) reviewed studies on the ability of teachers to acquire teaching skills and strategies and concluded that training had two aims: fine tuning teachers' competence i.e. consolidating their skills and increasing their effectiveness, or helping them learn new strategies. In either case four main outcomes were generally expected:
- increasing of teachers' awareness of the importance of specific areas so that they focus their attention on it;
- acquisition of concepts and organised knowledge to enable them to have intellectual control of relevant content;
- learning of principles and skills as tools for action;
- and application of those tools in problem solving activities (or other kinds of activities) according to the educational philosophy of the system concerned).
On the basis of their review of the literature and their analysis of how various training elements are combined to reach these objectives they identified five training components which, if used together will have greater power than when used separately.

- **Presentation of theory and description of skills or strategy:** It consists in presenting to teachers the rationale, the conceptual base and potential uses as well as the verbal description of an approach or skill or technique through lectures, film, and/or discussion. It helps raise awareness and increase the conceptual control of an area. But by itself its power to enable skill acquisition and transfer is very limited. However, when used in combination with other components, they say, it appears to boost conceptual control, skills development, and transfer of skills in the classroom.

- **Modelling or demonstration.** It is the enactment of the teaching skill through live demonstration or through television or other technology. It helps the mastery of theory and is said to have considerable effect on awareness and some effect on knowledge. But when used alone it is unlikely to result in acquisition and transfer by most teachers.

This view concurs with Cripwell's (1979) view of the use of mass media in teacher education: "we know that big media can help to improve the skills of teachers in the classroom provided care is taken not to think that can do this effectively without adequate support "(Cripwell, 1979:91)

- **Practice under simulated condition;** This is when trainees are encouraged to try the skills or approach out either with peers or with small groups of learners, through microteaching for example. Its impact on the acquisition of new strategies or on the refining of old ones is said to be
very positive when awareness and knowledge have been achieved.

- **Structured and open ended feedback**: This component is concerned with the provision of information about performance and opportunity to reflect on teaching using a classroom observation scheme. This can be done by teachers themselves on their own teaching or by their peers or by observers. It can be combined with practice in a practice-feedback sequence to help gain awareness. It can also be done through an informal discussion after class observation. Joyce & Showers (1980) considered that modelling followed by practice and feedback could be very powerful in achieving skill development and transfer.

- **Coaching for application**: Coaching is defined as "the provision of a means of analysing the teaching situation, determining appropriateness of the skill, the adaptation of it to learners and the adjustment of the skill to a variety of situations" (Joyce & Showers, 1981: 8 in Avalos, 1985: 296). It is a very important component because contrary to the assumption that once a skill is learnt it can naturally be transferred to classroom practice "transfer of teaching skills involves much new learning. When to use the skills, how to modulate them to the students, etc. This learning has to take place in the process of transfer" (Joyce & Hopkins op.cit in Hopkins ed, 1986: 301).

Transfer, they explain, citing Klausmeier & Davis (1969), refers to the influence of learning upon later learning. It can be lateral or vertical. It is lateral when a person generalizes learning to a new task of the same complexity. Vertical or cumulative transfer is the condition in which knowledge and abilities acquired in performing one task facilitates the learning of higher order tasks (Klausmeier & Davis, 1969: 1483 in Joyce & Shower, 1981 in Hopkins, 1986:298). Drawing on the literature on transfer they established a number of principles among which the following
need to be mentioned: transfer of training is greatest when the training conditions are highly similar to those of the ultimate conditions in which the effectiveness of the training is to be tested. This implies that in teacher training, transfer will be easier if training, or a substantial part of it, takes place in schools where teachers work. The coaching process in this sense is congruent with the adult learning principle applied to in-service which emphasises that the work setting is the most appropriate in-service context.

The second principle states that transfer is greater if the learner understands the general rules or principles which are appropriate in solving new problems. This principle has been confirmed post facto by Young & Lee (1984) in their study in Hong Kong where an intensive in-service course was organized to help teachers adopt a more positive attitude towards communicative language teaching, based almost exclusively on heuristic training techniques with little discussions of principles. The results did not show any significant change of attitude. Drawing on this disappointing result and on the work of Sharan, Darom & Heretz (1979) concerned with introducing small group teaching in schools in Israel and which found that teachers' understanding of the principles underlying small group teaching was the most prominent predictor of the teachers' attitudes towards the new techniques, they concluded:

A model of curriculum innovation by means of retraining courses organized entirely around heuristic training techniques without a cognitive dimension of formal presentation and discussion of principles involved may not be the most effective way of bringing about a change in attitude and behaviour" (Young & Lee, 1984: 192)

These principles of transfer confirm the recommendation that for maximum effectiveness of most in-service activities, it
appears wisest to include several and perhaps all of the
five training components.

Joyce & Showers' components are considered valid and are
adopted, adapted or expanded by most researchers. It needs
however to be noted that although the content of the
coaching component is essential in effective training
particularly in initial teacher training it can be argued
that some caution is needed in its application for in-
service training. Indeed while on-line support may be very
welcome to practising teachers there is a risk of too
prescriptive, directive or mechanistic a stance as might be
inferred from the term as applied to sports like football or
tennis.

Attention needs to be drawn to this risk particularly
because, although teachers' reflection on practice is
encouraged at the rationale and feedback stages for
awareness and understanding sake, there seems to be
insufficient emphasis on the value of teachers' own ideas
for change, on the conception of teachers as capable of
designing and implementing their own personal and
professional development programme. The models seems to
underestimate the principle that "the direction for learning
is from the teacher out" (Corrigan, in Hopkins (ed), 1986:
101) In other words teachers' involvement in reflection not
only on the second order realisation of ideas as techniques
or approaches but on the ideas themselves, and their
responsibility to generate new ones, if necessary, and their
involvement in the planning of the training have been
understressed. This is perhaps due to their observation that
when teachers first participate in identifying their own
needs and formats for in-service they generally choose the
same activities as have traditionally been offered (see
Besides an in-service training design which includes all the five components is labour intensive and may be expensive as pointed out by some practitioners who prefer simpler but reportedly equally effective strategies (see for example Backhouse, 1987).

4-2-2-3-2

Avalos (1985) and the procedural model for behavioural change

Below is one such adaptation by Avalos (1985) with special reference to teacher training in the third world.

figure 17: Internal structure of the teacher training process: components and outcomes.
(from Avalos, 1985: 295)

The main novelty here is the two overlapping inner circles related to outcomes but part and parcel of the process through the medium of coaching for transfer. She stresses the point that "persistence of changes through time results from practice and the self examination of such practice and
from support by peers and the trainer during the change process" (Avalos, 1985: 295). The reference to support by peers and trainers enriches Joyce & Showers' model with an affective dimension and takes into account the fact that "professional growth, particularly when it involves the exchange of old habits for new, breeds considerable insecurity" (Corrigan, in Hopkins, 1986: 106). But her model, as an adaptation of the Joyce & Showers' model suffers from the same weakness of understressing teachers' own initiative and of directiveness when considered for application in in-service education as pointed out earlier:

4-2-2-3-3 Fullan's (1982) model: the serial seminars pattern

Fullan's (1982) model, the last to be considered in the present study, is intended to draw together the common factors of case examples of successful professional development which he has examined, including the Joyce & Showers' model. They are as follows:

1. Professional development programs should focus on job, program related tasks faced by teachers.
2. Professional development should include the general components found by Joyce & Showers (1981) to be necessary for change in practice: theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and application with coaching.
3. Follow through is crucial: a series of several sessions, with intervals between in which people have the chance to try things (with some access to help or to other resources) is much more powerful than even the most stimulating one shot workshop.
4. A variety of formal and informal elements should be coordinated: training workshops and sharing workshops, teacher-teacher interaction, one to one assistance meetings. Note that both teachers and others (principals, consultants, etc.) are significant resources at both the informal sharing or one to one level and the formal level of workshop and course. (Fullan, 1982).

Although these guidelines are consistent with most of the models presented earlier and may consequently be appreciated and criticised on the basis of the merits and weaknesses of
those models the inclusion of the last two points may be considered as their main strength compared with other models. Indeed, point 3 emphasises the need for several sessions with intervals between for reflective practice. Point 4, by insisting on the need for both formal and informal elements, including sharing workshops and teacher-teacher interaction gives teachers the opportunity to address their personal needs as well as to set their own agenda for self development. Besides it explicitly recommends some activities and procedures. This leads us to elaborate further on specific activities and procedures with special reference to the integration of theory and practice.

4-2-3 Activities and procedures

A variety of formal and informal activities and procedures may be used to achieve the strategic objectives described in the previous section. Ellis (1986) suggests a descriptive framework which identifies and classifies the various options available to teacher trainers. He divides teacher training practices into experiential activities and awareness raising activities as discussed earlier. Then he concentrates on awareness raising activities which he says are more appropriate for in-service training. Two aspects of awareness raising activities have been discussed: ways of providing data and the different kinds of operations that trainees may be asked to use the data for.

Data on teaching can be provided by video or audio recordings of actual lessons, transcripts of lessons, observations of classroom teaching, peer teaching, microteaching, readings from articles and ELT books, ELT textbook materials, lesson plans and outlines, case studies and samples of student written work.
A variety of tasks can be performed using the data thus provided for the awareness raising aspect of teacher training and to some extent for experiential teacher training. Ellis (op. cit) has identified ten such operations: comparing (e.g. lesson plans); preparing (e.g. a marking scheme); evaluating (e.g. a teacher treatment of error using supplied criteria); improving (e.g. a case study of a reading programme); adapting (e.g. a language exercise); listing (e.g. types of pupil errors in a lesson transcript); selecting (e.g. choosing errors to correct among those identified); ranking (e.g. teaching materials according to their communicativeness); adding/completing (e.g. a list of principles for the teaching of reading in an article); rearranging (e.g. changing the order of the steps followed by a teacher for pair and group work as seen on a video recording).

It is to be observed that all the operations are concerned with cognitive processes with a total omission of affective operations such as understanding (e.g. observing/listening more carefully to a student to appreciate his/her problems), encouraging (e.g. recognising a student effort and stimulating him/her to do more), establishing rapport (e.g. small talk such as brief but friendly comments about some body's hairdo, or weekend or health). But in spite of these omissions or exclusions, Ellis's list of operations and data provision techniques is one of the rare attempts to systematically describe language teacher training activities along clear lines.

He then goes on to describe eight teacher training procedures for carrying out these activities. They include lectures, pair/group discussion, using activity work sheets, workshops for preparation of lesson plans or teaching aids, demonstration by trainer of a given technique with students or real pupils, individual work assignment whereby trainees
are asked to carry out specific activities on their own, elicitation using a question-answer technique, plenary discussion where general ELT issues are discussed and panel discussion where a number of trainees form a panel to answer other trainees' questions.

To these options may be added others discussed by Wajnryb (1988:29-31) drawing on articles in *The teacher trainer*, a professional journal for language teacher trainers in Britain: the teacher homework techniques providing self access exercises, loop input (see Tessa Woodward, 1988 and her presentation at IATEFL 1989 for detailed description of the technique) consisting, for instance, in doing a role play about role play, fusing thus content and process; the lecture discussion scale, with key points of lectures distributed to students beforehand; the Curran style lecture, with some trainees acting as helpers, responding to the lecture at key points; the buzz group lecture, with trainees reacting to the lecture in groups and providing instant feedback; the starter question circle, particularly appropriate at in-service level which provides opportunity for teachers to tap into each other's experiences and 'peep' into each other's classrooms for the purpose of examining a concrete element of teaching practice.

This is an appropriate point to introduce options specifically intended for the provisions of more effective links between theory and practice. In their paper on "The practicum in teacher education", a term they define as "all those activities which involve student teachers in practice teaching or in observing or helping teachers and pupils as they go about their daily tasks" (Phillips & Jones, 1984: i). Phillips & Jones (op.cit) suggest a number of ways of integrating the practicum components with more theoretical components of institutional courses. Although primarily intended for pre-service training most of the suggestions
are worth considering in in-service training in circumstances where the general quality of the pre-service received by teachers leaves much to be desired in terms of practical experience, and also in circumstances where new approaches are being tried out. Among them the following need special attention for the purpose of this discussion.

- **Suggestion No 1:** Institutions should design their programmes to include a number of different forms of practicum. They identify five such forms, namely microteaching, school based workshop, block practice teaching, school attachment, internship and apprenticeship (for details see Phillips & Jones op. cit: 1-13). Microteaching, school based workshops and block practice teaching can be quite appropriate to INSET with the latter being used as a practical operationalisation of the principle of coaching or online support discussed earlier. The only difference here is that teachers will be working in their own classes and not in cooperating teachers' classes.

- **Suggestion No 3:** Provisions should be made for students to have practicum experiences in a variety of contexts. Although no programme can possibly prepare teachers for all situations, it is suggested that the practicum experience should prepare teachers for some of them. The way this might be done includes systematically varying the placement of each student teacher for each successive practicum experience. This would imply for INSET that teachers should be given the opportunity of controlled practice in different contexts (rural/urban, for example) with pupils of different levels if appropriate (e.g lower/upper secondary) when a new approach is being tried out.

- **Suggestion No 4:** All practicum experiences should be linked to courses conducted in the programme. Such linkage could take different forms:
* concurrent linkages: when a series of practical experiences are provided concurrently with a series of lecture-discussion experiences.

* cross linkages: whereby courses are practically related to a curriculum area or a given programme, this is an operationalization of Fullan's (1982) recommendation that professional development should focus on job or programme related tasks faced by teachers.

* end-on short term linkage: this implies providing field experience to teachers for them to practise skills or try out ideas shortly after they have been introduced in the course. In the context of INSET, microteaching and school based INSET could be ways of operationalizing this form of linkage.

* end-on long term linkage: this has to do with the integrated practice of competencies in school placement and internship after they have been sequentially learnt during the course.

- Suggestion No 5: The practicum programme should include a variety of teaching experiences: these include peer teaching; team teaching in the form of part-lesson teaching, class-within-class specialist teaching and assistant teaching; co-curricular activities which give teachers opportunity to work with pupils outside formal teaching/learning situation; repeat teaching whereby teachers are given the opportunity to use feedback and self analysis to revise their lesson plans and repeat their presentation with different group of pupils (for more details see Phillips & Jones, op. cit: 27-29)

- Suggestion No 7: Each student teacher should be provided with various types of information about his/her teaching. This could be done by a systematic use of a set of techniques devised for what has been originally called clinical supervision and more and more known as "teacher
centred supervision". It consists of five steps: pre-
observation conference, observation, analysis and strategy,
supervision post conference, post conference analysis (for
details see Phillips & Jones, op.cit: 48-49; Ree's (1983)
observation instrument designed for use in Senegal is also
of relevance here).

- Suggestion No 6: Each student should regularly experience
clinical supervision and should be provided with feedback
from a variety of people. Apart from the need to build in
provision for feedback to teachers as a regular feature of
professional development programmes, the suggestion also
stresses the need to obtain feedback not only from
trainers/supervisors, but also from peers and students and
others. It perhaps needs to be emphasised here that for such
feedback to be beneficial and supportive of teachers' growth
it needs to be constructive as rightly pointed out by Easen
(1985)

  Feedback can be destructive when it is given to hurt or to
express hostility without any intentions of improving the
communication between those involved. On the other hand, it is
useful when it
  . describes what someone is doing rather than placing a value
    judgement on that behaviour,
  . is specific rather than general,
  . is directed towards something which the recipient can do
    something about,
  . is well timed,
  . is asked for rather than imposed. (Easen, 1985:109)

- Suggestion No 9: If possible each student should be
provided with some feedback through the use of audio, audio-
visual or visual techniques during the conduct of the
practicum programme. This needs no comment except to note
that film, videotape and audio feedback if used efficiently
(for example by cueing i.e. helping student teachers
identify effective or less than effective teaching
behaviours and shaping his/her behaviour over subsequent
feedback sessions, or by introducing the goal- Experience-
observation (GEO) triangle) could be of great help to enable the student teachers identify elements of their teaching style which they wish to continue or modify. (see Phillips & Jones, op. cit : 60-62 for more details).

These suggestions, although part of a series intended for initial teacher training can, be quite helpful for the improvement of the integration of theory and practice in in-service training. The last three lead on to the issue of the role of trainers and supervisors.

4-2-4 Approaches to supervision and the roles of supervisors

Various terms are used in different places and circumstances to refer to the supervisor. The most frequently used ones in the literature on teacher education include trainer, tutor, instructor, researcher, consultant, adviser, facilitator and change agent. The term cooperating teacher is also used in pre-service context to refer to a practising teacher in the role of 'master teacher', in an apprenticeship model of supervision, whom the student teacher is expected to model and who shared responsibility for the supervision with a university or college based lecturer/tutor.

This variety in appellation indicates the complexity of the activity of supervision and denotes the varying emphases on the roles of supervisors. This complexity is highlighted on a humoristic note by Stones (1984) in these terms:

The qualification for becoming a supervisor was super-vision. Further thought produced an analysis of super-vision. What were its constituent skills? Naturally enough they all seemed to be connected with sight. In the first place a person with supervision would need to have acute eyesight to see what was happening in the classroom. Second a person would need insight to understand the significance of what was happening, foresight to see what could be happening, hindsight to see what should have happened and didn't, and second sight to know how to get what should have happened and didn't to happen next time. As may be inferred, I consider supervision a fairly complex activity (Stones, 1984: vii).
Indeed, although to supervise is commonly understood as "(1) to direct or oversee, (2) to watch over so as to maintain order" (Stones, 1984: vii), and supervision in teacher education commonly evokes "images of teacher trainers, tutors or inspectors observing teachers at work and then talking to them about it afterwards" (Houston & Woodward 1990: 14), there seems to be more to it than this somewhat oversimplified view.

Practices of classroom observations reflect different approaches to supervision rooted in given perspectives to teacher education. The diagram overleaf presents the main approaches to supervision identified in the literature (Elliot 1990; Boydell 1986; Gebhard 1984; Wragg 1984; Stones 1984; Zeichner & Teitelbaum 1982 in Boydell 1986; Freeman 1982; Blumberg 1977 in Boydell 1986; Fuller & Bown 1975 in Boydell 1985), Knowles 1974 in Ashen (1981). They are presented along the training/development perspectives to teacher education continuum, the content/process focus continuum, the directive/non directive styles continuum. They have also been related to what Freeman (1982) calls the hierarchy of teachers' needs and his key questions corresponding to Fuller & Bown's (1975) notion of teachers' concerns development.

Time and space constraints do not allow a detailed description and evaluation of each one of the approaches presented in the summary table. However a few general comments are in order.

First, it appears that the distinction between training and development perspective, content focus and process focus and between directive styles and non directive styles is not cut and dry. As visually represented in the table these perspectives are to be seen as two ends of a continuum. In addition, it should be pointed out that although the training perspective content focus and directive styles are at the same end of the continuum this does not necessarily
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as prescriptions or advice and should not,
be allowed to overpower the teacher's own
experience; teacher is free to take up
or ignore those comments.

-creative supervision, allows for combination of models or
supervisory behaviours from different
models in view of perceived needs; shifts,
supervisory role from S to teacher through
use of teacher centres or peer
supervision for instance,
encourages application of insight from
other fields such as use of observation,
principles and techniques of counselling,
Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), lead-
deanship training for business
management.

Table 9: Approaches to supervision: the training/development continuum perspectives.

mean that one implies the other. A training perspective
could be realised through a process approach with minimum
use of a directive style transforming thus the narrow view
of training into a wider educational and development
oriented perspective.

So although in teacher education the master apprentice model
is historically situated at the training-content-
directiveness end of the continuum it can be a powerful
approach to the acquisition of practical knowledge in the
context of the education of a reflective practitioner (see
Schön 1987). However there are real problems with the
training-content-directive end of the continuum. Apart from
uncertainties about what constitutes good teaching and its
relationship with pupil learning, which makes it difficult
to justify the prescriptive nature of approaches to
supervision on that end of the continuum, the humanistic
consequences of these approaches need to be borne in mind.

The unequal power relationship underlying approaches such as
the supervisory approach, the master apprenticeship model,
the competency approach can be detrimental to teachers' self
esteem and might discourage them from trying new ideas and taking initiatives (See Gebhard, 1984). Besides they can force teachers to comply with supervisors' decisions and adopt their (supervisors') teaching styles, recasting themselves into moulds that may be at odds with their personalities and personal philosophies. This could generate fear, defensiveness and prevent the blossoming of teachers' own talents aptitudes and qualities. It can in other words hinder their personal and professional development. (see Ashton 1981, Freeman 1982, Stones 1984 Gebhard 1984).

Given these shortcomings, approaches such as, collaborative supervision, inquiry oriented supervision at the development-process-non directive end of the continuum might be more adequate in promoting teachers' personal and professional development. It is indeed tempting to view supervision as "having a time and place to simply talk over and through some of what you're doing at work, in confidentiality with someone who is well informed" (Houston & Woodward, 1990: 14). It is also tempting to assume that the supervisor provides help simply by being there and by bothering to listen because by doing so he/she helps the teacher to listen to himself/herself and to value his/her own experience (see Houston & Woodward op. cit).

Many teachers would be happy with this perspective on supervision as was the teacher who reported her experience of non directive supervision as follows:

My supervisor usually attempts to have me come up with my own solutions to teaching problems, but she isn't cold. (...) [She] listens patiently to what I say, and she consistently gives me her understanding of what I have just said. (...) I think that when my supervisor repeats back to me my own ideas, things become clearer. I think that this makes me more aware of the way I teach- at least I am aware of my feelings about what I do with students. (In Gebhard, 1984: 506)

It should be pointed out nevertheless that wholesale adoption of completely non directive and process focussed approaches to supervision might not be appropriate or
feasible in all circumstances no matter how desirable this might be. As pointed out by Gebhards (op. cit):

Although the ideas of equality and sharing ideas in a problem solving process can be appealing the ideal and the real are sometimes far apart. Not all teachers are willing to share equally in a symmetrical collaborative decision making process. This has been pointed out clearly by a colleague from a middle eastern country who remarked that if as a supervisor he attempted to get teachers to share ideas with him, the teacher would think that he was not a very good supervisor. (Gebhard, 1984:506).

So the choice of an approach or combination of supervisory behaviours from different approaches should be, to a large extent, determined, not only by teachers' concerns and needs as is implicitly shown by the ordering of approaches in the table above, but also by socio-cultural contexts. No matter how innovative or fashionable one wishes to be one will be well advised to heed the point made by Copeland (1982) that teachers benefit most from what they think they need. This does not mean however that one should not stimulate teachers' awareness of new ideas. But in doing so account needs to be taken of teachers' needs and of the prevailing socio-cultural constraints.

The second relates to the relevance of the table to the present study. In view of the above discussion and the characteristics of the teachers for whom the present INSET project is intended, it would seem necessary to adopt a more cautious approach to the classroom observation component of the INSET project than might be assumed by the overall teacher development and inquiry oriented view underlying the whole project.

Although the ultimate aim of the project is to help teachers take responsibility for their own professional development, it is to be acknowledged that the teachers in the project are approximately at stage two of teachers' concerns as described in the table above. Indeed their overriding concern is how to teach what they are required to teach. It would seem most appropriate therefore to base the in-service
observations on a combination of supervisory behaviours drawing on alternative and collaborative supervision approaches as summarised in the table. However in view of the general aim of the project teachers will be encouraged to reinforce this creative supervision model by adopting more inquiry oriented and non directive supervisory activities with focus on independent analysis of their own teaching and peer supervision. This would shift responsibility from the trainers/supervisors to the teachers themselves.

The third comment is about how these approaches to supervision work and what the supervisor is expected to do to reach the objectives stated as general principles in the table. A thorough discussion of practical techniques is beyond the scope of this discussion. However so much has been said in the table about establishing rapport, creating a congenial atmosphere for effective supervision and sharing or giving responsibility to teachers that a few words about how these could be done in practice seem in order.

Stone's (1984) Guide for Enhancing Supervision (GES) (see annexe to Chapter 4 No 1) contains useful information regarding these issues particularly at "Phase 4 Interactive B". He suggests that a positive affective atmosphere can be established through friendly informal tone of voice, positive opening statements in relation to teaching, encouraging non verbal activities; e.g smiling, nodding, eye contact. this list is not intended to be comprehensive.

A more systematic approach to the question of rapport and congenial atmosphere is suggested by Gebhard (1984) who suggested the use of insight from Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP). NLP, as developed by Bandler and Grinder (1979) is a process by which communication is analysed and understood by focussing on process rather than on content.
So particular attention is paid to how interlocutors establish rapport for an effective communication. Rapport can be developed, by consciously or unconsciously matching one's verbal and non-verbal behaviours with that of the other person. This is done through the identification of the other person's representational system, i.e. the ways in which he/she verbally represents his/her experience through the use of specific verbs, adjectives or adverbs. For example a teacher can represent her experience through a visual channel (e.g. I see what you mean, focus on...), through an auditory channel (e.g. the idea was amplified when ) or through kinesthetic channel (e.g can you grasp that idea?)

Having identified the teacher's representational system the supervisor should switch into the same system. It is also possible to do the same with non verbal behaviour such as a person's posture, walking stride, breathing rate, gesture, facial expression, tone of voice and tempo of speaking.

It should however be recognised that, these adjustments demand a lot of conscious effort and careful consideration in the context of supervision. It has been shown that it is not easy to genuinely understand the other person, let alone to enter his/her frame of reference (Rogers, 1961). If the techniques of NLP are artificially adopted for temporary adjustment in order to break the teachers' defences they might be counter productive. In the writer's experience teachers can easily detect, and are very suspicious of artificial friendliness. There is even the risk of it being seen as a patronising behaviour.

These remarks do not aim to underestimate the importance of the need to try and put oneself at the same wavelength as the teacher to facilitate effective communication. They are intended to show the need for genuine change of attitude and behaviour and of self discipline on the part of supervisors if they are to create and maintain a credible affective
atmosphere for supervision. In this regard it is important as pointed out by Lewis and Miel (1972) that supervisors should observe how they respond to teachers. Notice their tendency to stereotype. Notice their own strengths and weaknesses. Watch their tendency to "have to win". Notice their tendency to react to "power poison". (Lewis & Miel 1972 in Doll, 1983: 85).

As far as sharing or giving responsibility to teachers is concerned, Stones (1984) in his Guide for Enhancing Supervision referred to earlier suggests that supervisors should invite teachers to appraise their own performance in comparison with their intentions, prompt them and guide them to sharpen their perceptions, encourage them to make their analysis and critique in relation to earlier work in pedagogy, and to identify their own weaknesses. Supervisors should commend teachers for accurate appraisal so as to neutralize the negative effects of the identification of shortcomings. They should avoid criticism unaccompanied by positive suggestions and invite teachers to suggest changes they would make if repeating the lesson.

Although one might take issue with the overall subordination of practice to theory with no clear recognition of how a teacher's practice might inform pedagogical theory, which seems to underlie Stone's model, these suggestions could help supervisors to adopt a more systematic approach to the issue of helping teachers to progressively take responsibility for their own supervision through systematic reflective practice related to their own experience. This point is taken up by Beatty (1977) with special reference to supervisors working in group settings. They should make sure that:

- all members sense that they belong to the group.
- many stimuli to action are available.
- the members are encouraged to explore ideas.
- there are ample opportunities for spread of participation.
- teachers are encouraged to make their own judgements.
- the members are valued for having had widely differing experiences.
communication and interaction occur freely. Few tensions and anxieties exist in the group. (Beatty 1977 in Doll. 1983: 83).

These suggestions are meant to facilitate not only congenial human relationship and group cohesion, but mainly to facilitate teachers' learning from their own experiences.

The fourth comment is that the fundamental difference between the two ends of the continuum along which the approaches have been arranged seemed to be the way they conceive of teacher learning. Those on the training-content-directiveness end share a closed and didactic view as is the case with the competency based approach. Those on the development-process-nondirectiveness end share a more open ended and inquiry oriented view as is the case with clinical supervision or action research based supervision (see Boydell, 1986: 26). Indeed as pointed out by Knowles, (1974) the difference between the content model and the process model is not that one deals with content and the other does not, but that "the content model is concerned with transmitting information and skills, whereas the process model is concerned with providing procedures and resources for helping learners acquire information, understanding attitudes and values" (Knowles, op. cit: 116-117 in Mulford, op. cit in Hopkins op. cit: 177).

All these assumptions about alternative perspectives to supervision and to trainers/supervisors' roles have serious implications for trainer /supervisor training. This training needs to take account of trainers' need to be aware of the nature of schools as organisations in a social context, using for example the potential of Organisation Development (O.D) theories. It must also take account of how much trainers should bring to the learning process and how much they should learn to leave to the teachers' initiatives so as to allow a fair sharing of responsibility as well as to create an effective optimal learning environment for
teachers as adult learners. Supervisors need an awareness of the general principles of adult learning and adult education and of the role of facilitators in that learning, as discussed in subsection 4-1-1 of this chapter, in order to successfully implement the alternatives suggested in this discussion. This may also help them to adopt a more qualitative and collaborative approach to teacher evaluation.
CHAPTER FIVE : THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS 3: EVALUATION

5-1 Dimensions of educational programme evaluation

Educational evaluation is closely associated with concepts and approaches of the exact sciences within the positivist paradigm. But it has undergone a gradual emancipation from those concepts for more sensitive and responsive conceptions of and approaches to evaluation.

In the process of this evolution, educational evaluation, and INSET evaluation in particular, has been approached from various theoretical positions. Stakes (1975) identifies eight such positions presented in the form of paired dimensions: formative-summative, formal-informal, case particular-generalisation, product-process, descriptive-judgemental, pre-ordinate-responsive, holistic-analytic, internal-external. Admittedly there are overlaps and correlations among these dimensions and among the various approaches operating from either side of the continua of the paired dimensions. For the purpose of this study three of those dimensions will be considered, namely the formative-summative dimension, the product-process dimension, and the holistic-analytic dimension as most helpful.

5-1-1 Formative - summative

Scriven (1967) introduces these distinctions to discriminate between evaluation carried out during the development of a programme and evaluation done after the programme has been completed. But as pointed out by Stake (1976) the main point is not that of time of the evaluation but that of who is using it for what. As he puts it "when the cook tastes the food, it is formative evaluation, and when the guest tastes the soup it is summative. The key is not so much when as
why. What is the information for? For further preparation and correction or for savouring and consumption? Both lead to decision making, but towards different decisions" (Stakes, 1976 in Hopkins 1986: 246).

5-1-2 Product - process

Educational evaluations vary according to the extent to which they set priority on product, that is, the outcomes of a programme to indicate its pay-off value, or on process, that is, the transactions occurring during its implementation, in order to provide information on the intrinsic values of the programme.

5-1-3 Holistic - analytic

A holistic approach considers the programme as a totality and endeavours to preserve its complexity by taking account of contextual factors, not as interfering variables to be controlled, but as part and parcel of the experience as a whole, using case studies. Analytic approaches on the other hand isolate a small number of key characteristics or variables and study their relationship in a multi-variate analysis for eventual generalisation.

5-2 Conceptions and approaches to educational evaluation

5-2-1 Evaluation as measurement

In the 50s and early 60s evaluation was closely associated with measurement. Thus INSET evaluation was mainly understood as the measurement in terms of the presence, direction, amount and rate of changes in the area of knowledge, teaching skills, attitudes, internal feelings, motives and aspirations occurring as a result of training.
It relied heavily on manipulable indices with a consequent neglect of variables which are not easily amenable to statistical manipulation, and on comparison of individuals to the norms of the central tendency of a reference group. It was essentially product oriented.

This conception of evaluation has been criticised as narrow in focus and mechanistic in approach in spite of some accommodation to include more subjective elements, as in this definition:

The term evaluation, as we use it, is closely related to measurement. It is in some respects more inclusive, including informal and intuitive judgements in (and) the aspects of valuing, of saying what is desirable and good. Good measurement techniques provide the solid foundations for sound evaluation. (Thorndike & Hage, 1961 in Henderson, 1978: 53)

5-2-2 Evaluation by objectives as comparison of goals and outcomes

Following the works of Tyler (1942, 1949) and Mager (1962) supported in the 60s by the development of taxonomies of educational objectives (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 1964; Simpson (1966, 1971), evaluation was reconceptualised as "a systematic process of determining the extent to which educational objectives are achieved" (Gronlund, 1965). It was conceived of as a five stage process involving: identification of the objectives to be achieved, definition of these objectives in terms of the behaviours which would characterise them; development of appraisal instruments to study these behaviours; examination of the data gathered in the light of norms by which the adequacy of the behaviour may be judged, and making formal decisions regarding value in relation to the original objectives. Approaches such as pupil gain by testing and teacher performance scores, which measure pupil or teacher performance and progress relying on
goal statements, test score analysis, discrepancy between goals and actuality are part of this evaluation tradition.

But many criticisms have been raised (see Macdonalds, 1973; Stenhouse, 1981; Eisner, 1985) against this tradition mainly on the following grounds.

- The dynamic and complex process of education yields outcomes too numerous to be specified in advance in behavioural and/or content terms;
- The instructional objectives theory does not take account of subject matter for which educational objectives cannot be predicted;
- The desirability of specifying objectives in advance is questionable;
- Evaluation in terms of relation between objectives and outcomes runs the risk of ignoring the learning process and the learning experiences which have occurred in between.

Taking account of some of these criticisms the evaluation by objectives approach has been broadened and developed by some writers. Thus, Stake (1967) proposes an evaluation design which does not only concern itself with outcomes but explores antecedent conditions existing before the teaching/learning process as related to both pupils and teachers as well as to the learning environment, and which may have some bearing on outcomes. In addition, it also taps the transactions; that is, the interactions between teachers and learners and among learners in the process of education for insight into outcomes. Stake also makes explicit the distinction between descriptive functions of evaluation and its judgemental function which are both necessary. The transaction observation approach as described by Stake (1976) belongs to this conception of evaluation. (See Appendix to Chapter 5 No 1)
This judgemental function is excluded by another conception pioneered by Stufflebeam (1968, 1971) which conceives evaluation as "the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (Stufflebeam, 1971 in Henderson, 1978: 62). The function of the evaluator is to collect, organise, analyse and report information. It is up to policy makers to pass judgement and take decisions on the basis of this information. The adequacy of the evaluator's work is assessed on five criteria: validity (Is the information provided what is needed?), reliability (Is it reproducible?), timeliness (Is it available when needed?), pervasiveness (Does it reach all those who need it?), and credibility (Is it trusted by them?). Approaches such as management analysis described by Stakes (1976) may be seen as deriving from these conceptions. In his opinion four kinds of decisions are served by evaluation and from them four types of evaluation have been identified:

- **planning decisions**, concerned with the improvement needed in the system. It is served by context evaluation which describes and explores elements, problems and possibilities of the system, analyses discrepancies between intentions and actualities.

- **programming decisions**, concerned mainly with requirements in personnel, facilities, budget and time. It is dealt with by input evaluation which provides information on how resources might be used to meet the goal.

- **implementation decision** concerned with the direction of the activities. It is served by process evaluation which identifies or anticipates defects in the design of the project or its implementation. It builds up an account of what actually happened. This is somewhat similar to Stake's transactional data.

- **recycling decision** has to do with the termination, continuation or modification of the educational programme. **product evaluation** is used to help these decisions by
determining the effectiveness of the project and relating outcomes to context, input and process.

the merit of Stufflebeam's conception is that it makes INSET evaluation responsive to consumers' needs. Approaches such as institutional self-study by staff, management analysis, social policy analysis described by Stake may be traced back to this conception.

5-2-3 Towards more holistic approaches to evaluation

In spite of these adjustments to the goal oriented or evaluation by objectives model many consider it ineffective on many grounds. For example it is argued that the knowledge of preordinate objectives may have a conditioning effect on evaluators, that there is overemphasis on providers' goals at the expense of teachers' needs and feelings, that there is overreliance on analytical procedures and rationality at the expense of intuition and subjective appreciation, on the study of discrete elements and isolated instructional objectives at the expense of more holistic approaches. So on the basis of these criticisms alternative approaches have been proposed by various evaluators. The work of Scriven (1971, 1972) Parlett & Hamilton (1972) MacDonalds 1976) Elliot (1977a, 1978) and Eisner (1985) are worth examining in this connection.

5-2-3-1 Scriven's contribution and Goal free evaluation

Scriven (1971,1972) observes that prior knowledge of programme providers' goals interfere with evaluators' work. He/she might be so preoccupied with the stated goals that unintended or unanticipated but important outcomes go unnoticed. He proposes the concept of goal free evaluation which avoids contamination by prespecified goals and
encourages the evaluator to be attentive to a wider range of possible outcomes, using a checklist. The effects of the programmes are assessed, not against providers' goals but against consumers' needs. It requires the evaluator to make value judgements not only on observed outcomes but also on the validity and worth of providers' goals. This conception of evaluation seems compatible with the instructional research approach which aims to generate explanations and tactics of instruction. It also concurs with Macdonald's autocratic evaluation.

5-2-3-2 Macdonald's contribution and democratic evaluation

Macdonald (1976) considers that approaches to evaluation fall into three main categories: bureaucratic evaluation, autocratic evaluation and democratic evaluation. Bureaucratic evaluation offers information which will help the accomplishment of the policy objectives of those who hold office. The evaluator has no independence and no control over the use made of his/her information. Autocratic evaluation seeks to validate policy in exchange with compliance with the evaluator's recommendations. He/she retains ownership of his/her study and may publish it in academic journals. Democratic evaluation, the approach favoured by Macdonald serves the whole community. It recognises value pluralism and seeks to represent a range of interests in formulating the issues to be investigated.

5-2-3-3 Elliot's contribution and evaluation from below

In the same line of thought, Elliot (1977a, 1978) proposes the terms of evaluation from above to include both bureaucratic and autocratic evaluation which he characterises as social engineering for social control which
he opposes to *evaluation from below*. Evaluation from below Henderson explains is

a form of social criticism which aims to illuminate for participants and others, the constraints on professional development in in-service situations so that they are in a better position to remove them. The objectivity of the evaluation is tested in dialogues with participants rather than through controlled observations using standardised measures as in evaluation from above (Henderson, 1978: 71).

Elliot himself advocates the evaluation from below as the most effective way of developing professional understanding which involves enabling, fostering and providing opportunities for teachers' professional development.

5-2-3-4 Parlett and Hamilton's contribution and illuminative evaluation

A similar view is contained in Parlett and Hamilton's (1972) proposals of illuminative evaluation. After a scathing criticism of goal oriented evaluation which they accuse of being so preoccupied with statistical generalisations that it becomes insensitive to unusual effects, and atypical results, neglects anecdotal and impressionistic data, and fails to articulate the varied concerns of different interest groups, they propose the concept of *illuminative evaluation*. It is an approach grounded in the social-anthropological paradigm. It explores the interaction between the *instructional system*, that is, "the idealised specification of the learning scheme including, for example, a set of pedagogic assumptions, a syllabus and details of techniques and equipment;" (Henderson, op. cit: 67-68) and the learning milieu, that is "the social psychological and material environment in which students and teachers (or in the context of in-service training, teachers and teacher trainers) work together— a
complex network of cultural, social, institutional and psychological variables" (Henderson, op. cit 68).

The strategy of illuminative evaluation consists essentially in observing, inquiring further and seeking to explain. It requires the evaluator to observe practice and interview participants, teachers as well as pupils. The main aim of illuminative evaluation as they put it themselves is to study the innovatory programme: how it operates, how it is influenced by the various educational situations in which it is applied; what those directly concerned regard as its advantages and disadvantages, and how students' intellectual tasks and academic experiences are most affected. It aims to discover and document what it is like to be participating in the scheme, whether as teacher or student, and in addition, to discern and discuss the innovation's most significant features, recurring concomitants, and critical processes. In short it seeks to address and illuminate a complex array of questions. (Parlett & Hamilton, 1972 in Henderson, 1978: 67).

Approaches such as the blue ribbon panels, institutional self-study (Stakes, 1976 in Hopkins 1986: 252-253) may be considered as operationalisation of the illuminative approach.

5-2-3-5

Eisner's contribution and educational connoisseurship and criticism

This view of evaluation is quite congruent with Eisner's (1985) conception of educational evaluation as educational connoisseurship and criticism. Eisner's proposal springs from the observation that formal education practice is an inordinately complicated affair filled with contingencies that are extremely difficult to predict, let alone control. Hence his strong reservation about specification of behavioural instructional objectives and his call for both expressive objectives designed, not to lead the student to a particular goal or form of behaviour, but to a form of
thinking, feeling, acting, that are of his/her own making, and type iii objectives less open than expressive objectives and which requires the learner to "bring his imaginative resources to bear upon a highly specific problem but one that makes possible a wide variety of solutions" (Eisner, 1985: 78)

A goal oriented evaluation would obviously be inadequate to appreciate the worth of a programme specified in those terms. What is needed, he argues is educational connoisseurship and criticism.

*Educational connoisseurship* is defined as an appreciative art which enables awareness of the characteristics and quality of an educational programme. More than an approach, educational connoisseurship is a capacity of the evaluator to "develop a highly differentiated array of anticipatory schemata that enable him to discern qualities and relationship that others less well differentiated are less likely to see" (Eisner, op. cit: 153) He describes and illustrates the functions of these schemata as follows:

These schemata allow one to bracket phenomena so that they become defined and visible. Some of the schemata may take the form of prefigured concepts that have discursive labels. For example one may intentionally look for manifestations of 'competition' in the classroom and try to determine its sources; but what we decide counts as competition is essentially non discursive. We recognize it by a variety of images we hold. It may manifest itself in the tone of voice that one child uses in speaking to another; it may emerge in the particular way in which one stands, or in what he or she says. All of this occurs in a living context that plays a significant role in the meaning we give to the tone of voice, the posture and the content of someone's remarks (Eisner, op. cit: 153)

These anticipatory schemata, even if some of them can be given a conceptual life, are essentially inefable, personal, subjective, and immediate experience. In order to convey
these experiences to others they have to undergo some transformation through educational criticism

The function of educational criticism is to "try to say in words what words cannot say" (op. cit: 154) in order to illuminate, to enable others to experience what they may have missed. It is to write in a way that will enable the reader to vicariously participate in the event that constitutes the aspect of classroom life about which the critic speaks (see Eisner, 1979). There are three main aspects to educational criticism: artistic description of events as discussed above, interpretation and appraisal. Interpretation is concerned with the process of applying theoretical ideas to explain the conditions that have been described. This aspect of educational criticism reconciles Eisner's views with the mainstream tradition as it acknowledges the contribution of appropriate theory from other branches of social sciences and humanities to shed light on the findings of educational evaluation and research. Appraisal or evaluation which addresses issues related to the ultimate value of educational experiences, and grapples with questions such as: what are the educational trade-offs among the pedagogical devices that the teacher has used and were there alternatives that could have been selected? As he puts it:

When an educational critic appraises in a way which is designed to provide constructive feedback to the teacher, evaluation begins to perform its most important function: providing the conditions that lead to the improvement of the educational process (Eisner, op. cit: 155)

5-3 Where to go from here?

As has been seen in this section, many options are available for use in educational evaluation. The question now is which one to choose? The point has been cogently made that context, purpose and resources will determine the answer to
that question: "The best evaluation methodology is dictated by context and depends upon resources at hand, time and commitment of those conducting the study, requirements and policies shaping the evaluation, and of course the objectives of the training institution" (Borich in Bolam, 1982 in Hopkin, 1986:217). But as pointed out by Bolam (op.cit) experience strongly suggests that a pluralistic strategy in which a variety of disciplines and techniques both qualitative and quantitative are employed, may well be feasible and more productive both practically and theoretically. (Bolam, op.cit in Hopkin, Op.cit : 220)

It has also been shown that the evaluation may have various foci. In the present study special attention is given to teachers and pupils. The effectiveness of the experimental INSET will be evaluated in terms of improvement in the classroom practice of the former and of language progress and interest in communicative language teaching in the latter.

In line with the above recommendation a multi method approach will be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the present INSET project. The focus of this evaluation on teachers' improvement makes such an approach necessary as will be seen in the next section about teacher evaluation.

5-4 Teacher evaluation

5-4-1 Definitions, purpose and source

5-4-1-1 Definitions

Various terms are used to refer to teacher evaluation: teacher assessment, teacher appraisal and teacher review are the most frequently used in the British educational system. Although there are some nuances in the definitions of those
terms, in the context of INSET evaluation they all refer to means and processes by which the worth and merit of an in-service experience could be discovered. They are parts of the continuous process of "improvement and extension of professional skills, on criterion measure, both retrospective and prospective, looking back at what has been achieved, taking stock of the present and the planning of some pathways that will help the teacher to develop further in the future" (Wragg, 1987: 1)

It has been suggested (DES, 1985) that 'evaluation' should be used to refer to any activity by an educational institution where the quality of provision is the subject of systematic study, and 'appraisal' to emphasise the forming of qualitative judgement about an activity, a person or an organisation. Thus staff appraisal refers to qualitative judgement about performance. As for assessment and review, the former implies the use of measurement and grading based on known criteria, while the latter refers to a retrospective activity implying the collection and examination of evidence and information. In this section the term teacher appraisal is preferred following Wragg (1987) because of its actuality in the wake of current regulations of the British educational system. It will be used interchangeably with teacher evaluation.

5-4-1-2 Purposes and sources

At the 1989 annual conference of the Teacher Education Study Group (TESG) on "Performance Indicators in Teacher Education" attended by the present writer, Sir William Taylor (then Professor Taylor) in his keynote speech focussed on the CATE (Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education) experience, drew participants' attention to the fact that concern for the the monitoring of the quality of teachers' performance, in other words teacher
appraisal, has become a widespread current cultural and political phenomenon.

Several reasons were given to justify this concern. First there is the increasing demand for accountability from the public who no longer accept that professionals should determine their needs on an autonomous basis and be the sole arbiters of how these are best met. This trend is reinforced by the growth of special interest groups whose concern for quality helps to legitimise the limitation of autonomy. On the other hand the limits of public resources require more explicit determination and differentiation between needs, wants and social priorities in the increasing complexity of modern states and the formulation of acceptable and comprehensive criteria for decision making about resource allocation. The need for such criteria in the form of some formulae which help emphasise shared values in a context of cultural pluralism and reduce political contention also justifies this concern for the monitoring of quality.

In addition, the resulting quantification of performance using such formulae and facilitated by the developments of new technology help differential allocation of resources to counteract mediocrity and/or deterioration as well as rewarding achievement. It helps link and better understand the relationship between input (resource allocation) and outcomes. It has also been pointed out that the emergence of Performance Indicators, Personal Appraisal and other manifestations of concern for quality serve the dual purpose of fostering social and institutional discipline as well as empowering individuals. (From personal notes on Sir William's speech and conference report summary by Ian Lewis, secretary TESG). It should perhaps be noted that the goal oriented perspectives that seem to underlie most of these justifications may limit the extent to which the empowerment purpose will be met.
The purposes of teacher appraisal cited in the literature (see Wragg, 1987; O'Brien, 1986; Braskamp, et al, 1984; Millman, 1981) reflect similar views. The following are the most often cited purposes of teacher evaluation:

a - improvement of teaching and learning
b - motivation of teachers and encouragement of their creativity and experimental initiatives
c - promotion of individual growth, self development and self evaluation
d - redirection of encouragement and reward of teachers' efforts to achieve goals and objectives set by educational policies
e - validation of teachers' selection processes
f - investigation of whether or not investment in teachers is better value than investment in other educational resources
g - dismissal or demotion of incompetent teachers
h - modification of assignment
i - control of the teaching profession
j - research in teaching/learning processes and products.

It could be observed that these purposes fall roughly into the two basic kinds of evaluation distinguished by Scriven (1967), i.e. formative evaluation (a, b, c, j) and summative evaluation (d, e, f, g, h). These in turn correspond broadly and respectively to McNeil's (1981) two conflicting views of teacher evaluation, the non controlling view and the accountability view. Braskamp et al's (1984) two major functions of evaluation i.e. evaluation for improvement and evaluation for personnel decision, and to White's (1986) distinction between development centred appraisal and evaluation centred appraisal.

As for sources, information on teachers' performance could be collected from teachers themselves, from colleagues, i.e.
administrators, inspectors, peers; from pupils and from records.

5-4-2 Approaches

5-4-2-1 Close or open appraisal?

Approaches to teacher appraisal are essentially based on the main trends and dimensions discussed earlier in relation to educational programme evaluation. Before looking at the forms taken by these dimensions in Britain and America mainly, it import to discuss the specific issue of an open or close approach to teacher appraisal.

In a close teacher appraisal, as Wragg (1987) explains, teachers being appraised do not have access to any report or grades of the appraisal. They are not aware of any adverse criticisms, except a verbal overview provided by the evaluator. It is argued in favour of this approach that it allows evaluation to be honest rather than diplomatic. It is also pointed out that if teachers were confronted with a blunt appraisal they could be easily discouraged and demoralised.

However there are objections to this. It is argued that people fantasise about reports they have not seen, that those in positions of authority acquire unchecked power if they can write secret reports, that the information recorded may be inaccurate so the person being appraised should be allowed to check it and comment on it. Therefore an open appraisal is often preferred.

In open appraisal people see the report written about them. It is contended that the value of appraisal lies in that it can be openly discussed for improved practice and that an open system encourages trust and mutual respect. This view
is shared by Wragg (op. cit) who suggests that teachers whose performance is being appraised should be able to read, comment on, challenge and countersign any written report and should be given their own copy. This is in line with the confrontation model proposed by Abraham Fischler (1971) whereby teachers are given a copy of the supervisor's notes to allow him/her to see the discrepancy, if any, between his/her lesson plan and the actual lesson as given by him/her and recorded by the tutor/supervisor. Although many approaches to teacher evaluation have been proposed, there seems to be a number of overlaps between them. Some of them will be examined in this study along three main dimensions: the goal oriented dimension, the process oriented dimension and the agent dimension, that is, the dimension of who the evaluator is.

5-4-2-2  

Goal oriented dimension

5-4-2-2-1  

Management by Objectives

Adapted from business circles (see Drucker, 1973) management by objectives focuses on the overall goal of the organisation and the community at large and the mission of its subunits. Teacher performance objectives are determined by the priorities of the organisation and its needs. It is an aspect of what in the States is known as contract plans appraisal (see Ewanicki, 1981) whereby teachers draft performance objectives which serve as a basis for the evaluation. Contract plan could also follow another approach to evaluation, that of clinical supervision.

5-4-2-2-2  

Clinical supervision

The clinical supervision approach is geared towards providing individual teachers with a personalised system of guidance and support focussing the evaluation on objectives
related to the unique role of the teacher in the organisation or his/her personal needs (see Cogan 1973). It consists of eight stages as defined below:

1 Establishment of the supervisor/student relationship: explanation of the procedures and rationale.
2 Supervisor and student jointly plan lesson or series of lessons.
3 Supervisor and student jointly plan the arrangements for the observation of the teaching and collection of data about it.
4 Observation of teaching in classroom. Collection of data, possibly using some form of observation system (e.g. Flanders's system).
5 Student and supervisor analyse the teaching.
6 Planning the supervisory conference either by the supervisor alone or with the student.
7 The supervisory conference.
8 Planning for further teaching taking into account necessary changes (Stones 1984: 34 after Cogan 1973)

5-4-2-2-3 Teaching consultation

The teaching consultation approach is similar to clinical supervision. But unlike clinical supervision which starts from the design of a teaching episode by the teacher in consultation with the evaluator, it starts from diagnosing and deciding on areas of improvement from the analysis of data about the teacher's performance and reviews new data and plans for another consultation cycle or terminates the consultation. It is geared towards behaviour modification through practice (see Brock, 1981)

5-4-2-2-4 Concept centred approach

This approach is based on the development of the conceptual understanding of teachers through written description and video taped illustration of specific teaching concept. It is hoped that such understanding will help teachers to develop critical teaching skills which will show in their teaching (See Brock, 1981, Gleisman et al 1979).
Clinical supervision, teaching consultation, and concept centred appraisals are all aspects of what Brock (op. cit) calls evaluation based teacher development. As such they are aspects of formative evaluation similar to approaches on the process dimension.

5-4-2-3 Process dimension

The approaches here are closely related to research methods and techniques and will be more fully discussed in the next part of the study concerned with research paradigms. Suffice it here to briefly present the two main approaches.

- Interaction analysis: Interaction analysis devises instruments to record, describe and analyze interactive patterns and type of activities in the classroom as a basis for teacher performance evaluation.

- Anthropological approach: this approach places the evaluation of the teaching event in the whole teaching context (see Mckenna, 1981) and adopts a holistic perspective to teacher evaluation with emphasis on participants' meanings and intentions.

5-4-2-4 Agent dimension

Wragg (1987) distinguishes five main types of approaches along this dimension: superior-subordinate appraisal, outsider appraisal, peer appraisal, self appraisal and pupil rating of teacher performance.

5-4-2-4-1 Superior-subordinate appraisal

It is the most current form of appraisal. It uses a top down process whereby teachers are appraised by the administration or the pedagogical authorities immediately above them. Wragg suggests that it would be beneficial for administrative or pedagogical authorities to build into their appraisal a
subordinate-superior appraisal with questions to teachers about how well those authorities are doing their jobs. Although there is the risk that as he says, "the courage expressed confidently to colleagues the night before, quickly evaporate or turns into bootlicking" (Wragg, op. cit: 15), a genuinely reciprocal exchange ought to be possible.

5-4-2-4-2 Outsider appraisal

This refers to appraisal done by teachers or head teachers from other schools or by local educational authorities' inspectors. It is meant to help broaden teachers' perspectives in a given school and facilitate the introduction of new ideas and new practices. It might also be used to control and compare the quality of teachers' practice in the school although this aspect is not mentioned by Wragg.

5-4-2-4-3 Peer appraisal

This appraisal is done by colleagues with expertise in the subject within the school. It should be mentioned, however, that some prefer colleagues from outside for various reasons among which is the desire to avoid prejudice and also the concern about teachers' face (see Scriven, 1981). They may be for instance pedagogical advisers. The essential point is that they are people of equal rank appraising each other.

It is sometimes argued that peer appraisal or peer review may lead to complacency with colleagues simply confirming each other's practices. Colleagues generally have their prejudices in favour or against the teacher to be assessed. This may negatively affect the fairness of the evaluation. But as Wragg (1987) points out it can make more inroads into improving classroom teaching than any other approach.
In this connection one may mention the peer review practice quite common in the States, especially at university level; colleagues assess their peers using pretty well established criteria related to quality of materials used in teaching in terms of currency, correctness and comprehensiveness; to knowledge and expertise in the major fields as reflected by the course syllabus and the reading list; to the kind of intellectual tasks set to students; to contribution to the instructional effort of the department; to the extent to which the teacher is striving for excellence in teaching etc. (see McNeil, 1981, French-Lazovik, 1981, Braskamp et al 1984, Scriven, 1981).

5-4-2-4-4 Self appraisal

It has been argued that self-appraisal is even more important than analysis by others (see Wragg, 1987) in so far as no matter what coercive method is used, it is up to the teacher to change his/her practice. Self appraisal precisely encourages teachers to become monitors of their own performance, provides them with opportunities to reflect upon their own teaching.

There is a wide range of approaches to self-evaluation. Braskamp et al (1984) mention the writing down of one's philosophy teaching strategies and judgement of one's strengths and weaknesses; the rating of oneself on a set of items on a checklist or a rating scale. Carroll (1981) mentions self reports on open ended questionnaires, which facilitate the setting of priorities and the formulation of long range professional plans, self-study materials, the self confrontation model emphasising the discrepancy between the teachers' view of reality and that of some observers. A focussed feedback on a video or an audio/video recording of the teacher's lesson can provide such a self-confrontation model. The use of microteaching may also be helpful in this
regard. Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR), a tool for interpersonal skills training in the States may also be of use. Carroll (op. cit.) summarising research on self appraisal or self rating indicates that "they have little agreement with the observation of students, colleagues and administrators' rating. Recent research indicates that self-assessments may show greater agreement with observation from others when they are cast in terms of ranking one's own performance against one's colleagues. Self-rating is particularly effective when it serves to identify for the instructor certain unexpected discrepancies with others' ratings" (Caroll, 1981: 182).

5-4-2-4-5 Pupil rating of teacher performance

Students and pupils are said to provide an important and unique perspective since they are the primary recipients of instruction. Besides it has been pointed out that student rating of teachers is a convenient response to students' desire for power (McNeil, 1981). However their participation in the formal evaluation of teachers is a function of their maturity, the nature of the particular community as well as of their teachers' disposition towards feedback from the frontline consumers of evaluation.

Pupil evaluation has been shown to be most appropriate for describing and judging pupil-teacher relationship, learning environment, teachers' professional and ethical behaviour, what has been learned in the course, fairness of grading, teachers' communicative skills, course content, course organisation and course difficulty. But students and pupils are not in a good position to judge how up to date the content of the course is, and the teacher's knowledge and scholarship. (see Braskamp et al, 1984; Aleamoni, 1981).
Evaluation data from students or pupils could be collected through evaluation questionnaires, rating scales (omnibus format; goal based format, or cafeteria format (see Braskamp et al, op. cit), staff-student committee and end of year discussion about course, written appraisal whereby pupils are asked to comment on course, individual or group interviews which can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured with preference generally going to the semi-structured format.

The research literature on pupils' opinions of teachers and teaching indicates a remarkable consistency, credibility and reliability of these opinions and a considerable agreement among pupils about individual teachers (Aleamoni, 1981; Braskamp et al, 1984; Wragg, 1988). But it has also been shown that although pupils may be discriminative judges, they are better at criticising than at suggesting improvement (Braskamp et al op. cit).

There are also a number of factors which have been shown to influence pupils' rating. Among them are: sex of pupils and teachers, anonymity, teacher's presence in the classroom during the rating, purpose of questionnaire or rating, time of rating. It has been strongly suggested that rating or questionnaire completion should be done anonymously. Teachers should not be in the classroom at the time of the evaluation. The evaluation should be done towards the end of the course. One should also be aware of possible fear of pupils that they may be identified through their handwriting or by other means if it is done in midterm for formative evaluation purposes (see Braskamp et al, op. cit).

5.4.3 Methods and techniques of data collection for teacher evaluation
Techniques and methods of data collection for teacher evaluation as shown by some references in the above discussion of approaches include achievement tests, ratings, checklists, survey questionnaires, reports, recreation of teaching situations, documentary evidence, interviews and observations. Most of these techniques are also used in educational research and most of them will be more thoroughly examined in the second part of the study concerned with paradigms of research. But it is in order to briefly discuss some of them here with special reference to educational evaluation in general and language education evaluation in particular.

5-4-3-1 Pupil achievement tests

Achievement test here is used broadly to refer to any indication of what pupils have achieved. It includes formal national examinations and classroom tests administered to everybody in the classroom or given as matrix sampling tests with each pupil receiving only part of the whole test, as well as curriculum embedded tasks such as completed homework, in-class assignments, answers to questions posed by teachers and pupils and pupils' self appraisal of their learning accomplishment and difficulties.

As touched on earlier in the discussion of teaching and teacher/teaching effectiveness many educationists object to the use of pupil achievement as a measure of teacher competence and effectiveness. Most arguments against and for it have been summed up by Millman (1981). It is argued that there are too many factors beyond teachers' control affecting pupil learning besides teacher performance, among which are pupil characteristics, the instructional materials and setting, the achievement test used, the context of teaching (noise, overcrowdedness etc.). In short, he says,
the opponents of the use of student achievement data argue that

the best teacher in the world would not fare very well if faced with slow learners, unmotivated students, a poor learning environment, and an achievement measure out of harmony with the teacher's goal (Millman, 1981:157).

In connection with this it is argued that unadjusted test scores may favour teachers of more able learners and disfavour the teachers of less able classes (Wragg, 1987). Another line of objection presented by Wragg (op. cit) is that most achievement tests are tests of knowledge, of recall of factual information, and as such, tell us little about understanding, skills and attitudes. Besides tests of short term memory ignores longer term objectives. On the other hand if pupil test scores are considered as the main criterion of judgement, teachers will tend to narrow down the curriculum to those aspects that are to be tested, and will concentrate on coaching for the next assessment. It is also argued that knowing how pupils do on a test does not necessarily lead to improved teaching. There is a need for additional feedback (Braskamp et al, 1984). However Wragg (1987) considers that pupil achievement test scores may be part of the appraisal if the raw scores are adjusted using techniques such as multiple regression and analysis of variance.

Indeed advocates of the use of test scores contend that all measurement contains errors and no method can be completely free from bias and other sources of invalidity. The essential thing is to strive for as fair and valid a measure as possible. They consider that achievement tests constitute one of the most direct measures of teacher effectiveness in so far as the role of teaching is to improve learning. Other indicators such as teacher behaviour, student rating, etc. are mere proxies for the real criterion. There are not even
good proxies as research (e.g. studies such as those of McKeachie, 1975) has shown that a teacher's classroom behaviour is a poor predictor of pupil learning.

It is therefore necessary to consider pupil achievement as part and parcel of teacher/teaching effectiveness criteria. But it is necessary to make sure that the test is an appropriate measure, i.e. it reflects the curriculum and assesses pupil performance on the specific goals and objectives of the course; that it is reliable, i.e. produces similar results on different administrations and the judgement of the teacher is based on several tests in different classes if the teacher is teaching more than one class; that it is fair, i.e. does not place any teacher at an advantage or disadvantage; that it is comparable, i.e. uses adjusted scores. (see Wragg, 1987; Braskamp, 1984; Millman, 1981).

5-4-3-2 Classroom observation

Classroom observation aims to evaluate the teaching process and its possible relationship with pupil learning. It focuses on teachers' and pupils' verbal and non-verbal behaviours in the classroom. It provides a fuller view of the climate, rapport, interaction and function of a classroom than most other sources. It is however a very controversial technique as shown by the following criticisms by Scriven (1981) who goes as far as considering it as disgrace to teachers.

He rejects it on the ground that it alters the teaching; that the sample observed is not representative, not only because of the presence of the observer, but also because of the limited time and number of observations; that observers are not devoid of positive or negative prejudices as they are colleagues, who, in their other roles, are involved in
adversarial proceedings or alliances with them. Besides nothing observed in the classroom can justifiably serve as a basis for inference about the merit of teaching as shown by studies reviewed for example in Centra (1979) which show that no style indicator correlates reliably with short or long term student learning.

Another point is made that although there is no best way of teaching yet discovered, observers tend to be biased by their own teaching style preferences and believe that not doing it their way or in one or two other ways they approve of is doing it badly. (see Scriven, op.cit: 251). There may also be a lack of similarity between the visitor/observer's thought processes and those of the teacher due to age, maturity or cultural differences, which makes empathetic understanding of the teacher virtually impossible.

These points concur with Wragg's (1987) concerns about observer effects. He identifies four such effects: teachers' unnaturalness when being observed, observer's projection whereby he/she imagines himself/herself doing the teaching and not the actual teacher with his/her individuality; observer compensation i.e, his/her tendency to seek to make up for his/her own deficiencies by exaggerating them in the observed teacher; power relationship between the observer and the observed which may affect the observation and aggravate the unnaturalness referred to earlier. Besides, as pointed out by Evertson & Holley (1981), the properties of the classroom, the wealth, complexity and pace of the phenomena create problems for successful classroom observation, in so far as it imposes selection which might leave out more interesting aspects as will be shortly more fully discussed in chapter six. In spite of these risks and criticisms classroom observation is strongly advocated as fundamental progress over the input-output model of evaluation as will also be discussed later.
Classroom observation may be carried out using an instrument with predetermined categories such as teacher question, teacher explanation, classroom management, subject specialism etc. Data are then collected using time line, category system, sign system or rating system as will be seen later. In this connection observers are advised to be aware of the danger of halo rating recency and central clustering (see Wragg, 1987). It can also adopt a more open ended style with observers just taking some field notes for later elaboration, focusing on critical events during the lesson, or describing as much as possible what has happened, using a narrative mode (anecdote, interpretive note, specimen records or the complete descriptive narrative (see Evertson & Holley, op. cit).

Feedback on observation could be given to teachers during the lesson discussion or appraisal interview when teachers' reaction to the lesson, its typicality, and their own views on a follow up are discussed. Conditions for a successful observation have been discussed by Evertson & Holley (op. cit). Among them it is worth drawing attention to the establishing of a climate for evaluation and the need for the evaluator to be aware of the dangers of influences on him/her as well as of the contextual factors. With regards to climate they observe:

The essential of good human relations that must be attended to first in any evaluation are assuring: 1.) that the individual to be observed is fully informed about purpose and nature of the observation, 2.) that the entire process is conducted as unobtrusively as possible and with as little disruption of the normal routine as possible, and 3.) that good communication is maintained throughout the evaluation process. (Evertson & Holley, 1981: 93)

As for influences on observers they advise evaluators to look past external characteristics to strengthen objectivity in carrying out the
observation; they must be aware of how easily parents or staff comments can influence what is seen, because they say "the literature is full of documentations of factors that can influence ratings such as attractiveness, age, sex, ethnicity weight and height" (Evertson & Holley, op. cit: 95). The evaluator must also be sensitive to the values, needs and functioning of the institution if observation is to meet its specific objectives. Of course how far and how rigorously any evaluator follows these pieces of advice will depend on his/her perspectives, purpose and philosophy as discussed earlier.

5-4-4 Implications for the present study

The discussion so far has shown that teacher evaluation is a complex business involving a host of contextual factors, such as pupil characteristics, educational goals and objectives, curriculum mandates, in-service opportunities, human support facilities, organisational structures and processes, leadership and supervision skills, decision making power, climate of professional worth and contribution, working conditions, human services, security benefits, community characteristics, priorities for schooling and financial resources. (see Mckenna, 1981 for details of these factors). In these conditions, teacher evaluation is not only a teaching/learning context evaluation, but the evaluation of a whole social order as epitomised in the teaching event. So no one purpose, approach or method as rightly pointed out by most of the writers quoted in the discussion could be powerful enough on its own to ensure an effective teacher evaluation. Therefore Braskamp et al's view that teaching effectiveness can best be evaluated if it is assessed from a variety of perspectives, is shared in this study. Consequently the multiple purpose, criteria, source method and approach
advocated by them will be used for the evaluation of teacher performance and of the whole experimental INSET evaluation.

5-5 Evaluation in English language education

5-5-1 The need for more attention to evaluation in language education

In this study evaluation in language education is understood in Brown's (1989) terms 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 particular institutions involved. (Brown, 1989: 223)

The literature on the subject reveals an evolution which follows the same trends, grapples with the same issues as those discussed earlier with regards to general educational evaluation. It should be noted however that up until the advent of communicative language teaching, and in spite of the apparent centrality of evaluation in most curriculum and syllabus models as a regulating and monitoring component, few discussions of evaluation and of its procedures and methods go beyond the measurement of outcomes through the testing of learners. Still, as noted by Murphy (1985) "until energy and attention are diverted from theory and design of curriculum and syllabuses to design and implementation of evaluation, followed by publication of results, then language teaching is not going to achieve the sort of advance theoreticians are striving for" (Murphy, 1985: 11). The current interest in evaluation and in the ways in which it can best respond to the need of practitioners and decision makers as well as maintaining academic standards is therefore a welcome development in the profession. The present discussion will focus on this widening scope and purpose of evaluation in language education.
Scope and purpose

Murphy (op. cit) indicates four main areas of language education in which evaluation can be of valuable contribution: the curriculum as shown in Hayes's (1983) work in Sierra Leone, materials (see for example Cunningsworth & Tomlinson, 1984; Harmer, 1983), teaching and learning and not just teachers and learners using procedures which tap processes and affective factors and not only quantifiable outcomes. Attitudes constitute the last area where evaluation can help to better apprehend the phenomena of negative attitudes in learners and parents and how to cope with them and motivate uninterested learners.

Evaluation, Murphy (op. cit) says, serves to relate the other elements of the curriculum to each other and to the goals and effects they achieve, and to judge their efficiency and effectiveness. It results in assessment, accountability and awareness. Assessment has to do with measurement provided by tests and other quantitative techniques, but its role, although important is limited (see Alderson & Hughes, 1981; Allen & Davies, 1977) As observed by O'Brien (1986) "the task of measuring exactly how much language a student has learnt or acquired as a direct result of a language teaching programme may remain an illusive one for many years to come" O'Brien, 1986: 65). Accountability in Murphy's acception is not to be interpreted as "answerable for what has happened" in the negative connotation of evaluation as only interested in seeking out inadequacies and failings. It should be understood as "able to account for, or report accurately upon". Awareness has to do with the change of attitude which can result from the enlightening role of evaluation in providing information which accounts for and facilitates recognition of, for example, failure or mismatch between purpose and achievement. It has to do with teachers'
commitment to systematic questioning of their teaching and to the testing of theory in practice.

With special reference to communicative language teaching curriculum Potts (1985) considers that the need for evaluation arises from the fact that the input is not specified in advance and the language learning process is not limited to the manipulation of language forms. So although there is an in-built informal evaluation in the process of communicative language teaching/learning some structure is needed to sift, sort and compare the data of this informal evaluation, to identify the implicit values students hold about learning, articulate them, act upon them and change them as their awareness of what they are doing develops. Evaluation also helps to build up a sense of achievement, to make pupils aware of what they are doing and where they are going. It helps to articulate progress. In his terms, this form of evaluation is an internal evaluation somewhat equivalent to formative evaluation. But evaluation also serves accountability purposes as a way of providing evidence to sponsors and other stake holders as to what is happening with regards to both the validity of the course and to the progress of pupils. He calls this kind of evaluation external evaluation, equivalent to summative evaluation.

5-5-3 Issues and approaches to evaluation in language education

5-5-3-1 Theory oriented or user oriented evaluation?

One of the most important issues of evaluation in language education is the extent to which it can be made responsive to what Beretta (1990) calls the Policy Shaping Community (PSC) without jeopardising its research character and its academic standard. The problem is the more complex since as
observed by Rea (1983) "different areas of evaluation are important to different people, at different times, and for different reasons" (Rea 1983: 90). Indeed the ELT PSC is made up of a variety of people: parents, official bodies, school principals, teachers, programme developers, learners, teacher trainers, textbook writers and researchers. (Beretta, 1990).

Besides as demonstrated by Beretta in advocacy for more responsive evaluation in a series of seminal works (Beretta, 1990, 1987, 1986a 1986b 1986c, 1985) evaluation which he conceives of as an applied research has not yet been able to make any clear contribution to the advancement of theory in either language teaching or language learning as acknowledged by Lightbown (1985). On the other hand its preoccupation with positivistic canons of academic research has not allowed it to be of as much use as it could be to the PSC so far. So, as he puts it "caught between unattainable theoretical aspirations and lack of relevance to PSC needs, very many of the evaluations we carry out occupy a no man's land in the literature" (Beretta,1990:4). Indeed "whereas persons who commission evaluation complain that the messages from evaluation are not useful, evaluators complain that the messages are not used" (Cronbach et al, 1980:47 in Beretta, 1990). Still as recommended by Cronbach (1982) the logic of science must come to terms with the logic of politics. For that to happen, Beretta agrees with King (1982) that it will not be enough to simply present the PSC with the results of an evaluation and hope that they will be used. A user oriented evaluation must be shaped around a number of key aspects to make it usable:

* Localisation : instead of large scale cross national or even nation wide evaluation, localising the evaluation increases the chances of utilisation as more careful attention is paid to local needs, and the design is more
responsive to local circumstances. The result is that the evaluation has more relevance to a smaller but less diffuse PSC.

* **Meticulous attention to PSC concerns:** contrary to Scriven's (1971) 'goal free' evaluation but in line with Stufflebeam's (1968) views a user oriented evaluation must start from the view that evaluation will be useful only to the extent to which it relates to questions policy makers want answered (see O'Keefe, 1984:72 in Beretta, 1990).

* **Negotiation of reasonable questions:** to increase the usefulness of the evaluation the evaluator must bring the PSC to ask answerable questions through what has been called 'evaluability assessment' (Wholley, 1979). For this purpose priority should be given according to the following criteria suggested by Cronbach (1982)

  1. Prior uncertainty (is there real doubt?)
  2. Information yield (How much will we learn? How much will remain uncertain?)
  3. Cost (in time and money), and
  4. Leverage (is the information capable of influencing operating decisions? (Cronbach, 1982 in Beretta, 1990:9)

Thus questions which are high in prior uncertainty and leverage will take precedence over all others.

* **Respect of evaluator's expertise as to decisions about design:** policy makers and evaluators should stick to their own expertise so that the evaluator decides how the evaluation is to be designed and conducted taking account of who is interested in the evaluation, decisions likely to be taken as the result of the evaluation and the information needed, and allowing the research to speak to the design.

* **Emphasis on description as much as effect:** such an emphasis is intended to facilitate the extrapolation from one local setting to the other. This calls for an approach
such as that used by Beretta (1987) in the evaluation of the Bangalore project, which leads us to consider the issue of approach and methodology.

5-5-3-2 Laboratory research approach or field research approach?

In two seminal articles published the same year, Beretta (1986a, 1986b) calls into question the laboratory research orientation to language programme evaluation and argues for a field research orientation.

A laboratory research is understood as a short term study involving the testing of individual components of a theory in an environment in which extraneous variables are artificially held constant in order to increase the internal validity of the evaluation. He distinguishes two forms of laboratory research: one is based on the assumption that theory is divisible and that each component can be tested separately by small isolated experiments, leading to a comprehensive assessment of the theory (see Carrol, 1968; Freedman, 1976; Davies, 1977 for example). The other form endorsed by Lado (1970), Brumfit (1980) advocates the necessity of field research as a follow up to laboratory study so as to have full proof of a theory. Beretta criticizes both approaches on the basis that "both views ignore the 'synergy' factor, that is the myriad interaction effects of separate elements that distinguish a laboratory environment from a typical setting. In other words both ignore external validity" (Beretta, 1986b:300).

In his opinion laboratory experiments are useful only in so far as they address the question of whether or not something can happen. But it does not address the question of whether something typically does happen whereas, as he rightly points out, the priority in language teaching programme
research should be to determine what works in real, that is, field settings. On the basis of these arguments he advocates field experimentation (field study, field research) in the framework of natural inquiry as most appropriate for evaluation. By field research he means "long term, classroom based inquiry into the effect of complete programmes, the degree of control (randomisation and so on) being dependent on whether correlational or experimental information is sought" (Beretta, op. cit: 296). Field research methodology implies, as he suggests, that (a) we conduct our investigations in the field rather than in artificially controlled 'laboratory' settings; (b) we consider the effect of total programmes rather than isolated components (c) the duration of the studies be long-term rather than short-term and (d) randomisation is not always practicable or crucial. Such field studies place the premium on external validity, that is, the extent to which results obtained in one setting, population and time may be generalized to another (Glass, 1982). In other words it has to do with the level of representativeness of an investigation (Camel & Stanley, 1963). To increase the external validity he proposes that careful attention should be paid to the following:

* **setting:** the more the setting resembles regular classrooms, the greater the degree of ecological representativeness and the more confident we can be in extrapolating to other settings.

* **treatment:** Here a holistic approach is advocated which studies whole programmes and not isolated components.

* **population:** here he addresses the question of the use of volunteers and its possible effects on results and concludes that it does not matter whether you use volunteers or not since the adoption of the innovation is voluntary. This may not be true in some centralised systems where innovation may be forced upon teachers by coercive means. Another aspect of the question of population which he does not clearly address is the involvement of various people...
concerned and, mainly those being evaluated, in the evaluation process.

* Duration: Contrary to what Eisner (1984) calls 'education commando raid', he advocates that methods/programmes should be given as prolonged a hearing as local pressures allow. In sum, he argues:

The desirability of field experimentation is justified by the arguments that variables do not have the same effect in isolation as in combination and that what happens in the laboratory may have little relation to what happens in the field, particularly, the two modes of inquiry do not seek answers to the same questions. It is justified because programme evaluation is primarily intended to be of direct relevance to teachers (Beretta, 1986a: 304).

The problem arises as to whether there could not be a compromise between laboratory research and field research.

5-5-3-3 A compromise

Although Beretta does not speak of compromise it would seem that his suggestion of increased external validity and his call for the conduct of evaluation as a disciplined inquiry might strike a reasonable balance between both theory oriented and user oriented evaluation on the one hand, and between laboratory research orientation and field research orientation on the other. This will save the academic integrity of evaluation without alienating it from the concerns of the PSC. Disciplined inquiry, as he conceives it after Cronbach & Suppes (1969) displays:

- the raw materials entering into the argument (archive data)
- the logical process of their compression and rearrangement
- renders each stage of data collection, reduction and analysis fully transparent and falsifiable.

It is hoped that this call for evaluation as a disciplined enquiry will contribute to a break-through in ELT evaluation
if an appropriate method or combination of methods are used to respond to specific evaluation contexts.

5-5-4 Methods and techniques of ELT evaluation

In line with the move towards more formative orientation to evaluation advocated by writers such as Rea (1983, 1986), Murphy (1985), Beretta (1986, 1987, 1990), Ouakrime (1986), Bower (1983), suggestions about methods and techniques have shifted from exclusive use of summative pupil achievement tests and teacher performance tests to alternative or complementary use of more consumer centred and participatory methods and techniques which provide information about and insight into wider non cognitive, affective, psychological and contextual factors.

Brown (1989) identified 24 procedures (techniques) belonging to six categories or sources of data (methods) used by two kinds of evaluators. When the evaluator is in the role of an outsider he/she analyses existing information through records analysis, systems analysis, literature review, and letter writing. He/she also looks into tests which may be proficiency tests, placement tests, diagnostic tests or achievement tests. He/she can also use observation techniques such as case studies, diary studies, behaviour observation, interactional analysis or inventories. When the evaluator is working as a facilitator drawing out information he/she uses interviews which may be individual or group interviews, in the form of unstructured, semi-structured or structured interviews. He/she can also use meetings drawing on techniques such as delphi technique, advisory, interest group, review. He/she may use questionnaires in the form of biodata surveys, opinion surveys, self-ratings, judgemental ratings, Q sorts. These different techniques can be used in a variety of ways for a variety of purposes. This discussion will elaborate on
techniques used for self assessment purposes, and those used for follow up support to trainees after a consideration of some of the problems generally associated with the use of tests for either summative or formative evaluation in language education.

5-5-4-1 Language tests as an evaluation instrument

The use of tests as a means for the evaluation of student achievements or/and of whole language or teacher education programme has come under increasing criticisms for various reasons discussed earlier. Most of them relate to issues of validity and reliability which will be briefly discussed here with special reference to language teaching/learning evaluation.

5-5-4-1-1 Validity

Validity here refers mainly to content validity, that is, the extent to which the test represents the language studied by the test taker. Validity here also includes the extent to which the use of a particular type of test (norm referenced or criterion referenced) could be considered as a valid way of evaluating success of a language programme as well as of pupils' learning outcomes.

Starting from the last point it has been argued that norm referenced tests are inadequate for the measurement of the achievement of instructional objectives. Indeed norm referenced tests' scores are reported and interpreted in terms of the performance of individuals compared with that of other members in the group or to norm groups who have taken the test. But as Bachman (1989) puts it knowing that a given student scored in 90th percentile on the test will not provide us with the information as to whether the student has mastered a given set of learning objectives "since it
might well be that the entire group's performance is below a standard that we would be willing to accept as an indication of mastery" (Bachman, 1989: 248).

On the other hand norm referenced tests are de facto associated with proficiency tests which are intended to provide information on how the learner measures against native speakers' standard of language knowledge and language use. The difficulty in making such a comparison lies mainly, as pointed out by Bachman, first in that "native speakers show considerable variation in proficiency, particularly with regard to abilities such as cohesion, discourse organisation and sociolinguistic appropriateness." (Bachman op. cit : 254-255) and second in that "there is the problem of identifying which variety or dialect to adopt as the 'native speaker' criterion." Besides the whole notion of 'native speaker' is being increasingly dismissed as no more than an inadequate abstraction used for political or social control purposes (see for example Rampton, 1990, Phillipson, 1990, Kachru, 1990).

One might consider criterion referenced testing, the second major approach to testing in which scores are reported and interpreted in terms of the extent to which a given pupil has mastered a specified content area, at a given level of performance criterion, as an alternative to the norm referenced test as advocated by Bachman (op. cit). But here also there is the problem of "whether specific language tasks or programme objectives can be specified for instruction and measured validly" leading to the question of "the degree to which a test can be used to determine mastery" (see Hudson, 1989 : 261).

These problems have to do with the difficulty of identifying aspects of language knowledge and selecting from them items for testing which will provide valid evidence of a learner's
language ability. They also have to do with how to determine clear levels of achievement in terms of performance criteria which could be accurately and reliably identified and measured. In other words, as observed by Bachman "there are two issues to be addressed in developing criterion-referenced tests of language proficiency for use in language program evaluation: 1) specifying the ability domain and ii) defining the end points of ability so as to provide an absolute scale" (Bachman, op.cit: 251). Decisions concerning the last issue could be arbitrarily made taking account of the purpose of the test, that is, decisions likely to be made on the basis of the test results and of the particular circumstances of the test.

The issue of specification of language ability domain appears much more complex, particularly in communicative language teaching. It relates to the determination of the structure of language proficiency on the basis of views of language and language learning. (see Skehan, 1989a and 1989b). As a matter of fact since the unitary competence hypothesis arguing that all performance in second or foreign language could be reduced to a single underlying general language proficiency factor, as first claimed by Oller (1976), has been challenged by many studies (e.g Bachman & Palmer, 1982; Carroll, 1983; Oller, 1983) in favour of a divisible competence hypothesis stating that "language proficiency consists of several distinct abilities that are related to each other or which are related to a higher order general ability" (Bachman, 1989), many models of language ability have been proposed as bases for a valid test construction.

Thus to name only three of the most influential proposals, drawing on Chomsky's (1965) distinction of competence and performance, Hymes (1972) proposes two main aspects of language ability, linguistic competence and communicative
Canale & Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) elaborate these further into grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. The most detailed and systematic proposal to date remains however that of Bachman (1990) which comprises language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological skills. Each one of these components has its own subdivisions and ramifications. Thus language competence, for instance, consists of organizational competence, and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence is subdivided into grammatical competence and textual competence with their own ramifications. Pragmatic competence is subdivided into illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence with their own ramifications as well.

The point being made here by recalling these specifications of areas of language competence or ability is simply that, given time and resource constraints and the many facets of language ability, the extent to which an achievement test, generally associated with criterion referenced testing, can by itself provide valid information for an effective evaluation of the success of a program in terms of pupil learning may be limited. In addition to these problems there are also problems related to the reliability of the test.

**5-5-4-1-2  Reliability**

By reliability here is meant the extent to which the test and its administration is fair to all test takers and yields consistent results from one administration to the other and from one tester to the other. Hughes (1989) suggests the following guidelines on how to make tests more reliable:
- take enough samples of behaviour
- do not allow candidates too much freedom
- write unambiguous items
- provide clear and explicit instruction
- ensure that tests are well laid out and perfectly legible
- candidates should be familiar with format and testing techniques
- provide uniform and non distracting conditions of administration
- use items that permit scoring which is as objective as possible
- make comparison between candidates as direct as possible
- provide a detailed scoring key
- train scorers
- agree on acceptable responses and appropriate scores at the outset of scoring
- employ multiple independent scoring.

These guidelines appear as exhaustive and very helpful suggestions. The problem is however that some of them assume that all pupils are identical and react similarly and equally to the same stimuli. It assumes for instance that what is non distracting for candidate A is non distracting for candidate B. Although such guidelines if used in an homogeneous socio-cultural context may go some way towards increasing reliability it may well be that the search for reliability in those standardised terms is an illusion as will be fully discussed later in relation to research paradigms. On the other hand the advice to use unambiguous items and items which permit as objective scoring as possible may seriously limit the capacity of tests constructed on that basis to provide useful information on a communicative curriculum and on learners' communicative competence.

Having raised these issues about validity and reliability which call for caution in the use of test scores for evaluation purposes, it is however believed here, along with Bachman (1989) that "rather than causing us to abandon tests..."
as part of language programme evaluation these concerns must lead us to a reorientation in our thinking about the needs for tests, and about the type of tests we need" (Bachman, op. cit: 242). As asserted by Popham (1978), "Pupil test performance will always play a pivotal role in any approach to evaluation" (Popham, 1978: 4 in Bachman, 1989: 243). Indeed test scores are needed for three common uses as pointed out by Hambleton (1983):

1 Scores obtained from the set of items in a test are used to rank order examinees.
2 Scores are used to make descriptive statements about examinee performance in relation to well-defined domains of content.
3 Scores are used to make mastery/non mastery decisions in relation to well defined domains of content (Hambleton, 1983: 34 in Hudson, 1989: 263).

But it is necessary to also tap other sources of information which may be more capable of providing insight not only into what is learnt but also into how it is learnt and how the process affects the learner. Sources which provide information on the teaching process as seen by teachers themselves should be explored as well. Self assessment is an approach that might help the exploration of these possibilities.

5-5-4-2 Self-assessment

In their article "Evaluation: a way of involving the learner" Lewkowicz & Moon (1985) advocate a participatory approach to evaluation in these terms:

Evaluation in our opinion should be viewed as an ability to self assess and critically judge one's own learning and performance and an ability to understand, learn from and utilize feedback and evaluation from a variety of other sources. Thus it should not be seen as a one way process in which learners are judged by a teacher or outside body on the basis of externally defined criteria. It must be seen as a multi-way - dynamic system in which the learners are involved interactively with others in making judgements about themselves both as learners and users of the language on the basis of criteria which are defined and
negotiated in terms of the learning situations (Lewkowicz & Moon, 1985:47).

Although their main focus is on learners, the same could be said of teachers. To implement evaluation as they see it, they suggest a number of methods and procedures among which the following are worth considering in some detail.

5-5-4-2-1 Self-evaluation test

It could be carried out just after the end of a unit or as a general proficiency test for diagnostic purposes. Learners must understand the purpose of the test and the evaluation criteria to be used. They must be involved in every stage of the preparation and administration of the test, and do the correction themselves.

5-5-4-2-2 Self-reports and learner diaries

Self-reports and learner diaries are data collection techniques in the framework of the naturalistic inquiry orientation to evaluation. Self-reports are data collected through questionnaires and interviews as discussed earlier.

The Journal or diary method is an introspective data collection technique in the form of retrospective record keeping originally used in psychotherapy by Progoff (1975) and adapted for language teaching/learning by Schumann & Schumann (1977) and Bailey (1978, 1980). It is proposed by Murphy O'Dwyer (1985) and Lewkowicz & Moon as a valid and invaluable instrument for evaluation not only of language teaching/learning but also of teacher training. Diary study procedures as described by Murphy O'Dwyer (op. cit) consist of seven steps: background details which enable the researcher/evaluator to consider what factors have a bearing upon the diarist's learning; daily records primary
editing whereby the diary is revised for public consumption with the omission of highly personal details and real names; preliminary analysis which helps determine the most important issues; selection of issues to focus on which narrows down the scope of the investigation; formal analysis with discussion and illustration of selected issues and preparation for the final report which may or may not include actual quotes from the diaries.

The diary study technique, as adapted by Murphy O'Dwyer to the evaluation of a two week's teacher training course to teachers of English in secondary schools in France has proved to be a powerful instrument which, unlike quantitative methods, reveals as observed by Gaies (1983) the enormous variety and complexity of issues and attitudes involved in classroom interaction. It has also proved to be a valuable consciousness raising and self-awareness tool for teachers as well as for learners. This concurs with the findings of Ouakrime's (1986) evaluation of a university ELT programme in Morocco. It also confirms the point made by Murphy (1981) whose evaluation of another two week INSET course for French secondary teachers of English at the University of Lancaster also using non quantitative techniques such as questionnaires and interviews at the beginning, and a questionnaire at the end in which teachers are requested to describe their own follow up project. It shows that introspection and analysis of classroom processes and experiences help teachers to see the value of developing their awareness of classroom processes, enabling them to make conscious and informed decisions regarding their own teaching. (Murphy O'Dwyer, 1985:124). This leads on to the use of procedures focussing on follow up support to teachers such as those used by Murphy.

Follow up support as a method of EFL INSET course evaluation
Murphy's (1981) evaluation mentioned earlier used a variety of methods. Of interest to this discussion of follow up support are the end of course questionnaire requesting teachers to describe their own follow up project, and the mailing of another questionnaire some months later, not only to assess the course but also to help teachers to evaluate the implementation of their follow up project. It was hoped that

the questionnaire [would] urge teachers to think again about what they did on the course and reassess their practice against some of the criteria identified then. We may also bring to light how far a course which was considered enjoyable and successful in itself may act as a preparation for modification and development in their participants' work (Murphy, 1981:130 in O'Brien, 1986:76)

A similar approach was adopted for the evaluation of the Lancaster Institute of English Language Education (I.E.L.E) study skills course and the in-service training course as described by Alderson (1985) in an article significantly titled "Is there life after the course?" Teachers were asked towards the end of the teacher training course to commit themselves in writing to ideas which they intended to try out once they went back home. Letters were sent to them by course tutors some time after they left the course to encourage them to really try out their plans. This was also intended to provide feedback on the implementation:

If there are ways in which ideas can be implemented if suitably modified or appropriately presented to ministries, politicians, or fellow teachers, then we feel we should also know. (Alderson, 1985:136)

Some months or even years later a questionnaire was sent to course participants, not only to follow up the implementation, but also to see how they felt about the course months after completion in the light of their practice and their current problems. In addition there was also a plan, depending on money availability, for course
tutors to conduct a follow up seminar in the participants' home country sometime after the course, based on the result of what teachers had tried out. Although the practicalities of such arrangements may be difficult to resolve, the arguments for follow up support are being increasingly accepted as a necessary aspect of inset evaluation. (see Fanselow, 1983; Edelhoff, 1983; Bolitho, 1984; O'Brien, 1981). It should be however noted that not every educator is enthusiastic about it as argued by Rosewell (1987) who however recognises the need for some form of evaluation as shown by the following extract from the interview, already quoted in the previous chapter, that the present writer had with him.

I'm always a little dubious personally- and this is very very much a personal view here. I think one can exaggerate the extent to which it is possible to evaluate the effectiveness of a teacher course. It is extraordinarily difficult to... [rephrasing] you run a course and what you do, you go back to the teacher afterwards to see whether what they've been taught during the course is put into practice. It's only in a very limited way that this is possible. While there are always some teachers who come to the course hoping that we gonna tell them where to stand, how to hold the chalk, what to do, all the rest of it, really that's not the game we're in at all. What I'm trying to do for the course that I run is to get teachers to think about what they're doing, and to consider ways of improving this. Now, it never worries me, if a teacher says at the end of the course that he'd learnt more from other teachers than he'd learnt from us. It doesn't worry me because the important thing is that we don't know, we're not too sure where we're going, what works, what doesn't work. All I know is that I try to build into the courses for which I'm responsible what you might call self correcting mechanism whereby the teacher will be able to suggest halfway through, how it might be done differently, or what he would like to get from the course that he is not getting; and ultimately of course, because no INSET in this country [England and Wales] is actually required, if people continue to come particularly to our non-award bearing course, they must be satisfied, otherwise they won't come anymore; they don't have to come; so for the thousands of teachers who come on our non-award bearing courses there must be some intrinsic values in what they've got from our course (From the interview with Mr Vincent Rosewell, head of the Institute of Education INSET department in 1987)
So for him, given the sophistication of their INSET courses teachers' continued attendance is the ultimate measure of success in addition to the self correcting mechanism of process evaluation which the present writer himself had been given the opportunity to experience by attending some of the department courses. However it is believed here along with Alderson (1985) that "given that the work one does in teacher training is obviously directed towards application and implementation in the students' home environment, not only is a follow up justified, and therefore more likely to be carried out, but also it is possible to include an element in the training to deal with implementation and dissemination."

5-5-5 A general model for language programme evaluation

The discussion so far has presented various elements of language programme and language teacher education programme evaluation. The purpose of this section is to place them together in an overall framework constituting a general model for programme evaluation.

Very few writers have addressed this question in a systematic way as far as English language programme evaluation is concerned. Only three of the articles consulted by the present writer (Brown, 1989; Lynch, 1990 and Holliday, 1990) presented suggestions in this connection. Holliday explored the potential of Soft Systems Methodology (SSM), a form of system thinking applied to human organisation in the field of management studies, as a device for studying organisational problems, in terms of actors' conflicting views, for a better understanding and management of interpersonal problems in ELT projects. The five step procedure of SSM if skilfully and sensitively exploited could yield a powerful evaluation of language and
language teacher education programmes. Brown's (1989) six step model although different from the SSM five step model, has the merit of presenting at the first step a framework which proposes a systematic approach for designing and maintaining language curriculum, and clear guidance at step three as to how to formulate research questions using the evaluation components and view points (see details in Brown, 1989: 234, 237-238). But Lynch's model seems the most comprehensive and perhaps more easily and widely applicable in a variety of context. He calls it the Context Adaptive Model, with seven steps as represented overleaf.

a) The first step identifies the audience(s) of the evaluation in terms of individuals or institutions interested in the evaluation. It guides the provision of relevant information to all those concerned. This step also includes the determination of the goals and reasons for the evaluation.

b) At step two the evaluator does what he calls context inventory, the key step in his model. It addresses issues related to characteristic features of the language teaching programme as well as questions related to the evaluation process. It considers 11 dimensions: availability of a comparison group; availability of reliable and valid measures of language skills; availability of various types of evaluation expertise, (statistical analysis naturalistic research); the timing for the evaluation; the selection process of students into the programme; the students; the staff (especially their availability, competence and attitude towards the evaluation); the size and intensity of the programme (the number of students, classrooms, proficiency/course level); available instructional materials and resources; the perspectives and purpose of the programme; the social and political climate surrounding it.
figure 18: A context adaptive model for evaluation in language education (from Lynch 1990).

The collection of data for all these dimensions may seem a daunting task, but as he points out the adaptive nature of the model lies in that, depending on the goals and the audience, information on some of the dimensions may not be
needed. In addition budgetary considerations may limit what is possible during the context inventory step.

c) step three: *preliminary thematic framework*: at this stage a set of issues and themes are determined, drawing on some dimensions of the context inventory. It is the stage at which the evaluation is structured in terms of the specific questions that need to be answered.

d) step four: *Data collection design/system*: Here the types of data and methods for data collection appropriate for the specific questions identified in the previous step are chosen taking account of the findings of the context inventory in terms of what is possible and what may not be possible.

e) step five: *Data collection*: Here he insists on the iterative nature of the context adaptive model:

As the data are being collected, and some of the data will have already been collected during the context inventory step, it may be necessary to revise the data collection system of step 4, as well as to elaborate the context inventory and to revise or elaborate the preliminary thematic framework of step 3. It is also possible that new sources of important data will be discovered and that new themes may present themselves (Lynch op.cit: 35)

f) step six: *analysis*. At this stage attention is drawn to the necessity of both quantitative and qualitative techniques and of a multiple analysis strategy using more than one statistical technique. The qualitative analysis, he says, is an iterative process of data reduction, interpretation, return to the original data and discovery of new themes.

g) step seven: *Evaluation Report*: here the form of the final report, ranging from formal written report to informal oral one, is considered taking account of the political and
social climate dimension of the context inventory step. Circumstances, he contends, may require that some of the conclusions and the evidence on which they are based be omitted to ensure correct interpretation of the evaluation results. As he puts it:

If a conclusion stated in a particular way, has the potential to inflame the social and political passion of the audience for the evaluation, the evaluator must realize that the intended message may become distorted and misinterpreted (Lynch op.cit :39)

The merit of the context adaptive model, as described above lies, not only in its capacity to synthesize the fundamental issues discussed in this chapter on evaluation, but also in that it concurs with the general trend of EFL/ESL evaluation which emphasises the need for evaluation methods and procedures which are more responsive to the concerns of what Beretta (1990) calls the 'Policy Shaping Community'. It reinforces the choice made in the present study, in view of the complexity of the task of evaluating teacher education programmes in general and teachers' performance in particular to use a multi purpose, criteria source, method and approach for the evaluation of the experimental INSET project.

The discussion as a whole has also shown - and this is also reflected in the context adaptive model - the link between evaluation and research, the gradual shift from laboratory research orientation to evaluation with emphasis on quantitative methods and summative evaluation to field research orientation with emphasis on naturalistic inquiry, methods and formative evaluation. Some of these issues will be more fully discussed in the next three chapters on research paradigms.
PART TWO: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The philosophers have only interpreted the world in different ways; the point is to change it.
(Marx, 1845 in McLellan (ed) 1977: 158)
6-1 The concept of paradigm

The term paradigm was used by Thomas Kuhn (1970) in his argument against the cumulative view of scientific change to mean "universally recognized scientific achievements that for a time provide model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners" (Kuhn, op. cit: viii) "from which spring particular coherent traditions of scientific research" (op. cit: 10). A paradigm, as explained by Carr and Kemmis (1986) summarising his ideas,

embodies the particular conceptual framework through which the community of researchers operates and in terms of which a particular interpretation of 'reality' is generated. It also incorporates models of research standards, rules of inquiry and a set of techniques and methods, all of which ensure that any theoretical knowledge that is produced will be consistent with the view of reality that the paradigms supports. (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 72).

It is both enabling and constraining:

A paradigm is a world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world. As such paradigms are deeply embedded in the socialization of adherents and practitioners: paradigms tell them what is important, legitimate, and reasonable. Paradigms are also normative telling the practitioner what to do without the necessity of long existential or epistemological consideration. But it is this aspect of paradigms that constitutes both their strength and their weakness - their strength in that it makes action possible, their weakness in that the very reason for action is hidden in the unquestioned assumptions of the paradigm. (Patton, 1978: 203 in Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 15)

In Guba & Lincoln's (1982) terms, paradigms are "axiomatic systems characterized essentially by their differing assumptions about the phenomena into which they are designed to enquire" (Guba & Lincoln, 1982: 234). Typically a paradigm makes assumptions about social reality, human
nature, knowledge, and methodology (Cohen & Manion, 1980) with implications for how to proceed with investigations of phenomena, how to interpret findings in terms of the truth value and in terms of how theory relates to practice.

6-2 Paradigms of inquiry in Educational Research

6-2-1 The manichean terminology

Many terms have been used in opposition to each other as below in a manichean perspective to refer to the two main paradigms of inquiry in Education, according to different emphases. The terms quantitative and qualitative are used here after Halfpenny (1979) and Burgess (1985) with a view to showing the eventual complementarity of the two paradigms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALITATIVE</th>
<th>QUANTITATIVE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>soft, dry</td>
<td>hard, wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flexible, fluid</td>
<td>fixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grounded</td>
<td>abstract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>descriptive, exploratory, understanding</td>
<td>explanatory/explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subjective /subjectivist, perspective</td>
<td>objective/objectivist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inductive</td>
<td>deductive hypothesis testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speculative, illustrative</td>
<td>technical, value free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>political, value bound</td>
<td>rigorous/rigour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non rigorous, relevance</td>
<td>context free, nomothetic,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>context bound, ideographic,</td>
<td>focus on similarities,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focus on differences, hermeneutic,</td>
<td>law like generalisations,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working hypotheses, grounded theory</td>
<td>a priori theory</td>
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<tr>
<td>relativistic</td>
<td>universalistic</td>
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<tr>
<td>attributional shapers,</td>
<td>real causes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interactive feedforward and feedback,</td>
<td>temporally precedent or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrelated, constant comparison</td>
<td>simultaneous, independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progressive, analytic induction, focussing, plausible</td>
<td>probabilistic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Observational emergent design
naturalistic/ nature, non manipulable
rational lateral thinking
emic holistic, multiple, intangible, divergent
interpretivist/interpretation exposes actors' meanings
phenomenological voluntarism
nominalism
credibility transferability dependability confirmability
case study, fieldwork, field research science of the spirit, ethnomethodology, ethnography, ethnology, anthropological
good bad
good
bad
experimental preordinate design
rationalistic, laboratory manipulable
empirical vertical thinking
etic atomistic, single, tangible, convergent, fragmentable
positivist/prediction imposes sociological theory
empiricist/behaviourist determinism
realism
internal validity external validity reliability objectivity
survey, natural sciences classical sciences

These sets of dichotomies give an overview of the main assumptions of both paradigms and their distinctive features which will now be examined.

6-2-2 The quantitative paradigm

6-2-2-1 General assumptions

Since 1894 when Joseph Mayce Rice pioneered educational research it has been dominated for almost a century by assumptions, concepts, methods, and techniques imported from
natural and physical sciences into social/behavioural sciences in their earlier stages of development to give them some respectability. Education was seen as a privileged field of application of findings in other social/behavioural sciences and it was argued that "the profession of teaching will improve in proportion as its members direct their daily work by the scientific method" (Thorndike, in Jonichich (ed), 1962: 3).

This scientific (positivist, rationalistic) paradigm considers social reality as existing objectively, independent of human perception and purpose, external to the individual, given "out there". It sees society from the philosophical standpoint of realism (Burrell and Morgan 1979). The individual human being on the contrary is the product of his/her environment and responds to social reality according to the law of determinism. The quantitative paradigm assumes a positivist and empirical approach to knowledge.

Positivism assumes that valid knowledge is based on reality, reality governed by inescapable laws, reality apprehended by the senses, reality as hard, tangible objective phenomenon, fragmentable into independent atomistic portions (variables), knowable through observation and reason, as opposed to theological or metaphysical speculations (See Auguste Comte's law of the three stages). Such knowledge is scientific in so far as it proceeds from experience to approximation to the truth through classification, quantification and discovery of relationships (Mouly, 1978 in Manion & Cohen, 1980). This "truth" focusses on similarities and generalities arrived at by means of hypothesis testing and rigorous deductive reasoning. It aims to give a systematic explanation of phenomena and to draw cause-effect relationship between them, a relationship in
which the causes precede or are simultaneous to the effects and could be manipulated to reach probable effects.

It uncovers, formulates and/or tests as economically as possible (principle of parsimony) universal, context free, nomothetic explanatory statements, i.e. laws or law-like generalisations and abstractions (theories) supported by empirical evidence, which may help to control and predict the phenomena studied. These explanations and laws are ideally of what Nagel calls the deductive immological model. In other words "they explain why some events occur, why some situation persists, or why some object has certain features by showing how, given some general laws and some other state of affairs- the event, situation, or object to be explained could not have been otherwise" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986:64)

The researcher in this paradigm is a neutral, disinterested and independent observer with an 'etic standpoint', looking at the object from outside, as it is and not denatured by the perception of participants. The etic view is "a view from outside, either random in its selection or with a set of presuppositions that have only a chance relationship to the scene being described" (Brend, 1974:3 in Lier, 1988). He/she maintains a "discrete (and discreet) distance from the objects of the inquiry" (Guba, 1981: 77). He/she devises a whole set of instruments, more and more refined and sophisticated to improve or supplement human observation and to mediate between him/her and his/her object or subject. He/she applies special methodological procedures to ensure this independence and guard during observation and/or experimentation against reactivity understood as "a reaction of the object to the conditions of the inquiry that will influence the outcome in undesirable ways" (Guba & Lincoln, 1982: 238).
This "interposition of instruments between researcher and objects of research" increases the reliability and objectivity of studies and ensures that findings are value-free. Specific precautions are also taken to increase internal validity and check disturbing factors such as history, maturation, testing instrumentation, statistical regression, selection of respondents, experimental mortality, selection-maturation interaction (Campbell & Stanley, 1963: 5). The same is done to increase external validity (representativeness) or generalisability by controlling for the reactive or interaction effects of testing, of selection biases and of experimental variables. The reactive effects of experimental arrangements, and multiple effects interference are also controlled for. Instances of these precautions include appropriate sampling procedures, pre-test post-test to measure effects attributable to treatment, experimental and control groups to control for the effects of confounding variables on determining the cause-effect relationship between given independent variable(s) (treatment) and dependent variable(s) (expected changes), appropriate statistical procedures to account not only for levels of significance but also for uncertainties and measurement errors.

The "objects" or "subjects" of the research are experimentally manipulated within the constraints of ethics imposed on the researcher by society, via the "instruments" and the treatment to test some hypotheses, generate some theory from the validation of the hypothetical hunches and presuppositions which motivated the research, or prove some theory. This approach is sometimes referred to as a "theory then research" approach although it may as well have "a research then theory" approach (Skehan's (1986) lecture notes).
The essential observation to be made at this point with regard to the relationship between researcher and researched is that the latter, whether inanimate or human are constituted into mere pawns in the researcher's game, within an asymmetrical power relationship which puts it, him or her in a "position of inequality mitigated only by the constraints community's interests and social ethics impose on what the researcher would ideally like to do" (Rampton 1988's research seminar note). The main purpose and reason for research in this paradigm is more "wanting to know" than "wanting to help" to use Lorenz's (1971 in Lier 1988) terms even if this knowledge could be applied later to practice for helping purposes, which poses the problem of the relationship between practice and theory in this paradigm.

Education in the positivistic paradigm is considered as an applied science aiming to provide a body of scientific knowledge which will be applied to educational practice in order to improve it. The task of educational research is to devise "an educational technology in which appropriate psychological knowledge is applied to the practical task of teaching and classroom organisation" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 56-57). Such a view of Education underlies for example the audiolingual method of language teaching derived from the habit formation conception of language learning in the wake of Skinner's theory of operant conditioning. Skinner (1968) following behaviourist psychology considered teaching as "the arrangement of contingencies of reinforcement under which students learn" (Skinner, 1968: 39). Educational research could also help discover the specific scientific laws operative in educational situations and conditions. The knowledge of these theories could enable educationists to manipulate these conditions to maximise desired effects. As Carr and Kemmis put it:

The purpose of educational research therefore is to identify the sort of practical arrangement which would ensure that scientific
laws conducive to desirable educational goals are able to operate effectively and that the impact of any laws impeding their achievement would be minimal (Carr & Kemmis, op. cit: 58).

It is to reveal "laws of behaviours that can be used to make predictions and control events within educational situations" (Travers, 1969: 16). This view lies at the basis of most studies done in sociolinguistics, (e.g Labov, 1972; Gardiner, 1975), psycholinguistics (Krashen 1979, 1981, 1985), Gordon Wells 1983, and other studies in second language acquisition reviewed in Ellis, 1985), teaching and teacher education (Terrell & Krashen, 1983; Lozanov, 1979; Gattegno, 1972; Moscowitz, 1976, 1978; Long et al, 1985; and studies reviewed in Rosenshine & Furst, 1973; Dunkin & Biddle, 1974; Wragg, 1982, etc.)

Educational theories conceived in these terms are valuable for practice only in so far as they predict its outcome by replacing opinions based on diverging moral, social and political attitudes by evidence which transforms incompatible value stances into technical problems to be solved by measuring and comparing these pieces of evidence in relation to prespecified theories. Concurring with this view is Campbell and Stanley's (1963) commitment to experimentation in education "as the means for settling disputes regarding educational practice, as the only (emphasis added) way of verifying educational improvements and as the only way of establishing a cumulative tradition in which improvements can be introduced without the danger of a faddish discard of old wisdom in favour of inferior novelties (Campbell & Stanley, 1963:2). In the same vein O'Connor (1973) has this to say

The techniques of teaching and the theories that explain and justify them are matters that can be determined only by the methods of the positive sciences. The questions of what techniques are most effective for teaching... are questions of facts to be determined by observation, refined by experiment and aided by statistical devices for weighing the evidence obtained.
There is no other way of settling such questions... The theories of the educational psychologists about such matters as the nature of learning, motivation, the nature and distribution of intelligence, child development and so on are (or ought to be) the theoretical basis on which particular techniques are recommended or explained. (O'Connor, 1973:74 in Carr & Kemmis, op.cit:67-68)

This technical view has pervaded educational research and particularly research on language teaching/learning through three main traditions of research methods and procedures as specified by Chaudron (1988): the psychometric method, interaction analysis and discourse analysis.

6-2-2-2 Positivist methods and procedures in language teaching/learning research

6-2-2-2-1 The psychometric method

The psychometric method, following on from standard educational psychometric procedures compares treatment groups, assesses outcomes on proficiency tests using numerical measurement, statistical analysis and inference. It seeks to establish causal relationships between context presage and product variables or between process and product variables. As pointed out by Long most studies in this tradition adopt an input-output perspective to investigation into language teaching/learning. They "control the input (students, teachers, methods, materials) to the classroom language teaching process, measure the output (student achievement) and either ignore or deduce what went on between" (Long, 1980:3). They are studies about the classroom not necessarily conducted in the classroom which is relatively neglected and considered as a "particularly 'messy' source of data", although helpful as a 'black box' between input and output measures (see Lier, 1988). To this tradition belong most studies on teaching methods and programmes comparison (Scherer and Wertheimer, 1964 and
studies reviewed in Trueba 1979), on teacher characteristics and personal qualities or behaviours (Politzer and Weiss, 1969; Moskowitz, 1976; and studies reviewed in Rosenshine, 1971; Rosenshine & Furst, 1973; Gage 1978 etc.). These studies aim to determine predictors of learning outcome or teacher effectiveness.

Apart from frequency counts of characteristics specified by people interviewed, the most important instrument of research in this tradition was the rating scale. It required raters to express their degree of agreement on a three to seven gradations of agreement on items or variables prespecified by the researcher generally on the basis of his/her intuition, common sense theory or experience, pilot study or some theoretical constructs. Results were statistically analysed by using crosstabulations and/or correlation coefficients.

But dissatisfaction with this approach which paid little systematic and sustained attention to what was going on in the classroom taken as a black box led some researchers to change perspective. They considered it vital to look inside the 'black box' to investigate classroom language learning. Thus started classroom research defined as "research on second language learning and teaching all or part of whose data are derived from the observation or measurement of the classroom performance of teachers and students" (Long, 1980:3) Methods for such a research include interaction analysis within the quantitative paradigm.

6-2-2-2-2 Classroom observation through interaction analysis

Interaction analysis in the quantitative paradigm is basically "a method of providing a feedback system to the teacher about his behaviour" (Bailey, 1975: 88). As a
research method it aims to use systematic observation instruments (schemes, schedules) to give as objectively as possible a quantified account of what goes on in the classroom between teacher and learners and among learners, in relation to language teaching/learning processes and determine which characteristics of this interplay correlate highly with learners' language proficiency and/or other learning outcomes.

Systematic observation, in Allwright's (1988) terms refers to a procedure for keeping a public record of classroom events whose data are collected by agreed and explicit procedures or electro-mechanical means in such a way that it can later be studied either for teacher training or for research purposes. A more explicit definition from the positivist standpoint is offered by McIntyre and Macleod as follows;

By systematic observation procedures we mean those procedures in which the observer, deliberately refraining from participation in classroom activities analyses aspects of these activities through the use of a predetermined set of categories or signs. This analysis may take place during the observation or may be based on selective records such as audio and video recording, or transcripts of classroom discourse. (McIntyre & Macleod, 1986:10)

In other words it is a "structured observation" used to monitor classroom events and implies as Galton (1987) sees it, a) the recording of events in a systematic manner as they happen, b) the coding of these events into prespecified categories and c) subsequent analysis of the events to give description of teacher pupil interaction. (see Galton in Dunkin, 1987: 142). The instruments for this systematic observation "consist of lists of (mostly verbal) behaviours which trained observers look for and record (Long, 1980: 3) while the class is in progress (real time coding), or after, using an audio or video recording of the lesson. Behaviour,
as explained by Rosenshine (1971) "refers to information on teaching which has been obtained primarily through relatively objective observational category systems and through higher inference rating systems" (Rosenshine 1971:19)

Category systems, as defined by Rosenshine, are classified as low inference measures of events because items on the system focus on specific, denotable, relatively objective and overt behaviours or events recorded as frequency counts i.e coded each time they occur. When events are coded only once during an arbitrarily fixed time the system is referred to as sign system. 'Teacher asks question' is an example of low inference item. The rating systems are referred to as high inference measures because they lack the specificity of low inference variables and are constructs the observer must infer from a series of events. These events, are "covert" in the sense that they are not always being explicitly performed and/or they are taking place over two or more utterances (see Long, 1980: 7). 'Student clarifies' is an example of a high inference item. Besides in a rating system the observer must infer the frequency of the behaviour so as to decide on where to code it on the set of gradations used in the scale, (e.g sometimes, never, etc.). Sometimes a system may allow for a given event to be coded in more than one category, in which case it is said to have a multiple coding option.

The coding and analysis of the behaviour is generally accomplished through discrete analytic units either in the form of an arbitrarily fixed time unit, varying from three seconds (Flanders, 1970: FIAC) to five minutes (Medley & Mitzel, 1963: OSCAR schedule) during which any evidence of the prespecified categories on the observation instrument should be recorded once (sign) or every time it occurs (category) or in the form of naturalistic units, understood
as a unit of classroom transaction to be coded under a particular category (Galton, 1987: 145). Researchers define sets of rules to identify these units. Thus units such as the following have been identified and adopted by many researchers: speech turn, speech act, move (Bellack et al., 1966; Fanselow, 1977; Allwright, 1982, etc.), lesson segment (Mitchel et al., 1981), episode (Smith & Meux 1962), interaction (Schincke-Llano, 1983) activity, exchange (Allen, Frölich & Spada 1984). These units involve high inference categories and are reported to yield more stable information on classrooms than low inference categories (see Ulmann & Geva 1984 and references therein). The use of these naturalistic units merge pure interaction analysis with discourse analysis, the second approach to systematic observation.

6-2-2-2-3 Classroom observation through discourse analysis

Discourse analysis as explained by Chaudron (1988) draws on works in descriptive linguistics particularly on the evolution of analytical procedures for the description of suprasentential structures, as well as on ethnographic and sociolinguistic investigation into the structure of interaction. In discourse analysis as well as in interaction analysis, the pioneering work has come from mainstream educational research on content classrooms and general discourse analysis. The work of Flanders (1970) Bellack (1966) and Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) are worth mentioning in this connection.

Flanders set out to relate teachers' verbal behaviours in the classroom to learning outcome through an analysis of classroom verbal interaction patterns between teachers and pupils in teacher led classes. He devised a system, known as Flanders Interaction Categories (FIAC) (Appendix to Chapter
6 No. 1) which aimed to record teacher behaviours pupil behaviour as well as silence or confusion in the classroom. Observers were to tally every three seconds whatever category the behaviour occurring at a given moment corresponded to into a ten by ten matrix. The result of the matrix was quantified in terms of percentages for each category, percentages of teacher talk, pupil talk, of silence and confusion. Inferences were made about the observed teacher's teaching style along the lines of directness and indirectness. Although the system was supposed to be descriptive of actual behaviours in classroom and of classroom climate its interpretation was biased towards normative patterns of classroom interaction which were expressive of indirect and democratic teaching style with more room for student talk and student participation as opposed to direct and authoritarian teaching styles.

In language teaching Moskowitz, drawing on Flanders' work conducted a number of studies from 1967 to 1976 to advocate interaction analysis as a powerful tool for training teachers for behaviour change. She devised in the process what is now known as the FLINT system (Foreign Language INTeraction system) (Moskowitz, 1971). Although divided as FIAC into 'teacher talk', 'student talk' and 'silence or confusion', the FLINT system comprises twelve categories and eight subcategories, expanding Flanders' original ten categories to include features specific to language teaching. (see Appendix to Chapter 6 No. 2). From Moskowitz onwards ELT classroom systematic observation instruments proliferated as most instruments were found lacking in some respect or other for specific research designs so that scores of instruments are now available (see Long, 1980). Among them one perhaps deserves closer attention: the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) scheme developed in the Modern Language Center of Ontario, Canada in the heyday of communicative language teaching, by Allen,
Fröhlich & Spada (1983). It was an attempt to reveal if and how theory of communicative language teaching was reflected in methodology as applied in classroom practice. It aimed to examine the effects of second language instruction on its acquisition. Its authors compiled a list of indicators of communication each of which could be separately quantified. The instrument itself consisted of two parts: Part A described classroom activities, part B analysed the verbal interaction in the classroom. A real time coding was done for part A with check marks on columns corresponding to the five major descriptors. Part B was done after the lesson from the recorded lesson with a time unit of two minutes. Results were analysed using a rating scale of seven points for teacher and pupil behaviours. A global communicative orientation score was assigned to each activity followed by a more detailed analysis of distribution and combination of subcategories. (Appendix to Chapter 6 No. 3).

Another pioneering work was done by Bellack et al (1966). Bellack and his team were interested in how classrooms worked as a learning environment, and how language was used to structure that environment. They conceived classroom discourse as a social game with specific rules for subgames consisting of cycles of structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting moves.

Building on this work Fanselow (1977, 1987) devised an observation system called FOCUS (Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings). It is a system using different analytical dimensions for multiple coding, and segmenting classroom interaction, not in fixed time units but in pedagogical purpose discourse units called moves. There were five main dimensions altogether: source/target, move type, medium, use, content, (See Appendix to Chapter 6 No 4). The combination of the last three constitutes the message of the communication. Each characteristic is divided
into its component parts so that the system builds up into a complex and sophisticated alternative to Flanders' model with more capacity of reflecting more accurately the complexity of the language classroom.

The last pioneering work is Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) study entitled Towards an Analysis of Discourse (1975). It has been an influential theoretical contribution to the understanding of classroom discourse. Following on their study of The English Used by Teachers and Pupils in 1972 they produced a descriptive system of classroom discourse which identified its linguistic structures as well as its pedagogical aspects. Thus classroom discourse was conceptualised into hierarchically ranked categories starting at the lowest level with three major pedagogical acts (elicitation, directive, and informative) forming the initiating moves at an immediately superior level. So moves consist of acts. Five classes of moves (framing, focussing opening, answering and follow up) were identified and realized in their turn, two classes of exchanges (boundary exchanges consisting of framing and focussing moves, and teaching exchanges consisting of opening, answering and follow up moves). At the next level was the transaction, beginning normally with a preliminary exchange and ending with a final exchange and including medial exchanges within these boundaries. At the highest level came the lesson, made up of a series of transactions. They also identified numerous classes of acts such as markers, starters, checks, prompts, clues, bids, nominations, etc. In short they worked out a terminology which inspired many researchers, interested in discourse analysis, in the identification of analytical units.

Drawing on Sinclair & Coulthard's work, Chaudron (1977), for example, identified features and types of corrective reactions in classroom discourse in his study "A descriptive
model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors". He distinguished features or types of acts such as 'ignore', 'interrupt', 'delay', 'emphasis', 'prompt', 'clue', 'transfer', etc.

Most categories of discourse analysis are of the high inference type. They aim at a better understanding, not merely in quantitative terms, but also in qualitative terms of the nature of the interaction in the classroom and its influence on the teaching and learning of language. Allwright's (1980) work on "Turns, topics and tasks: patterns of participation in language learning and teaching" with its macro analysis of language teaching in terms of 'samples', 'guidance' and 'management' activities and his turn-taking analysis of classroom behaviour in terms of turn-taking and turn-giving together with his topic analysis of classroom turn-taking behaviour, is worth mentioning here (see Allwright 1988). The high inference nature of discourse analysis analytical units as evidenced by Allwright's categories blends it with conversation analysis and blurs the boundaries between quantitative and qualitative paradigms.

These three approaches, seen from the quantitative paradigm standpoint have contributed to the consolidation of the view that educational research, to put it in Carr & Kemmis's terms is a social engineering by means of which the researcher "recommends institutional and practical changes on the basis of established scientific theories" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 70). The teacher in this perspective can only adopt and implement recommendations made on the basis of scientific knowledge by experts and need not be involved in educational decision making as they are not expert educational theorists. These and other assumptions of the quantitative paradigm of inquiry have been subjected to
scathing strictures which eventually resulted in the emergence of the qualitative paradigm.

6-2-2-3 Criticism of the quantitative paradigm

6-2-2-3-1 Criticism of the basic assumptions

Since the early twentieth century doubts have been cast on some of the basic tenets of the quantitative paradigm. Thus Monroe (1938), a staunch advocate of experimentation, was reported as saying: "the direct contributions from controlled experimentation have been disappointing" (in Campbell & Stanley, 1963). More recently, drawing on Kuhn's (1970) account of the development of scientific knowledge, Carr & Kemmis (1986) have shown that most of the positivist claims are untenable from an historical perspective.

As they put it "a close examination of how science has developed reveals that subjective and social factors play a crucial role in the production of knowledge" (Carr & Kemmis, op.cit:71). These subjective and social factors permeate the paradigms guiding the observation and investigation of reality. Thus depending on the basic assumptions of the paradigm in use and its covert or overt underlying theory reality may be seen differently by different people. Scientists operating within the axiomatic systems of Euclidean geometry have different views of reality from those working with Lobatchevskian assumptions. (see Guba & Lincoln, 1982: 236). Reality has also differently been seen by physicists guided by the assumptions of classical particle physics and those following the paradigm of quantum physics where a hard line view would assume that nothing is real unless it is observed (Gribbin, 1984:3 quoted in Kloos 1988: 230).
Similarly the view of knowledge as given 'out there' acquirable objectively and independently of the knowing subject, provided one avails oneself of a suitable set of research techniques, observation and measurement instruments, hardly stands close scrutiny. As Heisenberg (1959) puts it, in favour of the subjective element in science:

Since the measuring device has been constructed by the observer, and we have to remember that what we observe is not nature in itself, but nature exposed to our method of questioning...it is understandable that in our scientific relation to nature our own activity becomes very important when we have to deal with parts of nature into which we can penetrate only by using the most elaborate tools (Heisenberg, 1959: 57 in Kloos, 1988: 230)

Heisenberg's opinion corroborates Kloos's view that the "positivist position is epistemologically untenable" and that "there can be no knowledge without a knowing subject" (Kloos, 1988:234). This knowing subject has a human nature which far from making him/her an automaton determined by environmental realities to which it reacts mechanically, makes him/her a voluntary being using his/her free will and other human faculties to initiate actions and interactions that helps him/her attain a better knowledge of reality in order to master it. This view flies in the face of the detached, disinterested 'a fly on the wall' view of the researcher - observer, casting an etic look on the object of enquiry from a discrete (and discreet) distance by means of neutral instruments of systematic observation and/or experimentation. It postulates, to use Kloos's terms a dialectical approach to knowledge whereby knowledge is "created in the interaction between field workers and the whole situation in which they find themselves" (Kloos: op.cit:228). As Lincoln & Guba (1984 :92-109) put it the observer is disturbing as well as disturbed by the observed.
Subject, (object, respondent) reactivity understood as error from the respondent due to awareness of being tested, role selection, measurement as a change agent and response sets (see Webb Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest, 1966:13) and resulting in different instances of reactivity (Hawthorne effect, Pygmalion effect, John Henry effect), cannot be helped. Attempts to guard against it through various research designs, statistical controls, use of unobtrusive measures or downright misinformation and lies have had only limited success due to their impracticality. Guba & Lincoln (1982) contend for instance that random sampling is a virtual impossibility in any real world (op.cit:234). Besides, as Campbell & Stanley (1963), advocates of the positivist paradigm have had to admit, in line with Heisenberg's view "the process of measuring may change that which is being measured" (op.cit:9).

Even if that 'chink in the positivist armor' is filled up there still remain two other chinks, that of indeterminacy as demonstrated by Heisenberg (see Tranel, 1981: 426 in Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 97-98) and that of interaction in particular which are practically intractable. Moreover, as Lincoln & Guba (op.cit) explain "observation not only disturbs but it shapes" (op.cit 98). Thus "the questionnaire maker is being shaped throughout, by his or her expectations of what the sample of respondents will be like and how they are likely to react to whatever instruments he or she may finally send out" (Lincoln & Guba, op.cit: 99). The observer in these circumstances can hardly consider him/herself as an independent and detached observer. Observation in this sense cannot be truly objective.

Besides in so far as observation supposes a look at reality from some theoretical angle or other, facts cannot be facts speaking for themselves as presumed by positivism. Facts are theory laden (Hesse, 1980 in Lincoln & Guba, 1985:101). They
are always facts "as interpreted by prior assumptions and beliefs" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 74) even if this is obscured by the appearance of impersonality and objectivity of researchers' activities within the dominant paradigm. Besides they are extracts from a reality constructed by interaction between the observer and the observed, from the set of meanings they bring to bear on the phenomena under investigation. In this sense as well, objective observation may be no more than an epistemological utopia or an investigator's self deception.

As for the claim about the enduring, universal, context free, nomothetic and value free nature of scientific explanations of phenomena in the form of abstract theories, laws or lawlike generalisations, it has been questioned on various grounds. The main arguments against it have been synthesised by Lincoln and Guba in three main points.

First the formulation of general laws and universal theories depend on the assumptions that elements and phenomena in nature and society are determined by fixed linkages making the whole world function like a huge machine, so that all other things being equal the same causes produce the same effects. But more and more, awareness that all other things are rarely equal, that the certainty of earlier days may have been misconceived has led to a shift towards a new paradigm (Schwartz & Ogilvy, 1979) taking indeterminism which affirms ambiguity and unpredictability of phenomena and their relationship as one of its basic assumptions.

Second, because generalisations are mental abstractions from experience with a limited number of particulars based on an inductive logic, and reducing all phenomena of a given class to a single general statement they are constrained by the facts from which they are generated. They may not be universal in the sense of being the only one possible
generalisation from these facts; in terms of being fully comprehensive of all elements of the phenomenon studied; in terms of accounting for the phenomena as a whole and not just as a sum of elements and in terms of being applicable to all particular cases. Thus there is a mismatch between the universal law like statements based on the general (nomothetic) and the actual applicability to all cases based on the particular (ideographic). In this sense every generalisation is relative in that it is only one probable statement about the facts observed; it is therefore limited in its universal application to all cases.

Third, generalisations depend on freedom from time and context (space). But it has been shown that the cumulative view of science as an aggregation of universal truths, reinforcing each other in a linear progress towards understanding is untenable from a perspective view of the history of sciences (Kuhn, 1970). Time and context, it is argued should be taken into account because as a French philosopher put it "vérité au delà des Pyrénées erreur en deçà". In other words universal generalisations unrestricted by time and space, valid everywhere and always may not be feasible because events and situations are in constant flux. Generalisations can only be considered as true in relation to given conditions and circumstances. Besides as said earlier, the paradigm guiding the enquiry reflects the expectations of a particular social group, based on particular social beliefs and values. Generalisations made from the enquiry are then necessarily constrained by these expectations. As such they cannot help being the social product of a particular society. They are therefore context bound.

As for causality it should be recalled that in accordance with Hume's three conditions for inferencing causality the positivist view, as expressed by Brand (1979) considered
For every event C and every event E, C caused E iff:
1. The occurrence of C began before the occurrence of E
2. C occurred in the immediate geographic area of E;
3. and for every event similar to C that occurs, there is an event similar to E that occurs in the immediate geographic area and after it. (Brand, 1979 in Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 134)

This view has been seriously challenged within the hard sciences themselves in so far as it does not account for simultaneous cause effect relationship, for action at distance and ignores coincidence. Suggestions made to improve it has also been shown to be deficient on various grounds (see Lincoln & Guba op cit: chapter 6). Emergent epistemologies and paradigms have shown that the linear causality of early positivism is untenable in view of the realisation of the indeterminacy of nature, suggestive of a more relativistic approach to causality pointing towards the multicausality of mutually interactive factors.

Last but not least...the positivist view of the value of theory and its relationship to practice has been closely screened by critics. The positivist view assumes that scientific explanations of educational situations could be provided to help objective decision making by indicating the most logical means for achieving chosen ends whatever those ends may be. Decisions about means are seen as technical, instrumental, questions, solvable without reference to value considerations. But as Carr & Kemmis (1986) explained, questions of educational means are always value laden because they always incorporate attitudes towards other people and imply some notion of what is permissible, so that some means even if 'efficient' on some grounds may be undesirable and perhaps eliminated on some other grounds:

'What is the educational aim?' and 'how can this aim be achieved most effectively' are not separate questions, parallel to a
fact-value distinction. Because the end largely determines what is to count as an educational method, the range of empirical hypotheses that it is possible to generate about the most effective educational means is severely limited (Carr & Kemmis, op. cit: 78).

Besides the actual achievements of the search for general and value free laws that the educational researcher is to discover, as pointed out by Carr & Kemmis "are not very impressive and theories that could be used to predict and control educational situations are almost non existent" (op. cit: 79). This impression is shared by Lincoln & Guba (1982) who attribute this lack of impact in practice of positivist research to people's inability to see how results can be applied, and to the fact that results themselves have so very little meaning that efforts to apply them are considered as wasted efforts.

6-2-2-3-2 Criticism of positivist methods and procedures in educational research with special reference to language teaching/learning research

As observed above that the results of psychometric studies in education were so disappointing, in spite of impressive tables showing 'standard deviations, covariance F-ratio and the like', that Grittner (1968) called for a cease-fire while we search for a more productive means of investigation. Indeed as pointed out by Desmond Nuttal (1986) the measurement of change through research strategies using pre-test post-test designs and gain scores is fraught with problems.

The first series of problems are to do with tests, be they same or different, used over time to evaluate change. The use of the same tests or items is difficult to defend, he
because inevitable curricular, social and linguistic change will convert what appears to be an unchanged yardstick into a piece of elastic. Moreover the use of the same tests (which become increasingly dated) may increase the difficulty of allowing systems to address today's and tomorrow's educational problems in line with their other aims. What one evaluator of NAEP characterized as the dangers of an 'unholy alliance with the past' (quoted by Wirtz & Lapoine, 1982: 70). Wirtz and Lapoine themselves warn of the dangers of concentrating too much upon techniques that permit comparisons over time to the extent that broader educational goals that might lead to the raising of standards are neglected (Nuttal, 1986:156-157).

One is not better off with the use of different tests. Technically two methods are used: latent trait theory and generalisability theory. Latent trait theory is based on the idea that "there are one or more underlying and unobservable factors or traits which characterise an individual and determine his or her observed responses" and, "although we cannot actually measure them, it is supposed that we can assemble measurable 'indicators' of them, which in some sense reflect their operation" (Goldstein, 1979: 212). Generalisability theory is based on estimation of sampling variance when different samples of items are drawn from the same pool (Nuttal, 1986: 160).

Both techniques have been shown to have serious limitations (see Traub & Wolfe, 1981 for criticism of latent trait theory Johnson & Hartley, 1981 for clarification of the generalisability theory and Shavelson & Webb for its criticism). Thus Nuttal concluded: "generalisability theory like latent trait theory, cannot cope with changing domains or universes, or with items that change in difficulty for cultural reasons" (op.cit:160). He then advocated a more subjective approach such as expert panel judgement and the need to supplement it with measures of changes in more important educational variables such as resource provision, staffing standards, opportunity to learn, etc. This concurs
with Farr & Fay's (1982) view that:

Any responsible comparison of achievement test scores from different time periods must consider a host of factors that may operate on the groups tested and that may vary across time. Such factors involve educational, demographic, economic, and other societal factors which act as uncontrolled variables. Events, situations, and attitudes unique to time periods ought to be included and studied among such factors. Since such factors can interact in highly complex ways most cannot be mathematically removed from the test scores and, so, must be weighed subjectively (Farr & Fay, 1982:136).

This subjective weighting was needed since, as shown by Harvey Goldstein's (1986), models for equating test scores and comparability such as reference test and cross moderation methods were inadequate. This inadequacy was due, among other reasons, to the impracticality of random assignment, difficulty in comparing syllabuses as apparently the same syllabuses might actually differ considerably in the emphasis given to various topics, difficulty in conducting longitudinal studies to measure abilities prior to syllabus implementation and compare this with the assessment of examinees after exposure to syllabus. So in addition to problems related to adjustment and comparability of test scores, Goldstein pointed to problems related to interpretation and specification of syllabuses and their comparison which had a direct relevance to difficulty in interpreting and discriminating methods in the methods comparison studies in language teaching/learning within the psychometric tradition of process-product research.

Research on methodological comparisons in language teaching has been typically concerned with global conceptions of methods as traditionally labelled. Thus such studies were designed to investigate relative effectiveness of overall teaching strategies, derived from divergent or even competing theories of language learning such as the direct method, cognitive code learning method, audiolingual method,
grammar translation method, communicative language teaching methods, etc. Most of these studies were inconclusive, not only because they were too many variables to control, and that educational variables were not easily amenable to experimental controls but also because as Allwright (1988) pointed out, these methods did not really rigorously follow the theories claimed to underlie them. They were relatively ill defined. In practice this leads to a considerable amount of overlap in teachers' actual behaviour. The problem as Allwright saw was:

The global conception of methods, makes sufficiently precise specification of teaching behaviour impossible. It is certainly difficult to conceive of a specification that would in practice give a teacher a principled and precise way of coping with all the possible situations that normal teaching over a couple of years is likely to throw up. (Allwright, 1988: 52)

In other words, the question as rightly put by Chaudron (1988) was:

How do we know that what actually happens in a program matches its description? Is a grammar translation program actually doing grammar translation and not functional skills? Unless care is taken to validate the distinctions made in the classification by method/program, any results in favour of a given type are meaningless (Chaudron, 1988: 29-30)

Systematic classroom observation using various instruments for interaction analysis was seen as a means to overcome the confusion against which Chaudron warned researchers. Its proponents were reported to see many advantages to it. It helped practising teachers to set themselves some goals and evaluate their achievement, to identify themselves from tallies on the observation instrument the degree to which they were more or less direct, critical, receptive to ideas, good at questioning, etc. It could help student teachers make their knowledge about principles of teaching and learning personally meaningful, get feedback on their behaviour, discover for themselves more effective patterns
of teaching behaviours since the system was not overtly prescriptive (see Bailey, 1975 on FIAC in Allwright, 1988). Besides most instruments seemed relatively easy to learn and simple to use and some went "some way towards providing a common terminology for describing classroom life" (see Long, 1980 on interaction analysis). But even if most of these advantages were conceded systematic classroom observations through interaction analysis seem in the literature to raise more problems than they solve.

The first problem pointed out by critics (see Mitchell 1985: 331) was their failure to take account of the distinctive character of second language classroom interaction in which the medium of instruction was itself an object of study. Besides as Long (1980) showed, despite their claims to objectivity and non-judgementality most of the categories contained in those analytic systems, were included on the basis of hunches about their pedagogical significance to second language acquisition without supporting data and without a clear theoretical rationale for their selection and for the selection of dimensions of classroom life to be observed. They were therefore no less subjective than the impressionistic comments they were designed to replace. (see Long, 1980). They presupposed certain ideological assumptions about teaching (Delamont, 1986) which teachers, teacher trainers and researchers were supposed to accept and believe unquestioningly (Bailey, 1975 in Allwright, 1988).

Due to this implicit prescriptivism and norm setting they might have a crippling effect on teachers' actions when used in teacher education by closing up options instead of opening alternatives. (see Walker & Adelman, 1986 on FIAC). Linked to this criticism of the limitation of options was the objection to the use of predetermined categories, which, it was said, risked furnishing only a partial description of
classroom reality, ignoring or neglecting information irrelevant to the pre-specified categories. Not only did this result in partial description but it also limited the potential of interaction analysis to go beyond the predetermined categories. This may impede theoretical development not only because of the exclusion of possibilities, but also because if the categories were intended to assist explanation prespecifying them assumed the truth of what they claimed to be explaining and made the explanation tautological (see Delamont & Hamilton, 1976 and 1986, Hargreaves, 1972).

Besides it was feared that the preoccupation of interaction analysis with overt, observable and measurable behaviours might result in the neglect of underlying, more meaningful features while concentrating on surface features. No account was taken of the intentions behind classroom participants' verbal behaviours and of the communicative value of their utterances. Furthermore individual differences were ignored. More precisely observers were expected to interpret the intentions behind the talk between teachers and learners and among learners and their communicative values from their own perspective. But, as pointed out by Long, (1980), most observers being adult and trained teachers there was a built in bias towards making the observer's interpretation coincide with that of only one of the participants, namely the teacher.

These criticisms raise the whole issue of the extent to which interaction analysis can account for the meanings participants give to their interaction. It poses the problem of the difficulty for the observer of understanding the subculture of the class being observed so that she/he can accurately code incidents such as the 'strawberries' incident reported by Walker and Adelman (1986) in their criticism of the Flanders' system. These issues raised in
the critical literature on interaction analysis (see Hargreaves 1972, Delamont & Hamilton, 1986, Smith & Geoffrey, 1968) were exhaustively dealt with by Bailey (1975) to show the impracticality of both FIAC and FLINT. Her main argument was that due to the large number of categories in these instruments, their lack of clarity and objectivity, their ambiguity, the unusually subtle distinctions between them, scarcely perceptible to an observer, they posed an intractable problem of interpretation. This problem was worsened by the need for the observer to be an expert in the target language if he/she was to be able to interpret statements of criticism, clarification, confirmation, etc. He/she also had to cope with the demands of making split second decisions and judgements on what the ongoing talk meant while recording frequently changing behaviour, and looking at his/her watch - unless somebody else was beside him/her to nudge him/her every three second. Even then one would have to ignore the time lapse between the nudge and the actual reacting-recording action. Besides the relatively long time of training needed to use these instruments, the frustrating complexity of the matrix to be used for tabulating the data collected, the unreliability and inaccuracy resulting from the way results were computed and the doubt about the continued use of these instruments in teachers' classrooms after their training lead her to advise caution to trainers and teachers intending to use them.

Beyond these practical considerations there is the fundamental issue of the adequacy of interaction analysis and of classroom discourse analysis for that matter within the quantitative paradigm to accurately and reliably capture what goes on in the classroom. It is the question of the capacity of these instruments to help apprehend how classroom talk is used to achieve educational purposes and their ability to help make sense of social interaction in
the classroom which is at stake. Walker and Adelman (1986) put it this way:

Talk has connotative as well as denotative meanings. What is said often depends for its significance on shared meanings which are hidden from the casual observer (Walker & Adelman, 1986: 5)

One of the ways in which access to these shared meanings can be attained by the researcher/observer is through careful attention to and understanding of temporal (historical), spatial, psychological and social contexts (see Delamont & Hamilton, 1986; Furlong & Edward, 1986 in Hammersley, 1986) which are largely ignored by systematic observation. As Furlong & Edwards (1986) put it

In the same way as a listener's grammatical knowledge enables him to establish the referential meaning of what he hears (i.e. who is doing what to whom) so his knowledge of what might be called a 'social grammar' (of social identities, social roles, etc.) enables him to extend or perhaps modify his understanding of what was said in its particular context. In other words, what a speaker means will often depend on who he is, when and where he is speaking, and on his relationship to the listener. (Furlong & Edwards 1986:57)

This ignoring of context is further complicated in the positivist paradigm by concentration on small bits of action and units of behaviour, an isolated and decontextualised selection of linguistic units rather than on global concepts. Thus arbitrary boundaries are imposed on continuous phenomena (see Delamont & Hamilton, 1986) and links and chains of behaviours are thus lost (Hargreaves, 1972). This neglect of contextualised data added to the nature of categories on some interaction analysis instruments (FIAC FLINT COLT for example) and the conception of teaching underlying them make them suitable only for a narrow type of classroom; mainly classes where talk takes the form of a public dialogue for transmission of knowledge. They are considered inadequate for use in a classroom where talk is managed as negotiation of meaning.
As should be expected, this avalanche of criticisms against interaction analysis and discourse analysis provoked counterarguments and clarifications. A systematic repertoire of most of the criticisms was analysed by McIntyre and Macleod (1986). They pointed out that most of them were wrong headed in so far as they complained that systematic observation instruments, had not solved problems which the instruments were not trying to solve. They also showed that some of the criticisms were not specific to interaction analysis, as shown by the table below presenting the main features of systematic observation as criticised by opponents.

Table 10 Necessary and distinctive features of systematic observation. (From McIntyre & Macleod, 1986 in Hammersley, 1986: 18)
so seen from McIntyre and Macleod's perspective only three out of twelve criticisms against systematic observation are distinctively relevant. This of course has not stopped the flow of objections. Two of them still need to be considered here in relation to discourse analysis.

Michael Stubbs (1986) criticised the unjustified and unprincipled selection of linguistic data from different levels of language with reference to studies in which "surface features of language [were] picked out at random and not related to underlying linguistic statements and descriptions" (op. cit: 65). He criticised the direct relation of these data to socio-psychological categories "as though the language had no organisation of its own". On this basis he took issue with models of teacher-pupil verbal interaction analysis in classrooms such as Flanders' model which he said "takes us directly from utterances (the language data), coded as pedagogical acts (praises) to social roles, i.e democratic, authoritarian (a very high level social-psychological concept), with no intervening discussion of 'how the language itself is organised'" (op. cit: 68). He argued that if language was to be used as evidence of social structure and processes, then the language data had to be studied for its own linguistic, systemic organisation. In general then the relation between language and educational statements is much less direct and more abstract than many educational studies assume:

"treating teacher-pupil interaction as a linguistic discourse system means studying the formally recognisable linguistic mechanisms by which the talk is organised and made coherent. That is, studying amongst other things, how topics are introduced, sustained, and closed, or how one speaker's talk is related to another's (Stubbs, 1986 in Hammersley 1986: 73)

On these bases, Stubbs accused educationalists who thought that linguists ignored the context in which language was
used, of also ignoring the context of linguistic organisation. He argued that although it was often tempting to proceed directly from language to social context bypassing levels of organisation in the middle, one ought to try and account for linguistic data on its own terms before turning to sociolinguistic, sociological or psychological explanations.

The problem with this approach is that it ignores that the formulation of discourse structuring concepts in familiar settings is itself heavily biased by the observer's common sense, as pointed out by Furlong and Edwards (1986) in their criticism of the Sinclair and Coulthard model. The discourse sequence identified in this model, they said was influenced by the authors' experience of formal classrooms. Even if context did not turn out to be an unexplicated implicit ideological/theoretical or experiential bias, the problem remained to know how to go from the level of discourse to educational statement implying social psychological context and concepts. As admitted by McIntyre and Macleod (op. cit):

To the extent that, and in those respects that classroom activities involve shared meanings between teacher and pupils which depend upon the distinctive cultural and historical context of that classroom group, systematic observation, is not an appropriate research technique.

In so far as current trends in language teaching/learning processes emphasise understanding, negotiation learning by doing, personal meanings and interests (Moskowitz, 1978), observational instruments, designed within a paradigm concerned with the quantifiable, the objective, the overtly observable, may need to be supplemented by other means of inquiry with the power to tap the underlying meanings participants in classroom events attribute to their interaction. In this connection the qualitative paradigm has made a great contribution.
6-2-3 The qualitative paradigm

6-2-3-1 General assumptions

Qualitative paradigm is a generic term covering a variety of research approaches whose origin dates back to the interpretive movement started in the 17th century with the hermeneutic approach to bible study. This approach intends to make the bible directly accessible to people without outside ecclesiastical intervention. By the early twentieth century it developed into a methodology for the study of social sciences, thanks to the work of German social theorists such as Dilthey, Rickert, Simmel and Weber. It inspired and stimulated the development of a spate of research methods, which, in spite of their different emphases, share the same basic assumptions about social reality, human nature, knowledge, causality, truth, the relationship between observer/researcher and the observed/researched, the value of research findings and the relationship between theory and practice. They reject the functionalist view of social reality as a self regulatory mechanism in favour of the view that social reality has "an intrinsic meaning structure that is constituted and sustained through the routine interpretive activities of its members" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986:86). The interpretive view attempts to understand human action by reference to the meaning attached to it by the actors themselves, by reference to their conscious intentions and to the social context which structures their interpretation and in terms of which these interpretations make sense.

Reality conceived of in terms of those who live it, is a socially constructed reality, created in the minds of individuals by their subjective experience. It is differently construed by different people. In this sense there are multiple, complex realities with many facets, the
sum of which cannot make the whole. The whole to be apprehended must be approached holistically in its totality. (see Guba, 1985)

As human beings are considered to be endowed with free will, they are assumed to voluntarily initiate their own actions, interpreting, modifying and creating the world in the process. Knowledge in this paradigm is personal understanding (verstehen), that is, the making of plausible interpretations according to one's purposes. It aims to comprehend the basic conceptual schema which make individual people's actions and experiences intelligible, and to explore the multiple interactive (feedforward and feedback) factors, events, processes that shape these actions. Indeed as underlined by Lincoln & Guba:

Everything influences everything else, in the here and now. Many elements are implicated in any given action, and each element interacts with all the others in ways that change them all while simultaneously resulting in something that we, as outside observers label as outcomes or effects. But the interaction has no directionality no need to produce that particular outcome (op.cit: 151).

In other words, the knowledge sought by the researcher does not establish necessary cause effect relationship but may help to modulate i.e. introduce enabling factors, that may facilitate the realisation of desired adjustments or behaviours in 'native activity' (activity or behaviour against which other later activities or behaviours might be evaluated). It may also help to modulate factors that may block or mask contextual constraints, in such a way as to manage a possible outcome. It is a context bound knowledge, focussed on the particular and on differences. Its conclusions are therefore ideographic statements considered as grounded theories following from the data rather than preceding them, and fitting the situations being researched. As such they are not universally generalisable although they can have some transferability to contexts which have enough
fittingness (congruence) with the 'thick description' of the original context of the enquiry.

In the construction of such knowledge both observer and observed are interrelated and interact with each other and the situation in an emic approach to research. The emic approach is a view from inside. It requires that the researcher leave aside preestablished views, standards of measurement models, schemes and typologies and consider classroom phenomena 'from the functional point of view of the ordinary actor in everyday life' (Erickson 1981:20). This means that critical knowledge of the classroom derives from the study of the meaning that participants invest and develop in the social context of the classroom as manifested through their interactions and various kinds of documentary evidence... (Van Lier, 1988:55-56)

In this context the inquirer shapes the respondent's behaviour and the respondent shapes the inquirer's behaviour too. The latter may be a participant observer whose success depends on the full understanding and cooperation of the respondents. Besides, the trustworthiness of the enquiry requires that the outcome of the research be a negotiated outcome. Indeed reality being conceived of as socially constructed, the outcome of research into this reality is a reconstruction of the multiple constructions of respondents which should be confirmed by them as a valid account of their interpretation of their world and its values.

In this connection, the qualitative paradigm of inquiry assumes that enquiry is always value bound. It is influenced by the inquirer's values, those that underlie his/her 'choice of a problem, and the framing, bounding and focussing of that problem' (Lincoln & Guba, 1982:238). It is influenced by the paradigm of inquiry and the values inherent in the context.
The relationship between theory and practice is concordant with the preceding assumptions. It is assumed that by revealing and making available to social actors the underlying rules and assumptions of their actions those actions will be seen in new lights. This illuminative potential of qualitative research, by making the meaning of actions transparent to individuals facilitates communication between social actors and influences the ways in which they construe themselves and their situations. "Practices are changed by changing the ways in which they are understood" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 91).

In other words it is through the transformation of people's consciousness that changes may be brought about in practice. But theory here is not a full blown theory to be tested or confirmed by research. It is rather a working hypothesis which gradually develops in the researcher's interaction with the data. It is a grounded theory arrived at by interpreting the significance attached to actions by actors themselves.

6-2-3-2 Methodological implications

In congruence with these basic assumptions the advocates of the qualitative paradigm have suggested a number of methodological steps that constitute the characteristic features of naturalistic research design. The most systematic exposition of these characteristics to the present writer's knowledge, is by Lincoln & Guba (1985) on which this section is largely based.

Naturalistic enquiry takes place in a natural setting, that is, it studies the phenomena under investigation within its natural context since it is assumed that without the supporting evidence of the temporal and spatial context in which a phenomenon is observed one cannot understand it in
its wholeness. Besides a long period of sustained observation is needed to identify the salient contextual factors which need to be grasped in order to reach a better insight into the matter under investigation.

Speaking of insight supposes a sensitive observation instrument. Naturalistic researchers use human instruments. A human instrument, they argue, is responsive i.e. can sense and respond to personal and environmental cues, is adaptable and can collect the information at multiple levels simultaneously without any need for preprogramming, is capable of grasping phenomena holistically in their unity with the surrounding context. A human instrument can use his/her tacit knowledge, these "unexpressible associations which give rise to new meanings, new ideas, and new applications of the old" (Stake, 1978: 6); he/she can use his/her experiential knowledge, based on face to face encounter and interaction with the person or the phenomena, and on sustained acquaintance with it, (see Heron, 1981) as well as his/her practical knowledge (knowledge of how to do it) and propositional knowledge (sharable statements) to build powerful insights and hypotheses about the phenomena being studied.

He/she alone, better than any other instrument, can extend his/her "awareness of a situation beyond mere propositional knowledge to the realm of the felt, to the silent sympathies, to the unconscious wishes, and to the daily unexamined usages" and by so doing "lend depth and richness to our understanding of social and organisational settings." (Lincoln & Guba, 1981:135-136). Besides he/she can process data as soon as they are available, generate hypotheses and test them with respondents on the spot, summarize the data and submit them to respondents for clarification and eventual correction. He/she can explore atypical or idiosyncratic responses for higher level understanding of
phenomena. All these advantages make the human instrument the ideal instrument, in spite of its weaknesses, for naturalistic enquiry.

The naturalistic researcher prefers the use of qualitative methods and techniques such as interviewing, observation (participant or non participant), non verbal communication, use of documentary and records evidence, and unobtrusive measures. But as he/she believes in multiple realities and in unpredictable, mutually shaping interactions between researcher, respondents and context, he/she does not have any preordinate design, with a previously drawn sample of population. He/she relies on an "emerging, unfolding, rolling, cascading, design, which is never complete until the enquiry is arbitrarily terminated as time, resources, or other logistical considerations may dictate" (Guba, 1981: 79). This design emerges, as collected data are continuously analysed and new insights, hypotheses, questions, gaps, are identified and pursued according to the focus guiding the study. Similarly the sample of his/her investigation emerges, by a serial selection, extending information of previous samples, and by continuous adjustment and focussing of the initial sample to maximise information.

The information collected is analysed inductively, that is, through a process of sense making of field data by systematically aggregating and transforming raw data into units. Thus a precise description of relevant content characteristics is obtained. The process is technically known as unitizing. These units are sorted out into provisional categories on the basis of 'look alike' characteristics through "constant comparative method" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) so as to provide contextual descriptive or inferential information. This is called categorizing).
From this inductive data analysis a grounded theory, based on the data and not anticipated a priori is developed. This theory is grounded because it is derived from the data and fits the situation being researched. It is grounded also because it works when put into use, by applying it to the data. In addition, a grounded theory is relevant to the behaviour under study and capable of explaining it (see Glaser and Strauss, 1967:3). The kind of explanation referred to here is what Paul Diesing, in his *Patterns of Discovery in the Social Sciences* calls the 'pattern model of explanation' characterized by its open endedness allowing for an indefinite filling in and extension as more and more information is obtained and by integration in a larger whole. Another characteristic of naturalistic enquiry is what is known as negotiated outcome. It is explained as follows:

Throughout the enquiry but especially near the end, the data and interpretations are continuously checked with the respondents who have acted as sources, as well as with counterpart individuals, differences of opinion are negotiated until the outcomes are agreed upon, or minority opinions are well understood and reflected. (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 188-189)

This double checking helps to ensure conformity of the interpretation with respondent intentions to protect them against the use of the knowledge about them against them. Besides the negotiation of outcomes increases the trustworthiness of the inquiry.

Questions related to trustworthiness, that is, how to establish confidence in the truth of the findings of naturalistic inquiry (criterion of *credibility*), how to determine the applicability of the findings to other contexts (criterion of *transferability*), how to determine the consistency of the findings throughout successive replications in similar contexts (criterion of *dependability*) and how to establish the degree to which the
findings are derived from the characteristics of the respondents and the context and not from the biases, interests, motivations and perspectives of the researcher (criterion of confirmability) have received careful attention from the proponents of naturalistic enquiry. A whole range of techniques (see Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985, Chapter 11) have been suggested to increase the trustworthiness of the research. They include prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, debriefing, member checks, collection of referential adequacy material, establishing structural corroboration or coherence, purposive sampling, thick description, overlap method, stepwise replication, audit trail, dependability audit, practising reflectivity, confirmability audit (for details see Lincoln & Guba, 1985, chapter 11).

Although these precautions are suggested to increase the trustworthiness of the enquiry, interpretation of the findings remains ideographic, that is focussed on the particular case in point for that context at that time, but aiming to understand it in a holistic way, grasping it in its totality beyond its component parts. Findings are applicable to other contexts only tentatively. The results of the enquiry are communicated to the public audience in the form of a case report which provides the thick description needed to enable transferability judgements, and is suitable for communication with the consumer who is provided with the enquiry setting, and fits in the assumption of multiple realities and multiple shapings. The whole flow of naturalistic enquiry is diagrammatically synthesized by Lincon & Guba as below.
Figure 19: The flow of naturalistic inquiry (From Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 188)
The principles and techniques of the qualitative paradigms in new fields of social sciences such as humanistic psychology, phenomenology, ethnomethodology, anthropology and ethnology gained ground in mainstream educational research, particularly in the United States of America and in the United Kingdom. They have virtually become the norm in the sociology of Education in the course of the last half of this century (Sharp, 1986). But the pace is relatively slower in the field of research on classroom language teaching/learning. Here as well as there, the terminology describing the various uses of the qualitative paradigm is rather confusing with a lot of overlap, sometimes varying only in emphasis on a given technique or on connotation of terms.

In the overview given by Burgess (1985) he mentioned fieldwork, a term used by anthropologists to specify collection of observational materials, field research, including methods such as participant observation, unstructured interviews and documentary materials, ethnography, used by anthropologists to mean the study of culture and by British classroom investigators to stress the use of observational methods. But due to the colonialist connotation of the term and the social distance it implied, some researchers such as Stenhouse (1984) preferred to have their work described as case study stressing the intense relationship between researcher and researched, with the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism and the use of interpretive procedures.

With reference to classroom language teaching/learning research, Long (1980) referred to the methods falling under
the qualitative paradigm as the *Anthropological approach*. He distinguished participant observation, and constitutive ethnography. Leo Van Lier (1988), an advocate of ethnographic research, discussed participant observation, non participant observation, and alluded to case study, diaries and action research as aspects of ethnographic research. All these methods could be and have been used to carry out a more powerful analysis of classroom interaction (interactional analysis (Mehan, 1979)) than traditional interaction analysis within the quantitative paradigm. They also allow a more insightful analysis of classroom discourse taking account of psycholinguistic and developmental factors as well as of social and interactive factors (Seliger, 1977; Allwright, 1980). It is therefore worth examining the main ones more closely.

6-2-3-3-1 Ethnography


- the elicitation of cultural knowledge (Spradley, 1980)
- the detailed investigation of patterns of social interaction (Gumperz, 1981)
- holistic analysis of societies (Lutz, 1981)
- essentially descriptive, a form of story telling (Walker, 1981)
- the development and testing of theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Denzin, 1978)
- one social research method, drawing on a wide range of sources of information (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983)

Drawing on these views Van Lier envisages ethnography in a continuum from strong to weak. The strong view aims at building theory for the interpretation and understanding of social reality, in line with other naturalistic approaches
such as phenomenology and ethnomethodology. The weak view, which he considers as current in L2 research, takes ethnography as a tool consisting mainly of "unstructured (as opposed to systematic, i.e., using predetermined codes) observation used in order to identify relevant concepts, describe variables and ultimately generate testable hypotheses" (Van-Lier, 1988: 54). In a survey carried out by Bailey (1985: 97) four main areas of attention have been identified in this research: patterns of participation (e.g. Seliger 1977; Allwright, 1980), the speech and behaviour of teachers (e.g. Gaies, 1976; 1977), the treatment of learners' errors (Allwright, 1975), and individual student (or teacher) variables (Bailey, 1983, Schumann & Schumann, 1977). The problem with these studies adopting the weak view is that they 'focus on specific aspects of the setting with little or no attention paid to the holistic nature of the classroom as a social context" (Van-Lier, 1988: 60). In so doing they infringe one of the two principles considered central to ethnography, namely the holistic principle which requires that "data obtained for study of pieces of the culture should be related to existing knowledge about other components of the whole of the culture or similar pieces studied in other cultures" (Heath, 1982:35)

Between the hard and the weak lines of ethnography there is the conception known as ethnographic monitoring which combines quantitative and qualitative methods as appropriate to investigate an educational setting or problem. It is often used in programme evaluation and action research.

The techniques of ethnographic research are varied and include questionnaires, interviews, conversational analysis, elicitation, ethnomantics, study of documents, (school records, lesson plans, etc.), recorded data, transcription, observation (participant or non participant). Recent developments in educational ethnography have led to the
formulation of two distinctive branches of ethnographic work worth mentioning here: constitutive ethnography and microethnography.

Constitutive ethnography has been proposed by Mehan (1979) in reaction both to quantitative surveys and informally reported ethnographic field studies whose representativeness and criteria of data selection could not be assessed, as readers have no access to the original data for independent interpretation. Constitutive ethnography differs from these informal reports in four ways: it makes available the recording of the original data which makes their retrievability possible. It makes a comprehensive and exhaustive treatment of the data accounting for all aspects of teacher-student interaction. It adopts the perspective of "truth as agreement" by describing the structures and actions of participants so as to reflect the way these actions are perceived by them. Thus there is convergence between researcher's and participants' perspectives. Last, constitutive ethnography aims to locate the organizing machinery of classroom lessons in the interaction and in the words and in the actions of the participants. This interactional level of analysis avoids unwanted attributions of inferences regarding participants' roles, and reveals the ethnomethodological underpinning of Mehan's constitutive ethnography. The overall goal pursued by Mehan is to show both the overall organisation or structure of a lesson as well as how that organisation comes about, or the structuring of those lessons (Van-Lier 1988:62).

Microethnography, advocated by Erickson (1981a, 1981b, 1982) is concerned with face to face analysis of social interaction applied to the study of small groups. The group could however be as large as a whole class or a single school. Such a study relies mainly on recorded events and aims to reveal participation structures in the classroom. Both constitutive ethnography and micro ethnography seem to take little account of the holistic principle as they fail
to do their investigations within broader educational issues and questions at larger scales.

6-2-3-3-2 Participant observation

Gold (in Ball, 1985) classified participant observation into four modes: complete participants, participants as observer, observer as participants and complete observer on a continuum from hardline positions to softliners. The complete participant "stresses the need to share in the activities of the researched in a direct and complete way, to do what they do" (Ball, 1985: 25). For this hard line position "there is only one way of experiencing an activity it is to perform it personally" (Znaniecki, 1934). Participant observers sharing this view make their best to become "true members of the culture they are studying by adopting its values and life styles as much as possible" (Long, 1980:22). The risk here is what has been termed 'going native' whereby the observer is so involved in the life of the researched that he/she may lack the detached, analytical stand needed for a credible description and interpretation. This may lead to advocacy research which deliberately aims to defend and promote the views and interests of those on whom the research is focussed. The participant observer can participate in the interaction as teacher, co-teacher, learner and covertly observe the people's behaviours, hiding his/her true motives. In this case he/she is 'participant as observer'. He/she can also observe the interaction overtly with the knowledge and consent of the the other participants; in this case he/she is referred to as 'observer as participant'.

These observations generally lead to the publication of journals or diaries, casting interesting light on personal variables in language learning. Shumann & Shumann (1977), Shumann (1978), Bailey (1983) are known examples in L2
learning studies as mentioned earlier in the chapter on evaluation. Both modes of participation, participant as observer and observer as participant may be considered as versions of the soft line approach. Here "the participant observer follows those he studies through their daily rounds of life, seeing what they do, when, with whom, under what circumstances and querying them about the meaning of their actions" (Becker et al., 1968: 13, in Ball, 1985: 25). An important issue of participant observation related to Becker et al's view is the question of acceptability, that is the ability of the observer to build enough trust to gain acceptance into the observed group's community. When one is accepted in a community of lower social status it is referred to as advocacy whereas acceptance into a higher status community is described as cooptation.

At the extreme pole of the softline position is the complete observer. Although sharing other characteristics of naturalistic inquiry (e.g. no predetermined data, prolonged engagement, persistent observation) non participant observation does not require the enquirer to take part or pretend to take part in the activities of those being researched. The problem that may arise here is that of ethnocentrism whereby the observer perceives the observed's activities in the light of his/her culture.

6-2-3-3-3 Case Study

Stenhouse (1988) described case studies as follows:

Case study methods involve the collection and recording of data about a case or cases, and the preparation of a report or a presentation of the case. The collection of data on site is termed 'fieldwork', and it involves: a) generally, participant or non participant observation and interviewing, b) probably the collection of documentary evidence and descriptive statistics and the administration of tests or questionnaires and c) possibly the use of photography, motion pictures, or video tape recording" (Stenhouse, in Keeves, 1988: 49).
It also involves the field workers's "reflective engagement with an individual case record" (Rudduck, 1985 summarizing Stenhouse, 1978). A case record is a lightly edited, ordered, indexed and public version of case data which represent the totality of the material collected (see Rudduck, 1985:102-103). But the distinction between case records and case data seems very thin. Stenhouse (1982) for instance, considers as case records "the substantial collection of documents, observers' notes, interview transcripts, statistics and the like" which constitute the raw materials of the case study (See, Stenhouse, 1982 in Stenhouse, 1988: 52). These raw materials are organised by progressive reduction and indexing. The case is reported in writing using techniques such as narrative reporting, portrayal reporting, vignette reporting, and analysis reporting (see Stenhouse, 1988 for details).

Whatever its form a case study is in sum an attempt to capture and portray the world as it appears to the people in it. It is as Walker (1986) put it "the examination of an instance in action", the observation of particular incidents and events and the selective collection of information on biography, personality, intuitions and values which "allows the case study worker to capture and portray those elements of a situation that give it meaning". Prolonged engagement and persistent observation as discussed in the general discussion on qualitative paradigm are considered as important features of case studies.

In language teaching/learning it has been used to study single cases. Thus Ellis (1984) studied three learners over a period of time to make inferences about language development in the classroom. Allwright (1980) studies the contribution of just one learner to examine classroom interaction in terms of turn taking.
CHAPTER SEVEN  TOWARDS A GENERATIVE PERSPECTIVE

7-1 Criticism of the qualitative paradigm

The problem with qualitative research, as Long (1980) sees it, is that it is practically demanding. It requires from inquirers a thorough training in cultural anthropology and an ability to write well. They need qualities such as sensitivity, perspectiveness, skepticism, objectivity and curiosity. It is time consuming and may be expensive to carry through. Long doubts the feasibility in practice of some of the principles of constitutive ethnography. Retrievability for instance, in his opinion, is possible only if the corpus of data is very limited. The principle of exhaustive treatment of data is questioned because researchers, ethnographers included, traditionally seek frequent or dominant patterns in their data (see Long, 1980: 31). In addition, the ideographic interpretation of findings make qualitative research outcome ungeneralisable, in spite of all the time and energy it demands. There are no objective standards for verifying or refuting theoretical accounts as in positivist research.

The good news however is that the recent specification of criteria of trustworthiness as discussed earlier, after the publication of Long's article, provides some acceptable standards of credibility. Long also admits that the absence of 'blinkers' i.e., the prespecification of categories restricting the variables to be considered in interaction analysis as beneficial to classroom language teaching/learning research. (see Long, 1980:27).

The bad news is that he rightly doubts how free of preconception the classroom ethnographer can be with his/her history of formal education, his/her work as a teacher, his/her interest in some aspects of classroom life
motivating him/her to undertake the enquiry in the first place:

If the observer is to look for the unexpected and the unusual event in the classroom then he must have some ideas, some prediction of what might happen or what should happen. Most classroom events are relatively trivial and untraumatic and to raise them to the level of interest and observation the observer must have some fundamental theory at the back of his mind. (Walker, 1971: 87 in Stenhouse 1975: 150).

Glaser and Strauss's (1967) idea of grounded "theory whereby theory is expected to spring from the data may need to be taken with the caveat that "those who tried to create theory out of facts never understood that it was only theory that could constitute them as facts in the first place" (Jones, 1972)

It is however fair to say that proponents of the qualitative paradigm acknowledge that facts are not theory free; but theirs is not a specific theoretical formulation. It is a tacit knowledge, an implicit apprehension which come into play to "widen the investigator's ability to apprehend and adjust to phenomena in context, [and enable] the emergence of theories that could not otherwise have been articulated" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 208). But this soft line position on theory-fact relationship seems clearly at variance with the hardline adversarial stand against the positivist view of value free enquiry. It was stated that enquiry was influenced both by the paradigm guiding the enquiry and by the substantive theory guiding the collection and analysis of data and the interpretation of findings. (see axiom 5 on page 38 and chapter 7 pp 160-186 in Lincoln & Guba, 1985)

Allowing for the unavoidability of some general expectations and vision of the world brought to bear on the enquiry by the researcher, and which makes the findings of naturalistic enquiry a negotiated outcome resulting in the generation of
truth as agreement, it remains that the paradigm in principle and in practice, through its methods and techniques, respects the meanings participants give to their actions. It seeks a convergence between researcher and participants' perspectives. This convergence, particularly characteristic of constitutive ethnography in classroom language research is considered a promising avenue, as knowledge, thus arrived at, would not only show "what the organization of interaction in a classroom is, but how it is achieved and hence, what children need to learn in order to be able to participate appropriately" (Long, 1980:32).

However, the ideological assumptions underlying this convergence have been excoriated by critics. It is argued that the naturalistic approach in focussing on the phenomenal forms of everyday life, pays little attention to the inner relations, the causal processes and generative mechanisms which are invisible to actors. In this connection Sharp (1986) comments:

> Ethnography reinforces ontological and epistemological social atomisms. The atoms of social life are individuals; their beliefs, intentions, assumptions and actions form both the starting point of, and dictate the explanatory procedures for grasping social reality. The experience of social subjects becomes the prime sociological datum. Methodological individualism in addition leads to the neglect of other dimensions of social reality, and the assumption is sometimes made that only individuals really exist. They socially construct their own reality. (Sharp, 1986:121-122).

But, argues Goodson (1985) criticising this 'neglect of other dimensions' such as historical background and context, and quoting Marx for support, even though men [and women] make their own history, "they don't make it just as they please; they do not make it under circumstances chosen by themselves, but under circumstances directly encountered, given and transmitted from the past" (Marx, in Goodson, 1985:125). The confinement of ethnographic studies to the
views of participants at a moment in time, to the here and now of events, omitting data on the constraints beyond the event, the school; classroom and the participant, may therefore be difficult to justify. Goodson (op. cit) aims, within the qualitative paradigm to explore this level of reality in terms of an historical study which will shed light on how circumstances participants experience as contemporary realities have been negotiated, constructed and reconstructed over time (op. cit:120). Carr and Kemmis (1986) advocate a reading of this social reality beyond its interpretation by individuals, beyond its conception as product of the meanings and actions of individuals. Social reality, they rightly contend, also determines the kind of interpretations of reality, appropriate for a particular group of individuals to possess, so that it produces itself particular meanings and limits the kind of actions that it is reasonable for the individuals to perform. This view is particularly convincing if one sees social reality, not the 'dehistoricized' phenomenal world presented by the interpretivists but as a "particular historical form of social existence, dependent upon and structurally related to the dynamic of the mode of production" (Sharp 1986:124). Investigating reality in such terms, needs a "form of inquiry that seeks to reveal the historical and social causes of actions in a way that an interpretive explanation cannot. (Carr & Kemmis op.cit).

Another side of this argument against the convergence principle, highlighted by Carr & Kemmis (op.cit) shows that although actions are undertaken with some intention and purposes in mind, they do have unintended consequences and ramifications of which the individuals concerned may not be conscious. Some of these unintended results are functional in so far as they contribute to maintaining certain aspects of the wider social system, its continuity and stability by reinforcing the actions and interpretations of other social
groups. But because they are beyond the individual actors' control, they cannot be accounted for by reference to the actors' intentions.

Besides, one is inclined to agree with Carr & Kemmis's view that people's interpretation of their own actions may be at variance with what they are really doing so that these interpretations appear as mere rationalizations that obscure the true nature of their situations and mask reality somehow. These illusory and deceptive interpretations resulting from a false consciousness nurtured by the ideological character of group life cannot be exposed by the interpretive approach which insists on the compatibility of researchers' explanations of social actions with actors' own accounts, and has no provision for critically reconsidering and reassessing these accounts, which casts a serious doubt on the capacity of interpretive research to help people change their practice by helping them understand it. It is argued here along with Carr & Kemmis (op.cit) that because people's ideas and beliefs are part and parcel of their way of life, of their identity, alternative interpretations are often resisted as a threat. As provisions are not made within the interpretative view to expose the possibility of false consciousness leading to resistance to alternative explanations of reality, the practical effects of interpretive theories may be limited. At best it helps to maintain the status quo by trying to reconcile people to their existing social reality. It is however to be acknowledged that by focussing on concrete individuals in the process of everyday life through which they construct social reality, the naturalistic inquirer provides a critique of the mode of appearance of the everyday world, and this, Sharp says

Is a necessary component of a practice designed to break through mystifications and fetishisms to reveal the contradictory structures of the social totality which historically generate them. Nevertheless one should stress again that the phenomenal
forms are not mere illusions but real objectifications of a false reality (Larrain, 1979) which itself needs to be transcended not through ideas alone, but through practice. (Sharp, 1986:132)

The problem with both positivist and interpretive paradigms is that they both hold on to a false reality, the former by assimilating practical educational problems to theoretical scientific problems which could be technically resolved and the latter by assimilating theoretical understanding to a descriptive record of practitioners' own understanding.

It should also be noted that the qualitative paradigm's concern about observable manifestations of individual actors' behaviour and about descriptive records of their understanding and interpretations of these behaviours reintroduces through the back door the same preoccupation with the 'objective fact' as the positivist paradigm. The only difference is that instead of the dry atomised concretely observable elements of the physical or social world, the fact, for qualitative research, is constituted by raw data of atomised individual actors' consciousness, motivations, purposes, by the "creative projects of active intending minds in interaction with other minds" and by "events and happenings as these are subjectively constructed and mediated through every day encounter". (See Sharp, 1986 page 122 for more detailed discussion of this view).

The qualitative paradigm, in its essence, shares not only this preoccupation with the observable phenomena, but also the positivist inductivist principle of treating them so as to draw empirical generalisations and plausible interpretations. The recent development (Guba, 1981, Lincoln & Guba, 1985) of criteria of trustworthiness of qualitative inquiry has betrayed the keenness of the naturalistic research advocates on replicating in kind if not in form the same categories and criteria of validation as the
rationalistic quantitative paradigm. Given these striking similarities, one wonders if the difference between the two conceptions of educational research is as fundamental as it is made to look. The view is held here that the difference between these conceptions may be comparable to the difference between structural language syllabuses and notional functional syllabuses. These two syllabuses although considered to be fundamentally different by their hardline advocates, have been shown to be alternative, perhaps complementary, version of the same paradigm (Widdowson, 1978, 1983, 1984; Brumfit, 1984; Breen, 1987). Even if it was conceded that the qualitative conception of research is a full fledged educational research paradigm in its own right, the erection of both paradigms into mutually exclusive possibilities is questionable and has been questioned (Burgess, 1985; Hammersley, 1986).

In this connection Guba & Lincoln (1982) showed that although practitioners of each paradigm tended to take opposing positions in some key dimensions (postures) such as method, source of theory, instrument, design and setting, these postures could be compromised, unlike the basic axioms of each paradigm where an 'either or' decision had to be made. But they seemed themselves to have taken an uncompromising party line position. Indeed they argued that each one of the postures being a raison d'être for the others, to compromise on any of them is to considerably weaken the collective power of all. So they said "it is difficult to imagine a naturalist at work who could be content with a "mix and match strategy however desirable that might be from the point of view of achieving a rapprochement" (op.cit: 246).

Such a rapprochement is advocated in classroom language teaching/learning research, with eclectic selections from each paradigm as "necessary if the field is to achieve its
ultimate goal of testing or generating a theory of second language acquisition with the aid of formal instruction" (Long, 1980: 32). But the problem here is similar to that which led Vygotsky (1962), in his investigation of the relationship between thought and language, to reject the methods of analysing complex psychological wholes into elements in favour of an analysis into units which combine analysis and synthesis and retain all the basic properties of the complex whole and their mutual relationships. As he puts it in his criticism of earlier studies of this relationship:

A look at the results of former investigations of thought and language will show that all the theories offered from antiquity to our time range between identification or fusion, of thought and speech on the one hand and their equally absolute disjunction and segregation on the other. Whether expressing one of these extremes in pure form or combining them, that is, taking an intermediate position but always somewhere along the axis between the two poles, all the various theories on thought and language stay within the confining circle. (Vygotsky, 1962: 2)

It may well be the case that suggestions of rapprochements and combinations along the line advocated by Long (1980) and others may not lead us far and can even maintain us within the confining circle of 'science' and its method as the only legitimate approach to knowledge. It is argued here that beyond, expedient amalgamation of methods and techniques from both 'paradigms', what may be needed is a research approach which bridges the gap between theory and practice by promoting the investigation into action by actors themselves, in the process of their self improvement. Such an approach is emerging as a critical educational science sustained by the growing movement of teacher as researcher thanks to which the frontiers of educational research paradigms are being redefined.

7-2 The generative perspective: Action Research in the framework of a critical educational science
The generative perspective builds on the criticism of both traditions to develop a new approach with its own coherence and power to tackle more adequately the problem of linking theory to practice. This link is considered fundamental to educational research whose characteristic feature is its concern with practical problems. This perspective concurs with the Kuhnian contention that new theoretical activities do not emerge from simply enlisting aims and methods of established sciences, but from the development of a body of theoretical knowledge by those concerned with a specific field of inquiry which can effectively resolve the particular problem of the field. Such an approach is emerging in educational research literature in the form of a critical educational science hinged on action research for the development of an action theory.

7-2-1 Insight from critical social science

The idea of a critical educational science advanced by Carr and Kemmis (1986) comes from an attempt to focus critical social science on educational problems. Critical social science is a development in critical theory which aims to provide a new approach to social science in the light of the criticism of the positivist and interpretive approaches. It is illuminated by the social thought of early classical practical philosophy as expressed in Aristotle's conception of 'praxis' as 'doing' guided by a prudent understanding of what should be done in practical situations. It is concerned with the values, judgements and interests of human kind. The problem as Jurgen Habermas, a leading figure in contemporary critical theory, sees it, is whether we can obtain clarification of what is practically necessary and at the same time objectively possible. As a result of his reflection he develops a theory of knowledge which he calls a theory of knowledge constitutive interests. In Carr and Kemmis's (op.cit) terms, the theory is so called because
He rejects any idea that knowledge is produced by some sort of 'pure' intellectual act in which the knowing subject himself is disinterested. Knowledge is never the outcome of a 'mind' detached from everyday concerns. On the contrary it is always constituted on the basis of interests that have developed out of natural needs of the human species and that have been shaped by historical and social conditions.

(Carr & Kemmis, op. cit : 134)

He then specifies three knowledge constitutive interests, catered for by three types of science, using three types of medium to attain three types of knowledge as shown in the diagram below.

Figure 20: Habermas's Knowledge constitutive interests (from Carr & Kemmis, 1986:136)

As can be seen from the diagram Habermas's theory of knowledge has room for technical instrumental knowledge in the form of scientific explanations with the aim of helping human beings have control of nature. But it is a relativised knowledge, one type of knowledge among others, and not the only type of legitimate knowledge. It also recognises the need for the interpretive sciences of the hermeneutic tradition for the practical interest directed knowledge, concerned with the symbolically structured domain of communicative action. But he contends that the interpretive approach, by focussing on self understanding to the exclusion of a critical approach to the content of that understanding is unable to expose the distortions that social, cultural and political conditions may cause to people's self understandings. There is then a need to
recognize and eliminate these alienating conditions to ensure freedom and autonomy for a non alienated communication. This non alienated communication is indeed possible only, McCarthy says summarizing Habermas:

when for all participants, there is a symmetrical distribution of chances to select, and employ speech acts, when there is an effective equality of chances to assume dialogue roles. In particular, all participants must have the same chance to initiate and perpetuate discourse, to put forward, call into question, and give reasons for or against statements, explanations, interpretations and justification. Furthermore they must have the same chance to express attitudes, feelings, intentions and the like, and to command, to oppose, to permit, or to forbid. (McCarthy, 1975: xvii in Carr & Kemmis, op.cit: 143)

These characteristics of free communication, that is, of an ideal discourse, cannot be dissociated from the social concept of freedom and justice. It presupposes an ideal framework of social interaction, free from all constraints of domination. It is therefore necessary in the pursuit of the practical interest to go beyond narrow subjective meanings and acquire an emancipatory knowledge of the framework within which communication and social action occur. Critical social science helps to clarify the causes of distorted self understandings, these subjective meanings of the interpretive approach, so that they can be clarified, explained and eliminated". It also shows people the structurally imposed constraints that the causal mechanisms of positive social science constitute. This is achieved through the methods of ideology critique, a concept borrowed from marxist ideology with a taste of psychoanalysis aiming to "provide a form of therapeutic self knowledge which will liberate individuals from irrational compulsions of their individual history through a process of critical self-reflection" (Carr & Kemmis, op.cit: 138). It enables critical social science to be rooted in the concrete every day life social experience of people with the intention of helping them overcome felt dissatisfactions. It
goes beyond the aim of consciousness transformation pursued by critical theory to include how to go from this transformation to change practice.

Critical social science thus conceived of assumes a relationship between theory and practice mediated by three functions: the development and testing of theoretical elements, the organisation of enlightenment and the organisation of action in the process of overcoming coercion as well as self deception in order to achieve social praxis, that is, informed doing or strategic action. It implies a process of reflection involving the participants in the social action being studied. In other words it requires participants to become researchers, with a central participation role in the development of knowledge along the lines of a "wanting to help" approach to research (Lorentz, 1971), construed as a social and political action. This vision of a critical social science is the corner stone of the critical educational science whose main features will now be presented.

7-2-2 The grounding of critical educational science

A critical educational science requires participants (teachers, students, parents, school administrators etc.) to collaborate in the organisation of their own enlightenment, and the transformation of their situations. It requires them to live with the consequences of this transformation. As such it presupposes a "theory of change which links researchers and practitioners in a common task in which the duality of the research and practice roles is transcended" (Carr & Kemmis, op. cit :158), because as Habermas put it "in a process of enlightenment there can only be participants" (Habermas, 1974:40). It is similar to Freire's (1970) idea of conscientisation, conceived of as:

the process in which people, not as recipients but as knowing subjects, achieve a deepening awareness both of the socio-
historical reality which shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform that reality (Freire, 1970:27)

The formal foundation of this science are laid on the criticism of the positivist as well as the interpretive approach with the following five requirements formulated by Carr & Kemmis (op.cit):

1- The approach to educational theory advocated by critical educational science rejects the positivist notions of rationality, objectivity and truth for a dialectical view of rationality.

2- It acknowledges the need to employ the interpretive categories of teachers, but

3- contends that the theory must provide ways of distinguishing ideologically distorted interpretation from those that are not, as well as views of how any distorted self understanding is to be overcome.

4- It must be concerned to identify and expose those aspects of the existing social order which frustrate the pursuit of rational goals and must be able to offer theoretical accounts which make teachers aware of how they may be eliminated or overcome.

5- This educational theory is practical in the sense that the question of its educational status will be determined by the ways in which it relates to practice.

Critical education, thus understood, adopts a conception of educational research which transcends the manichean dichotomy of quantitative and qualitative paradigms, concerned with inquiry on or about education. Educational research in critical educational science is a participatory and collaborative critical analysis directed at the transformation of educational practices, the educational understandings and educational values of those involved in the process, and the social and institutional structures which provide frameworks for their actions. It is not research on or about education, it is
It is research motivated by a concrete commitment to the improvement of education and enacted by action research, the approach adopted in the present study.

7-2-3  Action research as operationalisation of the generative perspective

Action research is said (Ebbut 1985) to originate from two sources: the work of Collier (1933-45) in experimental social administration involving administrators and laymen in research, and the work of the American social psychologist, Lewin (1946, 1948) concerned with practical situations of social conflicts and aimed at involving the community in the process of its own change and of helping its members to study the result of their social action. This study requires them to learn to become detached and objective in examining the foundations of their own biases. Lewin's action research has three distinctive features: its participatory character, its democratic impulse and its simultaneous contribution to social science and social change.

The application of action research to educational problems dates back to Corey (1953) who construes it as the "process by which practitioners attempt to study their problems scientifically in order to guide, correct, and evaluate their decision and actions (Corey, 1953:6). His pioneering work has inspired many researchers and teachers who have developed and popularised the approach in educational research particularly in the United Kingdom and in Australia.

Speaking of contemporary forms or modes of action research, Alison Kelly (1985) distinguishes three modes. First the experimental social administration model. It has been
applied in the Educational Priority Area Project concerned with the problem of how to tackle educational under attainment. It aims at "bringing together social research and administration in an attempt to change the world by understanding it" (Halsey, 1972: 165 in Kelly, 1985: 130). One easily sees the interpretivist bias of this model.

Another approach, popular in business studies and organisational research is known as simultaneous-integrated action research. As defined by Hult and Lennung (1980), this approach considers that action research

1- simultaneously assists in practical problem solving and expands scientific knowledge,
2- as well as enhances the competencies of the respective actors,
3- being performed collaboratively,
4- in an immediate situation,
5- using data feedback in a cyclical process,
6- aiming at increased understanding of a given social situation,
7- primarily applicable for the understanding of change processes in social systems,
8- and undertaken within a mutually acceptable ethical framework (Kelly, 1985: 132).

This approach is said to be very much in line with the approach adopted for the Girls in Science and Technology (GIST) project. (see Kelly, 1985).

Of direct interest to the present study is the third model, teacher-researcher action research. It aims to eliminate the division of labour between practitioners and researchers (Elliot, 1983) and considers teacher participation in research as a key factor. The Ford Teaching Project (Elliot, 1975) and the Humanity Curriculum Project were based on this model. Kemmis's (1986) edited version of a definition of action research which obtained consensus at the National Invitational Seminar on Action Research, held at Deakin University Geelong, Victoria (Australia) in May 1981, points out the educational practices for which action research has
been traditionally used:

Educational action research is a term used to describe a family of activities in curriculum development, school improvement, programs and systems planning and policy development, and then systematically submitted to observation, reflection and change. Participants in the actions being considered are integrally involved in all of these activities (Brown et al, 1981 in Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 165)

The argument for the teacher as researcher movement has been clearly articulated in Britain by Stenhouse (1975) in relation to curriculum research and development which he contends must rest on teachers' development and the promotion of their professionalism. Full professionalism, he argues presupposes

the commitment to systematic questioning of one's own teaching as a basis for development; the commitment and the skills to study one's own teaching (and the work of other teachers); the concern to question and to test theory in practice by the use of those skills (Stenhouse, 1975: 144)

This position encourages a cooperative approach to research involving teachers and full time researchers taking consultancy roles in teacher groups and support roles in schools and classrooms. It implies that research reports and hypotheses must "invite classroom research responses rather than laboratory research responses" (op.cit:162). It is therefore a mistake to see classrooms as "a place to apply laboratory findings rather than as a place to refute or confirm them" (Stenhouse, 1975:26).

Indeed for him "findings from research are not to be accepted but to be tested, and to be tested by attempting to overthrow them; and whenever findings rather than investigations are taken to be the basis of practice they will be selected and interpreted to fit our prejudices; for without a habitude of carrying out investigations, research
findings can 'never be called to account" (Stenhouse, op. cit: 197).

But educational action research does not only test findings of university based research it also involves teachers in generating research problems, and investigating them in "response to dilemmas, anxieties and aspirations acknowledged by teachers in their own schools and classrooms" (Rudduck, 1986: 125). Action Research in this sense is justified as an appropriate model of research in schools and classrooms via the notion of performance gap, a gap between espoused theory and 'theory-in-action'.

It is however worth noting that, the teacher-researcher in Stenhouse's (1975) view is concerned only with a better understanding of his/her experience so that for him/her "theory is simply a systematic structuring of his understanding of his work" (Stenhouse op.cit: 157). It is, as McNamara & Desforges, put it 'an objectification of craft knowledge resulting from concentrated focus on practice so as to produce an accurate portrayal of teaching (see Wright, 1988). Stenhouse considers it to be ultimately concerned with the improvement of teaching as a process of development, achieved, not by a change of heart, but by the thoughtful refinement of professional skills through the systematic study of one's own teaching (see Stenhouse 1975:19). This view is shared by Sharp (1983) who considers action research as an integral part of professional development and good teaching. He argues that an enhanced understanding of the particularity of a teacher's situation is more important than generalisability and that replicability and transferability are less important than accountability.

But his 1984 article on curriculum evaluation, Stenhouse clarifies his conception of teacher researcher away from
this narrow view by stating that "research is systematic enquiry made public" (Stenhouse, 1984: 77) and by stressing the need for some sort of public report of teachers' investigation. Indeed as Ebbut argues, if action research is to be considered as legitimate research then participants in it must "be prepared to produce written reports of their activities. Moreover these reports ought to be available for some form of public critique" (Ebbutt, 1985: 157).

This concurs with Rudduck's view that it is not enough for teacher research to feed only individual or local understanding and insights and that the enquiries "teachers undertake in their own settings have to become accessible to public critique, or we have to deny these activities the status of research" (Rudduck, 1985: 126). But if we withdraw this status in favour of a less rigorous view that sees the teacher not as a researcher but as a 'reflective practitioner' to use Schön's (1983) terms, he argues "we lose one important potential of the movement - the opening up of the established research tradition and the democratisation of the research community" (Rudduck 1985: 126).

So there are minimal requirements necessary for action research to be said to exist. To some extent these requirements are condensed formulations of what Elliot (1978) calls the 'logic' of action research' and of Kemmis's (1981) thirteen maxims which indicate ways in which action research could be successfully operationalised. As identified by Carr and Kemmis (op. cit) these requirements are as follows:

Firstly a project takes as its subject matter a social practice, regarding it as a form of strategic action susceptible of improvement; secondly, the project proceeds through a spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting with each of these activities being systematically and selfcritically implemented and interrelated; thirdly the project involves those
responsible for the practice in each of the moments of the activity, widening participation in the project gradually to include others affected by the practice and maintaining collaborative control of the process. (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 165 to 166)

This specification calls for two comments, one related to the involvement of teachers and the other to the methodological steps and techniques of action research.

The issue of participants' involvement implies the specification of types of action research, not in terms of prevailing fields of application as in Kelly (Kelly, 1985), but in terms of guiding assumptions and degrees of practitioners' involvement. Following Habermas's three knowledge constitutive interests, Carr and Kemmis (op.cit) have identified three types of action research:

- Technical action research in which an outside investigator acting as facilitator, persuades and coopts practitioners to work on externally formulated questions which may lead to improvement in their practice, as judged by unanalysed and unquestioned criteria imported into the situation being investigated by the facilitator. It is mainly "concerned with the efficiency and effectiveness of practices in generating known outcomes" (Carr & Kemmis, op.cit: 202). In this sense technical action research seeks to test the findings of external research in participants' own practices.

- Practical action research: here the outside facilitator, who may be a professional educational researcher, cooperates with participants and helps them formulate their own concerns, plan strategic action for change, monitor the problems and effects of changes, and reflect on the value and consequences of the changes actually achieved. This form of action research helps practitioners develop their own critical judgement, and their capacity for self-reflection thanks to the Socratic role of the facilitator.
In the conditions of Benin, characterised, as said earlier, by teachers' insufficient familiarity with educational research and systematic curriculum and materials evaluation, and where teachers are neither encouraged nor motivated to take initiatives, the practical approach which allows for the help of outsiders while fully involving the participants as collaboratively responsible both for the agenda, the process and evaluation of action research, may be most appropriate. It will gradually equip teachers for emancipatory action research.

Emancipatory action research is characterised by the joint responsibility of a practitioner's group for the development of practices, of understandings of situations which are seen as socially constructed in the interactive processes of educational life. The facilitator's role is in principle taken by a member of the group, although outsiders can help, if only to set up the self reflective community of action researchers. Emancipatory action research is an empowering process for participants during which the dialectical link between theory and practice on the one hand and between individual needs and institutional needs on the other is achieved. This is achieved through individual critical thinking as well as common critical enterprise of changing selves in order to change the institution those selves generate. It is achieved through their activist commitment to joint practices of communication, decision making, work and social action on the basis of this self critical reflection and prudently taking account of what is feasible at a given point in time and space.

In this sense, action research aims to improve participants' practice, their understanding of this practice as well as the situation in which the practice takes place. It involves participants in all its stages of planning, acting, observing and reflecting. These stages and procedures as implemented in educational research are adaptations of the
basic guidelines given by Kurt Lewin (1946). Lewin's action research consists of a self reflective spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and replanning, further action, further observation and further reflection. The cyclical nature of the 'moments' of action research, is worth noting because, as Kemmis points out, if the process stops at a single loop of the cyclical process it may fall short of being real action research; at best it may be considered as arrested action research as in some evaluation research programmes. These moments are interrelated actions in a process of active reconstruction and construction of reality mediated by discourse and practice as in the figure below;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse</th>
<th>reconstructive</th>
<th>constructive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>among participants</td>
<td>4 reflect</td>
<td>1 plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice in the social context</td>
<td>3 observe</td>
<td>2 act</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

fig 21: The 'moments' of action research (from Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 186)

More explicitly the spiral-like flow of action research, takes its source from a general idea generated in a field of action and unfolds through a process of discussion, negotiation, planning, tentative action, monitoring and evaluation of that action, revision of the initial plan for a second action step also monitored and evaluated for an even more effective action. (see diagram below).

Slightly modified versions of these procedures stressing specific steps or the emerging and gradually focussed nature of both initial ideas, reconnaissance (fact finding) and evaluation of planned action have been elaborated by other action researchers. Among them Elliot's (1981) framework, reproduced beside Kemmis's diagram below is of interest
here. He represents the whole process in the form of a spiral staircase clearly indicating the need to revise the initial generalisation to account for any failure in implementation, to include analysis and fact finding throughout the process.

The trouble with these diagrams is that, on the one hand they may confuse teachers by their apparent complexity and sophistication which as Ebbut points out "tend to mystification". On the other hand this mystification effect may be reinforced by their upside down appearance on paper. This is particularly remarkable on the Elliot's staircase model where the starting point i.e. the initial idea, instead of taking off from the lower stairs, is placed at the summit.

Having said that, the fundamental 'moments' identified by these authors are consistent with the main steps proposed by the originators of the approach. It should be stressed that the specific techniques used for identifying problem areas, for collecting, analysing and interpreting data draw on the techniques of naturalistic inquiry. Those identified by Kemmis and Taggart (1982) and Kemmis (1982) include the following: anecdotal records, fieldnotes, ecological behavioural description, document analysis, diaries, logos, item sampling cards, portfolio, questionnaires, interviews, socio metric methods, interaction schedules and checklists, tape recording, video recording, photographs and slides, tests of student performance, case study, observation by teacher, observation by outsider.

In the process of data collection Kemmis (1982) advise observers to ask themselves two main questions as criteria for data collection.
1- Is the information relevant to understanding the case being considered?
2- Is the information authentic, i.e., grounded in the life circumstances of participants.

The validity and reliability of the data may be checked using techniques such as hypothesis testing which "attempts to flush issues out into the open and to see evidence which can disconfirm or confirm initial hypotheses, or emerging interpretation" (Kemmis, 1981). Other techniques include progressive focussing, triangulation, negotiation discussed earlier in the section of naturalistic inquiry. To these should be added ideology critique, which aims to expose the ways in which all the other techniques may be distorted by socio-historical constraints, beyond the deliberate intentions of observers as well as observed. In other words action research contains a built in self criticism.

7-2-4 Criticism of the generative perspective of action research and the case for its adoption for this study

The generative approach, hinged on action research, is not without its problems. One of the most comprehensive criticisms in the literature is that of Graham Peeke (1984). In his article "Teachers as Researchers" he places the question in the context of the issues of the impact of educational research upon classroom teaching. In his opinion, pleas to teachers to be themselves involved in research when they come from academics, aim at raising the status of research and enabling teachers to become aware of aspects of classroom life which needs further illumination. But such an enterprise he opines is fraught with difficulties. Three categories of difficulties have been considered:
- practical difficulties: they are to do with unavailability
of time, incapacity to meet research cost, and unavailability of suitable research equipment.

Affinity difficulties having to do with difficulty in collecting useful data from one's friends without hurting the relationship by the distance needed as a researcher to obtain worthwhile information. Besides it might be difficult for teachers to obtain information from people higher up in the administrative hierarchy. His/her history in the school may have a negative effect on his/her credibility and on people's willingness to cooperate.

Role difficulties. Since teaching necessitates involvement and active manipulation of policy and resources in order to provide the best learning situation whereas research requires some detachment and objectivity, he argues, reconciliation of these competing expectations can be a difficult task for teachers who are subject to the constant pressure of school life.

Given these problems he contends that it needs particularly determined teachers to be at the same time teacher and researcher. As a solution he suggests that research institutions and schools should be brought closer together in a partnership similar to that of teacher training institutions and schools. Thus teachers could be provided with the time, resources and the conducive environment they need to function as researchers. He pleads for a temporary relaxation of the role of the teacher so as to enable that of researcher to be effective.

Although most of the practical and affinity difficulties pointed out are real and may be more acute in teacher researcher action research than in other forms of research, they may not be as specific to teacher research as it is made to appear. Besides if teacher researcher action research is undertaken, not as an isolated individual teacher's business but as a team undertaking involving
outsiders, as well as people directly affected by the situation, some of the practical difficulties raised may be considerably alleviated.

The affinity difficulties are double edged. On the one hand they may really have adverse effects on teacher research action research, not only in aspects underlined by Peeke, but in others as well. Thus, even before the problem of access to worthwhile information, there is the problem of seeing and formulating a problem worth investigating, explored by Good and Brophy (1984) and summarised by Rudduck (1985) in these terms:

The every day eyes of teachers have two weaknesses: because of the dominance of habit and routine, teachers are only selectively attentive to the phenomena of their classrooms. In a sense they are constantly reconstructing the world they are familiar with in order to maintain regularities and routines. Secondly, because of their busyness, their eyes tend only to transcribe the surface realities of classroom interaction (Rudduck, 1985:125).

Indeed apart from the dominance of habit and routine teachers are so busy and so much happens so quickly in the classroom that they hardly have time to see. Besides most of them are not trained to see and most of the available instruments to give them information about what they do see are inadequate (see Good & Brophy, 1984). So as Medley (1969) points out in this connection, drawing on the findings of research, the "seminal problem in improving teaching may be perceptual in nature [so that] the key to helping teachers change their behaviours may lie in helping them see behaviour, see what they themselves, and others are doing" (Medly, 1969 in Good & Brophy 1984: 42).

What is then needed is a way of helping teachers see as problematic much of what overfamiliarity makes them take for granted. In this regard Rudduck rightly sees as a fundamental role for teacher research:
The aim in teacher research is for the teacher to attain the eyes of the artist, for it is art that teaches the sensitivity of being attentive to significance that normally remains uncelebrated. A precondition of teacher research may well be that the teacher has temporarily to become a stranger in his or her own classroom (see Maxime Greene, 1973). Teachers must abandon their habitual way of perceiving their world in order to be receptive to its problematics. (Rudduck, 1988: 125)

On the other hand affinity and familiarity with the classroom taken as research setting certainly helps teachers attain a deeper understanding of the social, psychological and communicational dynamics at work in the classroom and which make up the class subculture, usually inaccessible to an outsider investigator. (see Walker & Adelman, 1986).

Intimacy with the class in this sense facilitates the role of the teacher as researcher and helps him/her gain access to a better insight into the classroom in spite of the role difficulties pointed out by Peeke. It is believed that these difficulties, although real, are not insuperable. In a sense, the teacher's role as researcher is an extension of his/her traditional role as evaluator of his/her classroom practice and its effectiveness. Although suggestions to the effect of a higher link between schools and research institutions are legitimate and may help reduce the gap between practitioners and university researchers, the idea of temporarily releasing teacher-researchers from their role of teacher to enable a more effective fulfilment of their role of researcher needs to be taken with caution. This position may reinforce the elitist view that valid research can only take place in traditional research institutions, namely universities. It may thwart the democratisation of the research community considered as an essential objective of action research (see Rudduck, op. cit), and lead instead to the cooptation of a privileged few into the game reserve of academics. Unless specific care is taken, the participatory feature and the reflection-in-action nature of
action research may seriously be undermined by this line of action. It also goes without saying that the predictable reluctance of school administrators to release teachers for any considerable length of time to do their research in research institutions may jeopardize the whole movement of teacher research action research thus conceived.

Another criticism of teacher research action research has to do with parents' fears of having their children used as guinea pigs and experimented on. These fears are quite understandable. But they may be applicable to most educational research. It can be argued as Rudduck (op.cit) does, that

It is the child in the every day world of the classroom where the pattern of teaching and learning remain unexamined, that is at risk, because he or she is subject to constant unmonitored and unreflected on action. Not to examine one's practice is irresponsible. To regard teaching as an experiment and to monitor one's performance is a responsible professional act (see Stenhouse 1980) (Rudduck op.cit :124)

What is needed is to take account of the social and psychological constraints militating against action research in order to tap all its advantages and potentialities without looking at it as a panacea for all educational problems indiscriminately. Indeed as Stenhouse (1975) puts it;

The main barriers to teachers' assuming the role of researchers studying their own teaching in order to improve it are psychological and social. The close examination of one's professional performance is personally threatening and the social climate in which teachers work generally offers little support to those who might be disposed to face that threat. Hence for the moment the best way forward is probably through a mutually supportive cooperative research in which teachers and full time research teams work together. (Stenhouse, 1975:152)

Many arguments have been put forward to support the use of action research for educational investigations. Rudduck
(op. cit) shows that helping teachers to become competent critics of research and to develop their own research skills contributes to what he calls 'a necessary demystification of research within the educational system'. He also points out other advantages such as better professional development as research enables teachers to structure a familiar situation so as to explore it in depth, gain new insight, set new goals, achieve new levels of excitement. In this sense, he says, research is a defence against the monotony of teaching. It helps teachers to see behind what is taken for granted in every day practice and saves teaching from the flattening effect of habit.

At a more practical level Roberts (1987) saw it as a self-evaluation process for curriculum monitoring. Nixon (1981) argues that action research increases 'the knowledge and understanding of teachers in such a way that they are able to respond to the needs of their pupils (Nixon, 1981:6). It also, he says, helps to modify and even elaborate theories of teaching and learning.

Given these advantages, in addition to the conviction held here on the need for a generative perspective to educational research, and given the nature of this study set in the context of the implementation of a new ELT curriculum, it was decided that the main principles and procedures of practical action research would be the underlying guidelines for its design and implementation. Indeed as has been pointed out

Action research, it is claimed, is the research method of preference wherever a social practice is the focus of research activity. It is to be preferred to positivistic research which treats social practice as functions of determinate systems, and to purely interpretive approaches which treats practices as cultural historical products. (Carr & Kemmis, 1986: 165)

Not only is action research recommended for research
activity focussed on a social practice as is the case in this study but it also fits into the approach to innovation which underlies this study. Innovation, as defined by Nicholls (1983) is an "idea, object or practice perceived as new by an individual or individuals, which is intended to bring about improvement in relation to desired objectives, which is fundamental in nature and which is planned and deliberate" (Nicholls, 1983:4, in White (1988).

In his discussion of curriculum innovation White (1988), drawing on Huberman (1973), described three main models underlying approaches and strategies of innovation:

- Research-development-diffusion/dissemination (R-D and D): this is a top down approach whereby a package of innovation (e.g. new learning materials and methods) prepared at a central level hopefully on the basis of needs analysis and some research findings is disseminated to the target users through a power coercive strategy (use of central authority) or at best empirical rational strategy assuming that adopters being reasonable people will logically adopt the innovation if its rationale and importance for their self interest is clearly justified.

- Social interaction: this model emphasises the personal influence of change agents within their communities and relies more on social relations with adoption from other community members accounts than on coercion.

- Problem solving: This is a cooperative approach based on the need for innovation users to take responsibility for and actively participate in the innovation process at all its stages. It uses a normative-reeducative strategy which encourages active participation of innovation users, experienced as a reeducative process whereby attitudes, values and skills will undergo lasting changes. This model, White tells us, is at the basis of action research.
Although in most African countries and in Benin in particular most educational innovations so far were introduced and implemented through a predominantly power coercive strategy within the R-D and D model, it is generally agreed in principle that there is a need to take teachers' perspectives and active involvement in change processes seriously if real improvement in educational practices is to be achieved. As Olson (1988) puts it there is a need to change our ideas about change and adopt a reflexive approach to innovation activity which engages teachers in critical analysis of practice instead of the dominant system or ecological approaches which tend to reduce the teacher to an element to be manipulated within a framework of social and/or environmental control. The reflexive approach, he says, is particularly appropriate for in-service teacher education because of the role curriculum materials play in promoting teacher awareness of their own thinking. This view not only concurs with Widdowson's (1990) suggestion that his pragmatics of teacher education seen as the referring of practice to principles and the realization of principles as practice in a process of critical appraisal of theory and action is more appropriate to in-service education, but it also fits in Stenhouse's (1975) view that research and development project in curriculum and teaching, are appropriate situations for cooperative research.

But in the specific context of West Africa and Benin, where the coercive strategy is predominant in educational innovation one may question the extent to which action research as motor of the generative perspective being advocated here fits into the educational research environment. One may wonder if this is not yet another inappropriate western idea the present writer is unreflectingly and unwisely transplanting into an alien land.
A full discussion of the question of dependence of African scholars on West European (or American or Canadian) theoreticians, and interdependence between them, of the former's indebtedness to the latter as well as their contribution as regards the development of research paradigms and methods, particularly in education, although passionately actual, is beyond the scope of this study (see however Wright, 1988, 1985; Kpamegan, 1985; Yoloye, 1990, 1986, and the proceedings of the regional seminar on the utilization of research findings to enhance the educational process held in Freetown, Sierra Leone, 23-27 September 1985). Suffice it here to note that educational research in Africa is still in its infancy. Some degree of dependency is therefore inevitable for the time being. This as pointed out by Wright, is not necessarily undesirable. It is part of the process of cultivating genuine interdependence which will give full recognition to the non western contribution to the major paradigms in the research literature. Imitation in this sense is mother of invention. Indeed, as widely documented in innovation research, the implementation in specific contexts of newly adopted ideas involve adaptations which practically amount to a reinvention of the ideas. In this regard the originality and importance of Wright's C.A.R.E (Collaborative Action Research in Education) scheme for educational research in West Africa is fully acknowledged here as a remarkable contribution to Action Research theory and practice.

On the other hand as, argued by both Wright in Sierra Leone, and Kpamégan in Bénin, most university based studies using positivist methods have failed to have any real impact on educational policy while more pragmatic approaches in the form of participatory research, illuminative evaluation and action research have had a much greater impact not only on policy but also on educational practices in West Africa. (see Wright, 1988: 44-45). It would seem then that in the
present circumstances of Africa where the call for democracy and popular participation is louder and louder if any approach to educational research is to meet fertile ground it may well be the generative approach based on action research collaboratively undertaken by teachers, consultants and administrative authorities acting as facilitators.

On the bases of these views it is hoped that the adoption of the strategy of practical action research for this study, in spite of the difficulties underlined above, will be beneficial if care is taken in the design of the experimental project to take accounts of contextual factors as discussed earlier.
PART THREE : THE FIELD STUDY

Ask and it shall be given you; seek and ye shall find; knock, and it shall be opened unto you;
For everyone that asketh receiveth, and he that seeketh findeth; and to him that knocketh it shall be opened.
(Gospel according to St Mathew ch7 verse 7-8).
CHAPTER EIGHT: RESEARCH DESIGN AND RESEARCH PROCESS.

8-1 Rationale

This study is concerned with in-service teacher training for the improvement of teacher effectiveness. Different categories of variables have been considered in teacher effectiveness studies. Dunkin and Biddle (1974), have proposed a systematic classification of these variables into presage, context, process and product variables in their model for the study of teaching reproduced below.

Figure 24 A model for the study of classroom teaching
(From Dunkin & Biddle (1974: 38)).
Traditionally there have been three main approaches to the effectiveness question, as pointed out by Doyle (1987): research on teacher characteristics, methods research and teacher behaviour research. Research on teacher characteristics were studies relating presage variables to product variables (e.g. teacher personality and student achievement). Research on methods compared various instructional procedures to variables such as pupil academic achievement generally with little or no sustained observation of what actually happened in the classroom. But for various reasons the results of these approaches have been mostly inconclusive (see Allwright, 1988; Doyle, 1987; Medley, 1979; Dunkin and Biddle, 1974). These rather disappointing results and the difficulty of ascribing changes in pupil learning outcome to teachers' teaching, led most researchers to shy away from designs linking teachers' effectiveness to students' learning outcomes (see Yoloye 1980). More and more, teaching and learning were seen as conceptually independent (Brumfit, 1986, Allwright, 1988). This established teaching as a phenomenon worth studying in its own right. Researchers could investigate it without involving themselves in the complex issues of teaching—learning relationships (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974:16). They could therefore concentrate mainly on teacher behaviours and immediate interaction within the classroom avoiding ultimate pupils' learning outcomes.

This avoidance was particularly conspicuous in research on teacher education. In his review of research on teacher education with reference to in-service training and classroom teaching and learning, Wragg (1982) noted how surprisingly few studies there were. Avalos and Haddad (1981) in their review of teacher effectiveness research in African and other developing countries also noted that "there was scarcely any research that evaluated the effects of in-service training upon student change or the retention of effects through time" (Avalos & Haddad, 1981: 43)
But in spite of the endemic problems in agreeing on criteria and measurement of change in the evaluation of pupil learning Wragg considered that this was the basic reason for our interest in teacher education, and if various forms of inservice had made any worthwhile impact, one would expect there to be improvement, however imperceptible in pupils' learning. So in spite of the difficulties in such studies he recommended that the risks should be taken (Wragg, 1982: 71). The need to take such risks was acknowledged by Medley (1987) who, following Dunkin & Biddle's recommendation of designs that pair process information with presage, context or product variables (Dunkin & Biddle op.cit: 428) observed that it would be more productive to intercorrelate presage and process variables as well as process and product variables instead of the usual presage product studies (Medley, 1987:4318-19).

With special reference to developing countries Avalos (1985) also deplored the concentration of research on teacher training on particular aspects such as attitude change which could not provide convincing evidence of their benefit. She insisted that given the importance of schooling in low socio-economic contexts, the purpose of helping children to learn could not be overlooked. She therefore suggested that future research on teacher training should adopt a holistic perspective taking account of contextual limitations and the change process, allow teachers to examine reflectively their experience and enable them to receive information and assistance. But she added "Such information is valuable only if it is presented as alternatives for choice and not as prescriptions" (Avalos, 1985: 297).

From the foregoing discussion it appears that research on teacher effectiveness with special reference to teacher education could be of more practical use if it takes accounts of presage variables as well as process and context variables in relation to product variables. It also shows that the foci of such research should not be on teachers'
behaviour and attitudes only but also on pupil progress especially in the context of developing countries in spite of the difficulties of such an approach. It also indicates that an approach to teacher training which involves teachers in reflection on their experience and makes available to them, without prescription, information which is likely to help them make informed choices as regards classroom practice may be more effective than more prescriptive approaches.

The design of the present study which is conceived of as a contribution to the study of language teacher education, in the context of Benin, at the level of what Stern (1983) called 'practice' in his general model and research map for second language teaching, takes account of the above recommendations.

8-2 Design

8-2-1 Overview of the components and programme of the INSET project

The following table presents the main components and programme of the INSET project as implemented
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>date</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 English Africa</td>
<td>24-25/7 E.N.S Porto</td>
<td>presentation</td>
<td>M.E</td>
<td>Authorization of EA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>launching seminar</td>
<td>9/87 Novo</td>
<td>of EA and its offi</td>
<td>Editor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>methodology</td>
<td>class</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Project</td>
<td>29/9</td>
<td>Porto Novo</td>
<td>negotiation</td>
<td>M.E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organisation</td>
<td>13/10</td>
<td>Porto Novo</td>
<td>of authorisation</td>
<td>offi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>study</td>
<td>class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>selection of</td>
<td>teachers</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 trainer seminars</td>
<td>28-30/1 L.B Porto</td>
<td>discussions</td>
<td>D.E.N., CTIS Members</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10/87 Novo</td>
<td>of new curriculum</td>
<td>INFRE, Pedagogical</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 questionnaire piloting</td>
<td>9/11</td>
<td>Porto Novo</td>
<td>Distribution</td>
<td>J.A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31/12</td>
<td>Cotonou</td>
<td>of draft</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6/87</td>
<td>Bohicon</td>
<td>survey</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
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<td></td>
<td>discussion</td>
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<td>reminder</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>collection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 First series</td>
<td>9-24/</td>
<td>INFEST Project</td>
<td>Lesson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classroom observation</td>
<td>11/87</td>
<td>schools</td>
<td>observation</td>
<td>A.S.A, J.A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 5 First residential, 26-28 ENS Porto

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INSET seminar</td>
<td>Presentation, of approaches, to CLT with special reference to P6W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guided practice with reference to reading comprehension.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6 Second series of 11/1, INSET project - Lesson observation, feedback discussion, INSET work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom observation</td>
<td>Feedback discussion, distribution of survey questionnaire, decision on school based, INSET work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and formative evaluation</td>
<td>Feedback discussion, distribution of survey questionnaire, decision on school based, INSET work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 7 Second residential, 17-20 ENS Porto

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INSET seminar</td>
<td>Reflection on the implementation of the first series, ideas of the seminar, decision on background theory about teaching English through nouns and functions, guided practice, with reference to writing and vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 8 Third series of 24-30, INSET project - Lesson observation, feedback discussion, INSET work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom observation</td>
<td>Feedback discussion, distribution of survey questionnaire, decision on school based, INSET work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and formative, 19-23</td>
<td>Feedback discussion, distribution of survey questionnaire, decision on school based, INSET work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Feedback discussion, distribution of survey questionnaire, decision on school based, INSET work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 9 Fourth series of 26/4, INSET project - Lesson observation, feedback discussion, INSET work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom observation</td>
<td>Feedback discussion, distribution of survey questionnaire, decision on school based, INSET work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and post-test, 88 tests</td>
<td>Feedback discussion, distribution of survey questionnaire, decision on school based, INSET work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th</td>
<td>15-18 ENI Lokossa, Display, DINFRÉ, D.M., A.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>INSET seminar and /6/86, lesson, C/SRE, D/CPDIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General evaluation, -general interest, S/CTIS, M.A., V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-review for D/PFE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-C.T of previous seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-completion of evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Questionnaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Data collection, 18/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preliminary reduction, 18/9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data collection, 18/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preliminary reduction, 18/9</td>
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<td>Data collection, 18/7</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Data collection, 18/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data collection, 18/7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend:
- = involvement of participants in specified activities
A.R.: Ahouansou René;
A.S.: Adrian Sewell;
Achievement: achievement;
Admin: administration;
Approaches: approaches;
Background: background;
C: control;
C/CTIS: coordinator of CTISes;
Ct'nou: Cotonou;
CTIS: technical commission for English;
Cl'room: classroom;
C/SRE: head of Research Unit at INFRE;
C/SS: head of statistics office at DRST;
C.T.: control group teachers;
D.E Doyigbe Etienne;
D/ECSU: Director of secondary examination board;
D.I Datondji Innocent;
D/INFRE: Director of INFRE;
D/08: Director of Baccalaureate examination board;
D/P,E: head of provincial bureau of education;
DRST scientific research unit in the ministry of education;
Dsc'sion: discussion;
DEMS: Bureau of secondary education;
D.M Devoh Monique;
E: experimental;
EA: English Africa;
ENI Integrated teacher training college;
Fct'ns: functions;
G: general in the sense of all teachers or pupils who did not belong to either experimental or control group;
G'ded: guided;
H/ED: head of English Department;
H.M: Hounzangbé Maurice;
INFRE: institute for educational research;
J.A : Joseph Akoha;
L.B: Lycée Behanzin secondary school; M.A,: Hédégan Ambroise;
M.E.: ministry of education;
MEO: ministry of education offices;
Msters: masters
M.V: Midahouen Vital;
N'tns: notions;
Prtcce: practice;
Prtf'sional: professional;
Prt's'ting pre-testing
prj'ct: project;
Pst'testing: post-testing;
R'ding: reading
Rflc'tion: reflection;
S.A Sebastien Allotchenou,

Table 11: Overview of components and programme of the INSET Project.
8-2-2 Development and description of the INSET course

8-2-2-1 Participants

8-2-2-1-1 Project personnel

8-2-2-1-1-1 The researcher's involvement

The researcher himself was fully involved in the project as trainer and supervisor. The general outline and methodology of the INSET course was developed by him and proposed to the training team and participating teachers. He participated in its practical planning and the development of its programme with teachers and other trainers. He was the main facilitator and on-line support provider for the school based component of the course. He also did some of the presentations at the residential seminar component of the course and helped with the guided practice aspect of these seminars along with other trainers and the teachers' leader. This participatory approach to the study has its advantages as well as its disadvantages.

8-2-2-1-1-1 Advantages

The positive aspect of the researcher's involvement was that the project, in a sense became an action research for himself, somewhat similar, although in a less systematic way, to what Elliot (1990) called 'second order action research', that is, supervisors' own reflective practice focussed on the process of helping teachers develop their capacity for reflective practice.

Although his own class was not part of the project classes, it gave him the opportunity to experiment with the ideas generated at seminars and during formative class visits, and to appraise them in practice, noting problems, reflecting on alternative possibilities and sharing them with his
colleagues and other participants in the project whose ideas and views were also equally taken on board for appraisal.

His involvement also gave him the opportunity to better understand the problems confronting teachers, not only by direct experience of these problems with teachers in their classes but by his own successes and failures in implementing the curriculum, and mainly in helping teachers reflect upon their own experience of the curriculum.

Another advantage of his involvement, was that teachers considered the course as something which was not imposed on them by educational authorities from above. It was the initiative of one of their colleagues who was also confronted with the same problem of how to deal with the new curriculum and whose training and known interest in the new curriculum might be put to use. They were more motivated to participate in it than would have been the case if it were an official compulsory course. Although the curriculum was centrally adopted, the project gave them the opportunity to freely reinterpret it for application in the classroom by involving them from the outset in the planning, implementation and evaluation of the INSET course.

8-2-2-1-1-1-2 Disadvantages

As the project was not an official project, initiated by the Ministry of Education, it did not have full conceptual, administrative, material and financial support from the State. Although, the researcher being a member of the CTIS/ANGLAIS (Technical Commission for English), managed to involve other members of the commission, and was allowed to work in cooperation with the director of the English Teaching Benino-British project whose support was instrumental, this non official status of the project posed considerable problems in terms of its administration.
Access to schools and teachers had to be negotiated with educational authorities who were less than enthusiastic because the project had no proper funding. It had not been possible for instance to dissuade them from transferring some teachers involved in the project to schools where they could not continue to participate as those schools did not have the classes where the new textbooks were being used. Other aspects of the administration such as transport, postage, reprographics, accommodation, maintenance etc. had to be dealt with using very limited resources, relying occasionally on the Benino-British project vehicle and other facilities and mainly on personal savings, public transport and commercial services.

As the project was an individual undertaking, the researcher was not released from teaching and had to teach 10 hours a week, which was the normal teaching load of pedagogical advisers in schools, while conducting the study (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 1). He had to negotiate with his pupils for a flexible timetable, different from the official one, which allowed him to carry out the four school visits and the two residential seminars without missing a single hour of teaching during the study.

This involvement of the researcher also posed the problem of the credibility and objectivity of the research findings. He obviously had interest in the success of the project and that could lead to a tendency, even unconsciously, to overrate progress and achievement. His year long interaction with participants might also lead to a tendency on their part to please him in their answers to evaluation questionnaires. All these dangers were acknowledged and precautions were taken to reduce their adverse effects on the project by the use of other trainers and observers and by talking these problems through with participants.

8-2-2-1-1-2: Other contributors
Contributors to residential INSET seminars

Participating experimental group teachers elected a leader who was the co-leader of the INSET course with the researcher. He had responsibility for planning the programme of each seminar with the researcher in view of the points made by teachers during formative class visits and at previous seminar evaluations. He chose lessons for microteaching and designed tasks in collaboration with the researcher for these lessons in view of the topics discussed at input sessions. He also monitored workshops and preteaching activities and sometimes chaired feedback sessions while the researcher was responsible for monitoring the microteaching sessions. Other managerial tasks were shared between him and the researcher according to circumstances.

Other members of the project personnel were trainers and inspectors who were all well qualified and experienced secondary school teachers and lecturers at the Ecole Normale Supérieure, most of whom were members of the Technical Commission for English at INFRE (the Institute for Research and Training in Education). They all had experience in working with teachers. Given the innovatory nature of both the curriculum on which the experiment was based and of the experiment itself it was hoped that their involvement would not only improve the quality and credibility of the experiment but also provide a formative experience for all and provide some guarantee for the experiment being approved and followed up after the researcher had left. They contributed mainly to the input for the residential seminars, taking responsibility for particular topics, and participating in microteaching feedback sessions. Thus seven trainers intervened at least once in the course of the three seminars organised as part of the course (see full list in the appendix to chapter 8 No 2).
Among them special mention should be made of the Director of the Key English Teaching Benino-British project and the Inspector for English who not only participated in the residential seminars but were the main evaluators of the project.

Observers

As said above, the Director of the Benino British project, who was English, and the secondary school inspector for English who was Beninese were the main assessors of the project. They went with the researcher for the first class observations where teachers' performance was assessed before the project started, and went back with him again for the last class observations when teachers' performance at the end were assessed. Their assessments and those of the teachers themselves were the main data for the analysis of teacher performance. Other observers' ratings and markings were used as a complementary check on the validity of these data. Although it could be argued that they also had interest in the success of the course as they were officially responsible for the improvement of English in the country, and participated in the development of the course and the instruments for its evaluation they were the nearest one could get in the circumstances of the study to the provision for a credible evaluation of the INSET project.

In addition to these two main assessors, the head of the English Department at the University and a pedagogical adviser who were not involved in the course were also invited to participate in the last classroom observations. They observed a sample of five teachers in the experimental group and two teachers in the control group. Although they did not do any observations at the beginning of the course it was hoped that their assessment at the end would strengthen the credibility of the evaluation if their ratings and grades did not significantly differ from those of the main assessors.
Participating teachers

Characteristics

Some general information about the whole target population is perhaps in order here so as to help readers appreciate the aims, process and achievements of the project.

Of the 650 teachers of English in all the 147 secondary schools in Benin in 1987-1988, 150 were teaching in the 42 schools which had a second cycle. 60 of them were teaching 'seconde' (first year second cycle) pupils. These constituted the direct target population of the study. It was hoped that some of the findings would be applicable to the whole EFL teaching force given the connections between first and second cycle through the first year of the second cycle and the characteristics of teachers in both cycles as described in Chapter Two of this study and summed up here as follows.

Most teachers were used to receiving decisions about syllabuses, textbooks, and methods from a national central authority, and to getting on with the job. The role of inspectors was to check how well and how rigorously prescribed procedures, "la méthodologie en vigueur", as it was called, were followed. Most teachers had consequently developed a dependency culture and enjoyed the security of what Peter Maingay (1988) calls "ritual teaching behaviour" as opposed to "principled teaching behaviour." They had little experience of formal materials evaluation, let alone of developing their own materials. As a result of the traditional methodology and the unfavourable environment in which they had learnt English they lacked confidence in their own command of it, although they had all completed their secondary education and some had some years of university education.
But as pointed out earlier about 45% of them had no formal initial professional training. Those who had, did it in pre-service oriented training colleges, where the stress was more on consolidating their general education, their knowledge about English and English culture. In general the financial, material, moral and social conditions of work for all teachers at all levels in the system were less than ideal. These were the teachers for whom the INSET project was intended in order to help them to better implement the new ELT curriculum adopted in 1986.

Selection

From the 60 teachers teaching 'seconde' pupils 24 were selected to be involved in the experimental INSET which made 40% of this direct target population, 16% of all teachers in the second cycle and about 4% of the whole EFL teaching force.

They were selected in cooperation with the central administrative authorities at the 'Direction de l'Enseignement Moyen Général' using a stratified sampling procedures as well as purposive sampling. The sample was stratified in that it represented the teachers from the different provinces to be involved in the study, from different class options, and of different sexes, and of different levels of professional qualification. Thus twelve (12) untrained teachers and twelve (12) trained teachers were selected. Each of these two distinct categories included humanities option class teachers and science option class teachers, experienced teachers and not so experienced teachers, male and female teachers from all the four provinces. It was purposive not only because it was deliberately focussed on teachers who were teaching a 'seconde' class pupils, but mainly because selection in the experimental and control group was done after the pre-test on the basis of approximately one teacher in the control group for two in the experimental group instead of equal
numbers, in response to the request of the administrative authorities who wanted the experiment to be immediately beneficial to more teachers. In that, the research was more responsive to the needs of the policy shaping community than would have been the case in pure experimental and laboratory research; the design was accordingly more of the emerging type advocated by the qualitative paradigm.

8-2-2-1-2-3 Constitution of Experimental and control groups

After the selection of the 24 teachers at the Bureau of secondary Education the researcher toured the four provinces, visited the schools and discussed with provincial and school authorities to secure their permission and cooperation and to contact teachers and obtain their agreement to participate in the experiment. It was noted that one of the selected teachers was a teacher of Spanish although the list consulted in the Ministry had him down as a teacher of English and no other teacher was available to replace him in the school where he was the only one in the experiment. That school was dropped. But all the others agreed to take part in the experiment and a time table for the first series of classroom observations was arranged with them for November 1987. (see table 8 and description of programme in subsection 8-2-5)

After these first series of class observations, used as pre-tests, it became necessary to divide the teachers into experimental, and non experimental groups (the latter acting as a control group although it was not really pure control as they were also given some aspects of the treatment). This was done through random sampling using schools as units because teachers involved in the experiment in the same school were to belong to the same group to encourage cooperation and also to reduce exchange of information between groups. This was done on the basis of approximately one control school for two experimental schools by giving a
number to all the schools in a province and making a draw for selecting experimental and control schools and putting back the number of the chosen school to give all schools the same chance of being selected.

It proved necessary, however, to reverse the one control school for two experimental schools rule for the last province, the province of Ouémé, simply because some adjustment was needed to have the required number of control teachers given the unequal number of teachers in the schools. An adjustment was also necessary in order to include a female teacher in the experimental group. So to some extent the selection was partly random and partly purposive.

After the draw and the adjustment the experimental group was constituted with seven (7) trained teachers and six (6) untrained teachers which made a total of thirteen (13) teachers. The control group had ten (10) teachers of which five (5) were trained and five (5) were untrained. In the course of the project one trained teacher and one untrained teacher in the control group were reposted to other schools by provincial administrative authorities and could not be replaced. The combination of two classes into one in one of the control schools made one selected teacher redundant as she had no class. Two other untrained teachers, one in the experimental group and one in the control group, abandoned their schools and left the country in search of better jobs as teachers' salaries were not being paid at the time. This experimental mortality of five (5) teachers redefined the different groups as follows:
- *experimental group*: seven (7) trained teachers and five (5) untrained teachers.
- *control group*: three (3) trained teachers and three (3) untrained teachers.

So the design of the project in terms of which teachers received which treatment emerged as in the figure below:
Teachers were chosen from schools in rural areas in four of the six provinces, namely, those in the South and centre of the country. But schools in the northern provinces were represented in the survey questionnaire. This decision was taken because rural area schools were generally the most disadvantaged in terms of information on new developments and changes in curricula. They were also mainly attended by pupils of modest socio-economic background with little chance of possessing adequate learning materials. It was also shown in the literature that teachers were important determinants in pupil achievement in low socio-economic status population (see Avalos, 1985), which implied more need to improve the quality of teachers for this category of pupils than those of higher socio-economic status as would be expected in the cities. This choice was also expected to reduce the variation in socio-economic status of pupils that might affect their achievement and confound more the teacher factor. It was, however, planned to check this in a section
of the pupil questionnaire so as to take it into account in interpreting the results. On the basis of these criteria the 24 teachers were selected from 16 rural district schools, except for two control schools which were on the outskirts of two provincial chief towns which by Beninese standards may be considered as fairly urbanised.

8-2-2-1-3 Pupils and classes

Teachers were selected for the INSET project with one of their normal 'seconde' classes with all its pupils. Thus on the basis of 35 pupils on average by class it was expected that about 800 pupils would be involved in the experiment, which represented 20% of the 4000 or so 'seconde' pupils in the country and 5% of the 15000 pupils in the whole second cycle. But although all 800 pupils were to be involved in the experiment, only a sample of about a third of those who actually took both pretest and posttest were selected for the collection of supplementary data and were included in the analysis due to resource constraints and for ease of data management.

8-2-2-2 Aims

The INSET project aimed:

1- to raise teachers' awareness of the potentials of alternative language teaching strategies.

2- To encourage teachers to experiment with some of these strategies in relation to the methodological implications of the new textbooks, and to see whether and how they were applicable to the specific EFL contexts of relatively large classes in Benin. The focus, determined by the textbook, was on alternative reading comprehension activities using pair/group work within the communicative language teaching framework. Although it was hoped that teachers would use the approach being tried out in all their classes throughout secondary education, efforts were concentrated on the textbook in use in "seconde", first year of upper secondary
school for which a new ELT curriculum had been instituted by the ministry.

3- to use the course as an incentive for reflexion on ways in which EFL teacher education policy could be reoriented towards a focus on quality with special reference to INSET.

8-2-2-3 Theoretical background to the design of the course.

The whole project was set within the framework of action-oriented studies designed to increase INSET effectiveness (Crossley and Guthrie, 1987). It adopted a practical action research perspective with the belief that engaging teachers' understandings of their educational practices, and of the rationale behind the envisaged change and its relevance to their aims was crucial in educational innovation. Its dynamics were grounded in the conviction shared with Elliot (1979 in Hopkins, 1986, Elliot, 1990) that these understandings themselves could be fully achieved and evaluated only through reflective practice. The programme had therefore the ambition of helping teachers become minimally what Schön (1983) called 'reflective practitioners'. It started with what Widdowson (1987) called the 'pragmatics of teacher education' and developed into the praxis of teacher education as defined earlier. The overall goal was, not only to understand the present, but to transform it to produce a better future, through participants' active involvement.

8-2-2-4 Methodology

The methodology of the course derived partly from the ideological stance taken in the rationale above, from the lessons from research presented in chapter 4, especially those synthesised by Fullan (1982), Avalos (1985), and those concerned with adult (teacher) learning, as presented by Elliot (1979), Knowles (1984, 1977, 1974), Schön (1983,
1987) and Kolb (1984). It was also inspired by the principles of humanistic psychology as described by Underhill (1989). But it is mainly influenced by the importance of solidarity, personal contacts and informal interactions as opposed to formal ones in the cultural context of Benin. These different influences combined to shape the course design as in figure 24 below.

It appeared as a series of continuous cycles represented by the circles, leading closer and closer to the objective, and
set within the context of the realities and needs of the school, the system, the individual teachers and other participants (Fullan, 1982 and Bolam (1981) and life long education theory). This context was represented by the square divided up in two smaller squares symbolising the system and the individual, and a rectangle, twice the size of the squares, representing the school and emphasising its importance.

Thus the school had the multiple role of main focus, main setting and main source of input for the course, which however was firmly grounded in the overall objectives of the educational system, responsive to teachers' needs and responsibilities as individual professionals and persons within the context of the curriculum change, and aware of their pupils' needs.

Each cycle reinforced and developed the previous one in a process of permanent, life long, continuing professional development. The first cycle was composed of an integrated group of six activities in order of execution, namely practice, diagnosis, theory, guided practice, practice, on-line support and formative evaluation. This last activity led to the next cycle consisting also of theory, guided practice, practice, on-line support and formative evaluation, evaluation and practice.

Although the INSET project had to be terminated at this cycle the cycles could be continued as a continuous professional development by teachers themselves in a life long process of improvement as represented by the three other circles getting closer and closer to the ultimate objective, not of perfection, but of marked improvement of practice and increased professional competence.

Thus the INSET project started with practice and culminated in practice. It incorporated, adapted and developed the
components of the Avalos (1985) model which was itself based on Joyce & Showers' (1981) model. The difference was that the starting point was practice while the Avalos's model started with theory and explanation. In addition presentation and modelling was subsumed under theory, and coaching was replaced by on-line support. More essentially it defined the context of the model and stressed the importance of teachers' own needs which seemed to be underemphasised in the Avalos's model.

It also emphasised the need for follow through in a series of cyclical interactions of practice and theory along the lines suggested by Fullan (1979) and according to the principles of action research and did not terminate with coaching for transfer or on-line support in the present writer's terminology.

The various activities envisaged in the planned methodology were carried out in three main modes or forms of INSET: three residential INSET seminars, two series of school based INSET work in the forms of self development and peer observations, and on-line support and formative evaluation. They will be discussed in the context of the programmes of the course.

8-2-2-5 Programmes of activities with special reference to trainer training and the treatment of experimental and control group

Although the methodological framework for the course was tentatively envisaged before the beginning of the project, the content was developed only in the process of the field work, in collaboration with teachers and the training team.

8-2-2-5-1 The launching seminar

The first elements of the course derived from the evaluation of the launching seminar held in September 1987 by the
editor and author of the newly adopted textbook on which the project was based, and which might be considered as a pilot study for the course. As shown in table 11, it mainly presented the content of the textbook to teachers and the methodology for its teaching. There were demonstration lessons followed by workshops at which teachers were asked to plan some lessons on the basis of the demonstrations. Time constraints did not allow for full discussions of these plans and their implications for the teaching of other units and lessons in the two books (Seconde and Première) of the course. This seminar was considered as a stepping stone from which the INSET project could take off.

8-2-2-5-2 Trainers' and observers' seminars

Before and during the project, the researcher, the ELT officer and the trainers and inspectors held a series of meetings at INFRE to harmonise their understandings and interpretations, not only of the new curriculum and the content and methodology of the newly adopted textbooks but also of the aims, procedures and instruments of the experimental INSET planned to help teachers use those textbooks more effectively. It was hoped that this harmonisation should help them participate more efficiently in the INSET project as trainers and evaluators (see sample page of inspector's personal notes in Appendix to Chapter 8 No 3)

It should be admitted however that time constraints and the specific field conditions of the study did not allow a thorough training of evaluators.

In addition, although indicators of main categories were given in the instrument itself, there was no formally written description of categories separately given to evaluators to check the conformity of their interpretation with commonly agreed interpretations.
This weakness was partly due to the researchers' consciousness of the fact that the CTIS members, like other teachers, preferred informal direct oral discussion and understanding to formal communication through written channels. He had to deal with complaints about participants being already overwhelmed by the amount of paper work required for the project. So although there were fruitful discussions of the categories to harmonise understandings and interpretations these were not formally written up and distributed to them afterwards. The weakness was also partly due to time constraints. Very little time was left after the trainers' seminar before the beginning of the project to write up these descriptions.

These shortcomings of the preparation of trainers and evaluators need to be borne in mind to avoid absolute claims from their evaluation. It could however serve as an indication of a tendency and not as rigorous evidence of change or lack of change.

Trainers and observers who were not involved in the piloting of questionnaires were also required to fill out the survey questionnaire as well as the evaluation questionnaire.

8-2-2-5-3 The first series of classroom observations

Before a decision was taken about the content of the course the researcher and two other members of the project personnel conducted a first series of classroom observations for all teachers as they were not yet divided up into experimental and control groups. Three main activities were carried out during these observations.

- diagnostic lesson observation and feedback discussion: the researcher and two other members of the project personnel diagnosed with teachers, in view of the lessons which were observed, areas where they wished to do more systematic work with the trainers for improved ability to use the new
textbook for more communicative teaching than was the case for the lessons which were observed. Some practical suggestions regarding improvement on the performances observed were also proposed by both teachers and observers for discussion.

Drawing on this joint diagnosis of teachers' needs, and the background to the course design described above, a tentative programme for the first residential seminar was developed (see appendix to Chapter 8 No 6a).

- summative assessment: Teachers' performances in terms of their general professional skills and their ability to use the new book for communicative and learner centred language teaching were summatively evaluated and used as pre-tests at the beginning of the INSET project.

This summative part of the class visit was carried out by two observers, namely the English Language Teaching Officer who was a British technical adviser of the CTIS ANGLAIS at INFRE and by the national inspector for English at D.I.M (the Bureau of Inspection and Methodology Unit of the Ministry of Secondary Education). It was effected using a teacher appraisal guide and an overall impressionistic assessment in the form of a global mark. (see Appendix Chapter 8 No 4a)

Teachers themselves were required to do a self assessment of their performance using the same instrument.

It should be noted, however, that although the categories in the observation instrument were discussed with teachers before the lessons so that they knew what was expected of them as well as how to use the instrument themselves, lack of time for adequate practical training before application to their own lessons during the formal class observations constituted a limiting factor that needs to be taken into account in the interpretation of their self assessment.
Pupils were also given a questionnaire with approximately the same categories as in the appraisal guide in a simplified form to assess the lesson observed (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 4b).

These two other assessments of the lesson were intended to provide a triangulation of views on teachers' performance.

-Pre-test to pupils: At the end of the teachers' lessons, their pupils were given a pre-test which was not directly related to the lesson observed and whose characteristics will be shortly described in the subsection on data collection (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 5).

It is perhaps worth mentioning here that all pupils in both experimental and control classes followed the new curriculum using the newly adopted textbook English Africa. Teachers were encouraged to help them learn to work in pairs and groups for more effective and intensive language practice.

The last visit was conducted in the same way as the first one, except that the diagnostic aspect took the form of an informal discussion to have a verbal evaluation of the experimental INSET as experienced by individual teachers.

In addition to the INSET and the class visits teachers were also required to fill out a survey questionnaire on their previous pre-service and in-service training as well as an evaluation questionnaire at the end of the project.

The first residential seminar: theory and guided practice 1 for experimental group teachers

The first residential seminar marked the beginning of what might be called the treatment of the experimental group teachers. As a whole experimental group teachers followed a five component integrated action research based INSET
course, planned and executed by teachers in collaboration with a training team under the coordination of the researcher. Each component involved teachers in a reflective practice blending theory and practice for informed choice and improved skills (see report of outcomes in chapter 9 subsection 9-2).

As could be seen from table No 11, the first seminar gave teachers the opportunity to discuss in depth different approaches to language teaching with special reference to communicative language teaching and pair/group work. This was followed up by guided practice with special reference to reading comprehension. A general interest topic was also discussed (see detailed programme in the appendix to Chapter 8 No 6a, and fuller description in chapter 9 section 9-2).

8-2-2-5-5 The first series of school based INSET meetings: Reflective self development practice for experimental group teachers

Meetings were organised by experimental group teachers to discuss their own teaching and the teaching of others in the light of the ideas which ran through the first residential seminar. They were provided with school based INSET guides containing instructions and tasks developed by the coordinator on the basis of the evaluation of the preceding residential seminar (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 7). Tasks consisted mainly of lesson plan preparations and reports on particular aspects of classroom practice, e.g. Describe one of your most successful lessons.

The objectives of these meetings were determined in the preceding seminar as spelt out by the worksheet (see Appendix to chapter 8 No. 7) were as follows:

"-Help you take responsibility for your own professional development (improvement)
-Help you build up your self-confidence as concerns the teaching of the new English Curriculum in the second cycle and
particularly the teaching of English Africa.
-Prepare you for the next series of INSET seminars to be held in
Porto-Novo (Akoha, 1987:2)

Specific procedures were suggested for those meetings in the
preceding seminar. These procedures encouraged teachers to
work, preferably in pairs or groups, exchange ideas and
notes, maintain an enjoyable, supportive but frank and
friendly atmosphere. They were encouraged to persevere and
write down their reflections on their own teaching. In the
worksheet it was stated:

The process of reflecting on one's teaching and writing down the
description of one's teaching and of one's reflections is
central to the school based INSET activities you are required to
engage in. It is something we are not used to. The idea behind
this approach is that we do a lot of things in our classes; but
because we so rarely give ourselves time to stand aside and
reflect on our own actions and draw conclusions for improvement,
we don't learn and profit by our experience, let alone share it
with our colleagues as much as we could. It is hoped that this
project will help teachers take up this challenge as one of the
fundamental prerequisites for self improvement in our
profession." (Akoha, 1987:3)

8-2-2-5-6 The second series of classroom
observations: School based INSET as
on-line support for reflective
practice and formative evaluation

Experimental group teachers were visited a month or so after
the first residential seminar by the researcher. During
these visits there were lesson observations followed up by a
feedback session at which teachers' school based INSET work
was discussed. The difficulties they had in carrying out the
school based INSET activities were raised, problems were
noted down for further discussion. New ideas from other
schools were exchanged. These visits were made as informal
as possible and with as little disruption of teachers' normal time table as possible. But they were always informed
about the visit before hand.
The researcher took advantage of these visits to distribute the survey questionnaires to experimental teachers and to some of their colleagues who were not involved in the project. He did the same in the control group teachers' schools.

Control group teachers were also visited by the researcher in the same period, and their lessons were observed. The visit took place in the same informal atmosphere with focus on exchange of views on progress in ability to use the set textbook for more communicative teaching as with experimental teachers.

The difference between these visits and those of the experimental group teachers was that there was no exchange of information from other schools. Discussions were exclusively focussed on the visited teacher's class with recommendations for improvement as in the conventional supervision mode they were used to, except that there was no prescription of what must be done, but only recommendations that teachers may or may not want to take on board. Teachers were also freer to express themselves, to agree or disagree with trainers' comments and suggestions than was normally tolerated in conventional supervision and inspection.

It is in order to point out here that control teachers were not involved in the action research based INSET. So there was neither sharing of teaching ideas from other colleagues nor distribution and discussion of documents about the course or about specific aspects of teaching as was the case with experimental teachers.

8-2-2-5-7

The second residential seminar: Theory and guided practice 2 for experimental group teachers

The programme of the second INSET residential seminar (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 6), resulted from the difficulties
encountered by teachers in the process of adapting and implementing some of the ideas developed in the first course as recorded by the coordinator during the on-line support and formative evaluation sessions in the schools as well as from the evaluation of that first seminar by participants. It also featured a topic of general educational interest (see fuller description in Chapter 9 section 9-2).

8-2-2-5-8. The second series of school based INSET meetings for experimental group teachers: peer observation and discussion for practical understanding and innovation

At the end of the second residential seminar, and in view of the evaluation session and the limited time remaining in the last term participants decided to focus the follow up school based INSET on the main topic of the seminar, that is teaching English through notions and functions and on classroom management for that purpose. Teachers were sent copies of the main lecture on this topic given at the seminar (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 8), and copies of "Chapter 3: Classroom management and general tips" from Lewis & Hill (1985). They were encouraged to read these documents, discuss them, and organise peer observations with a focus on particular aspects they wished to try out in their classes, such as teacher talk and teacher repetition of pupils' answers, setting up pair/group work for communicative and non communicative practice of grammar, organising pair/group work with minimum time wasting, encouraging real communication in English in the classroom through pair/group formation and pair/group work and other specific problems of classroom practice in the context of their schools. (see fuller description of outcome in Chapter 9 section 9-2)
Third series of classroom observations:
School based INSET for on line support to teachers' practical understanding and formative evaluation

About a month after the second residential seminar the researcher went back to the schools to visit both experimental and control teachers for the third time in the course of the project.

Experimental group teachers' lessons were observed. After the lesson observations feedback sessions were organised during which the teachers and the researcher exchanged observations and feelings about the lessons taught as well as alternatives for improvement. The problems encountered in implementing the school based INSET as well as successes and innovations in the school visited and in other experimental schools were shared and discussed. Points that might be brought up at the next seminar were noted down by the researcher.

Control group teachers' classes were also observed during the same period. The feedback sessions following these observations were focussed on the lesson observed with general advice for improvement as during the second classroom observation visits described earlier.

Fourth series of Classroom observations: summative evaluation and post-tests

These last series of classroom observations were quite similar to the first series. They were conducted, not only by the researcher, but also by other observers, mainly the ELT officer and the Inspector for English, with the participation of two other observers who were not involved in the project, namely the head of the English Department in the Faculty of Humanities at the National University of
Benin, and a pedagogical adviser for the province of Ouémé. Activities during these visits consisted mainly in observing both experimental and control group teachers' lessons, assessing their performance at the end of the project in view of the lesson observed, and informally evaluating with them the project as they had experienced it.

In addition pupils in both groups were given a post-test to assess their general English proficiency at the end of the project.

The researcher took the opportunity of these visits to distribute the evaluation questionnaire for pupils to pupils in both experimental and control group classes.

8-2-2-5-41 The third residential seminar: general evaluation and debriefing

This last seminar was attended by both experimental and control group teachers. It evaluated the INSET project as a whole. It consisted of four main activities:
- display lessons given by a team of experimental group teachers to real pupils from one of the experimental schools, in the presence of educational authorities and other participants. The intention was to show participants, the educational authorities in particular, what went on during the project and the extent to which its objectives have been achieved.
- Review of the content of the first two residential seminars mainly for control group teachers by the training team.
- General interest topics presented by the ELT officer and the director of the provincial teacher documentation centre
- completion of evaluation questionnaires by all participants. (see detailed programme in the Appendix to Chapter 8 No 6c)
Data, sources of data and data collection instruments

Class observations

Teachers in both experimental and control groups were observed at work and their lessons were assessed before and after the project using both subjective global impressionistic comments and marks and appraisal guides. These data were provided by teachers themselves, their pupils and observers from the training team as discussed in subsection 8-4-2-2-1 above (see description of instrument in next section).

Pretests and posttests, class marks and examination marks

Pupils were tested before and after the experimental INSET, using the same ready made test taken from their textbook. (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 5) Pupils' annual general average marks in both groups before and at the end of the experiment were also collected to examine possible difference in general intellectual capacity between the two groups before the experiment and after it. These annual general average marks consisted of the average of all the marks given for the continuous assessment tests in each subject during the year, added up and divided by the number of subjects taken by pupils, which were generally the same for all pupils at that level.

Their average marks in English before and after the experiment were also collected to examine difference in performance in both groups and to compare normal class progress reports with the experiment's tests for further validation of the results.

The tests whose marks were averaged at the end of the year to constitute the annual average mark in English were those
of continuous assessment in English, done approximately once a month. They were constructed for each school or group of schools in a district by teachers teaching the same form. They were generally validated by school subject advisers as appropriate for the form and as covering the portion of the syllabus already dealt with by all teachers in the school or group of schools before they were finalised.

Although in the specific case of the experimental INSET different schools and different groups of schools were involved so that the tests were not identical for all pupils, it should be pointed out that the centralised system in effect in Benin as regards education makes the content of those tests somewhat similar and appear to be equivalent in terms of items coverage, format and level of difficulty. In general they consisted of a reading comprehension exercise, language usage exercises, and an essay. All the items were taken from the same syllabus even though texts for comprehension varied and sentences for grammar practice might not be the same. (see sample tests in the appendix to Chapter 8 No 9). But it should also be admitted that no scientific test of equivalence was conducted to ensure the absolute comparability of those tests.

The decision was taken to use them in the study because they were the norms used in the country to assess pupils' progress in English across schools and also because they were considered, like other test scores, as only one of the indicators of pupil progress. It is acknowledged that conclusions from those test scores need to be tentative in view of the problems in the use of students test scores as instruments for the evaluation of teacher effectiveness discussed in Chapter Five of the present study.

With the same intention of providing additional confirmation of the tests results, pupils' marks at BEPC national examination the year before the experiment and the year of the experiment for those who took it again that year in both
groups were also examined. Although these examination marks were based on a nationally set examination and therefore posed no problem of comparability there was no intention of considering them as the proof that the experimental INSET worked or did not work. The hope was that the combined strength of all the different tests taken by pupils in the course of the year should give a more accurate indication of their overall progress than any one of them in isolation. It was felt in particular that a one off test at the beginning and at the end of the experimental INSET would provide an even less reliable indication of pupils' language achievement than this combination of test data.

8-2-3-3 Questionnaires

At the beginning of the project a survey questionnaire was distributed to teachers involved in the project and other teachers in their schools as well as to trainers and pedagogical advisers in all the six provinces in the country to collect data on their perceptions of their professional training and education before and during service as well as their views on effective inservice training and its relation with pre-service training, and on areas of professional development where they personally felt a need for improvement.

At the end of the project participants, teachers, trainers and pupils were given an evaluation questionnaire for a more qualitative insight into the outcomes of the experimental INSET.

8-2-3-4 Interviews and discussions

Before and during the experiment the researcher conducted semi-structured and informal non-structured interviews and discussions with lecturers, specialists, colleagues and administrative authorities in order to better understand the issues involved in the study, complete and clarify the
literature in the field in the light of those specialists' practical experience and attitudes (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 10). He also gave presentations at research seminars and presented papers at language teaching conferences, followed by thought provoking discussions which gave him invaluable insight into the complexity of the study in its content and its methodology (see bibliography at the end of the thesis).

8-2-3-5 Official texts and other documents

Statistical documents as well as official texts regulating educational institutions and their running in Benin and minutes of meetings were also consulted for an in-depth understanding of how the educational system in Benin had been working so far.

8-2-4 Analysis and interpretation of results

The data collected were analysed through both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Thus whereas the process of the experiment and some aspects of its outcomes were analysed using a combination of narrative reporting, vignette reporting focussing on critical incidents, and analysis reporting drawing on documentary evidence, and on the evaluation questionnaire, the product of the experiment was analysed relying to a great extent on descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and on some inferential statistics such as chi-squares, t-tests, multi-variate analysis of variance and discriminant analysis. Non parametric statistics such as the Mann-Whitney test and the Kruskal-Wallis test were also used where there were some doubts about the appropriateness of the data for parametric statistical assumptions. The significance level was put at 0.05.

It needs to be pointed out that the limited number of teachers involved in the project (12 in the experimental
group and 6 in the control group calls for caution in the use of statistical inferencing. Indeed substantial variation from one subject might affect the overall result with the consequent risk of overgeneralisation or false generalisation.

Although the data on teachers' performance were inspected for extreme values (outliers), this limitation is fully acknowledged. To reduce its negative effects on the results the quantitative analysis of the performance appraisal data was supplemented by the collection of more qualitative data such as teachers' own subjective evaluation of the project using the evaluation questionnaire and which were analysed using non parametric statistics. In addition, the theoretical background to the study as well as personal details of participants and the socio-economic and educational context in the country were taken into account in interpreting the results of these analyses.

8-2-5 Availability of facilities

The project benefited not only from the availability and motivation of some members of the CTIS- Anglais to serve on the training team, of the technical staff and equipment at INFRE for the video recording of lessons, and from the cooperation of school administrators but also from the generous contribution of the publisher of English Africa through the provision of textbooks to schools involved in the project.

8-2-6 Limitations of the study and basic assumptions

Two kinds of limitations concerned respectively with the scope and the validity of the study need to be considered in this subsection.

8-2-6-1 Scope
INSET was the main independent variable in this study. So the literature review was almost exclusively focussed on issues directly related to conceptions, programmes, organisation and evaluation of INSET with special reference to language teacher preparation and improvement. Although in-depth presentation and discussion of the fundamental concepts of the adopted curriculum on which INSET was based figured prominently on the programmes of the seminars, they were not systematically dealt with in the literature review. It was assumed that these concepts, such as communicative language teaching and learner centredness based on humanistic approaches, notional-functional syllabuses, reading, pair/group work and task-based language learning although important as the grist in the mill of the INSET course were not central to the study whose main preoccupation was the effectiveness of INSET in preparing teachers to successfully implement a new curriculum whatever the content of that curriculum might be. Full formal review of the literature on these concepts was therefore considered beyond the scope of the study. Care was taken however in the evaluation questionnaire to account for the relevance and applicability of these concepts as experienced in the socio-cultural contexts of Benin.

Although INSET was the independent variable in the sense that it was the variable which was 'manipulated' to examine its relationship with teacher effectiveness as dependent variable, the researcher was conscious that many other factors could also affect teacher effectiveness such as pupils' presage variables, change agent variables, school variables, etc. Allowing for the difficulties in controlling for confounding variables in research done in field conditions some precautions were however taken to reduce the threat to the validity of the study in these regards as explained below in the subsection on validity.
8-2-6-1-2 Dependent variables

The main dependent variable was teacher effectiveness construed in terms of ability to perform better in the classroom on the basis of informed choice and better understanding of practice.

Although attitude and attitude change are acknowledged as important factors which may determine behaviour and its sustained change, the study was not specifically designed to measure attitude change but to measure observable and sustained changes in classroom practice. There was consequently no formal literature review in previous chapters on attitude and attitude change.

The whole project was set within the framework of action oriented studies (see Crossley & Guthrie, 1987). It was assumed that complete attitude change could not be taken as a sufficient guarantee for personal adoption of the new curriculum and mainly for actual change in classroom practice. However account was taken of teachers' and pupils' disposition (attitude) towards both INSET and communicative language teaching as experienced in the experiment. But there was no measurement of attitude before the experiment to be compared to attitude after the experiment. This limitation should be borne in mind in the interpretation of the findings.

8-2-6-2 Validity

The first concern here was about the extent to which observed changes in teachers and pupils could be attributed to the experimental treatment and not to other confounding variables. The second concern was about the extent to which the results could be generalised to the whole EFL population of teachers and learners in the country.
It should be noted that the study was not intended to establish causal effects between dependent and independent variables but to examine their relationship. Given the possible influence of other factors, an experimental and control group with pretests and posttests design was adopted in order to improve the credibility of the findings. As those confounding factors affected both experimental and control group one might be justified in interpreting differences between the two groups after the experimental INSET as indicative of some relationship between the INSET and the observed difference. Background information about participants' presage variables in both groups was also collected to be taken into account in this interpretation.

As for the second concern it should be admitted that the restricted representativeness of the sample (less than 5% of the entire EFL teaching force) and the selection of schools almost exclusively in rural areas call for caution in generalising the findings. It is however hoped that the thick description of the setting and of the participants in the first two chapters should help the use of the findings for other confirmability studies in other but similar conditions.

It should also be noted that the sample was fairly representative of the second cycle teachers and pupils (more than 15%). Most teachers in the experiment taught in both cycles and the class on which the experiment was focussed was generally considered as a transition class between the first and the second cycle, which may allow for a tentative generalisability of the findings to both cycles pending confirmation by more experiments in both cycles.
Development and description of data collection instruments

Questionnaires

The survey questionnaire

Sources and influences

The main questionnaire of the study was the survey questionnaire titled 'Questionnaire to teachers'. Its format was mainly influenced by the questionnaire developed by Lubasa (1985) for his doctoral study in Zaire using a mixed style of close and open questions as well as questions involving ranking of items and ratings of degree of satisfaction with aspects of training or degree of agreements with given statements. It was also influenced by comments, advice, and corrections by the tutor and other lecturers of the present writer as well as by the results of the piloting.

The content was however quite specific to the study and personal. Its items were drawn mainly from the study of teacher education in Benin as presented in Chapter Two, from the theoretical study of EFL teacher training programmes presented in Chapters Three and Four, from personal experience as trainee-teacher and as a member of INSET seminars training team in Benin, from personal views and philosophy of education and from ideas expressed by respondents during the piloting.

The last section drew specifically on a UNESCO document on the profile of the teacher (Chiappano, 1986). The items were submitted to the tutor of the present writer and to the members of the CTIS/ANGLAIS who amended and validated them.
The final as well as the draft version of the survey questionnaire was introduced by a cover letter specifying its objectives and ultimate use and requesting respondents cooperation. The questionnaire itself contained five sections, of which sections 1, 4 and 5 were to be filled out by all respondents and sections two and three to be filled out only by those respondents to which they were applicable. The general purpose of the survey questionnaire was to obtain data on teachers' perceptions of provisions for their professional preparation and improvement in Benin and their degree of satisfaction with them.

Section 1 (Questions 1 to 9) aimed to collect data on teachers' personal details such as sex, age, qualifications, experience in the profession as independent variables that might eventually be correlated with their answers in the other sections.

Section 2 (Questions 10 to 17) aimed to obtain data on the initial training of teachers who received one either before or after they had started teaching. Such data included duration of course, programmes, methods, balance of theory and practice, of academic component and professional component.

Section 3 (Questions 18 to 28) aimed to elicit information on respondents perceptions of their in-service training for those who had had one, such as duration, programmes, methods, relative importance accorded to the professional and practical components as compared to the academic and theoretical components, teachers' objectives in following these courses, degree of satisfaction and reasons for it and for the opposite and other comments.
Section 4 (Questions 29 to 38) aimed to elicit teachers' views on in-service training. It collected data such as reasons for in-service and their order of importance, degree of satisfaction with existing provisions, reasons for dissatisfaction if any, suggestions of actions for improvement with specification of levels at which these were to be undertaken, areas of professional development where they felt personal need for improvement and whether or not they were prepared to take up a self development programme for these improvements, conditions for the success of these programmes and ways of evaluating it, expectations from the experimental INSET under way.

Piloting and administration

The survey questionnaire as described above resulted from numerous amendments necessitated by the analysis of the piloting stage. At first it was thought it would be easier for teachers if the questions were formulated in French. So the first two sections were written in French and tried on just five teachers two of whom received their formal education and training in "English speaking" African countries. It clearly appeared that if all teachers including those from "English speaking" countries were to participate in the survey the questionnaire should be in English. Indeed, although those teachers were asked to answer in the language they felt most at ease in, it appeared that the teachers from "English speaking" African countries had serious difficulties in understanding the questions in the first place, let alone responding in French. They came separately to express their frustration and asked for the researcher's help in translating or explaining the questions in English. This led him to decide that the questionnaire would be in English.
So all the five sections were drafted in English and sent to the researcher's tutor in the Institute and to members of the CTIS-ANGLAIS some of whom were university lecturers for validation of the items, comments, advice and/or corrections. Meanwhile the 15 copies of the drafted questions were sent out to some teachers and teacher trainers and/or advisers to be completed. The main objective was to check if the questions were clearly understandable, if the format was easy to operate, if there were aspects raised in questions asking teachers for other comments in each section that necessitated supplementary questions or reformulations of existing questions and to receive feedback on teachers' and trainers' feelings and impressions about the questionnaire in general.

Nine of the questionnaires sent out were returned in addition to the one sent to the researcher's tutor. It turned out that most respondents spent a lot of time on the questionnaire which they attributed, apart from professional and social constraints, to the fact that they were not used to filling in such questionnaires, and also because there were many questions most of which were too detailed. It was suggested that the questionnaire be more condensed with fewer tables to fill answers in. However, apart from one respondent who felt that she did not have the liberty to answer questions freely, respondents agreed that the questionnaire covered the essential issues that needed to be raised in relation to teacher education in Benin, which concurred with the CTIS/ANGLAIS members' assessment of the draft used for the trainers' seminar. In addition they stated that they learnt a lot from it.

As a result of this piloting and tutors' comments and corrections the initial questionnaire (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No. 11a) was thoroughly revised. Thus most of the instructions in each section were supported by examples to
guide respondents on what they were expected to do as, for example, on pages 2 and 9 of the finalised questionnaire (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No. 11b).

A coding system was also written (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No. 11c) and code numbers were incorporated in the questionnaire although some changes had to be made to adjust to the coding system of the SPSSX computer package eventually used for the analysis (see new code and programme for computer analysis in the appendix No 11d to this chapter). A number of questions in the final version were reformulations and/or combinations of those in the pilot version. This can be seen by comparing the two versions in the appendices to chapter 8 Nos. 11a and 11b). In general those changes consisted in leaving some questions open to avoid putting words in respondents' mouths and/or confusing them with too many choices or with specialist jargon. This was the case in questions related to training programmes, to methods, and to the integration of pre-service and in-service. Other changes were made on the ground that the original questions were too 'subversive' in their original formulations. It was the case for question 31 corresponding to questions 32 to 36 in the piloted questionnaire.

The revised and typed questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 54 teachers reflecting all categories of E.F.L. 28 of them returned the questionnaire which made 52% return. But only 25, which was about 50% of the total distributed were complete enough to be used in the analysis.

The distribution of those 25 teachers showed however that they were representative of the original sample reflecting all categories of teachers in the country as could be seen on the table below.
table 12: distribution of respondents by variables of personal details for the survey questionnaire.

8-3-1-1-2 The evaluation questionnaire for teachers and trainers

8-3-1-1-2-1 Sources and influences

The evaluation questionnaire (see Appendix to chapter 8 No. 12) followed approximately the same format as the survey questionnaire using a mixed style of open and closed questions asking teachers' and trainers' comments and impressions of the project and the degree of confidence in or applicability of specified activities, as well as degree of agreement with specified statements evaluating specific aspects of the project. It should however be noted that there was a predominance of open questions here as this
questionnaire was intended for a more qualitative evaluation of the experiment.

The content drew on theoretical studies of effective in-service training as reviewed in Chapter Four and on studies of EFL programmes and EFL teacher education programmes as discussed in Chapter 5. But the main source was the content, process and methodology of the INSET project itself, teachers' informal comments on them in the course of its implementation especially their comments during interim evaluation sessions of each residential seminar. (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 14). The last section drew specifically on the researcher's study of criteria for the evaluation of E.F.L materials in Benin (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 13).

8-3-1-1-2-2 Description

The evaluation questionnaires to teachers and trainers were introduced by a letter of a similar nature and content to the survey questionnaire. Its main purpose was to obtain participants' personal impressions, opinions and feelings about the execution of the project and the influence it had on them personally as well as their suggestions for improvement of future in-service training programmes.

It contained four sections. Section 1 (questions 1 to 9) was to collect data on participants' personal details as before in the survey and identify whether respondents were experimental teachers, control teachers, trainers or observers.

Section 2 (Questions 10 to 16) was intended to get insight into how participants personally experienced the INSET project. It included questions on their expectations at the beginning of the project and on the extent to which they had
been met, their order of preference for the methods and forms of INSET used, conditions at which they would be prepared to take part in other INSET programmes, aspects of the organisation they liked or disliked, their personal rating of the overall success of the INSET project.

Section 3 (Questions 17 to 18) aimed to collect participants' impressions on the communicative and functional approach to language teaching on which the in-service programme was based. Data were collected on teachers' confidence in organizing communicative activities, teaching notions and functions, teaching reading comprehension, teaching grammar and lexis more realistically and communicatively, dealing with pupils' mistakes and errors, use of textbooks as servants and not as masters. This section also elicited teachers' views on the applicability of aspects of the communicative methodology in their classes.

Section 4 (Question 19) aimed to elicit participants' evaluation of English Africa and and their views about its suitability to their purposes according to various criteria.

As the evaluation concerned almost exclusively those who took part in the project there was no formal piloting using other respondents than those for whom the questionnaire was intended. But the questions asked and the item included in it were the results of the interim evaluations which took place after each residential seminar to help prepare the focus of school based activities and improve on the human as well as the intellectual and material organisation of the following seminars. These served as pilot in the sense that most of the issues which were frequently raised during these evaluations as well as participants' reactions to the
formats of these evaluations helped to construct the general evaluation questionnaire, as pointed out earlier (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No. 14).

This questionnaire was distributed to the 25 teachers and trainers present at the general evaluation seminar held at the end of the project in the hope that they would be filled in before the end and be returned. But only 20 teachers and trainers did so, which made 80% return. But their distribution according to categories, as in the table below showed that they were also representative of the EFL teaching force in the country.

<table>
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<tr>
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<td>female</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>13</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-46</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
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</tr>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>highly educated</td>
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<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>averagely educated</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>11</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>averagely qualified</td>
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<td>25</td>
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</tr>
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<td>30</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Mono</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Queue</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zou</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Atlantique</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: distribution of respondents for the evaluation questionnaire for teachers.

8-3-1-1-3 The evaluation questionnaire for pupils

8-3-1-1-3-1 Sources and influences

The evaluation questionnaire for pupils (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 15) used the same format and styles as the other questionnaires. However, taking account of their
educational level, there was a predominance of closed questions, some of which were similar to attitude questionnaires using differential semantics techniques with opposing adjectives and short statements with which respondents were asked to express their degree of agreement.

This was the case in question 34 on pupils' assessment of their classes, that is the communicative orientation of the methodology, and in question 41, related to their assessment of English Africa the text book used for the course.

There were, nonetheless, a few open questions on their views of the positive and negative aspects of the communicative orientation of the course.

The section on pupils' socio-economic background and on school environment was influenced by Iyabode's (1980) doctoral study on the effects of socio-economic background on student achievement in Nigeria and especially her questionnaire.

The section on the pupils' "English class" was partly derived from the essential features of a communicative class as described for example by Breen (1987) and Maley (1985), Savignon (1980), Dubin & Olshtain (1986), from the small scale feedback questions administered to the researcher's own pupils and from discussions with colleagues. The section on English Africa was a simplified version of the criteria for materials evaluation developed by the researcher and referred to earlier.

8-3-1-1-3-2 Description

The evaluation questionnaire for pupils, as with the other questionnaires, was introduced by a letter explaining its
objectives and ultimate use and requesting pupils' cooperation.

The main purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information on the socio-economic and material conditions in which pupils worked at home and at school which could serve as contextual factors in interpreting the results. On the other hand it aimed to record and analyse pupils' reactions to the project through their views about the communicative orientation of their classes over a year, and about the course as reflected in the textbook in use.

It contained six sections. Section 1 (Questions 1 to 6) consisted of questions about the location and identification of respondents' schools, about their class options, their names, their sex and their age. It was framed to obtain respondents' personal details.

Section 2 (Questions 7 to 19) was framed to obtain information on respondents' home environment and socio-economic background. It contained questions on their caretakers and their job status, their level of education, on whether or not they had a study room, how the room was lit if they had one, how much time they had for personal study of English at home, whether they had the textbook in use available at home, whether they had other books of English and whether or not they had access to other equipments such as radio, cassette recorder or television at home and whether they were given tutorials in English at home.

Section 3 (Questions 20 to 33) were directed at school environment and sought information on class size, physical characteristics of classes, on subjective impression of availability of space for moving about and organising pair/group work and demonstrations in front of the class. It
also asked pupils about the availability of *English Africa* in their school and of other books as well as other equipment such as radio, tape recorders and television. Information was also collected on whether or not they had had a teacher of English every year since they had started learning English and whether the current teacher came to class regularly and how satisfied they were about his/her class.

Section 4 (Questions 34 to 40) elicited information on detailed assessment of the English class as given in the experimental year and on what they thought were the advantages and disadvantages of the methods used by the teacher and on suggestions for improvement.

Section 5 (Questions 41 to 47) was devoted to the evaluation of *English Africa*. It asked pupils to express their degree of agreement with opposing couples of adjectives expressing favourable and unfavourable opinions in alternance.

Section 6 (Questions 48 to 50) elicited information on pupil progress in English. It contained questions on pupils' general annual average mark in school as well as their annual average mark in English in class and at the national B.E.P.C examinations the previous year and the year of the experiment.

8-3-1-1-3-3 Piloting and administration

The evaluation questionnaire to pupils was the culmination of the small scale evaluations periodically carried out by the researcher with his own pupils who were not directly involved in the project. Most questions, as could be seen by sample evaluation questions and replies in the appendix to chapter 8 No15a were questions either already asked of his own pupils or derived from their comments. Informal
discussions with pupils of other classes involved in the experiment as well as the pupils' comments and evaluation of teachers' performance at pretest and posttest evaluation had also guided the formulation of this final evaluation questionnaire. But there was no formal piloting of the final version of the questionnaire.

It was not easy to administer the questionnaire as most pupils had already stopped coming to class by the time of the final evaluation. The researcher had had to distribute them from door to door and from town to town to most of the respondents with the help of some of the teachers and school administrators and to rely on the post and even on taxi drivers for their return. However most of the information received on marks were checked with the schools and corrected or completed where necessary. (see information request sent to schools in the appendix No 11 to this chapter). Of the 150 questionnaires distributed 130 were eventually returned and complete enough to be used, which made about 87% of return distributed as follows.

<table>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>mental,control</td>
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<td>age</td>
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<td>7-19</td>
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<tr>
<td>20 or more</td>
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</tr>
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<td>class option</td>
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<tr>
<td>arts</td>
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<td>30</td>
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</table>

Table 14: Distribution of respondents by personal details variables for the evaluation questionnaire to pupils.
Only 15% of respondents were girls, which reflected the limited number of girls who managed to enter schooling beyond the first cycle and the proportion of girls in the school population as a whole. Here the whole issue of girls' access to education and of female pupils' drop out or wastage loomed behind this proportion with its implication for equality and equity in educational policy in the country. These are interesting aspects but they are beyond the scope of this study.

On the other hand 42% of respondents were over 20 years old. They were at least four years older than the normal age group expected at that stage of the educational cursus. This reflected the proportion of different age groups in most classes of secondary education, indicating that classes were classes of mixed age groups with all its implications for pedagogy and individual differences in learning styles. This state of affairs could be attributed mainly to the high rate of class repetition and late schooling for a substantial number of pupils.

80% of pupils were in science option. This also reflected the actual proportion of science option pupils in the overall school population in the country. This was the result of the deliberate decision of the government in the wake of the Educational reform to orientate the majority of pupils towards science and technology (see Chapter One).

8-3-1-2 Tests and examinations

8-3-1-2-1 Sources, influences and description

The main test given to the pupils before and after the project was taken from the pupils' textbook to be used that year throughout secondary education. It consisted of a cloze test and a completion exercise focussed on accuracy. This
choice was considered judicious as the main issue was to know whether or not pupils in classes where teachers were using the book for a more communicative teaching could do as well as those who were not on traditional accuracy and reading comprehension focussed tests.

It was assumed that it had a high content validity as it was taken from the textbook in use. In addition, cloze tests are generally considered as fairly acceptable tests of general English proficiency and of reading comprehension in particular (see Villeneuve's, 1983 doctoral thesis). The format of the test also allowed for quick and fairly objective and reliable marking.

The other tests whose marks were considered in the analysis were tests developed by teachers themselves for continuous assessment and the national B.E.P.C examination tests as described earlier (see this chapter subsection 8-2-3-2). They were quite similar to the test taken from the textbook except that they had an essay component and no cloze text (see sample tests in the appendix No 9 to this chapter).

The main limitation of the use of scores from these tests to evaluate pupils' progress in relation to the experiment was that none of them were directed at oral production or reception which counted as one of the main advantages and evidence of a successful language learning through pair/group work. But they were considered appropriate for showing whether or not a more communicative approach to teaching could help pupils to cope with traditional accuracy focussed form of language proficiency assessment at least as well as a more conventional structural approach. In other words the main underlying concern was to see whether or not the communicative approach would improve or worsen pupils' language learning as traditionally measured in the Beninese educational system.
In addition to these tests the qualitative evaluation of the project by pupils themselves may help to make up for this limitation.

8-3-1-2-2  

Piloting and administration

The tests were not formally piloted as they were not constructed by the writer. They were assumed to be part of the natural process of the teachers' classroom practices. Besides they were to serve as indicators and not as a measure of the success of the project. It was expected that the use of multiple pre-experiment tests scores and multiple post-experiment tests scores would help increase the credibility of the tests scores as indicators of genuine progress as indicated earlier.

Altogether more than four hundred pupils participated in the project. But only a sample of 141 pupils (100 experimental pupils and 41 control pupils), which made about 35% of the participants who took both pre-test marks and post-test marks, were considered for the analysis.

The pretest were administered in November 1987 to all participants in the course of the first class visits by the training team at the beginning of the INSET project. Data on all other test scores could not be obtained for every one of them. However the repartition of scores obtained by tests and examinations were considered as generally representative and satisfactory for statistical analysis (see table 15 overleaf).

Attention should, however, be drawn to the fact that the 1988 examination marks were available for only 58 pupils, which made less than 15% of all participants in in the project but just under 50% of the sample selected for the analysis.
The restricted number of data collected for this variable calls for caution in its use for the analysis and interpretation of results. There might be some doubts about how far this population could be statistically considered as the same population as those of the other tests scores. It should be noted that the examination marks in general were used merely as supplementary check on the validity of the tests results because examinations, in spite of serious reservations about their validity as improvement measures, continue to be the main form for the lay person and educational authorities to judge the progress of pupils and of the educational system in Benin.

This restricted number of data for the year of the project was mainly attributable to the fact that this examination was normally taken the year preceding entry into this form.
But the inefficiency of the system or of the examination itself was such that about half of the total number of pupils in the first form of the second cycle had to take this end of first cycle examination again. It was therefore thought appropriate to take the results of this examination as a possible supplementary confirming evidence of improvement related to participation in the project.

8-3-1-3 Interviews, discussions, research seminars and paper presentations

8-3-1-3-1 Sources, influences and description

One fairly formally conducted and transcribed semi-structured interview (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No. 13) took place at the beginning of the study with the aim of discussing some of the issues raised in the literature on in-service training with practitioners and of understanding how they were dealt with in the context of England and Wales. Most other interviews took the form of open discussions with officials and specialists (see Appendix to chapter 8 No 16 presenting feedback and summary letters to interlocutors).

The decision to engage in these discussions as well as seminar presentations and paper presentations at various conferences related to language and language teaching was particularly influenced by the initiation and encouragement of the researcher's tutor and the research seminars' coordinators in the ESOL department. They were also considered appropriate for the generative approach adopted for the research, based on action research techniques with contribution from naturalistic inquiry as described earlier.

8-3-1-3-2 Piloting and administration
As the study was not designed to use interviews as the main data collection instrument there had not been any formal piloting of the interviews given.

These interviews and discussions followed the basic principles of interviewing (Burgess, 1985; Leedy, 1980; Kerlinger, 1986). But efforts were made to make them as informal as possible. Tape recording was used in only one case. All in all the researcher interviewed seven specialists and held informal discussions with over twenty educational authorities in Benin. He also gave some five research seminars on various aspects of his study, presented three papers at conferences from which he received valuable information, opinions and suggestions.

8-3-1-4 Classroom observation guides

Two instruments were used for the appraisal of teachers' performances: the 'teacher performance appraisal guide' used by teachers themselves for self evaluation and by trainers and inspectors as observers; and the student questionnaire for the evaluation of their teachers' lesson titled 'student evaluation form. (see Appendices to chapter 8 No 4a and b)

8-3-1-4-1 Sources and influences

8-3-1-4-1-1 The teacher performance appraisal guide

The format of the teacher performance appraisal guide was adapted from Phillips & Jones's (1984) 'Content Outline for the Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments' with the use of main teaching skills as high inference categories and indicators of those skills by more specific concrete teaching acts as fairly low inference categories. Although
some of the categories used were slightly reformulated versions of Phillips & Jones's categories (e.g., part A, dealing with general teaching skills,) most of them, and particularly their indicators, were thoroughly adapted to the particular context of the project as related to the teaching of English (mainly part B concerned with EFL specific and communicative language teaching).

Other important influences on the selection of categories were the researcher's experimental study of microteaching as a competency based approach to teacher preparation (Akohn, 1985) and humanistic education orientation to the teaching of English mainly through the work of Moskowitz (1978) and Stevick (1980) and the main principles of humanistic psychology stated by Carl Rogers (see Underhill, 1989). Besides the characteristics of communicative classes as described by various authors (Savignon, 1980; Breen, 1982; Maley, 1985; Dubin & Olshtain, 1986) mainly influenced part B of the instrument. The researcher did not use ready made instruments such as FLINT (Moskowitz, 1976) or COLT (Allen & Spada, 1984) simply because they were considered too complex for the context and demanded skills which time constraints could not allow the observers to learn and master at the appropriate level of competency for the circumstances. The instrument designed aimed at serving only as a more systematic guide to the usual impressionistic assessment by inspectors.

The guide also included a supplementary instrument titled Pair/Group Work Practice and Assessment Guide with the twin aim of helping experimental teachers bear in mind the various steps involved in setting up, monitoring and evaluating pair and group work, and using the evaluation to initiate new activities (change of focus), and on the other hand giving observers some guidelines in assessing pair group work from the point of view of what teachers were
supposed to do. The original instrument was elaborated by the researcher's tutor and colleagues at the Institute of Education University of London for use by trainee teacher trainers during the out of country teaching practice of PGCE and diploma EFL students in the early 1980s. But it was readapted with more specific instructions for its use.

8-3-1-4-1-2 The student evaluation form

The student evaluation form was a simplified version of the main categories of the teacher appraisal guide except those having to do with teachers' competence in subject matter. It consisted in direct yes/no type questions with which pupils had to give their degree of agreement on a five point scale. It was mainly an improved version of the instrument used by the researcher during his research on microteaching referred to above.

8-3-1-4-2 Description

8-3-1-4-2-1 The teacher performance appraisal guide

The teacher appraisal guide comprised three main parts. Part A, Part B and the supplementary guide for pair/group work. Part A was concerned with assessing teachers' general teaching skills and contained 11 categories: planning, awareness of and provisions for individual differences, feedback, appropriateness of methods and techniques, communication, encouragement, subject matter mastery, organisation (resources management), personal enthusiasm, promotion of positive self-concept and rapport, interaction management (control and discipline). Part B was focussed on EFL specific and communicative language teaching skills. It contained 3 main categories: use of information gap and variety of activities to generate real communication
(integration of pair/group work), variety of interaction patterns (groupings) and teacher's use of target language.

The supplementary guide for the assessment of pair/group work delineated 12 main aspects or steps to be considered in assessing pair/group work: specification of language target, specification of whether the activity was to be done through pair work or through group work, teacher explanation, teacher model, teacher-student demonstration, duration of this demonstration, number of repetition of the demonstration if any, teacher sample (number of pairs or groups the teacher closely monitored during the execution of the task(s) given, public check during which some pairs or groups were called upon to present the work done to the whole class, duration of this check, its repetition if any, change of focus where the evaluation of the previous step of public check served as a stepping stone to embark upon more specific language or comprehension work as direct teaching or new assignments. Observers were also required to give their appreciation of each component as well as their overall appreciation in a 4 point rating scale and to make comments and recommendations. They were also to give an overall mark out of twenty for the use of pair/group work during the lesson.

8-3-1-4-2-2 The student evaluation form

The student evaluation form consisted of 20 questions. Questions 1 to 19 were closed questions. They were related to the main categories of the teacher performance appraisal guide, namely, planning, communication, encouragement of pupil involvement, handling of errors, promotion of positive self concept, interaction management, integration of pair/group work, monitoring of language use. Pupils were to say their degree of agreement with a positive answer to them on a 5 point scale.
Question 20 was an open question. It aimed to elicit pupils' likes, dislikes and suggestions on the lesson. It also asked them to formulate any questions they would have liked to have seen in the questionnaire.

8-3-1-4-3 Piloting and administration

The draft of the two instruments were discussed by trainers and inspectors involved in the project, not only for a clear understanding of what was expected of them but also to harmonise views on the validity of the items included and their appropriateness for the experiment. They were considered as very useful and only minor corrections having to do with form or the use of some words were recommended. The final version represented the result of these discussions. However time limits and the practical difficulties of trying out the instruments on teachers who had hardly started teaching in their classes made formal piloting impossible. The main limitation noted post facto was that the instrument did not have any clear category for the smooth ending of lessons with specification of home work/end or focus of the lesson to come.

Although these discussions helped observers to understand what was expected of them it should be acknowledged that time constraints did not allow for sufficient practical training.

Teachers and pupils were even worse off than observers as the instruments were given to them and discussed with them only on the day of the observation, a few hours before the class to be observed. This insufficient training needs to be borne in mind in interpreting the results. It remains however that the oral discussion of the instruments with teachers and observers helped them have a reasonable
understanding of what was expected of them and how to do it even if they lacked practice for more reliable use.

They were expected to fill out the guides as soon as the class was over using their personal notes without neglecting the rest of the lesson. In practice however it did not always work according to plan. Some trainers and teachers returned them hours later.

Each lesson was observed by at least two observers in addition to the teachers' own observation and their pupils' appreciation.

8-3-2 Evaluation

A multi-method approach was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the project using both quantitative and qualitative data from pupils, from teachers and from trainers/observers. It was hoped that such triangulation of information would give a more holistic view of the strengths and weaknesses of the project.

As a whole the design as described contained weaknesses, most of which could be attributed to the field research nature of the study. It is however believed that it gained in relevance what it lacked in rigour. It served as a flexible map to guide reflection in action to transform the reality of curriculum implementation in Benin as shown by the findings which will be reported in the next chapter.
CHAPTER NINE: FINDINGS

9-1 Teachers' perceptions of their training and of current provisions for INSET: the survey questionnaire

9-1-1 Pre-service Training: perceptions on content, methodology and organisation

Teachers who received a pre-service training were asked to report on the content and methods of the course.

9-1-1-1 Content

The following table sums up teachers' ranking of the main content areas of their course.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>mentioned first</th>
<th>mentioned second</th>
<th>valid cases</th>
<th>others</th>
<th>total cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>literature</td>
<td>12 80 00 00</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language and linguistics</td>
<td>8 53 3 20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>general culture</td>
<td>3 20 4 27</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 professional

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>mentioned first</th>
<th>mentioned second</th>
<th>valid cases</th>
<th>others</th>
<th>total cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>theory of Education</td>
<td>11 73 2 13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching practice</td>
<td>3 20 9 60</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>microteaching</td>
<td>4 27 1 7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Teachers' perception of the main content areas of their pre-service course

The table showed that most teachers considered that priority was given to the academic components of their preservice training with literature having the top priority. Literature here is defined as the in-depth study of American, English and African literatures in English and not the methodology of literature teaching or the review of books in use in secondary schools. The professional aspect was secondary with theory of education and methodology at the top of the
subjects under that component. The practical content (teaching practice and microteaching) came last.

9-1-1-2 Methodology

The table below presents teachers' ranking of the methods of their pre-service course.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Mentioned first</th>
<th>Mentioned second</th>
<th>Valid cases, others</th>
<th>Total cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecture</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading assignment</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology (file, video)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model lessons from trainer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching practice</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case observation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essays on methodology</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14, 15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: Teachers' perception of the methods of their pre-service training.

Most teachers cited lectures as the most used method for the delivery of the course followed by reading assignment. This seemed consistent with their perception of the main content of the training as biased towards academic knowledge and theoretical understanding of Education and Methodology.

9-1-1-3 Satisfaction

Most respondents (60%) reported that they were mainly satisfied with the theoretical and academic components of the pre-service course. They considered that literature and language studies contributed to their understanding of English speaking people and to the improvement of their own English. But only 20% were satisfied with the professional component. 40% of respondents were, however, fairly
satisfied with the course in general because it contributed, in their opinion, to their self confidence and skills in classroom practice.

9-1-1-4 Dissatisfaction

The majority of respondents (60%) expressed some degree of dissatisfaction with their initial training. The reasons given for this were as follows in descending frequency of citations:
- a/ lecture too theoretical and boring (8);
- b/ insufficiency of linguistics (3);
- c/ lack of resources (3);
- d/ inadequacy of the practical component (3);
- e/ inadequate organisation and coordination (3);
- f/ insufficient general culture (2);
- g/ insufficient methodology (1).

9-1-1-5 General comments

Teachers were asked to make any other comments in addition to those prompted by the questions. The following opinions, listed in descending frequency of first citations were voiced by respondents:
- a/ need for lecturers specialised in TEFL (3);
- b/ inadequacy of the training programme in general and the overall 'bookish' nature of the training (2);
- c/ need for a more practical pre-service training (1);
- d/ dissatisfaction with the allocation of out of country training opportunity between junior and senior teachers with the latter being seen as 'eternal exclusive candidates for tourism abroad' (1).

9-1-1-6 Discussion
Allowing for the fact that almost all teachers had no other experience of teacher training than the one they received in Benin, and had therefore no way of comparing and expressing more informed views it appeared that these perceptions on the content, methodology and organisation of the pre-service training at the Ecole Normale Supérieure were consistent with the analysis of the documentary evidence about this training in Chapter One. They confirmed that this pre-service training seemed more concerned with imparting academic knowledge to complete would-be teachers' general education in English and literature than helping them develop their professional competence. It was more geared towards theory than practice. As one of the respondents put it: "it was an overall bookish training, with an inadequate balance between theory and practice".

They also reflected a general tendency of language teacher training, as shown by Freudeinstein's (1987) survey of aspects of foreign language teacher training in 58 countries commissioned by UNESCO. Freudeinstein found that

initial training for modern language teachers is still very philologically oriented [and] dominated by three main areas of study which are considered to be essential in teacher training programmes: linguistics, literature and culture. They mainly account for the length of the training time, for the concentration on theory and for the neglect of methodology, classroom activities and learner centredness.

(Freudeinstein, 1987: 12)

9-1-2 In-service Education and Training of Teachers:
Perceptions on existing practice and suggestions for improvement

9-1-2-1 Reasons for INSET

The following reasons, listed in descending frequency of first citations were given as reasons for INSET.
a) Improving professional competence (21)
b) Understanding and implementing the new ELT programme (21)
c) Improving teachers' own language competence (17)
d) Participating in curriculum development (15)
e) Upgrading academic qualification for more salary (15)
f) Upgrading qualification for promotion and salary (13)
g) Getting away from classroom teaching (8)
h) Sharing experience with others (7)

The list shows that teachers placed improvement of their professional competence before reasons having to do with upgrading qualifications for promotion and for higher salaries.

9-1-2-2 Participation in INSET.

While only 3 respondents, who were all teacher trainers, reported that they had received a further training of between 15 days and three years inside or outside Benin, all the other respondents (22) had only attended one or two in-service training seminars of one or two days' duration a year since they had started teaching.

9-1-2-3 Content and method of INSET seminars

The main activities during these seminars were in descending frequency of citations:
a) Practical activities: 'model' class followed up with critique and discussions (20).
b) Theory on methodology: how to structure lessons, exercise types for grammar consolidation, how to conduct an 'exposé', how to write a guided commentary (15).
c) Presentation of a new ELT curriculum and programme: new novels or textbooks, selection of grammatical structures to be taught, lesson plans ('fiches'), scheme of work for the year ('repartition') (12).
d) Teachers' own English improvement: straightforward
presentation of a grammar point (e.g. reported speech) or ad hoc correction of teachers' faulty use of language (grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation) (9).

The methods used for these activities consisted mainly of class observation and critique, workshops to write lesson plans on textbooks or novels, and lectures to present a new curriculum or a language point. Unlike pre-service training, emphasis was more on practice both in content and methodology than on theory.

9-1-2-4 Satisfaction

Opinions appeared to be divided on the question of how satisfactory those seminars were. Although 32% of teachers expressed their satisfaction, the rest expressed some degree of dissatisfaction or refused to answer, which could be taken as an expression of some form of reservation.

9-1-2-5 Dissatisfaction

Most teachers appeared to be even more dissatisfied with their in-service experience than with their pre-service training. They were also dissatisfied with the services provided by existing in-service training structures. Indeed only 16% reported that they were satisfied.

Discontent stemmed from reasons mainly related to the following, listed in descending frequency of citations:

a) Lack of material and financial support to these institutions and to schools for INSET, and overreliance on foreign aid (9).

b) Poor organisation and political interference (7).

c) Inadequate climate of work with victimisation of junior teachers sarcastically criticised for giving poor 'model' lessons which senior teachers would not give and lack of
incentives for genuine participation (6).

d)- Lack of competent trainers specialised in TEFL methodology (6)

e)- Overcentralisation and lack of consultation with teachers (5)

9-1-2-6 Suggestions for improvement.

Teachers suggested actions for improvement as indicated in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestions</th>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>times cited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Priority to education and clear policy of investment and material and</td>
<td>nation</td>
<td>provin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>financial support,</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Regularity of seminars</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Necessity for teachers to be serious about their professional development</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and take responsibility for it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Training of trainers</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Provisions of teaching materials to teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Encouragement for teachers' initiative to innovate in their classrooms</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Incentives for teachers to participate</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Enhancing of teachers' prestige and revaluing of the teaching profession</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Stopping of political interference</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) Solidarity between junior and senior teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) Effective decentralisation of inservice institutions and their services</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) The right man at the right place and appointment of a coordinator for</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the implementation of the new curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) Need for curriculum research before and in the wake of curriculum change</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) Association of experienced teachers with the organisation of INSET seminars</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) Follow INSET up with observation or inspection in the classrooms</td>
<td></td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Symbols: a tick '/' indicates the level of decision and a 'x' indicates that decision for action did not depend on that level.

Table 18: Teachers' suggestions for the improvement of INSET provisions
Participation in a teacher self development programme

The tendency to stress the need for individual responsibility for professional development, noted above, was confirmed by the fact that most teachers (22 out of 25) reported that they were prepared to take part in a teacher self development programme. The success of such a programme would, in respondents' opinion, depend on the following conditions listed in descending frequency of first citations:

- Organisation of teachers' associations (7);
- Careful planning and good organisation (6);
- Production by teachers and/or provisions of pedagogic documents and other teaching/learning materials (5);
- Reduced teaching load (5);
- Teachers' personal financial contribution (4);
- Relevance of programme to daily problems of teaching (3).

To evaluate the success of such a programme teachers suggested the following approaches listed by descending frequency of first citations.

- Pupils' proficiency in English (9);
- Increased teacher confidence (6);
- Pupils' increased interest in English and English speaking people (5);
- Annual evaluation organised by teachers themselves (5);
- Peer class observation and feedback discussion (2);
- Pupil evaluation of teacher performance (2);
- Classroom research with limited experimental group (2).

Relation between pre-service and in-service

Most respondents (13) considered in-service training as more important than pre-service training. But some (8) thought the opposite. However in spite of this relative divergence only 2 teachers saw them as two separate things while 23 considered them as two related aspects of the same thing.
To reinforce this relationship for a more effectively integrated teacher education the following suggestions listed by descending frequency of first citations were made by respondents.

- Long term integrated programme (20);
- Increased cooperation between pre-service and in-service institutions (18);
- Yearly planned INSET programme for new teachers (17);
- Periodical recycling of all practising teachers (17);
- Programme of permanent education for all teachers (16);
- Clear profile of the teacher needed for the educational system (12);
- Shorter pre-service training (2);
- Priority to untrained teachers in the process of integration (2).

9-1-2-9 Conditions for success of the reinforcement of this relationship

The following conditions listed by descending frequency of citations were considered necessary for the success of such an integration in addition to the need for material and financial support mentioned by all respondents:

a) A sincere cooperation between concerned educational authorities (8);

b) Motivation and willingness of trainers and trainees to participate (5);

c) International cooperation (2);

d) Long term planning (2).

9-1-2-10 Discussion

This survey showed that the majority of teachers valued improvement as professionals over strictly personal gains. In Hoyle's (1974) terms, they valued professionalism over professionalism. Some teachers however saw in-service as a good break from teaching.
Another point worth making was that teachers' own language improvement, although in a high position among the reasons cited for INSET, came third after competence in professional skills and new curriculum implementation. This result, although not contradicting the essence of Berry's (1990) study in Poland was somewhat at variance with his findings that teachers in Poland ranked language improvement on top of their priority list of needs for INSET. (see Berry, 1990: 99).

Two explanations might be suggested for the present finding. First, most teachers questioned in this study, although admittedly insecure about English, did not consider this as important as the practical skills of classroom practice, particularly in the context of the new curriculum they had to implement. Second, most teachers were quite sensitive about their own competence in English as that was the minimum common sense justification for their being in the profession. This might make it difficult for them to admit that their language difficulties were so important as to deserve priority in in-service training.

The findings relating to teachers' satisfaction/dissatisfaction with their INSET experience and existing provisions also confirmed the opinion expressed in Chapter Two that in-service was a fairly neglected component of teacher education. Suggestions for improvement from teachers expressed the need for commitment on the part of the national and regional institutions to promote INSET as well as on the part of individual teachers to take responsibility for their own professional development.

So the survey showed that there was a lot of room for improvement. The INSET project attempted to respond to this need.
This section aims to show how the experimental INSET was implemented in practice as a generative process. It is mainly a narrative of how the different components of the course worked.

9-2-1 Linking theory to practice: the residential course, classroom practice, on-line support and formative evaluation in schools.

9-2-1-1 The residential seminars and the formative evaluation in schools

The first residential seminar held in November 1987 addressed three main issues:
- understanding the basics of the communicative methodology underlying some of the language activities in the adopted textbook. This was placed in the context of and by contrast with other approaches to language teaching and the theoretical underpinning of current practices of language teaching in the country with special reference to reading and testing;
- Teachers' and learners' language improvement for real communication in the classroom. This was focussed on the practice of classroom language drawing on Jane Willis's (1981) *Teaching English through English* and teachers' own repertoire of classroom expressions.
- Discussion of a general interest topic concerned with general educational issues. It aimed to develop a better understanding of participants' roles as teachers of a foreign language in a world where education for international understanding, peace and human rights was a major issue.
The methods used for the seminar were predominantly interactive and participative. There were formal and informal discussions of issues, workshops, and micro-teaching. Topics on the programme were treated through short practical warm up activities intended to make teachers experience the skill or notion to be dealt with. These were followed by, explanatory lectures and discussions, practical workshops using the introductory notes to think about and execute concrete tasks related to the teaching of the new textbook, microteaching and feedback.

The first microteaching was tried with trainees teaching their peers. But it was criticised for its artificiality and all subsequent microteachings were done with small groups of real pupils in two schools near the Ecole Normale Supérieure in Porto-Novo where the course was taking place.

The only exception to the procedure described above occurred with the general educational topic introduced by a specialist in the faculty of Law, Politics and Economics as a public lecture in French followed by open ended discussion.

Teachers went back to their schools and tried out some of the ideas discussed and practised at the seminar, with their own students in their normal classes. They were encouraged to visit each other at work on the basis of proximity of schools to see how the ideas were working. The researcher himself and the training team visited everybody in their classes and discussed their lessons with them after their classes. Their school based INSET work was also discussed (see subsection 9-2-2). From these discussions the main points to be taken up at the following seminar were agreed upon.
The second residential seminar took place during the Bank Holiday in February 1988. The main issue of that seminar was the teaching of English through notions and functions, related, not only to communicative methodology and its relevance to Benin with special reference to pair/group work, lesson planning, classroom management, teacher reaction and questioning techniques but mainly to the teaching of specific aspects of English such as vocabulary and writing and to specific teaching skills such as writing.

The general culture topic was on the roles of foreign languages and of national languages in the dynamics of socio-economic and cultural development in Benin and implications for the training of foreign language teachers. It was, as at the first seminar, introduced through a public lecture in French by a specialist in the Faculty of Arts, Department of Sociology and member of the National Commission for Applied Linguistics. It was planned that this lecture would be followed up by a visit to the centre for literacy in national languages in the city (Porto-Novo) but time constraint prevented this.

The other topics, were however, dealt with in the same way as in the first seminar through a multi method and multi-media approach. The innovation was that teachers spent some time exchanging experiences, discussing among themselves, in groups, various aspects of their attempts to implement previous ideas, assessing success and failures, and writing down their 'conclusions' and suggestions. A plenary session attended by the present writer took place after the group discussions.

Many points were raised by teachers. The following ones seemed particularly relevant to the main focus of the INSET project: Do we allow pupils to form their own groups? Do we group them or pair them ourselves, using various techniques
as done at the seminar? Do we put strong pupils with strong pupils, weak pupils with weak pupils, or do we put weak and strong pupils together? Do we keep the groups permanent or do we change them at every lesson or even at every other activity in the lesson? Do we give them the same or different tasks? Do we assign roles to each member of the group or do we let them get on with it on their own as they wish? How do we deal with people speaking their native language or French during the work? How to deal with strong pupils dominating groups? When we are monitoring the groups do we only explain for the group who asked for help or do we take the opportunity to explain the point raised by this group to the whole class?

These points were discussed and teachers as well as trainers made suggestions in the light of their experiences and background knowledge. There was general agreement that pair/group work was very useful both as language teaching technique and classroom management technique. It was recommended that these suggestions should be adopted and adapted by participants' classrooms. (see summary points handed to researcher in the appendix to Chapter 9 No 1)

With explanations, demonstration and practice pair and group work, even in large classrooms, could become routine. Teachers demonstrated that, although they used the group formation as a learning experience in its own right, it never became the focus of the lesson. But they were very imaginative in finding ways of making sure that it was fully exploited for real communication as noted by the researcher during the first series of school visits but mainly during the second series.

The researcher attended classes where the teacher formed the students into groups by asking them to find out where each one lived and to pair themselves according to likes and
dislikes in each other's districts. Another teacher passed out slips of paper with portions of sentences and pupils were to find those who had portions of the same sentence and to form a group with them. He saw teachers mixing names of domestic animals and wild animals with those of domestic birds and wild birds and asking pupils to find those who had on their papers names of the same kind of animals or birds and form groups with them. A less time consuming variant of this was presented in another school where the class was really large (more than 40 pupils in 4 long rows). Two sets of papers with animals and birds or other objects sharing some characteristics (cereals, tubers (yam, cassava sweet potato), vegetables, tools used by specific workers (joiners, mechanics, electricians) were given out, a set for two adjacent rows. The group forming took place between two adjacent rows. This was improved on when at the seminar it was suggested that the rows did not have to be adjacent as the same results could be achieved just by giving out the papers to any two rows and to ask members to look for their partners in the row in front or behind.

Another technique for large classes that was observed started from pair work where pupils on the same bench worked together. Then group work followed building on the work done in pairs. Pupils turned to face those behind them, or in front of them, or on the right, or on the left, following the teacher's instruction. This involved less table moving but ran the risk of reducing possibilities of new combinations in the class if it were used for more than two weeks. These ideas and techniques were tried out by the researcher in his own classes, not included in the project and were shared with experimental teachers during the school visits.

Teachers' creativity was noted in other aspects of the implementation of the new course such as silent reading with
imaginative pre-reading exercises and the treatment of cloze
texts and vocabulary teaching as well. (see sample lesson
plans of real classes given at the end of the INSET project
in relation to above discussion in the appendix to Chapter 9
No.1) They appeared to develop a self-confidence and an
enthusiasm for the INSET project, together with a gradual
and increasing interest and skill in self-management and
self evaluation during feedback sessions. (see sample
transcripts of feedback sessions in the Appendix to Chapter
9 No.2). These proved instrumental for the success of
subsequent residential seminars. Two instances might be in
order to reinforce this point.

On the afternoon of the second residential course held in
February 1988, the researcher had been expected to introduce
course participants to the headmaster and class teacher in
the school where a microteaching session was to take place.
As was the case at the first residential seminar he had also
been expected to time and monitor the microteaching. But he
was held up in town. When he finally arrived a quarter of an
hour later, nobody was at the college where the seminar was
taking place. He rushed to the school and saw teachers
already in the middle of the microteaching of the first
group, in the presence of an unexpected visitor, Mr Chris
Hickey, the regional director of the British Council/O.D.A
English teaching projects in "French speaking" West Africa
who had arrived from the Ivory Coast for an official visit
to Benin. He had heard about the seminar and decided to see
the project in action himself. He later said that he was
very impressed, not only by the innovative teaching approach
being tried out, but also by the way the course was
organised with teachers taking responsibility for its
management.

The second instance occurred at the third residential
seminar held in June 1988. This seminar was mainly focussed
on the evaluation of the experimental INSET as a whole. Both experimental and control group teachers attended. One pupil representative from each province as well as central and provincial educational authorities were also invited. Four main activities were planned: review for control teachers of the content of the first two residential seminars, talks on two general interest topics, display lessons completion of an evaluation questionnaire.

The incident in point occurred in relation to the display lesson which aimed to show educational authorities and control teachers the achievement of the INSET project at the official closing ceremony.

The training team was to help teachers plan and organise these lessons. But an international football match was scheduled for broadcast on national television on the evening of the lesson preparation. This was a rare event in the country and the training team wanted to watch it. They asked teachers to postpone the lesson preparation until the following morning which was the very day of the closing ceremony. The teachers refused and worked together the whole evening on two lessons of their choice instead of the one lesson suggested by the training team. Meanwhile trainers were watching T.V and the researcher was busy preparing a report on the project with the course leader and some pupils for the closing ceremony. (see teachers' group leader's report in the appendix to Chapter 9 No 3)

The following day the teachers presented the two 'display' classes with pupils from one of the experimental schools. This was highly appreciated by everybody including, the educational authorities and the English Language Teaching Officer in particular. Statements to this effect were made at the feedback session which followed the presentation. Unfortunately the video recording of this closing ceremony
was lost when the ELT officer, who wished to study the recorded lessons took the tape to Brazil on holiday where it was lost.

The other activities of this third seminar concerned the review of the previous two seminars, the presentation of two general interest topics and the completion of an evaluation questionnaire.

The review was focused on some of the main topics covered in the other seminars for the benefit of control group teachers with special reference to the use of dialogues, games, and role play in language teaching, and working with reading comprehension texts.

The delivery modes of these topics were similar to the previous ones except that there was no microteaching but real class teaching for the display lessons.

Two general interest topics were also discussed: the first one aimed at familiarising participants with the British Council/ODA project in Benin and how it related to EFL teachers' professional development. It was given in English by the director of the project who was English.

The second general interest topic presentation took place in the Teacher Documentation Centre near the Ecole Normale Intégrée in Lokossa where the seminar was taking place. It aimed to raise participants' awareness of the need for permanent professional development to ensure continued life and vitality after the course. It consisted of a presentation in French by the Director of the Centre on Teacher documentation with special reference to the centre's activities and opportunities related to the Central National Documentation Centre in Porto-Novo.
Before leaving this report on the residential seminars and formative evaluations a few words are in order in relation to pupils reactions to the innovations introduced into their classes.

Pupils used English as often as they felt confident only resorting to French or an African language when absolutely necessary for example, when they were unsure of instructions in English. Confidence developed in pupils to use English through the year of the project, particularly in the formation of groups. They also developed new study skills such as the use of the dictionary in class instead of asking the meanings of words from the teacher. Dictionaries were before then barely tolerated in class aggravating the dependence of pupils on teachers.

This change in pupils' approach to learning was noted during the final class observations at the end of the project. An instance of this related to the use of the dictionary. A student requested permission to use a dictionary, in the middle of a lesson, during the silent reading exercise. (See Appendix to Chapter 9 No 4) presenting extracts of video recording of microteaching and last real lesson observations, particularly part two, real class observation extract seven). Such a request, in the presence of inspectors would have been normally considered as evidence that the teacher had not made an effective presentation of vocabulary and could have been professionally damaging for him. The observers, however, accepted this as an example of successful learner training. But the fact that the student had felt the need to ask permission showed the problems of transition from tradition to innovation. There was still the old fear subconsciously coming in the way of pupils' initiatives.
On-line support with special reference to the post class observation conference

Objectives

It needs to be recalled that the thrust of the on-line support consisted in the classroom observations followed up by feedback sessions (post class observation conference) carried out by the training team with both experimental and control group teachers. It was stated in chapter 8 sub-section 8-2-2-5-1-6 and 8-2-2-5-1-9 that the feedback sessions in control group teachers' classes differed from those in experimental group teachers' classes only in that there were no discussions of school based INSET tasks and no exchange of teaching ideas from other schools. Discussions were also exclusively focussed on the class observed as in conventional supervision and inspection. But in both cases there was no prescription of a "best way" and teachers were free to comment on, agree or disagree with trainers' and other observers' suggestions and to suggest their own alternatives, which, in Benin, was not the case for conventional supervision and inspection. In addition these conferences did not concentrate on observers' assessing the observed teachers' performances in terms of "good" and "bad" teaching but on giving them opportunities to reflect on their teaching and to consider alternatives ways of approaching their practice.

The preceding sub-section focussed on the residential seminars and the on-line support in schools with special reference to the generation of ideas by experimental group teachers. The next will discuss the school based INSET tasks. These two sub-sections thus constitute the report of the main differences in the ways in which the supervision of the two groups was carried out.
The present sub-section presents the on-line support in schools and at residential seminars with special reference to the feedback conferences following classroom observations and microteaching sessions. Its main interest does not lie in the difference in the feedback approaches used with each group as these differ only in degree and not in kind as explained above. The discussion rather aimed to examine, through a more systematic analysis of a sample of feedback conference transcripts the extent to which these post classroom observation conferences reflected the theoretical stand on adult learning and education with special reference to in-service supervisory behaviours and action research adopted in the present study and stated in earlier chapters (Chapter 4 sub-sections 4-1-1, 4-1-2 and 4-3-5; and Chapter 7 sub-sections 7-2-1, 7-2-3 and 7-2-4). On the basis of the findings the problem of match and mismatch between espoused theories and theory in use (Schön & Argyris 1974) will be discussed. It will be discussed with special reference to teachers' readiness and improved ability to take responsibility for the creative supervision approach based on collaborative generation of alternatives by teachers and trainers for improved teaching and professional development adopted in the study.

9-2-1-2-2 Methodology

9-2-1-2-2-1 Conceptual framework

If there is one concept that most accurately expresses the theoretical stand underlying the positions adopted in this study as regards views of teacher learning and education with reference to supervisory behaviours and action research, that concept can perhaps be that of non alienated communication as discussed in this study in Chapter 7 subsection 7-2-1.
Ideally it presumes an effective equality of chances to assume dialogue roles. In this regard it is consistent with Beatty's (1977) perception of a "dialogic communication" characterized by preference for asking rather than telling, sharing rather than controlling, trusting rather than mistrusting which he opposes to monologic communication characterized by a desire to exercise power, persuasion for personal gain and a desire to shape other people's images sometimes against their will.

Participants in such a dialogic communication have in principle the same chance to initiate discourse, put forward, call into question and give reasons for or against statements, interpretations and justifications, express attitudes, feelings and intentions. It is grounded in Habermas's (1981) distinction between strategic rationality and communicative rationality. As summarized by Wildermeersch (1989), while strategic rationality is "governed by the capacity of people to develop and apply means-to-end schemes, in order to achieve predetermined goals" (Wildermeersch op. cit: 66), strategic rationality is an interactive process based, as said earlier, on the capacity of people to communicate or to question the validity of each other's arguments. But these two rationalities are not considered as diametrically opposed to each other in this study. Their apparent opposition is transcended in what Brookfield (1985, 1986) calls "transactional dialogue" where the tensions between trainer/facilitator/"expert" and teacher/learner/practitioner, between directiveness and non directiveness are resolved in a reciprocal application of what has been called a "model II theory in use" (see Argyris & Schöö, 1974 summarized in Chapter 4 sub-section 4-1-1 of the present study).
As explained by Brookfield (1986) if teacher learning is conceived of as a transactional encounter then the sole responsibility for determining curricula or for selecting appropriate methods does not rest either with the educator or with the participants. If the first obtains then we have an authoritarian style and a one way transmission of knowledge and skills... If the second approach prevails and curricula, methods, and evaluative criteria become determined solely by what learners say they want, then we run the risk that a service rationale will... govern what passes for education" (Brookfield, op.cit: 21).

The role of the educator/facilitator or trainer/supervisor in this approach to teacher learning is "to challenge learners with alternative ways of interpreting their experience and to present to them ideas and behaviours that cause them to examine critically their values, ways of acting, and the assumptions by which they live" (Brookfield, op.cit: 23). This view of teacher learning in the specific context of approaches to in-service supervision will require the reconciliation of directive and non directive views of supervision in a process of collaborative supervision as discussed in chapter 4 sub-section 4-3-5 whereby teachers and supervisors work as a group to generate alternatives for the improvement of teaching and professional development on the basis of a free, non alienated dialogue as presented above in a mutually supportive climate. The present discussion aims to examine how far the post observation conference evidences features of such a collaborative approach to supervision and teacher learning.

9-2-1-2-2-2 Instrumentation

9-2-1-2-2-2-1 A generative approach

Such an examination of the post class observation conference transcript is part of an exercise in textual analysis in so
far as it is concerned with describing and bringing out the essential characteristics, interpreting and revealing not immediately apparent features, and inferring meanings from the linguistic and paralinguistic means of communication in the course of those conferences. Various approaches can be used to carry out such an examination. Content analysis, analytical semantics, structuralism and hermeneutics appear to be the main ones (see Lindkvist, 1981). But in general as pointed out by the German philosopher Dilthey (1922 in Findahl & Höijer 1981) there are two ways of approaching a text, from without, through explanation within the positivistic paradigm by breaking the text up into its components parts, by quantifying them and analysing their interactions so as to reconstruct its meaning from those parts and their interactions; or from within through understanding by entering the world of the text and of its producers and consumers as a holistic manifestation of communication in a given context and bringing out the quality of the discourse using ethnographic methods within the interpretivist paradigm. Content analysis, analytical semantics and structuralism belong to a large extent to the "without" etic and positivistic paradigm. The hermeneutic tradition on the other hand has more to do with the "within" emic and interpretivist paradigm.

In line with the generative perspective on educational research adopted in the present study the apparent dichotomy between the "without" and the "within" approach will be bypassed in the present analysis through a direct dialogue with the texts. This dialogue will consist of a two step analysis within a holistic perspective based on a descriptive analysis of the main features of the conferences and on an insider interpretation of their latent content and of their contexts. This is possible because the present writer attended as a participant observer not only the samples of conferences transcribed for analysis here but all
the conferences held during the study, of which those are just an illustrative sample. Such a direct dialogue cannot be achieved through an unconditional surrender to what has been called the "tyranny of method" (Sepstrup, 1981). Although some guidelines are necessary for a fairly systematic description and a fruitful exploration of the texts to make sense of the nature of the communication which took place during the conferences a rigid adherence to "scientific" methods of text analysis should not be expected.

9-2-1-2-2-2-2 A flexible instrument

Although many instruments have been devised to study teachers' and students' classroom interactions and behaviours (see Chapter 6 of the present study) there seem to be fewer instruments and fewer studies specifically focussed on the analysis of the communication between teachers and supervisors in the course of post class observation conferences. Nance (1986) in his study of supervisor-teacher interaction could find only five instruments among which the Blumberg's (1968) system based on Flanders' Interaction Analysis categories which he used.

The problem with most of those instruments is that, in addition to the coding of decontextualised chunks of utterances into categories which are of necessity biased towards the particular aims of their authors, they require either a computer analysis or a cumbersome recording process. The present writer has found the FOCUS (Foci for Observing Communication Used in Settings) scheme devised by Fanselow (1977) and elaborated more thoroughly in 1987 in his book Breaking rules more comprehensive, more systematic and fairly adaptable to various settings of communication and needs (see Chapter 6 sub-section 6-2-2-2-3 of the present study and the appendix to Chapter 6 No 4). It can be
easily adapted for the analysis of teacher-supervisor communication during feedback sessions as a first step in making sense of that communication. However by its very systematicity and comprehensiveness its systematic use for large communication data can be very time consuming.

The present analysis will indirectly draw on some of the characteristics of communication identified in FOCUS especially the source/target, move, use and content characteristics. It will also draw on some of Bumberg's categories namely support inducing and healthy climate creation, acceptance of teachers' ideas, asking for teachers' opinions, provision of alternative ways to do things and the same categories as evidenced by the observed teacher. The insights from the categories identified by those instruments will be used in the proposed dialogue with the text. The dialogue will be guided by the following set of questions which aim to give a quantitative presentation of some aspects of the data as a rough indication of participants' involvement, and mainly to help the analysis of the data in terms of the main characteristics of collaborative supervision and effective teacher learning as discussed in Chapter 4 section 4-1-1, 4-1-1-2 and 4-3-5 and as summarised in the conceptual framework presented above in this sub-section. However the discussion will not be presented as a chronological question answer essay but as a general exploration taking account of the questions.

1- The Data: How many feedback conferences were held in all during the project? How long did they last on average? How many teachers and how many supervisors were involved

2- The sample: How many conferences have been transcribed for the present analysis? How were they selected?

3- Participants' involvement: In view of the total amount of text produced in the course of the conferences transcribed
for analysis as measured by the number of lines, how is the
text distributed among participants in terms of lines and in
terms of turns?
4- Content of conference: How is the content of the sessions
distributed between participants' own language improvement
or academic knowledge, the improvement of their pedagogical
skills and classroom practice and other areas such as
personal human relationships and behaviours towards pupils.
5- Climate: What evidence is there in the transcripts to
suggest the existence of a relaxed and supportive mutual
respect climate in the course of the feedback conference?
6- Manner of criticism of teacher's performances and of
provision of alternatives: What evidence is there in the
texts to suggest that supervisors' and other participants'
criticisms of observed teachers' classes followed a model II
behaviour or a dialogic communication as opposed to a
monologic communication as defined in the conceptual
framework above? What evidence is there to suggest that
supervisors' suggestions are presented as alternatives and
not as prescriptions to be slavishly followed?.

7 Teachers' critical reflection and responsibility for
learning: What evidence is there that teachers are
encouraged to critically reflect on their teaching, to feel
free to suggest alternatives, ask questions and to
contradict supervisor's views?

8- Joint action and reflection: what evidence is there that
teachers's suggestions and views are not ignored, are taken
up, discussed and rejected or accepted only as a result of a
joint critical evaluation?
9- Can it be said on the basis of the answers to the above
questions that the feedback conferences were characterised
by a non alienated communication conducive to effective
teacher learning?

9-2-1-2-3 Analysis
Data and sample

72 post classroom observations conferences and 12 post microteaching conferences took place during the year long project. Each one lasted one hour on average. This makes nearly 100 hours of on-line support work with teachers in their schools and at residential seminars. But due to limited resources and the decision taken by the present researcher to disturb teachers' normal class routines as little as possible during the school based on-line support a sample of only 18 conferences was recorded representing about 20% of all the 94 conferences and about 20 hours' work on 16 tapes. Of these 10 tapes covering some 12 hours' work are currently available on request. Some field notes during class observations and post observation conferences were also taken (see sample field notes in the appendix to Chapter 9 No 3).

For the present analysis 4 conferences have been transcribed: 2 for control group teachers' and 2 for experimental group teachers including one post microteaching conference. Although limited in number they are fairly representative as they include the main supervisors involved in the observations, covering the main issues frequently raised during these conferences. The main weakness of the selection is that the control group conferences were taken from the earlier stages of the project while the experimental group conferences were taken from those of the later stages. This may not be a major problem however as the main aim is to assess the gap between theory-in use and espoused theory and not the comparison of experimental and control group teachers.

Participants' involvement

The following tables represent participants' involvement in the post observation conferences as measured by lines and number of turns. A line here is defined as any amount of
talk transcribed on one line. A turn here is defined as a used opportunity to speak (see the appendix to Chapter 9 No 3 for the raw data, i.e. transcripts of the conferences.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ptc I transcript 1</th>
<th>Transcript 2</th>
<th>transcript 3</th>
<th>transcript 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lines</td>
<td>turns</td>
<td>lines</td>
<td>turns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n'bers</td>
<td>% n'bers</td>
<td>$ n'bers</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| s1 | 133 | 28 | 10 | 17,244 | 38 | 73 | 39 |
| s2 | 97 | 20 | 9 | 15, | 148 | 40 | 23 | 26 |
| s3 | 135 | 27 | 20 | 34,152 | 23 | 26 | 14,252 | 56 | 37 | 38,143 | 39 | 27 | 30 |
| s4 | 74 | 16 | 8 | 9 |
| ot1 | 49 | 10 | 6 | 10, |
| ot2 | 221 | 35 | 76 | 40 |
| ot3 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 2, |
| ot4 | 32 | 9 | 16 | 18 |
| t1 | 30 | 6 | 5 | 9, |
| t2 | 29 | 6 | 4 | 7, |
| t3 | 8 | 2 | 2 | 4, |
| t4 | 28 | 4 | 13 | 7 |
| t5 | 14, | 3 | 12 | 12, |
| t9 | 3 | 1, | 1 |
| t11 | 21 | 6 | 12, |
| t13 | 16 | 3 | 9 | 3, |
| t14 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| tm | 18 | 5 | 7 | 8 |
| tw | 28 | 7 | 17 | 18 |

| total | 484 | 100 | 59 | 100,645 | 100,189 | 100,445 | 100,97 | 100,369 | 100,90 | 100, |

| table 19: Individual participants' involvement in the post class observation conferences in terms of talk and turns. |

It appeared from the table that although individual participants' contribution varied in quantity almost all participants contributed to the discussions (20 participants out of 24 excluding the unidentified voices which could be those of the participants who were not heard on the tapes).
It can be seen from the table above that supervisors talked less in the first two transcripts (control group teachers post observation conferences) than in the last two transcripts (experimental group post observation conferences) (67% on average in the first two conferences against 75% in the last two conferences). However teachers in the last two conferences (experimental group teachers) had more turns than teachers in the first two conferences (control group teachers.) (49% in average for experimental group teachers against 44% for control group teachers). So although supervisors appeared to have spoken three times as much as experimental group teachers and only twice as much as control group teachers the turns seemed to have been more equitably distributed between experimental teachers and supervisors than between control group teachers and supervisors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>participants, lines, %, turns, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>supervisors 1382, 70, 233, 53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers 569, 30, 201, 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total 195, 100, 434, 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21: general summary table of the distribution of talk and turns between supervisors and teachers across conferences.

From the table above and its visual representation overleaf it appeared that in general supervisors spoke twice as much as teachers. However the distribution of turns between teachers and supervisors appeared fairly balanced.

9-2-1-2-3-3 Content of post observation conferences

The content of the observation conferences is divided into three categories:

- Practice, i.e. comments or questions related to learning activities and strategies for their organisation, monitoring and checking. A scanning of the recordings of the post observation conferences and field notes showed the following as the most frequently discussed areas of practice: clear understanding and specification of lesson objectives (eg.
Figure 27 Distribution of talk and turns between supervisors & teachers across conferences.

Transcript 1 page line 3, lines 34-36) dealing with vocabulary (e.g. transcript 2 page lines 18-33), dealing with writing through information transfer exercises such as flow charts (e.g. transcript 2 page lines 20-26), dealing with structures and grammar through notions and functions (e.g. Transcript 4 page lines 32-52), dealing with reading comprehension lessons, (e.g. transcript No 3 page lines 15-19), classroom interaction patterns and learner centredness with special reference to pair/group work (transcript No 1 page lines 33-39), checking pair/group work and correcting exercises (e.g. transcript No 4 page lines 24-37), use of the blackboard with special reference to checking what is on it and to pupil control and activity while the teacher is writing on the blackboard (e.g. transcript No 1 page lines 12-15), dealing with pupils' errors and mistakes (e.g. transcript No 1 page lines 16-17), teacher talk (e.g. transcript 3 page lines 16-28), practical organisations of pair/group work and related problems (e.g. transcript No 3 page lines 33-50),

Teacher language i.e. comments or questions relating to teachers' own knowledge of English. It includes remarks and comments about teachers' use of grammar (transcript No 1 page lines 1-4), teachers' or supervisors' pronunciation (e.g. transcript No 3 page lines 1-2). Closely related to teacher language were remarks and comments which seemed to imply teacher's lack of understanding of a grammatical point. But most examples noted in the transcripts were related to the way the point was taught. These remarks were classified in the "practice" category as was the case in transcript 4 page lines 32-52 referred to above.

Other i.e. comments or questions relating to procedures and management of the conference such as turn negotiations, agenda setting, attending to recording or other equipment and documents, sorting administrative or logistic questions, etc (e.g. transcript No 4 page lines 7-9; page lines 14-22). They also include comments or questions relating to personal information about participants (e.g. transcript No 1 page lines 21-36), comments on their personal qualities (e.g transcript 1 page line 13) climate setting remarks (e.g. transcript No 2 page lines 43-48) and other talks not directly related or perceived by the present writer as directly related to one of the two other categories such as remarks about teachers' personal relationships with pupils or specific ways of interacting with them (e.g. transcript No 2 page lines 43-54, page lines 1-25). On the basis of this categorisation the quantitative analysis of the content of the transcribed post observation conferences was carried out.
The table above shows that there was a great variation in individual participants' contribution to the various content areas. However all participants addressed issues related to at least two of the three main content areas.

It can be observed from the table that teachers in the first two conferences (control group teachers) had a higher percentage of contribution on average to each area than teachers in the last two conferences (experimental group teachers) (44% against 27% for "practice", 24% against 19% for "teacher language" and 33% against 19% for "other").
The general summary table and its visual representation in figure 28 below showed that teachers contributed least to discussions of teachers' own language (about four times less than supervisors) whereas their contribution to the other two areas was about half of the supervisors' contribution.
Discussion

The content of the conferences appeared to be fairly balanced between classroom practice teachers' own language and other areas as defined above. The variety of topics and issues raised could be seen as an indication of the openness of the conferences where no issue was seen as tabu. This was particularly seen in the discussion of the highly sensitive issue of the observed teacher's fraternal-permissive style (Stevick, 1980) of personal interaction with his pupils in transcript No 2 page 753 lines 43-53 and page 754 lines 1-25). This shows the complexity of the tasks of supervision and the need for a multi disciplinary approach to the training of supervisors.

The quantitative analysis of talk and turns showed that supervisors did most of the talking, twice as much as teachers. This concurs with Nance's (1986) and Wileman's (1990) findings in England.

Two possible explanations could be offered for this disproportion in the distribution of talk. It could be thought that supervisors were more interested in telling teachers what to do than listening to them. In line with this interpretation one could also note that throughout the conferences supervisors appeared to be in control of the agenda and management of the meetings. Thus S3 appeared to have the largest number of turns used for structuring moves, that is, to suggest the agenda, give turns, suggest change of activity, signal beginning and ends of sessions etc (e.g. transcript No 1 page 734 line 1 to 27). On many occasions he also used his turns to sum up (e.g. "I think that everything has been said. I just want to add a few things to round up this feedback session" (transcript No 1 page 742 line 30-31).; "So I think, to sum up we should try as teachers to encourage students' communication even if their pronunciation is not as erm--- we should like it to be. We should try as teachers to improve ourselves. But we
shouldn't actually erm--- erm--- feel guilty about bad pronunciation." (transcript No 3 page 762 line 31-35).

In addition it was noted that while supervisors addressed themselves directly to the observed teachers by using the second person pronoun "you" other teachers commenting on the lessons preferred a more indirect approach through the use of the third person "He/she", speaking through the supervisors as it were. This is worth noting as the conferences took place in a group setting with explicit emphasis on the improvement of the group as a whole. (see, for instance, transcript 4 page 771 lines 13-15). There were also a few uses of expressions such as "should" indicating that the contributor knew the right thing to do. But such expressions were also used by the observed teachers' colleagues' performances as often as supervisors.

These features of the post observation conferences may be interpreted as an indication of a rather unequal power relationship and a fairly directive style of supervision which would be at variance with the intention to make those post observation conferences opportunities for a dialogic and non alienated communication.

However, that may be a rather simplistic interpretation. Indeed given the novelty of most of the alternatives being experimented with in the adopted new curriculum and the textbook in use it appeared that supervisors found themselves in the necessary role of providing information and helping teachers as well as themselves to increase their understanding of the basic assumptions of the curriculum on the basis of teachers' experience of the new textbook and of their current knowledge of, beliefs about and attitude towards teaching, as reflected in the lessons observed. The substantial discussions of the meanings and uses of flow charts in transcript 1 page 738 lines 42-51, page 739 lines 32-52, and in transcript 2 page 747 lines 10-52, page 748 lines 1-51 is an illustration of this point.
In addition one could not judge the dialogic or monologic nature of a supervisory conference only on the quantity of talk produced by each side. Other, perhaps more important indicators, such as opportunity to speak, freedom to express one's views and to challenge other participants' views, the content and manner of the talk produced and the general climate of the meetings need to be taken into account. Such a qualitative analysis of the present sample of post observation conferences seemed to suggest that they could be considered to a large extent as dialogic communications during which supervisors and teachers on the basis of a critical analysis of the teaching observed generate alternatives for improving practice.

Indeed even when supervisors were in their roles as providers of information and of alternatives teachers' views, suggestions and challenges were welcome and critically analysed. Thus in the discussion of the flow chart referred to above, not only were different and complementary views expressed by supervisors, indicating that there was no one best definition and use of flow charts but teachers' own views and queries about flow chart were also freely expressed and discussed. For example in Transcript 2 when S3 was closing the discussion on flow chart which was started by a question from S2, the observed teacher interrupted him with this query. "Well, a minute. What do you think about the occurrence of the order of the, of the flow chart. Does it matter?" (page 748, lines 6-8). This gave rise to an interesting dialogue between him and S1 about the order in which people organised their early morning activities, challenging each other's views;

O2t2: Anyway quite erm--- I made a connection with the lesson and everyday life ; erm--- our life flows like a river. (page 748 lines 48-50).
S1: ... When you say that the river flows, is it the same water which flows everyday? (laughter)"
O2t2: No it's not the same. But this is not philosophical S1: No I was just saying this just to to to (...)" (transcript 2 page 749 line 2-6).
The observed teacher used this opportunity to express his theory of teaching in relation to his own interpretation of the importance of flow charts: "What I view in teaching is communication; most of the time I want communication, that's the aspect of flow chart I value" (transcript 2 page 748 line 31-33).

Of the four conferences transcribed conferences 3 and 4 appeared to be those where teachers had most frequently challenged supervisors' views and suggested their own alternatives which were submitted to critical analyses. Thus, although it was said earlier that supervisors spoke almost four times more than teachers in relation to teachers' own language improvement, it appeared that the major part of this was used to defend the view that teachers need not be perfect native like users of English especially as regards pronunciation. This view was seriously challenged in Transcript 2 by teachers. An extract of that dialogue may be in order here.

S4: Native like pronunciation is not so much required. That was what we used to have with the audiolingual approach to language teaching. So I think we have to be very careful. We are non native speakers; and I personally, I'm feeling very happy with the new language teaching method we are using, which actually lessens the stress, the focus, the emphasis on the problem of pronunciation.(page 761 lines 25-31).

S3: ...because teachers are the only model, the only source of comprehensible input the students have got, the better they are at their own language, the better it is for the students, but we should not, as he was saying, and I agree with him entirely, we should not take that as a cardinal sin, a cardinal sin to mispronounce a word (page 761 lines 49-53 and page 762 line D.

T5: I (I personally think that, as he has just said, we are pioneers as far as the experience is concerned. I think that we should do everything possible to avoid these mistakes...as far as we are concerned we are not going to say that we are not native speakers of the language, we should pay attention to the pronunciation. (Page 762 lines 4-6 and 11-13)

T11: I don't agree with the friend (looking at S4 who spoke in favour of less emphasis on pronunciation). O.K. We can accept bad pronunciation from our pupils. When we are teaching, particularly new words to them, we must not teach bad pronunciation.(page 762 lines 19-23)
In transcript 4 Tm's (a participating teacher) suggestion for a quicker procedure for forming pairs and groups as an alternative to what the observed teacher did and Tw's (another participating teacher) suggestion of an oral approach to the final checking and correction of the work done in groups as well as what the observed teacher did during the lesson to get pupils into groups were critically analysed and the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative were pointed out both by supervisors and teachers themselves. Supervisors' own suggestions were challenged by teachers who suggested alternatives they considered as more appropriate to their context (see, for instance the discussion initiated by the observed teacher on how to check and correct the exercises done in groups with the whole class from page 772 line 32 to the end of the transcript).

This collaborative critical analysis of teaching and suggestions of alternatives was not only welcomed by supervisors but explicitly encouraged as they frequently drew teachers' attention to the fact that there was no one best way and that what they were saying were possibilities among other possibilities. Thus the suggestion which sparked off the discussion referred to above was introduced by S2 in these terms "I don't know the best way to overcome this. If you decide that you want different groups to do different exercises, that's fair enough; but I think you might towards the end get students out to the front of the class" (transcript 4 page 768 lines 29-32)

In his concluding remarks to that discussion S3 said:

S3: There has not been a methodology that was being given out. There are possibilities, variety of actions, He (looking at S1 and Tm) suggested something. I suggested something. But the whole thing, the basic principle is to make students take part and take responsibility for their own learning." (transcript 4 page 771 lines 24-28)
It needs to be recalled that teachers had had almost as many turns to speak as supervisors. This could be seen as an evidence of a free dialogue especially as the conference was structured in such a way as to avoid it being turned into a question-answer police interrogation-like dialogue. All this took place in a relaxed and rather informal climate as evidenced by the numerous occasions for laughter, jokes and other friendly remarks (see for example the "ceiling incident" in transcript one page 738 lines 10-13) and the "comrade incident" in the same transcript page 740 lines 21-26). But it should be noted that supervisors as well as teachers did not just describe what went on and suggested alternatives. Now and then they gave evaluative comments on teachers' performance. In this regard it is interesting to note the following two comments, one on a control group teacher's lesson at the beginning of the project, a view which could have applied to an experimental group teacher as well at that time and which might have not significantly changed for control group teachers at the end, and one on an experimental group teacher towards the end of the project by the British technical advisor (S2) taking part in the observation as a supervisor:

S2: So if there is one major criticism it was that you worked too hard, you talked too much, you taught too much and the students didn't learn enough; because you were in control too much and you didn't ---really allow them or give them the opportunity to practise" (transcript 1 page 742 lines 24-28)

S2: So my feeling about the lesson is that you've certainly planned it conscientiously, your group work made your students do a lot of participating so it was not all dominated by you. My own only criticism perhaps is that erm--- the feedback of the group work seemed rather slow. So there were times when the students were not fully occupied at that stage. But otherwise I think you did a conscientious class and certainly you were using all sorts of techniques that, a few months ago, were very rare in Benin. (transcript 4 page 769 lines 20-27).

These evaluative comments show the frankness and openness of the dialogue between teachers and supervisors in post observation conferences. This applied not only in the case of supervisors evaluating teachers' performance but also in
the case of teachers evaluating supervisors. An instance of this occurred in transcript 3 (see page 760 lines 52-53) and page 761 lines 1-6) when a teacher reminded S3 that the observed teacher's mispronunciation of the word gecko was due to S3's own mispronunciation of the word when he was giving the assignment and when T14 indirectly criticised the theoretical and unhelpful character of the lecture on vocabulary given before the microteaching lesson on vocabulary being discussed. (see same transcript page 760 lines 1-25).

As a whole, in the light of this discussion it could be argued that although supervisors appeared to have dominated the post observation conference in terms of amount of talk an analysis of the transcripts showed that the process of the conferences was characterised by a model II behaviour as defined in Chapter 4 sub-section 4-1-1-4 and by a focus on a collaborative generation of alternatives in a dialogic and non alienated communication. It has to be acknowledged however that although largely consistent with the characteristics of a non alienated and dialogic communication as defined in sub-section 9-2-1-2-2-1 of this chapter above, the style of supervision observed in this analysis could not be considered as fully non directive. But it was perhaps largely consistent with the combination of alternative and collaborative styles advocated in the discussion of approaches to supervision in chapter 4 sub-section 4-3-5.

9-2-2 The school based INSET

The school based INSET involved teachers in various action research activities between seminars. It consisted of two main groups:
reading assignments to encourage discussions of extracts from language teaching journals and books provided at seminars, and to stimulate a critical review of the ideas which were developed at each seminar. These were sent to them as a report (First Seminar) or as a copy of the main lecture/workshop (Second Seminar) (see Appendix to Chapter 8 No 7 and No 8). They were also encouraged to try out some of the ideas contained in these documents and discuss their experience with their colleagues in the school.

more systematic reflective tasks to encourage teachers to record the results of their school based INSET work so that they could be discussed and shared at other seminars.

Reflective tasks here are defined as an integral element of the action research based INSET, mainly construed as a cooperative and collective diagnosis of problems, planning for solutions, trying out of these solutions and reflecting on its effects and consequences for improved practice leading to further cycles of reflective activities.

These tasks consisted of discussions of the content and the methods for teaching some units of the textbooks in use resulting in the writing of lesson plans for those units. Teachers were also encouraged to reflect on specific aspects of their classroom practices. The aim of these activities was to encourage teachers to supplement the commercially produced teachers' guide by the production of materials which were more relevant to their needs and the realities of their classrooms. These more systematic tasks will be discussed in some detail.

9-2-2-1 The lesson plans

The school based INSET guide was distributed to experimental group teachers in each of the four provinces participating
in the project in December with instructions to produce lesson plans on specified units. The aim was to help teachers to develop a complete set of lesson plans and suggestions for teaching all the units in the textbook.

Some guidance was given as to how the plans might be developed.

The following points should appear on your plans or their absence should be justified:
- the different phases of your lesson (presentation, practice, production). Note that the different lessons in one unit constitute, in general, aspects of the same teaching unit evolving around the same teaching points. It may be sometimes possible to base the planning on the whole unit although some lessons (lesson 3 for example) may be planned alone.
- the different activities and the procedures to follow in doing them, in terms of what the teacher does and what the students do; the time needed for each activity.
- the materials needed for each activity.
- the overall objective of the lesson and the specific instructional objectives or aims of each activity.
- methods of checking understanding and for evaluating the extent to which the objectives have been attained. Note that your objectives may be contained in the language target(s) of the lesson (functions, structures, lexis, phonology, etc.) or in particular skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking and various strategies for learning them and/or in the promotion of an attitude, a viewpoint, a general cognitive or social skill with regards to a problem and/or its solutions (Akoha, 1987: 3).

These guidelines were not imposed. They served only as suggestions teachers might want to draw on to stimulate personal thinking about what could be put in a lesson plan. No indication was given either about order of inclusion of the different points suggested or about what the focus of activities might be. So, although there were guidelines to help teachers, no proformat was provided which teachers were required to follow rigorously.

Teachers in all the provinces, except one, completed the task. There were fewer returns from schools where there was only one teacher in a school. This seemed to reinforce the
view that curriculum development activities are best done in cooperation (see Stenhouse, 1975 and Easen, 1985).

There was considerable variety of layouts, labels, and focuses of the plans produced across provinces. But all of them included pair/group work activities at some stage. Inside each broad structure there was also a great deal of creativity and imagination and a variety of activities, which showed that most teachers understood the difference between using textbooks as servants and using them as masters because they did not copy the teachers' guide which was available to them, nor did they follow the lessons in a linear fashion. (see sample lesson plans and sample of the same units from the commercially published teachers' guide in the appendix to Chapter 9 No 5 A and No 5 B). The fact that teachers did not follow the guidelines given as if they were rigorous instructions was considered as a positive point and an indication of an increasing confidence in themselves and of growing independence.

This relative independence from the textbook was reflected in practice as well. Teachers went so far as writing their own texts for role plays, building on the lesson studied, and modifying or supplementing the instructions in the teachers' guide to reflect these changes and the context of their classrooms. (see observation of the editors of the book on viewing a video recording of some lessons in the appendix to Chapter 9 No6 and the sample extracts of video recordings of microteachings and real lessons in the appendix No4 to Chapter 9).

The main point being made here is that the experimental INSET appeared to have reached its objective of helping teachers to realize that there was no such thing as the one ideal, best way of organising a lesson and teaching it, but that there were rather alternatives to be exploited and
improved upon, based on general principles in the light of specific purposes and contexts. So on the basis of their experience with the book in their classrooms and in the light of their understanding of the theoretical assumptions underlying the organisation of its content, the main elements of a teachers' guide of *English Africa seconde* by teachers for teachers were developed at the school based INSET meetings. But no formal production and publication of an agreed Teachers' Guide was decided upon. This decision was taken mainly because of the danger that it would become a new orthodoxy whereas the whole project was tentatively experimenting with alternatives. In addition the book itself needed some revision in the light of this first year of trial and this would require further changes to any Teachers' Guide.

9-2-2-2 Other reflective practice tasks

Experimental group teachers were also asked by the researcher in the school based INSET document to choose one from four reflective practice tasks (see Appendix to Chapter 8, No 7). The purpose was to encourage them to observe more critically what they did in their lessons, and to reflect on the effects and consequences of their activities in the classroom.

Task One was the most popular. It was observed at the seminar that some had combined it with Task Two. Two teachers tried task 3 and 4 also (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No 7).

The following verbatim report of remarks made by pupils in relation to Task Two, and reported by their teacher with his own reflective comments appeared to illustrate the experiences of most teachers in the experimental group.
Most pupils said that the lesson was interesting and suggested that they would like me to continue like that for the next lessons. According to them splitting them into small parts is good and avoids being bored.
- Some of them wish I had spoken slowly and explained some grammatical points. I think this point is useless since there is no grammar point blocking the comprehension. Besides I usually speak very slowly.
- Some others would like me to give them more exercises, to have some comprehension questions on the [cloze] text. I entirely agree with them because it would give opportunity to discuss on the text and allow oral work.
- There were a few of them who would have liked me to have spoken French sometimes because they lacked vocabulary and couldn't speak English. Later I would call them frequently and ask questions in order to sponsor them [make them more responsible for their own learning].
- They proposed that I should give them more homework and correct their copybooks. I can do it time permitting.
- They said that this method of pair work and group work made them think deeply and made them compare their answers with their partners
- they disliked threat about buying books. They would like the teacher to be more friendly and make them compared to other school students
- they would like songs, story telling and more reading.

I personally think that this lesson was interesting because we covered it in less than 45 minutes and the answers to matching exercises came easily. Some remarks are useful and could help me improve my performance. (School based INSET: task No 2 Appendix to Chapter 9 No 7)

As a whole this account of the implementation of the course showed that the project, at least at a subjective level was perceived by teachers as a successful professional development enterprise involving teachers as well as pupils in an active consolidation of knowledge and study skills.

However, apart from the lesson plans collectively developed in schools by almost all experimental group teachers, only 5 teachers out of 12 completed the more reflective tasks. But at the residential seminar in February 1988 when the results of these tasks were discussed everybody agreed that they could be very useful. Those who had not tried out any of these tasks promised to try one or two out subsequently, although this was not later formally checked on.
This could be considered a setback, but it could be argued that this result was quite encouraging in terms of helping teachers take responsibility for their own development, given the deeply established dependency culture which has shaped both trainers and teachers (see Chapter 8 subsection 8-2-2-1-2-1), and the socio-economic conditions in which they were working at the time (see Chapter 1). Teachers were free to choose to do or not to do the tasks as coercive strategies were ruled out at the outset as contrary to the principles of the generative perspective hinged on action research adopted for the study. In addition it is important to recognize the slow pace of adoption of innovations (Rogers, 1983, White, 1988).

It must also be recalled that the reflection on practice was not limited to the specific tasks referred to above but permeated the whole INSET project, from the residential seminars to the school based INSET reported in this subsection and extending to the class observations and feedback sessions as well. Although the results of these other reflective activities were not in the form of individual tasks they were considered in this study as integral elements of the action research based INSET, mainly construed as a cooperative and collective diagnosis of problem, planning for solutions, trying out of these solutions and reflecting on its effects and consequences for improved practice leading to further cycles of reflective activities.

Although the recording of these reflections so that they could be available for public scrutiny was a necessary aspect of action research the specific conditions of the study made it difficult to require a written record from each individual teacher of all the activities suggested. Sometimes a collective summary of teachers' reflections was required instead. (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No 5)
Participation in action research based INSET and teacher effectiveness

Hypothesis No 1: improvement in experimental teachers' classroom practice

Research question No. 6 related to objective C (see Chapter 1, sections 1-1-2 and 1-1-3). It was hypothesised that there would be a tendency for participants in the experimental action research based INSET to improve their classroom performance more than control group teachers who only received conventional supervision characterised by trainers observing their lessons and giving them advice afterwards at feedback sessions. Teachers' performance was measured by rating scores on the appraisal guide's variables related to pair/group work and communicative teaching and global appraisal marks by observers, teachers themselves, and pupils.

Preliminary analyses: interrater agreement and item reliability

The ratings and marks given by teachers and observers were examined to measure the degree of agreement between raters in order to establish some indication of the reliability of the data collected. This was done using t-tests after the checking of the data through frequencies statistics.

These frequencies statistics showed that teachers' and observers' ratings were roughly normally distributed.

The comparison of observers' ratings and marks at pretest and at posttest showed no significant difference between their ratings of teachers on most variables (4 out of 14 at pretest, and 2 out of 14 at posttest) and between their marks. It appeared that there was an acceptable level of
agreement between observers as raters. It was also observed that the agreement on the ratings were more marked at posttest than at pretest.

This agreement between raters pointed to the reliability of the observation instrument, which was further confirmed by an item reliability analysis. The latter analysis separately done at pretest and posttest gave a coefficient of concordance of \( w = 0.6724 \) at pretest and 0.6632 at posttest, and a standardised alpha of 0.8221 at pretest and 0.9031 at posttest. When the reliability was computed using pretest and posttest together the coefficient of concordance was 0.6754 and the standardized item alpha was 0.8994.

But both at pre-test and at posttest teachers' self assessment differed significantly from observers' assessment on most of the variables in the appraisal guide (10 out of 14 at pretest (with \( p < 0.02 \)) and 9 out of 14 at posttest (with \( p < 0.05 \)) and also in terms of the general appraisal marks (\( p < 0.000 \) at pretest and \( p < 0.024 \) at posttest). But while the difference was very marked at pre-test it was less marked at posttest with a slight move towards more agreement between teachers and observers. (see Appendix to chapter 9 No. 8).

The checking of pupils' ratings of teachers' performance through frequencies statistics showed that pupils' ratings were, in general, positively skewed, indicating quite a high level of agreement between pupils and between them and their teachers in positively rating the lessons. There was no need for a T-test to establish their agreement with other observers as it appeared that they had an exaggerated positive view of their teachers' performance while a more moderate trend was noted with other observers. But in addition to this observation an item reliability was also computed for the instrument they used for the rating and
this gave a coefficient of concordance of .00708 and a standardized alpha of .8644. This seemed to indicate that pupils' ratings, although somewhat exaggerated, seemed reasonably reliable.

On the basis of these reliability analyses and the observed agreement between observers, it was assumed that any difference between the groups might well be a reasonable indication of the genuine evolution of the two groups, allowing for the weaknesses relating to the training of the observers referred to earlier. By using the observation instruments, they appeared to have developed a more consistent and convergent practice which gives some support to this assumption.

9-3-1-2 Comparison of experimental and control teachers' classroom performances

The comparison of teachers' performance was carried out within each group in terms of difference between pretest and posttest and between groups in terms of difference between experimental and control group at pretest and at posttest, using observers' assessment, teachers' self assessment, combined observers' and teachers' assessment, and pupils' assessment (see raw data in Appendix No 9 to 9).

9-3-1-2-1 Observers' assessment

The analysis of observers' rating of the 14 variables (aspects) of teacher performance selected on the observation instruments using t-test showed no significant difference between pretest and posttest for the control group except for one variable (checking of the effectiveness of teaching (p< 0.032)), although the rating was slightly higher at posttest for 8 variables. This observation was confirmed by
the analysis of the global assessment by marks which did not show any significant difference between pretest and posttest marks.

On the other hand the experimental group teachers were rated significantly higher at posttest than at pretest on four variables: reinforcement and encouragement of learners' involvement (p< 0.004); show of enthusiasm for teaching (p< 0.002); promotion of learners' positive self concept (p< 0.039); classroom interaction management (p< 0.022). A fifth variable was marginally significant: planning (p< 0.078). Altogether the experimental group teachers were rated higher on 11 variables out of 14 at posttest. This analysis was also confirmed by the overall assessment mark which showed that experimental group teachers scored significantly higher at posttest than at pretest (p< 0.000).

The analysis of difference between the two groups showed that at pretest there was no significant difference between the two groups except on the variable related to the checking of the effectiveness of teaching (p< 0.032) where experimental group teachers scored higher than control teachers. The global assessment marks confirmed this analysis as the difference between pretest marks was not significant.

But at posttest the experimental group teachers were rated higher than the control teachers on five variables: planning (p< 0.001); use of means appropriate for objectives (p< 0.001); communication with learners (p< 0.028); show of enthusiasm for teaching (p< 0.028); promotion of learners' positive self-concept (p< 0.0003). The other ratings were also higher on most variables. This analysis was confirmed by the global assessment which showed that the experimental group was rated significantly higher than the control group (p<0.000).
Self assessment

Control group teachers' own rating of their performance showed no significant difference between pretest and posttest rating except on the variable related to effective use of resources ($p < 0.013$). But nearly half (8) of the 14 variables were rated higher than at pretest. When their global assessment marks at posttest were examined they showed the same modest increase compared with pretest. However the difference was not significant. So control group teachers' evaluation of their own performance, though different in details, concurred as a whole with observers' evaluation.

Experimental group teachers' own rating showed no significant difference between pretest and posttest. But contrarily to control teachers who rated themselves generally higher at posttest than at pretest, the experimental teachers were shown to have rated themselves slightly lower at posttest than at pretest in all the variables except those of planning where there was a slight increase and language use whose rating remained constant. However, their global self-assessment marks at posttest, though consistent with this tendency showed an increase on pretest marks which was very near significance level ($p < 0.088$). This assessment, although at variance with observers' assessment in terms of rating where the latter gave a higher rating at posttest on 11 variables with 4 being significantly so, was consistent with it in terms of overall assessment marks which, as seen earlier, showed a significant improvement of experimental group teachers from the point of view of observers.

When teachers' own assessment of their performance was analysed in terms of difference between experimental and control group teachers it appeared that experimental group
teachers rated themselves higher than control group on 11 variables out of 14 at pretest. At posttest however, control group teachers rated themselves higher than experimental group teachers on 10 variables out of 14. It was noted that the four variables where experimental group teachers rated themselves higher than control group teachers had to do with the communicative teaching and humanistic orientation of the INSET course. But both at pretest and at posttest none of these differences were shown to be significant for any of the two groups. An examination of the global self assessment marks also showed no significant difference between the two groups. It should however be noted that this lack of significance was particularly pronounced at posttest (see Appendix to chapter 9 No 10). This self-assessment contradicted observers' assessment which clearly established the significant improvement of the experimental group compared with control group.

9-3-1-2-3 Combined assessment

A combined analysis including teacher's own assessment showed that control group teachers' performance was rated slightly higher at posttest than at pretest on most variables (10) but the difference was significant only on the variable related to the checking of the effectiveness of teaching \( p < 0.014 \). This result was confirmed by the general assessment marks which showed no significant difference between pretest and posttest marks.

As for experimental group teachers it was shown that they were also rated higher on most variables (11) but with only one being significantly higher (show of enthusiasm for teaching \( p < 0.014 \)). But the overall assessment marks showed a significant improvement at posttest \( p < 0.000 \).
The analysis of difference between groups showed no significant difference in rating between the two groups at pretest although the experimental teachers were rated slightly higher than the control teachers on 12 of the 14 variables. The difference between the general assessment marks was not significant either. But at posttest the experimental group was rated higher than the control teachers on 11 variables with those of them relating to communication with learners (P< 0.043) and to promotion of learners' positive self-concept (P< 0.027) being significantly so. The difference between general assessment marks showed that experimental group teachers had scored significantly higher than control group teachers (P< 0.002). This global assessment concurred with observers' assessment.

Pupils' assessment

As said earlier, pupils had generally given a positive evaluation of their teachers. A close examination of this rating through a Mann Whitney Test of difference between groups showed that at pretest experimental group teachers were ranked higher than control group teachers on 14 variables out of 19, three of which were shown to be significantly so, namely, teacher movement (P<0.0485); public checking of pair/group work (P< 0.0027); excessive correction (P< 0.0033). At posttest the experimental group teachers were rated higher on 11 variables out of 19 and significantly so on two variables related to clarity of explanation (P<0.0425) and pair group work (P< 0.000) (see Appendix to chapter 9 No 11).

Although pupils did not make a clear distinction between experimental and non experimental group teachers, their rating showed that experimental group teachers' performances were considered more satisfactory by their pupils than those of non experimental group teachers had been by their pupils.
It is essential to note that the only variable where there was a very clear distinction between the two groups in favour of the experimental teachers was related to pair/group work.

It is also interesting to note that, although they tended to rate their teachers' performances as satisfactory on most variables, their opinions were quite divergent on variables related to teacher talk and teacher correction with a tendency to agree with the statement that there was too much correction and too much teacher talk during the lessons both at pre-test and at post-test and mainly so at pre-test. On these issues there was a marked agreement in all ratings, as on the issue of use of pair and group work which was shown to clearly discriminate experimental and non experimental group teachers in all ratings.

9-3-2  Hypothesis No 2: improvement in trained teachers' performance

The hypothesis was also put forward that there would be no marked difference between the performance of teachers professionally trained at the Ecole Normale Supérieure (advanced teacher training college) in Benin and untrained teachers at the end of the INSET project.

9-3-2-1  Comparison of trained and untrained teachers.

9-3-2-1-1  Observers' assessment

The comparison of the ratings within groups showed that untrained teachers' performances at posttest were rated higher than at pretest for 12 of the 14 variables with three of them being significant: checking of teaching effectiveness $\quad (p < 0.005)$; encouragement of learner
involvement ($p < 0.000$); enthusiasm for teaching ($p < 0.023$). This improvement was reflected in the general assessment marks which showed a very significant improvement on pretest performance ($p < 0.000$). Trained teachers' performances were rated higher at posttest than at pretest on 9 variables with one of them being significant (enthusiasm for teaching ($p < 0.017$)). However, this improvement, although apparently less marked than that of untrained teachers was significant when globally assessed by observers' general marks ($p < 0.001$).

When observers' ratings were analysed in terms of difference between groups it was shown that at pretest trained teachers were rated higher than untrained teachers on 11 variables but not significantly so. This was also confirmed by the general assessment marks which showed no significant difference. At posttest trained teachers were rated higher than untrained teachers on 8 variables, none of which were significant. Untrained teachers were rated higher on 6 variables one of which (encouragement of learner involvement ($p < 0.009$)) was significant. This analysis was reinforced by the global marking which showed no significant difference between the groups.

9-3-2-1-2 Self-assessment

Although there was a slight improvement on the rating of seven variables out of 14, untrained teachers ratings of their own performance showed no significant difference between pretest and posttest. This was borne out by their own general assessment marks which showed no significant difference between pretest and posttest. There was also no significant difference between the ratings of trained teachers' rating of their own performances at pretest and posttest. The slight differences noted were rather negative on most variables except two. But contrary to this detailed evaluation of aspects of performance the global assessment
marks showed a significant improvement on their pretest performance (p< 0.015).

The analysis between groups showed no significant differences between trained and untrained teachers' ratings of their performances at pretest or at posttest. But whereas at pretest, trained teachers rated themselves higher on 12 variables out 14, at posttest their rating were higher than those of untrained teachers on 8 variables. This analysis was supported by their general assessment marks which showed no significant differences between the two groups either at pretest or at posttest. Although at variance with observers' assessment in details and in degree (teachers generally rated themselves higher than observers) this self assessment was roughly in tune with their assessment.

9-3-2-1-3 Combined assessment

The comparison of trained and untrained teachers' performances within groups including teachers' own assessments confirmed the general trend observed with observers' assessments. The analysis between groups also followed the same tendency with no significant difference between the two groups although trained teachers were rated slightly higher on most variables with a very slightly higher average mark.

9-3-2-1-4 Pupils' assessment

When pupils' ratings were computed for difference between trained and untrained teachers' performances using the Mann Whitney test, it appeared that both at pretest and at posttest students had rated trained teachers' performances higher than untrained teachers' performances on most variables. This difference was shown to be significant for four variables at pretest: clarity of explanation (p<
0.0015); demonstration of tasks (p< 0.0489); encouragement of pupils' participation (0.0047); public check of pair/group work (p< 0.0000). The untrained teachers did significantly better than the trained teachers on only one variable (use of pupils' contribution (p<0.0056). But their ranks were shown to be slightly higher on 5 variables against 14 for the trained teachers. It seemed then that pupils had a more favourable impression of trained teachers' performance at pretest than the other observers considered above, although their rating confirmed globally the previous assessment.

At posttest it was observed that trained teachers were ranked significantly higher than untrained teachers on 5 variables including those already cited for pretest and use of clear examples (p<0.0223). In addition it was observed that trained teachers had also had a markedly higher rating on the variable related to less teacher talk (p<0.0854). At posttest it seemed that pupils' observation concurred with teachers' and trainers' observation in expressing more satisfaction with trained teachers' performance than with untrained teachers, although pupils seemed to do so more markedly than observers as at pretest.

9-3-3 Global comparison taking simultaneously account of group status and teacher status

When the overall appreciation of teacher performance through marks was analysed using the MANOVA (multiple analysis of variance) statistics it was shown that there was a significant difference between experimental and non experimental group teachers' overall performances (p< 0.011 with teachers' own marks and p<0.003 without them) but there was no significant difference between trained and untrained teachers. The interaction between group status and teacher status was also shown not to be significant. When within
subject effects were computed it appeared that the effect of the test, that is, the summative evaluation of teachers' performances, on experimental and non-experimental group teachers were significant ($p<0.000$ with or without teachers' own marks); but its effect on trained and untrained teachers was not. The interaction group status, teacher status and test was not also shown as significant. This overall analysis seemed therefore to confirm the discrete analysis done through t-tests.

9-3-4 Discussion

9-3-4-1 On the comparison of raters.

The comparison of teachers' self-assessment with observers' assessment showed some discrepancies. This disagreement between teachers and observers was particularly pronounced with control group teachers who rated themselves even higher than the experimental group teachers. Three main reasons may account for this discrepancy: the novelty of the formal self-appraisal as experienced by teachers in the project, the overall subjective character of the observation instrument used and the non-preservation of a particular model of teaching to be followed. In addition the insufficient training of teachers and observers for the use of the instrument may also be mentioned.

Indeed the teachers involved in the project, like other E.F.L teachers in Benin, were not used to evaluating themselves systematically and formally. They were rather used to being told how good or how poor their performances were by powerful inspectors. So, at the beginning, most of them were understandably reluctant to accept the idea of self-evaluation. But as the project progressed teachers became better and better at looking at their teaching and more and more articulate in expressing their strengths and
weaknesses as well as at suggesting alternatives (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No.4).

On the other hand the observation instrument was fairly subjective as it was composed of high inference categories to be rated according to teachers' own perception of the lesson observed. For teachers who were not used to systematic class observation the tendency to be more preoccupied by self protection than by the actual performance seems understandable.

There was no prescription of the best way to conduct an English lesson. Both the action research based INSET and the conventional supervision for control group teachers aimed only to encourage teachers to facilitate student-student interaction and communication in the classroom without either urging them to go communicative or to reject traditional practices. Different alternatives were presented and old practices were more clearly and systematically described and explained to facilitate teachers' informed choices. But no set procedures for classroom practice were prescribed. Control group teachers may have acted in good faith. Most of them were not even aware of the existence of an experimental group.

Finally it should be noted that this discrepancy, although it did not give enough support to the researcher's conviction that teachers' self evaluation should become an element of teacher evaluation, concurs with studies reviewed by Carroll (1981) referred to in Chapter Five which led him to conclude that self appraisal had little agreement with the observation of students, colleagues, and administrators. But he pointed out that it was particularly effective when it served to identify for teachers certain unexpected discrepancies with other ratings.
On this basis it could be recommended, along with Wragg (1987), that classroom observation for teacher evaluation should be openly discussed with teachers for more insight into each other's understandings and interpretation of events in order to reduce unknown areas in what is known in humanist psychology as the Johari Window referring to the knowledge of self by oneself and by others (see Luft, 1969, in Jones & Pfeiffer, 1973 in Moskowitz, 1978).

Another aspect of the rater's comparison concerns the observation that there was a high level of agreement between pupils in the evaluation of their teachers, which was generally positive. This might be dismissed as a natural tendency for pupils who have to give a judgement on their betters to play safe by avoiding too negative comments. It is, however, to be noted that, although generally more positive than observers' assessment, pupils' assessments were congruent with the general tendency of the observers' assessment. It was also shown to be quite discriminating in evaluating, for instance, experimental and control group teachers' abilities to integrate pair and group work into their teaching and in judging the amount of teacher talk in their classes. This finding confirmed the conclusions of the review of studies on teachers' opinions on teachers and on teaching by Aleamoni (1981), Braskamp et al (1984), Wragg (1988), referred to earlier in Chapter Five. They showed that pupils' opinions had remarkable consistency, credibility and reliability. So a more active involvement of pupils in the formative evaluation of teachers should be recommended.

On the comparison between groups.

Allowing for the problems of the limited size of the sample discussed and acknowledged earlier (see subsection 8-4-2-4), the analysis of teachers' performance showed that teachers
who followed the action research based integrated INSET scored significantly higher than those who received trainers' visits in their classes and advice on the ways in which their performances could be improved. This finding confirmed the findings of studies reviewed by Avalos (1981) which showed the effectiveness of teacher training in general and of practice oriented and participatory INSET methods such as microteaching, simulations and case studies in particular. The finding also supported the conclusions of Nwoke's study of the effectiveness of ESL teacher preparation in Nigeria which emphasised the need for a trainee centred supervisory model, as well as Kouraogo's (1987) recommendation for an action research oriented approach to teacher preparation for the implementation of a learner centred curriculum. It also supported Ifeanyi's (1980) study, referred to earlier which pointed to a positive relationship between training and teachers' own improvement in Nigeria.

The hypothesis that there would be no marked difference between the performance of trained teachers and that of untrained teachers was also upheld. One might be tempted on the basis of this finding to conclude that the training given at the Ecole Normale Supérieure in Benin was not as effective as could be expected. Although there was much left to be desired about the programme and methodology of the pre-service training at E.N.S., as pointed out earlier, such an interpretation is considered here as misleading and founded on shaky grounds. It would assume that effective pre-service should equip teachers for life and for coping with all circumstances. This runs counter to the basic assumption of the present study which considers that overreliance on pre-service training with a consequent neglect of provisions for INSET is prejudicial to quality in education no matter how good and effective this first familiarisation with the profession may be. The findings
appear to support this position, but did not establish that pre-service training was useless. They appear to show that, trained teachers' performance scores at posttest, although not significantly higher than that of untrained teachers was not inferior to it. On the contrary, it was even slightly higher as seen by both pupils and observers.

The findings point towards the need for a policy of teacher education which gives a central place to in-service training. But there was not enough evidence from the study to suggest that in-service training was a substitute for pre-service training. The evidence rather suggested that it was a necessary follow up to pre-service and initial training without which teachers' professional development and effectiveness could be seriously undermined.

However, if the results were examined in terms of the performance of untrained teachers which was as good as trained teachers' performance, the evidence did suggest that the initial training of practising teachers could be organised in ways which might be more cost effective and efficient than sending them on a three year pre-service course conceived for school leavers who had no or very little experience of teaching as is the case at the moment with the Ecole Normale Intégrées in Benin.

9-4 Teachers' evaluation of the INSET project

This section reports on the findings of Objectives D related to questions 9 to 12 (see chapter One subsections 1-1-2 and 1-1-3 ). This part of the study aimed to confirm and complement the quantitative assessment of teacher performance for a holistic evaluation of the INSET Project.

9-4-1 Fulfilment of teachers' expectations
Teachers' expectations of the INSET project were recalled as including improvement of teaching skills, opportunity to question routine teaching and orthodoxy and generate new ideas through discussions of theoretical background to teaching methods, socialisation and sharing of experience, scholarship and promotion.

At the end of the project they were asked how far these expectations had been met. Their replies, with percentages indicating proportion of all respondents mentioning particular aspects were as follows:
- 30% (6 cases) considered that all their expectations had been met.
- 80% (16 cases) expressed their full satisfaction with the improvement of their teaching skills. But 25% (5 cases) reported that their expectations were only partially met with reference to specific teaching skills, namely a precise method for handling grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension.
- 30% (6 cases) considered that the INSET project had fully satisfied their expectation to question the idea of the existence of one best orthodox method and to generate new ideas. But 15% of teachers (3 cases) considered that their expectation in this regard was only partially met because they would have liked more seminars and more theory.
- 25% of respondents (5 cases) were fully satisfied with the improvement of teachers' and pupils' language. But 15% reported that they were only partially satisfied with it.
- 5% reported that their expectations to socialise and share experiences were fully met.

There was only one teacher who reported that he was expecting inspectors and trainers to give model lessons to real pupils which they did not do.
Discussion

The majority of teachers were satisfied with the course as most of their expectations were fully or at least partially met. It is perhaps worth noting that while expectations were quite general in the survey questionnaire they were rephrased more specifically at the end in the evaluation questionnaire. The demand for precise method of handling grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension lessons is a case in point.

It came as no surprise that some teachers were only partially satisfied with the fulfilment of these specific expectations. Indeed the experimental INSET was not aimed at providing teachers with a new 'precise method' to replace the old one. It was intended to familiarise teachers with alternative approaches and guide them in the process of integrating, adapting some of them into their day to day practice, or even drawing on their underlying principles to devise techniques and developing teaching styles of their own, applicable to their classes and with which they felt personally at ease as long as it could lead to more effective implementation of the new curriculum. But this partial dissatisfaction may be the sign that some feeling of insecurity persisted with some teachers as regards the open endedness of the experimental course.

Confidence in classroom practice

Table 25 overleaf presents teachers' degrees of confidence in handling specific teaching activities irrespective of group.

General observations
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order Activities</th>
<th>Degree of Confidence</th>
<th>Gene-Experimental Trainers</th>
<th>Gene-Experimental Trainers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Organisation of pair/group work</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairly confident</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not confident</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Meaningful presentation of grammar and lexis and use of more communicative language practice</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairly confident</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not confident</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Conducting a reading comprehension lesson</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairly confident</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not confident</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Managing class activities so as to provide more opportunities for pupil communication and less teacher talk</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairly confident</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not confident</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Gentle correction and refraining from interrupting pupils' communication flow</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairly confident</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not confident</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Use of books as servants and not as masters</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairly confident</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not confident</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Teaching notions and functions through communicative activities (dialogue, roleplay, games tasks)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairly confident</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not confident</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25: Teachers' rating of their self-confidence

It could be observed from the table that most teachers (between 75 and 95%) reported their confidence in handling almost all of the various aspects of the teaching activities selected for the investigation as typical to the methodological approach emphasised in the experimental INSET. Only on three of the selected activities was there
any noticeable minority admitting some lack of confidence, namely gentle correction and refraining from interrupting pupils' communication flow (3 out of 20), use of books as servants and not as masters (4 out of 20) and teaching notions and functions through communicative activities (5 out of 20).

9-4-2-2 Comparison of experimental and control group teachers' rating.

The Kruskall-Wallis analysis of variance did not show any significant difference between the two groups. But it was observed that while experimental teachers were more discriminating about which activities they felt confident with, and quite a few of them admitted to their lack of confidence in some of the activities, almost all control teachers reported that they were confident in practically all the activities.

9-4-2-3 Discussion

This result expressed the general enthusiasm noted throughout the project and the sense of achievement felt at the evaluation seminar. Some caution is however needed in interpreting it as an objective measure of the success of the experimental INSET. Given that the participants' reactions was solicited by the INSET coordinator himself, whose interest in the success of the experiment was no secret there may be some tendency towards 'yea saying'. In addition, one should also be aware of people's natural tendency to overrate themselves in self evaluations. But having said that, the result could be a genuine expression of teachers' subjective feeling and of their positive attitude towards the course which could be built on for further development as it confirmed the general appraisal of their performance by observers and pupils carried out in way
of triangulation. There was however some evidence of exaggeration on the part of teachers views on the experiment. Indeed when one looked into the difference between experimental and control group teachers in the rating of their confidence level for example it looked somewhat suspicious and at variance with observers' and pupils' evaluation because control group teachers tended to rate themselves even higher than experimental teachers. They were nevertheless consistent. The same tendency to rate themselves better than experimental group teachers was already noted for the post-test quantitative assessment.

This might be explained, as pointed out earlier, by the fact that those teachers were perhaps genuinely convinced that they were doing the right thing. There was some evidence of lip service to the alternative activities, mainly pair/group work and silent reading in some of the classes, even though the actual practice was overall teacher centred. But although these caveats needed to be taken into account it should, however, be noted that teachers were not altogether indiscriminately over confident. The experimental group teachers, in particular, clearly expressed their insecurity in some areas as pointed out earlier which could indicate a lack of confidence in the specified skills.

9-4-3 Applicability of aspects of the alternative communicative methodological approach.

9-4-3-1 General observations

As could be observed in the appendix to chapter 9 No. 12 presenting teachers' views on the applicability of communicative teaching, most teachers considered the communicative approach to language teaching fully applicable in terms of the activities they considered as typical of the
approach. Of the six activities mentioned pair/group work were given priority whereas reduced teacher talk came last.

9-4-3-2 Difference between experimental and control group teachers.

While more teachers in the control group mentioned aspects which they considered as inapplicable, more teachers in the experimental group mentioned aspects which they considered as fully applicable. However the difference in opinion was significant only on aspects considered as fairly applicable as shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variables</th>
<th>groups</th>
<th>cases</th>
<th>mean ranks</th>
<th>corrected for ties</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) fairly applicable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pair/group work</td>
<td>experimental(1)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.2500</td>
<td>0.0393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(games, role-play) control (2)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meaningful present</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.08</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.7051</td>
<td>0.0542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>action of grammar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and lexis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class discussion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.83</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.1282</td>
<td>0.0235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reading aloud</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.79</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.5796</td>
<td>0.0324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 26: Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance between experimental and control teachers appreciation of the applicability of aspects of communicative teaching to Benin

9-4-3-3 Discussion

Few people considered the reduction of teacher talk as fully applicable. This was consistent with teacher performance appraisal where teacher talk came as one of the weak points of both control and experimental teachers. There seemed to be a dilemma on this issue of teacher talk which needs to be fully addressed. In the context of Benin the teacher very often constitutes the sole source of exposure to the spoken language. Although teacher talk necessarily reduces pupil
talk we may not be asking the right question about teacher talk by wanting to know how much less the teacher has talked than his/her pupils. The question may need to be directed at the quality of the teacher talk in terms of its usefulness both as a catalyst for pupils' acquisition and increased pupil talk. Although Krashen's (1981, 1985) view on input and acquisition is not adopted wholesale, his views are of some relevance here.

In this connection, teachers' reservations about the discouragement of reading aloud might be understandable. It should however be noted that what was discouraged was the practice which consisted of making pupils read the text aloud and equating it with reading comprehension. The project made a distinction between reading aloud for pronunciation and stress or rhythm practice, and reading comprehension where silent reading and specific tasks designed to check comprehension were considered more appropriate. But teachers' reading aloud with pupils taking up a section of the text for pronunciation practice was also encouraged as a suitable follow up activity in this context where the classroom constituted the only place where pupils could be regularly exposed to oral English.

As a whole teachers' views appeared to be in agreement with pupils' views, as the latter also considered pair work, group work and pupil participation and language use through role play and games and other communicative activities as positive aspects of their English lessons. It should be pointed out that neither pupils nor teachers were given a list of aspects of communicative teaching to conform to. The aspects mentioned were those they considered themselves as distinctive of communicative teaching.

Teachers' evaluation of the methods of the INSET project
The table below presents teachers' classification of the forms of INSET and INSET activities (methods) which they considered as most influential on the improvement of their classroom teaching in order of priority:

9-4-4-1 General observations

It was noted that teachers' classifications of forms and methods of the experimental INSET both in terms of influence on their conceptions of teaching and influence on the improvement of their classroom practice were very similar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 0.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count(c)</td>
<td>c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c, c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>School based INSET</td>
<td>8 3 3 1 2 1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Diagnostic class observation and feedback</td>
<td>11 3 2 1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Summative class observation</td>
<td>9 4 1 2 1 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Peer observation and peer teaching</td>
<td>10 5 1 1 1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Formative class observation</td>
<td>6 2 3 1 1 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>Residential seminars</td>
<td>4 4 4 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Practical application workshop</td>
<td>5 2 4 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Reading assignment</td>
<td>4 3 1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Lectures on techniques and methods</td>
<td>4 2 1 1 1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Cooperative microteaching</td>
<td>3 4 1 1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Viewing of recordings of teaching</td>
<td>3 1 1 1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Feedback on implementation of ideas</td>
<td>2 4 1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Theoretical background</td>
<td>1 1 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 27 (a): Teachers' classification of the forms and methods of the INSET project in terms of influence on improvement of classroom teaching

indicating that in general the methods considered effective in influencing their conceptions were also effective in helping them improve their skills. So it was decided to
treat the two aspects of the question as one with focus on skills improvement.

The table above showed that teachers considered school based INSET involving them and the trainers in their schools as most effective, not only at changing their conception of teaching but also at helping them improve their teaching. Then activities such as practical workshops and microteaching were given priority over theoretical ones. It should be noted that the workshop included pre-teaching and post-teaching activities such as lesson planning and feedback sessions. Microteaching and practical workshop should in fact be on the same rank.

If account was taken of the preceding observations it could be said that teachers rated the following five activities as most effective in order of priority at the residential INSET seminars:

a- Practical workshops and cooperative microteaching
b- Reading assignments
c- Lectures on techniques and methods.
d- Viewing of recordings of teaching
e- Feedback on implementation of ideas.

The high ranking of reading assignments may be explained by the fact that the assignments consisted mainly of articles from English teaching journals and extracts from books of practical interest (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No 13).

Theory was ranked last. However lectures on methods and techniques presenting the rationale behind activities without lengthy discussions of background theory as discussed by Stern (Stern 1983a) were ranked higher than other activities such as viewing of recordings of teaching and even above feedback on the implementation of ideas.
Comparison of experimental and control group teachers' classifications.

The two tables below present experimental and control group teachers' classification of the forms and methods of INSET which they considered as most influential on the improvement of their classroom practice.

The comparison of table 27b and table 27c showed that experimental group teachers placed formative observation last in rank while the control group teachers placed it second after diagnostic class observation. Apart from this difference which was not shown to be statistically significant through the analysis of variance, the classification given by both groups was very similar.
An examination of the experimental group teachers' classification revealed that the methods involving them in collaboration on practical activities among themselves or with trainers were seen as most influential both in terms of modification of their conception of teaching and in terms of improvement of their classroom teaching. Although theoretical background was placed last in the methods of the residential course it should be noted that teachers acknowledged the influence of lectures on methods and techniques at which practical ideas were discussed and generated, by placing them second after practical workshops.

9-4-4-3 Discussion

From the examination of teachers' classification of the various methods used during the project it could be concluded that teachers considered the use of workshops at which could they discuss and implement ideas derived from lectures at residential seminars, and school based INSET meetings, in combination with diagnostic and formative class
observation as most effective in helping them improve their teaching.

Although the experimental group teachers appeared to have given some importance to summative class observation control group teachers put it last on their list. This apparent difference could be due to the fact that experimental group teachers considered it as a useful check on progress from outside after more formative aspects. It would seem then that summative class observation could be more positively considered by teachers if it was preceded by an effective in-service training combining theory and practice with priority on practice and school based help with residential reflection seminars. But it was shown to be no substitute for diagnostic observation followed by school based INSET and formative class observation which were carried out with an action research perspective.

9-4-5 Teachers' likes and dislikes in the implementation process.

The comparison of teachers' likes and dislikes (see Appendix to chapter 9 No. 44) showed that there were more happy teachers than unhappy ones. Besides, the reference to the relaxed atmosphere and lack of pressure from outside showed that teachers were also interested in the more psychological and social aspects of the organisation with special interest in independence from central authorities.

As for the dislikes the first one related to the intensity of work at the seminars. This needs some comment with reference to a second complaint related to the non adherence to the programme. First the residential seminars were planned not so much to cover all aspects of communicative language teaching theory and techniques but mainly to provide opportunities for mutual consultation on ways in
which alternative approaches to teaching specific aspects of the new course could be explored in the light of some theoretical background to communicative teaching.

This underlying priority sometimes made some changes to the more formal presentations planned on the timetable necessary to accommodate a fruitful workshop at which teachers exchanged ideas and experience on their practice and attempts to implement new techniques. At the same time momentum needed to be maintained to sustain interest and facilitate learning. This seemed to have been seen by some teachers as too demanding.

9-4-6 Teachers' requirements for participation in INSET

The following list presents, in order of the number of times they were mentioned (in brackets), conditions teachers thought should be fulfilled for them to take part in an INSET programme:

a) Good logistic organisation and good planning and coordination of activities (11)
b) Financial and material support (8)
c) Encouragement or at least positive neutrality of educational authorities (8)
d) Relevance of programme to daily problems of classroom practice and feedback discussions (7)
e) Reward participation (5)
f) Teachers' own financial contribution for less reliance on outside money and self-sacrifice and goodwill (5)
g) Provision and/or production of pedagogical documents by coordinators and participants (4)
h) Reduction of classroom teaching load (1)
i) Organisation of teachers' own private association (1)
This list, apart from its consistency with teachers' opinion on a similar question before the experiment reflected teachers' willingness to take responsibility for their own professional development if only educational authorities would encourage them to do so or at least adopt a positive neutrality.

9-4-7 Rating of the success of the experimental INSET

9-4-7-1 General observations

Almost all 20 participants in the experiment considered the experiment as a success. Indeed 55% of them rated it as very successful, 35% as successful, 10% rated it as partially successful and none rated it as unsuccessful. So 18 out of the 20 participants considered the experiment to be a full success.

9-4-7-2 Difference between experimental and control groups.

No overall significant difference was noted between experimental and control group teachers. It perhaps needs to be noted though that while 67% (8 cases) of experimental teachers rated the experiment as very successful only 33% (2 cases) of control teachers did so.

9-4-7-3 Difference between trained and untrained teachers

No marked difference was noted between trained and untrained teachers. But trained teachers seemed to have a slightly more positive evaluation of the success of the project than untrained teachers.

9-4-7-4 Discussion
As a whole, allowing for the risks of possible tendency towards 'yea saying' acknowledged earlier, the general feeling among participants, as evidenced by their rating of the success of the experiment, was a feeling of satisfaction, of time well spent and of motivation to take responsibility for their continuous professional development. In these regards the experimental INSET has perhaps met its objectives.

9-5  **Pupil progress and evaluation of the INSET project.**

This section is concerned with the findings as regards objective E of the study, related to questions 13 to 16 (see Chapter One sections 1-1-2 and 1-1-3). The questions essentially investigated whether or not the communicative oriented language teaching, reflected in the new syllabus and the adopted textbook on which the INSET programme was centred could help pupils cope effectively with accuracy centred, writing focussed tests and examinations, as in effect in Benin; and whether in pupils' opinions pair/group work, as a basis for this teaching/learning, could work and was perceived as advantageous.

On the other hand these questions checked what happened in the classrooms as globally perceived by pupils and whether the experimental INSET made any difference to these perceptions. But before the main analyses the analysis of the data collected on pupils' home and classroom environments will be presented.

9-5-1  **Home environment and socio-economic background**

Pupils' answers to questions related to their home environment were analysed using first simple frequencies of global tendencies followed by Discriminant analysis and
Kruskall Wallis test of variance (Norusis, 1985) to examine differences between experimental and control group pupils. The distribution of variables as percentages of relevant categories appears as in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variables</th>
<th>value labels</th>
<th>percentages</th>
<th>total cases for all variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caretaker</td>
<td>parents</td>
<td>.61 63 57</td>
<td>130 100 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tutor</td>
<td>.21 21 23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>myself</td>
<td>.18 16 20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job status</td>
<td>has a job</td>
<td>.65 62 73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>has no job</td>
<td>.35 38 27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kind of job</td>
<td>low income</td>
<td>.65 92 60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>average income</td>
<td>.15 8 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reads English</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.10 8 17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.90 92 83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speaks English</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.9 7 17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.91 93 83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writes English</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.6 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.94 94 93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English tuition</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.3 2 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.97 98 93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>separate study</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.46 42 60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.54 58 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>room</td>
<td>electricity</td>
<td>.15 8 37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>study room</td>
<td>kerosine lamp</td>
<td>.95 92 53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lighting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impression of</td>
<td>sufficient</td>
<td>.45 40 63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.55 60 37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calorie in food</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Africa</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.26 24 33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.74 76 67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other books</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.81 83 73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.19 17 27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at home tape</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>.51 48 63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>.49 52 37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tv at home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28: Distribution of home variables

9-5-1-1 General Observations

The distribution showed that 61% of pupils were cared for by their parents (father or mother or both) and about 20% had
to rely on a tutor for their upkeep and 20% had to rely on themselves. Although the majority of parents (65%) had a job, 85% of them had only a low income job, that is most of them are small peasants, small craftsmen and women, market women and salesmen, primary teachers and junior secondary teachers, nurses, taxi drivers, local community leaders in agriculture, local policemen and policewomen, etc. Only 15% of them had an average income job (senior secondary teachers, custom officers, head teachers, agronomists, local bank managers, civil engineers, civil administrators, police officers, landowners, entrepreneurs, average traders, taxi owners, etc.). More than 90% of them were illiterate in English.

97% of pupils had no personal tuition in English at home. But 52% of them reported that they spent between 3 and 5 hours per week studying English by themselves. Less than half of them (46%) had a separate study room. As far as learning materials were concerned, 81% of respondents reported having some books in English at home, and 51% had access to radio, tape recorders or television. But only 26% had English Africa available at home. More than half of the pupils (55%) reported that they did not have enough food throughout the year to sustain them in their work.

9-5-1-2 Difference between experimental and control group pupils

It was observed that a higher proportion of control group pupils had conditions that might be considered as more favourable to study than experimental pupils. A discriminant analysis (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No. 15) showed that the following variables in particular discriminate the two groups: caretaker's job, lighting of study room, caretaker, English books at home, sufficiency of food, personal study time English Africa at home, fluency in writing, speaking,
and reading English. A more conservative non parametric test reduced these variables to 3 main ones as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variables</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>cases</th>
<th>mean ranks</th>
<th>corrected for ties</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kind of job done</td>
<td>(experimental)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60.70</td>
<td>10.0131</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by caretaker</td>
<td>(control)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>81.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>study room lighting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>70.32</td>
<td>10.4138</td>
<td>0.0013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>49.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sufficiency of calorie in food</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>69.00</td>
<td>5.0299</td>
<td>0.0249</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 29: Variation between experimental and control pupils on home environment

9-5-2 Classroom environment

9-5-2-1 General observations.

Table 30 overleaf sums up the frequencies statistics on pupils' report on their classroom environments.

The following observations could be made on this report.

* Class size and physical conditions of classrooms.
  - 58% of pupils work in class of 31 to 50 pupils. On the assumption that a class of over 30 is a large class it could be said that most respondents belonged to large classes which reflected the general picture in the country.
  - 90% of respondents considered that there was enough room in their classes for group formation and group activities.
  - 57% reported that their classrooms were too hot and had water coming in when it rained.

* Equipment and facilities: It was noted that although there were enough chairs/benches and tables for all pupils to share and sit at, they had to sit too close to each other for comfort, especially when doing individual work. All the classes were given enough books to be shared between two pupils. But more than 60% had no other study books. 98% had
### Table 30: Distribution of classroom variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Labels</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
<th>Cases for all variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>number of pupils</td>
<td>8-15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>130 100 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in class</td>
<td>16-30</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good airing of class</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good lighting of class</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heat in class</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>water in class</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enough room in class</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>row to move about</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enough room in school</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class to form group</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>room in class for</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demonstration in front</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>availability of radio</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recorder</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or tv</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schools</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher in form 1</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher in form 2</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher in form 3</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher in form 4</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher in form 3</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher in form 4</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regularity of teacher</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current teacher</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 30: Distribution of classroom variables.

no listening or viewing equipment. About 70% had no clubs where they could practise and use English.

*Availability of teachers:* About 50% had not had a teacher of English in their first three years of English learning. 80% had one in the final year of junior secondary.
90% reported the regularity of attendance of their current teachers.

**Differences between experimental and control group pupils**

Both groups were reportedly similar in almost all variables. Of the 19 variables considered, the discriminant analysis showed that the two groups differed only on seven (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No. 16). The analysis of variance showed that, of these, only on the one related to room in class for demonstration was there a significant variance between the two groups with more experimental group pupils giving a positive answer to the question (p<0.004) in addition to that of heat in class (p<0.01).

**Discussion**

As a whole, in view of the overall perceptions of home background and school environment by pupils, one may be justified in considering the characteristics of English teaching in Benin as one taking place in difficult circumstances as in other West African countries (Kouraogo, 1987).

Indeed it appeared that at home most pupils had to study by poor lighting in their parents' or tutors' living room with children, visitors, or the caretakers themselves talking, listening to the radio or watching television, or even worse, quarrelling and screaming. School environments were also unfavourable with inadequate equipment and shortage of teachers.

It has however been noted that while both groups of pupils had fairly similar perceptions of their classrooms, a significantly higher proportion of control pupils reported
more favourable home environments than experimental pupils. This might be due to the fact that two of the control schools were in towns that could be considered, as relatively urbanized by Beninese standards.

9-5-4 Hypothesis No 3: no significant difference in experimental group and control group pupils' progress

In order to examine the relationship between teachers' participation in the INSET project and pupil progress the hypothesis was put forward that experimental group pupils would not only improve on their own pretreatment performance at accuracy focussed written English achievement tests, but would also do as well as control group pupils in these tests (see raw data in the appendix to Chapter 9 No 17).

9-5-4-1 Within group comparisons

Pupils' tests scores before the project and after it (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No. 18) showed that both control and experimental pupils improved on their pretest performance at posttest. But while the improvement of the control group pupils was significant (p< 0.017) with a difference between means of 5.3659 the experimental group pupils' improvement was very significant (p<0.000) with a difference between means of 10.3400 twice as much as the difference noted for control group pupils.

When other pretreatment scores were compared with other posttreatment scores, it was noted on the one hand that control group pupils had actually significantly regressed in terms of their annual average mark in English in the year of the INSET project (1988) compared with the previous year (p<0.055) with a difference between means of mark of -4.2776. On the other hand the experimental group pupils
improved almost significantly \( (p<0.090) \) with a difference between means of 2.0185.

As for average marks in English at BEPC examinations there was a slight improvement in the performance of both groups which did not reach significance level. However, here also, the experimental group did better than the control group with a difference between means of 3.3158 against 2.000 for the control group. Still, when their general academic achievements as measured by their general average marks the previous year and the year of the experiment were compared it was noted that while the control group did significantly better the previous year than the year of the project \( (p<0.048) \) there was no significant difference between the two averages for experimental group pupils.

9-5-4-2 Between group comparisons

The t-tests of difference between groups (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No 19) showed that both at pretest and at posttest the differences between experimental group pupils' scores and control group pupils' scores were not significant. But while the control group had a higher score than experimental group at pretest with a difference between means of 1.4220, at post-test the experimental group had done better than control pupils with a difference between means of 3.5522.

This tendency of the experimental group pupils to score higher than the control group pupils was significantly marked when their average marks in English the previous year and the year of the experiment were compared. While the difference, which was in favour of the control group was not significant the previous year, it was so for the year of the experiment and in favour of the experimental group \( (p<0.05) \) with a difference between means of about 5.
Their general average marks for the year of the project were practically equal as well while the control group's average mark the previous year was significantly higher ($p<0.049$).

The same trend was noted for their examination mark although here the difference in either case was not significant. But a marked improvement was noted also in the current examination mark in English on the part of the experimental group compared with the control group despite the lack of match between the traditional tests used and more communicative tests to reflect the demands of the new curriculum and textbook.

9-5-5 Hypothesis No 4: no difference in the performances of pupils in untrained and pre-service trained teachers' classes.

It was also hypothesised for the evaluation of the influence of the INSET project on pupil progress that pupils in previously untrained teachers' classes would do as well as pupils in pre-service trained teachers' classes at the end of the experiment.

9-5-5-1 Within group comparisons

The t-test of difference between pretreatment scores and posttreatment scores showed approximately the same trend as the within group comparison for the experimental and control groups with pre-service trained teachers' pupils doing better at posttest and at posttreatment tests than they did at pretreatment scores. The difference was very significant for posttest (0.000) and significant for annual average mark in English. The untrained teachers' pupils also did significantly better at posttest than at pretest ($p<0.000$),
but they did less well for the other scores except for the examination where a slight improvement was noted.

9-5-5-2 Between group comparisons

The t-test of difference between groups on the various tests scores showed that at pretest the two groups had almost the same average marks while at posttest the trained teachers' pupils had done better than the untrained teachers' pupils. But the difference was only marginally significant \((p<0.094)\). As was the case in the between group comparison for experimental and control group pupils the difference in performance became significant \((p<0.04)\) when the current average annual marks in English were compared and almost so for the current examination mark.

9-5-6 Overall comparison of pupil performance with other achievement tests scores

A general comparison of pupils' performance across various achievement scores as an approximate estimation of pupils' proficiency in English before the project and after it using a multi-variate analysis of variance MANOVA showed that the interaction between group status and teacher status was very near the 0.05 significance level \((\text{Hotellings test } p<0.098)\). The effect of the tests, that is the pupils' test scores on teacher status was not significant \((\text{Hotellings test } p<0.128)\); but their effects on group status was very near the 0.05 significance level \((\text{Hotellings test } p<0.074)\).

A look at the cell information showed that the experimental group had higher scores at posttreatment scores than the control group. Within subject effects showed that there was no significant interaction of test, teacher status and group status \((\text{Hotellings test, } p<0.948)\). But there was again a very significant difference between pretreatment tests
scores and posttreatment tests scores (Hotellings test \(p < 0.001\)). But there was no significant interaction between tests and teacher status (Hotellings test \(p < 0.989\)). There was also no significant difference between groups and tests (Hotellings \(p < 938\)) although there was a significant difference between pretreatment tests scores and post treatment tests scores (Hotellings \(p < 0.000\)).

A note of caution is needed here before any hasty inference. The listwise deletion of missing cases for all the 8 tests analysed had resulted in the rejection of 100 cases out of 142 and only 42 cases were accepted in the multiple analysis of variance programme with 37 cases for experimental group (88.09% of all cases accepted) and 5 cases for control group (11.91%). Having said that it remains however interesting to notice that this overall comparison confirmed the previous analysis done with pretest and posttest scores only as well as those done with all the other achievement tests scores, using t-tests.

9-5-7 Discussion

The analyses in the two sections above supported the two hypotheses put forward in terms of teacher participation in the INSET project, pre-service training and pupil progress. The interaction between teacher status and group status revealed by the multiple analysis of variance calls for some caution in the effect of pre-service trained teachers' participation in the INSET and pupil progress.

In both hypotheses the difference between the two groups i.e. experimental and control group pupils' and trained and untrained teachers' pupils' performances was quite moderate, especially when only the pretest and posttest administered by the researcher were considered, failing the 0.05 significance level.
Thus the results dissipated the fear that the new curriculum with emphasis on communicative teaching might lower pupils' standards and reduce their ability to cope with accuracy focussed written examinations. The experimental group pupils were not adversely affected by the project. On the contrary they were positively affected by it as their marks were higher than those of the control group. Although this positive difference in favour of the experimental group did not reach significance level, allowing for the problems of the use of test scores discussed earlier and taking account of the pupils' presage variables examined at the beginning of this investigation of pupil progress, it would seem that the experimental pupils had done well indeed, given the less favourable conditions in which they worked.

Finally it should be added that this finding of only a moderate pupil progress in terms of language test scores concurs with the findings of other studies such as those of Young and Lee (1985), Ifeannyi (1980). But given the relatively short time of the study, and especially, as will be presently seen, in view of the positive subjective evaluation of progress in language learning and of the whole INSET project in terms of views on the underlying communicative language teaching/learning approach by pupils themselves the results could be seen as encouraging as other studies which claimed marked progress in pupils' achievement such as those done in Thailand, India and Nigeria (see Avalos & Haddad (1981) and other more recent studies reviewed by Crossley & Guthrie (1987).

Hypotheses No 5: more positive views from experimental group pupils on the new curriculum

Pupils' evaluation of the experimental INSET was analysed with the hypothesis that experimental pupils will have more positive views on the new curriculum as implemented through
English Africa and the methodological approach for its use in class than pupils in control classes.

9-5-8-1  Pupils' evaluation of the use made of **English Africa** in their classes

This subsection reports on pupils views on the communicative approach to the teaching of English Africa with special reference to their experience of pair/group work. The table overleaf presents their agreements or disagreements with statements about their English Class (lessons).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variable</th>
<th>value label</th>
<th>agree=1</th>
<th>disagree=2</th>
<th>general</th>
<th>mental</th>
<th>experiential</th>
<th>control</th>
<th>general</th>
<th>mental</th>
<th>cases for all variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>class is instructive</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class focussed on</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical use of English</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class adapted to</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pupils' level</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is concrete</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is satisfactory</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is coherent</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is varied</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is easy</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is pupil centred</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is interesting</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class makes pupils talk</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than the teacher</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>47</td>
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<td>120</td>
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<td>62</td>
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<td>35</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class focusses more on</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communication than rules</td>
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<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class is realistic</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class encourages</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cooperative discovery</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 31: Distribution of pupils' agreements with statements about their English lessons.
The table below shows that the majority of pupils' (between 54% and 85%) agreed with positive statements about their classes. But there was a great deal of divergence. 67% of pupils did not agree that the class encouraged cooperative discovery. While 68% found the class satisfactory 32% did not. 75% reported they were satisfied with their classes and 25% said they were not. To another version of the same question asking them if the method used in class to exploit the textbook was efficient, 60% reported that it was and 40% disagreed. 75% reported that they had made progress in English and 25% reported that they had not.

A higher percentage of experimental group pupils reacted positively to their English classes than control group pupils. The following table showed the variables which significantly discriminated between the two groups as shown through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variables</th>
<th>groups</th>
<th>cases</th>
<th>mean ranks</th>
<th>corrected for ties</th>
<th>significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>chi-square</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degree of satisfaction with class</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60.55</td>
<td>13.4389</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress in English</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>61.45</td>
<td>8.069</td>
<td>0.0045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>79.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>easiness of class</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62.50</td>
<td>4.0062</td>
<td>0.0453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>encouragement of cooperative discovery</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60.99</td>
<td>9.3378</td>
<td>0.0024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>80.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variety in class activities</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62.20</td>
<td>5.0069</td>
<td>0.0254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>76.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pupil centredness of class</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60.35</td>
<td>11.5901</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>82.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical use of English</td>
<td>.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>63.24</td>
<td>3.0834</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orientation of class</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>73.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 32: Kruskal Wallis Analysis of variance between experimental and control pupils' opinions on their English classes (lessons).
In spite of some variation in the rate of agreement with the various statements aiming to elicit pupils' evaluation of the ways in which the textbook was used in class it appeared that between 60 and 75% of respondents found the class efficient, satisfactory and effective.

It also clearly appeared that the two groups markedly differed on critical variables which marked off the methodological approach underlying the INSET project from normal classroom practice. This observation could be an indication that the INSET project had been effective to some extent in influencing teachers' classroom practice as perceived by their own pupils. This difference in practice seemed to have had some influence on pupils' impression of personal progress in English as significantly more experimental group pupils were satisfied with their lessons \( p<0.0002 \) and had made progress in English \( p<0.004 \) than control group pupils.

Pupils' views of the positive aspects of their lessons

General observations

Pupils cited the following as positive aspects of their lessons classified in descending order:

a- Pair and group work
b- Traditional language presentation (formal vocabulary presentation, pupils' sentences with new words, grammatical structure presentation, reading aloud, formal exercises etc.)
c- First hand approach (pupils' confrontation with learning task (text) on their own before teacher intervention).
d- Innovative language presentation (silent reading, use of dictionary, matching meanings with words, explaining only words pupils did not know and could not guess on their own, occasional use of translation into French or local languages, looking at grammar mainly through meaningful exercises with
These processes and activities were seen as positive aspects because of the following advantages:

a- Encouragement of pupils' personal investment (research and discovery): participation—even of weak pupils—and public presentation helped them to understand texts better, enrich their vocabulary, use English more and better than before, improve their skills in writing, increase their interest in the language, develop their intelligence and creativity.

b- Work in small groups: it facilitated pupils' ability to speak in front of whole class, developed their community spirit, helped them manage interpersonal conflicts and ease tensions by making them collaborate on common tasks necessitating that they spoke to one another and developed their self control and ability to teach what they knew to others.

c- Songs and games: they helped pupils to relax and get back their "attention which was in [their] mothers' cooking pots'.

d- Transfer: class methods helped to do exercises in other subjects.

e- Cultural relevance of class: it helped pupils make sense of lessons.

9-5-8-2-2 Difference between experimental and control group pupils

The distribution of answers indicated that a higher proportion of experimental group pupils mentioned as positive, aspects typically characteristic of the alternative approach to teaching underlying the experimental INSET such as pair and group work, pupil participation and language use. Conversely, most control group pupils mentioned as positive, aspects that could be characterised as traditional language presentation. In order to establish how marked these differences were a Kruskall Wallis test of variance was computed with the following results.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variables</th>
<th>groups</th>
<th>cases</th>
<th>mean ranks</th>
<th>corrected for ties</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pupil participation and</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60.86</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>8.99701</td>
<td>0.0027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language use</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>80.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pair/group work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>58.66</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>88.30</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.0955</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>better retention</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>71.75</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocabulary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>44.67</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.0463</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>traditional language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>71.71</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>presentation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>46.78</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.4554</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>revision of</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>67.42</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>previous work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>59.10</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.8195</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creativity and</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>66.73</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intelligence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>61.40</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.1617</td>
<td>0.0413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distribution of books</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>66.36</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>62.65</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.2998</td>
<td>0.0693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>community spirit and</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>63.65</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.7838</td>
<td>0.0952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collaboration</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>72.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

table 33: Kruskall Wallis oneway analysis of variance between experimental and control pupils on their perception of the positive aspects of their classes

9-5-8-2-3

Discussion

The table confirmed the observation made earlier. All the variables cited by a markedly higher proportion of experimental pupils, namely pupil participation and language use, pair/group work, were characteristic of communicative teaching and learner centredness. On the other hand most of the variables mentioned by a significantly higher proportion of pupils in the control group were related to traditional language teaching. This confirmed the effectiveness of the experimental INSET.

As a whole although control teachers were given all the information needed for integrating the alternative communicative approach to language teaching to their classroom practice their practice remained predominantly traditional as perceived by their pupils. This confirmed the observers' opinions at posttests as discussed earlier.
Negative aspects of the English class as perceived by pupils

General observations

The criticisms mentioned by pupils could be grouped in three categories, with percentages related to all 130 cases.

a) drawbacks of pair and group work

- weak people become weaker and are discouraged 11%
- strong pupils dominate groups 10%
- slow thinkers are disadvantaged as others solved problems or give answers before they are ready 5%
- note taking is neglected 5%
- lack of time to complete lessons and exercises 5%
- inability to produce accurate English 3%
- grouping procedures give unbalanced groups 2%
- difficulty to do revision due to scanty notes 2%
- difficulty to adapt to new methods 2%
- minority opinions rejected initially become acceptable later 1%
- group formation wastes time 1%
- too much is demanded of pupils and too little of teacher 1%

b) inadequate treatment of language

- inadequate treatment of grammar 9%
- difficulty to understand text 9%
- inadequate treatment of vocabulary 9%
- inadequate treatment of pronunciation 5%
- non correction of exercises 3%

c) teacher behaviour and teacher-pupil interaction

- teacher does not take class seriously 8%
- teacher talks too much 3%
- teacher does not encourage people 3%
- teacher does not speak aloud 3%
- teacher speaks French 2%
- teacher is too strict 2%
- teacher gets angry when contradicted 2%
- teacher does not use pupils' ideas 1%

Difference between groups
An analysis of variance revealed that significantly more pupils in the experimental group raised most of the criticisms related to pair/group work and communicative teaching than control pupils.

Discussion

Most of the negative aspects mentioned by pupils were related to pair and group work where 12 criticisms were raised. This showed that although this alternative was generally seen as successful it posed practical problems as well as conceptual problems to some pupils whose views of what teaching, and teaching language in particular should be about did not conform to what went on in their lessons. This interpretation is in line with the respondent who considered that too much was demanded from the pupil while too little was required from the teacher. In her own words "our teacher this year is very lazy; he makes us do all the work" Some of the criticisms raised were also pointed out at the second residential INSET seminar and suggestions were made to help teachers work out a solution according to their classroom contexts (see section 9-2).

As concerns the treatment of language, the points raised were largely representative of the conflicts between communicative teaching and audio-lingual and grammar translation based teaching. Indeed most of the criticisms were raised against the lack of systematic grammar and vocabulary teaching, and pronunciation exercises, which were aspects generally treated as of secondary importance in a communicative approach in favour of fluency in use rather than accuracy in usage.

The apparently surprising result of the comparison between groups may be understood as further evidence that experimental teachers had more noticeably departed from the
traditional approach than control teachers and had tried new alternatives. Indeed it was generally noted that only those teachers and pupils who had experienced a different approach could more closely see where there might be a need for change. Last, but not least, this difference between experimental and control pupils may be a tribute to the development of the former's awareness of the need and possibility of freely evaluating their classroom work with explicit reference to their teachers' weaknesses.

In sum it appeared that relatively few pupils (46%) voiced negative criticisms. But the wide spectrum of issues raised, ranging from general comments about classroom activities to specific teachers' behaviour and attitudes towards their work and their pupils, was an indication of the importance of the contribution pupils could make to the improvement of teachers' classroom behaviours if they were given the opportunity more often to voice their opinions. This was also evidenced by the substantial number (37) and variety of suggestions they made for the improvement of the use of the book in class some of which had to do with the need for pupils themselves to take responsibility for their learning. (see Appendix to chapter 9 No 20 for details).

This finding contradicts the studies reported by Braskamp et al. (1984), referred to earlier in Chapter Five which suggested that although pupils were discriminating judges they were better at criticising than at suggesting alternatives. The evidence here suggested that they could be good at both. But of course, as with most suggestions, it would be up to those concerned to judge the relevance, usefulness and applicability of their suggestions in the light of other factors pupils might not necessarily be aware of.

9-6 Evaluation of English Africa

9-6-1 Pupils' evaluation of English Africa
The table below sums up pupils' opinions on *English Africa* (E.A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variables</th>
<th>value labels</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
<th>cases for all variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-agree</td>
<td>general</td>
<td>control mental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is attractive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>83 90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is instructive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>80 87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. encourages pupils' own discovery</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>82 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is well presented</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>78 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is clear</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23 23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is interesting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is rich in grammar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>76 67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is stimulating</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>68 63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>32 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is practical</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>69 63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is at my level</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>71 67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is rich in vocabulary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>70 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is adapted to Benin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>66 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>34 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A. is easy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>66 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>34 40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*table 34: Distribution of pupils' views on *English Africa* as percentages of categories*

9-6-1-1 General observations

Between 65% and 85% of respondents agreed that the book fulfilled the criteria suggested for its evaluation. But while the overwhelming majority of pupils agreed on its physical attractiveness, instructiveness and self-study orientation, there was a sizable minority (30% who did not think that the book was easy or adapted to the socio-cultural context of Benin and had some reservations about its richness in vocabulary.

9-6-1-2 Difference between experimental and control group pupils
It was observed that the rate of agreement in both groups followed the same pattern on most variables. A Kruskall Wallis test of variance did not show any significant difference between them. It was however noted that while control pupils tended to agree on criteria related to more general aspects and impressions on the book, experimental pupils tended to agree on criteria related to more specific content or interactional aspects of the book (e.g. EA encourages pupils' own discovery, is rich in vocabulary), a probable indication of their more intensive interaction with the book.

9-6-1-3 Suggestions for improvement

The following suggestions for improvement ordered by percentages of respondents making them were made for later editions.
- add more grammar teaching 44%
- add more vocabulary teaching 24%
- add more text work 12%
- add more notions and functions 8%
- include translation 8%
- include more difficult exercises 5%
- add more composition exercises 5%
- add more African stories 4%
- add more pair and group work 4%
- include text on African history 4%
- include songs 2%

While the above aspects were suggested for inclusion the following were suggested for omission:
- leave out cloze texts 12%
- leave out exercises on describing pictures 2%
- leave out text on choosing the most important things 2%
- leave out revision units 2%
- leave out poem texts 2%

9-6-1-4 Discussion
It appeared from the analysis that pupils' opinions of English Africa were generally positive. The overwhelming majority was happy with most of the topics and themes covered by the units and very interested in the crosscurricular approach adopted for their selection. However a sizable minority would like more explicit grammar to be included in the textbook. Some also expressed reservations as to the socio-cultural relevance of some of the texts and activities. But on the whole the suggestions seemed to indicate that pupils would like, not the outright rejection of the innovative activities contained in the book, but their integration into more familiar features of traditional textbooks.

9-6-2 Teachers' evaluation of English Africa

9-6-2-1 General observations

90% of teachers found English Africa enjoyable with a suitable coverage of topics and situations. Between 35% and 85% of them found it suitable on all the other criteria suggested for its evaluation. Criteria on which there was only half or less of the total number of respondents agreeing on its suitability included coverage of formal language aspects (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation), helpfulness of the teachers' guides, ideological and cultural value of texts, provisions for learner individual differences, social relations likely to be encouraged or reinforced by the interaction pattern implied in the book, relevance and appropriacy to learners' interests and capabilities. (see Appendix to Chapter 9 No 21 for more details)

9-6-2-2 Difference between experimental and control group teachers.

Although the distribution of frequencies showed more variety of views among experimental group teachers they markedly
differ from control group teachers only on the variable related to the social relations likely to be encouraged or reinforced by the book and the ideological and cultural relevance of texts (p< 0.05).

9-6-2-3 Suggestions for the improvement of English Africa

Three main suggestions were made by teachers: need to correct the typographical, content and other errors in the book mentioned by 30% of respondents, need to include pronunciation practice, mentioned by 25% of respondents, need to vary the text from its Nigerian focus to a wider range of contexts and texts, mentioned by 15% of respondents.

9-6-2-4 Discussion

On the whole, opinions about the textbook were highly positive as concerns its suitability for the educational objectives pursued by the ELT curriculum in Benin. In this, teacher trainers and teachers were in agreement with pupils as seen earlier.

However a close interaction with the book, of the kind experienced by experimental group teachers and pupils, showed that there was room for improvement. Thus in spite of the overall African orientation of texts and topics, teachers, as well as pupils' opinions were fairly divided on its socio-cultural and ideological suitability and its coverage of formal aspects of language. On a more positive note the book was found highly enjoyable, physically attractive, with up to date and valid information, very instructive and supportive of pupils' personal investment.
CHAPTER TEN SUMMARY AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Despite the constraints under which the study was carried out (economic and administrative constraints resulting from the non official status of the study as discussed in Chapter 8 subsection 8-2-2-1-1-1), the preceding analyses of the results in Chapter 9 indicated that the study achieved its objectives to a large extent. This shows that with a minimum commitment a great deal could be achieved in helping teachers take responsibility for their own professional development and gain competence and confidence in implementing change in the curriculum. The present chapter sums up the findings, draws some general conclusions and proposes some recommendations.

10-1 Summary

This study observed that provisions for English language teacher education in Benin were mainly focussed on pre-service training (Chapter 2, Section 3, Subsection 2-3-2-2-2 in particular of the present report) (all other references in this chapter are to the present report unless otherwise stated). But the curriculum innovation undertaken in the wake of the Education Reform demanded more than the extensive pre-service training policy adopted. It required an intensive in-service training and education programme (Chapter 2, Subsection 2-2-4 in particular).

It was also shown that the educational objectives in the country, the inadequacy of the prevailing curriculum with regard to these objectives, and developments in the study of language and language learning justified the innovation which gave a communicative orientation to ELT (see Chapter 1, Subsection 1-3-2 and Chapter 2, Subsections 2-2-2 to 2-2-4 in particular). This orientation was particularly justified in view of the roles assigned to English and other
foreign languages in the overall language policy of the Education Reform (Research Objective A, Chapters 1 and 2).

The study showed that initial teacher training, although fairly satisfactory as a whole, gave priority to academic education at the expense of professional training (see Chapter 2 Subsection 2-3-1-1-2 and Chapter 9 Subsection 9-1-1 in particular). It also showed that in-service training, in spite of the numerous structures set up for it, was perceived as inadequate in practice by teachers who still valued it, in principle, as the most important component of teacher education conceived of as a life long process (Research Objective A and B Chapter 2, Subsection 2-3-2-2-2 and Chapter 9 Subsection 9-1-2-8 in particular).

On the basis of these observations and the review of the literature on teacher education and methodology with special reference to language teaching, an experimental action research based in-service programme (INSET project) was carried out. It aimed to facilitate the implementation of the new curriculum, through a more communicative and learner centred use, in class, of English Africa, the new textbook adopted in the second cycle (Research Objective C, Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8).

The results of this project were positive, mainly in terms of teachers' confidence in teaching the new curriculum whose applicability they had established (Research Objective C Chapter 9, Subsection, 9-4-3 and 9-4-4), and in terms of improvement of their ability to integrate pair/group work into their classroom practice (Research Objective C Chapter 9, Subsection 9-3-4-2).

The relationship between these positive results and pupils' performance was moderate but positive. The experimental group pupils scored significantly higher at post-test than
at pre-test. But the difference between this improvement and that of the control group was not shown to be statistically significant. However it showed that the experimental group pupils scored moderately higher than control group pupils when their test scores were globally compared (research objective E, Chapter 9 Subsections 9-5-4, 9-5-6 and 9-5-7). This confirmed the hypothesis that participation in the project, and by extension the implementation of the new curriculum which it aimed to facilitate did not adversely affect pupils' progress as traditionally measured by accuracy focused tests.

There were some indications that the action research orientation of the INSET course greatly contributed to this success (Research Objective D Chapter 9 Subsection 9-4-5-3). The course was indeed geared towards teachers' active participation and reflection in action in the setting of their schools (school based INSET), facilitated and supported by diagnostic and formative evaluations and by residential seminars at which theoretical ideas and rationale were discussed, contextualised and integrated to practice in controlled settings, through practical workshops and exploratory microteaching (school centred residential seminars) (Research Objective D, Chapter 9, Subsection 9-4-4-3).

10-2 Conclusions

The study, although apparently successful, awakened the researcher to some fundamental problems and concerns and raised a number of specific issues and questions in relation to the main thrust of the study which is INSET for teacher effectiveness. It also raised fundamental problems and specific issues and questions as regards the secondary concern of the study which is the integration of communicative teaching into classroom practice which the
INSET project aimed to facilitate, and its effect on pupil progress in the context of Benin.

10-2-1 Fundamental problems and concerns as regards INSET and teacher effectiveness

10-2-1-1 Pre-service-in-service relationship and teachers' professional development

The findings of the present study suggested that the implicit attitude in Benin about teacher training which seemed to consider teachers graduating from the Ecole Normale Supérieure as trained once for all might be misconceived.

Given the continuous development in general and pedagogical knowledge and the creative nature of pedagogy it does not seem possible nor perhaps desirable to aim to equip trainee teachers with knowledge and skills for their whole professional lives during their initial training. So pre-service training should be considered as an awareness raising step in the process of lifelong learning for professional development, carried out through INSET and other learning experiences (Chapter 9, Subsection 9-1-2-8).

10-2-1-2 The macro socio-political context

Throughout the study, the link between the effectiveness of teacher training in improving teacher effectiveness and the context in which both teacher training and teaching took place was forcefully brought to the researcher's attention. (see Chapter 1 Subsection 1-3-2, Chapter 2, Subsection 2-3-1-1-2 and 2-3-2, Chapter 9, Subsection 9-1-2-6 and 9-4-6). Frequent references were made to the political environment, to the revaluing of the teachers' professional and socio-economic status, to the need for the
St'ate to give priority to education, and for educational authorities to encourage teachers' initiatives or at least adopt a positive neutrality towards these initiatives (see Chapters and Subsections cited above in this paragraph). In this, the study clearly showed, as did studies reviewed by Corrigan (1980, in Hopkins, 1986), that there was a need to create a 'milieu for in-service education'. It supported the view that "no significant change will take place in teachers or the teaching profession until the situation in which teachers work is changed" (Corrigan, 1980 in Hopkins, 1986: 110). It became clear to the researcher, especially after the protracted teachers' strike which brought the whole educational system in Benin to a standstill for two years, just after the completion of his fieldwork that

The educational system will not improve merely by changing programmes of teacher education at colleges and universities, if we prepare teachers with the latest knowledge and then place them in a work situation where they cannot use the new knowledge and skill, we merely exacerbate the situation (Corrigan op.cit in Hopkins op.cit: 110-111)

On the basis of these observations the following conclusions were drawn:

Conclusion No. 1: Language teacher education and INSET in particular, to be effective should not only concern itself with teachers' transactional roles for improved professionality, but it should also include and facilitate discussion and awareness of their interactional roles for more professionalism. It should, in Habermas's terminology, be practical as well as emancipatory (see Chapter 3, Subsection 3-1-3, Chapter 7 Subsection 7-2-1 and 7-2-3).

10-2-1-3 The context of school administration and leadership
The importance of the attitude of school administrations and the leadership role of headmasters, not only for the application of the suggested alternative approaches to teaching/learning but also for teachers' learning and development was noted throughout the year long touring of the dozen or so schools involved in the project. The researcher's observations confirmed the adult learning principle of 'situational press' which assumes that "learning results from modifications in the school setting after constraints on behaviour have been either removed or erected" and from "the occurrence of facilitating, enabling or helpful aspects in the work situation." (Corrigan, Haberman and Howey, 1979 in Hopkins, 1986:122) The lesson from this experience is summed up in the following conclusion.

Conclusion 2: It is essential for proponents of educational innovations, not only to 'sell' their ideas to central authorities and teachers, but also to local educational authorities who have direct responsibility for the school setting. In particular it is essential to work in close association with them if teacher training for the implementation of innovations is to have any lasting influence on teacher effectiveness.

10-2-1-4 The context of the individual teacher's professional status and job satisfaction

Most teachers complained about the downgrading of the profession and its demoralising effect on them and on their teaching (Chapter 9, Subsections 9-1-2-6 and 9-4-6). This situation was reflected in a large number of untrained teachers in the project, whose job status was unclear and who had an active feeling of insecurity, leaving the project either because they were easy target for transfer to other schools at short notice, or because they abandoned teaching
altogether. (Chapter 8, Subsection 8-4-2-1). In this regard the study confirmed the conclusions of the International Conference on Education (ICE) convened by UNESCO in 1975 and supported the related recommendation which is adopted here as one of the conclusions of the study.

Conclusion No. 3: "It should be recognized that the social and economic status of teachers and the level of appreciation of their role are important for the quantitative and qualitative development of education" (ICE Resolution No. 69 in Goble & Porter, 1977:216)

The ripple effect of the experimental INSET and the need for interdisciplinary collaboration

In the course of the implementation of the project, the researcher met with colleagues from other CTISes, mainly French and Mathematics who showed interest in the research, particularly as concerns pair and group work. The potential of the learning strategies in this project for other subjects, which was mentioned by pupils in their evaluation, could lead to a greater collaboration between the CTISes. Such a collaboration could strengthen the long term effects of the project based on its generalisability across subjects. In other words the study, in this regard, led to the following conclusion.

Conclusion No. 4: It is believed that if the proposed innovation, in the teaching of English is to make any significant and long term difference to the quality of education in the country, it needs to be followed up in other subjects by similar changes for more learner centred approaches and for a qualitative approach to teacher education (see Chapter 7, Subsection 7-2-3 with special reference to the need to change, not only in terms of
practices but also in terms of the situation in which the practices are carried out).

10-2-2 Specific issues and questions as regards INSET and teacher effectiveness

10-2-2-1 Microteaching and micro/macro approach to teacher education

Teachers' reactions to the first session of the residential course and particularly to the microteaching sessions seemed to suggest the following tentative conclusion which needs further confirmatory research.

Conclusion No 5: Although a competency based approach with emphasis on low inference categories may be useful and effective for pre-service training (Akoha, 1985) a more holistic approach was found more productive and acceptable for in-service training, even when untrained teachers were concerned. In this connection exploratory microteaching as defined by Brumfit (1979) may be preferable to classic microteaching and the use of real pupils, preferable to peer teaching (Chapter 8, Subsection 8-5-2-5-1).

10-2-2-2 Teacher knowledge, attitude and practice (KAP): the gap in KAP

The findings of the study related to control group teachers' performance suggested that there was a gap between knowledge understood as reception of information, and practice. Some studies (Kouraogo, 1987, Young & Lee, 1985) seemed to assume that attitude might serve as a bridge to fill that gap. Without underestimating the possible influence of attitude on the transfer of knowledge to actual practical behaviour the evidence here showed that although control group teachers reportedly had a positive attitude towards the
experimental INSET and the methodological approach to teaching/learning it advocated, there was no significant improvement in their practice. On this basis the following tentative conclusion was drawn.

Conclusion No. 6: It does not seem enough to inform teachers about new approaches for them to adopt and use them in their classrooms (see Chapter 9, Subsections 9-3-1-2, and 9-3-4-2); Guided practice and online support seemed necessary for effective transfer. In this, the study confirmed Joyce & Showers' (1981) study (Chapter 4 Subsection 4-2-2-3-1).

10-2-2-3 Self evaluation.

Although there was some evidence that teachers' self evaluation could be a valuable instrument the marked disagreement between teachers' self evaluation and observers' evaluation seemed to suggest that more investigation might be needed before any clear conclusion on that issue in the context of Benin (see Chapter 9, Subsection 9-3-4-1).

10-2-2-4 Peer observation and team teaching

The evidence from the study in its school based INSET aspect allowed the following conclusion

Conclusion No. 7: Peer observation and team teaching could be a powerful instrument of teacher development if carefully planned and organised in consultation with teacher trainers within the framework of a cooperative action research. This finding is in line with those of Paré (1990) in Burkina Faso (see Chapter 9 Subsection 9-2-2-2).
Fundamental problems and concerns as regards communicative teaching with special reference to pair/group work and task based language learning in large classes

The context of language and development policy with reference to the role and responsibility of foreign language teachers

Various contacts, discussions, and talks inside and outside Benin, in the course of, and in relation to the study had brought to the fore the ambiguity of the contribution of foreign language teachers in the so-called 'third world' countries, engaged, as was Benin, in the struggle to revive their national cultures and languages and integrate them to the dynamics of their development. As argued in a paper presented by the present writer at the IATEFL conference in Dublin (Ireland) the current year (1990):

If we are to do our work with the dedication and the enthusiasm needed to enjoy it, as a professional vocation, we have to come to terms with the ambiguity of our role as teachers of a foreign language in a developing country, and be as clear as possible about where we stand and why we have decided to stand there (Akoha, 1990: 2).

The view is held here that other peoples' cultures need not be a threat to our own. They can be, together with the languages carrying them, windows on the world for fresh humanist oxygen to revitalize our own. They can foster comity with and understanding of other peoples and help build what has been called "la civilisation de l'universel". Besides, because of the tremendous advances in the scientific study of the English language, its teaching and learning may help us have more insight into the structures of our own languages as pointed out by Al Azzawi, in his own talk at the IATEFL conference mentioned earlier on "poetry and cultural overlap".
However as teachers and teacher trainers, participating in the expansion of English in the developing world, awareness of the following conclusion to the researcher's own paper at the conference, is worth bearing in mind.

Conclusion 8: The spread of English throughout the world is a double edged instrument. It equips every society in the world with a valuable tool for cooperation in the present technological age. But it may impoverish world civilisation if more is not done to promote and revive other national languages within and outside the English speaking world (see Chapter 2, Subsection 2-1-2).

10-2-3-2 Applicability of communicative teaching.

Conclusion No. 9: Contrary to 'common sense' or subjective impressions that in large classes there was no alternative to 'plenary approaches', (Coleman, 1989) reducing learning experiences to 'teaching spectacles' (Coleman, 1987a), the evidence in the present study suggested that more interactive approaches based on small group work and learning tasks within communicative teaching were, not only applicable in classes of over forty pupils but also desirable and effective. It only needed a little imagination to cope with the physical and psychological constraints and transform the traditional teacher led (Rees, 1989) spectacles into a 'learning festival' (Coleman, 1987a) (Chapter 9 Subsection 9-2-1 and 9-5-8-3 and 9-4-3).

10-2-3-3 Learner centredness and learner training

The evidence from the study suggested that it was absolutely necessary, not only to train teachers but also to train pupils as well if success was to be ensured (Chapter
9subsection 9-5-8-3). The study helped to realize the following reality.

Conclusion No. 10: Learners need to understand as well as teachers the rationale behind the proposed innovation and need to be helped to take responsibility for their own learning. Taking responsibility has never been an easy option.

10-2-4 Specific issues and questions as regards communicative teaching.

10-2-4-1 Task-based language learning: the question of relevance

Teachers' and learners' interactions with English Africa showed that the use of tasks as an alternative to 'full frontal' teaching helped teaching/learning to be both more effective and more enjoyable. However experimental teachers showed that more could be done to adapt both texts and activities to their pupils' interests and socio-cultural realities without losing sight of the mind opening potential of the activities contained in the book. Although many commercially available resource books could be used to complement the textbook (Malley & Duff, 1978; Willis, 1988 for example) most of their activities (games and tasks) although very useful had very little to offer in terms of the cultural realities of the Beninese learners and of most African learners for that matter (see Chapter 9 Section 9-6). In view of this finding and of the current emphasis on authenticity the study pointed to the following conclusion

Conclusion No. 11: There is a need to adapt and supplement the individual or pair/group work activities and tasks proposed in commercially available textbooks written in the context of West European culture with more authentic
activities and tasks which directly address issues and practices which are more socially and culturally relevant to African contexts.

**10-2-4-2** Mismatch between the new curriculum and the existing examinations and tests.

One of the major obstacles to the effective implementation of the new curriculum could be the examination system which remained focussed on the transmission approach to teaching with emphasis on accuracy and language usage rather than on fluency and language use (see Chapter 2 Sections 2-2-2, 2-2-3 and 2-2-4) as recommended by the new curriculum. The present INSET project took this situation as given and examined how pupils taught through the new curriculum could cope with these examinations. The experimental group pupils did not do worse than other pupils. It is however very likely that had the tests and examinations been more congruent with the communicative orientation of the curriculum their achievement would have been more accurately assessed and it could have been shown more clearly whether or not they had performed significantly better than the control group pupils. In addition to this difficulty in pupils' assessment it has been shown also that examinations had a serious backlash on effective curriculum implementation as teachers tend to teach to the examination and pupils tend to be more motivated to learn aspects of the curriculum which are likely to be formally assessed by the examinations. (see Chapter 2 Subsection 2-1-2). These observations lead to the following conclusion.

**Conclusion No 12:** Although a step in the right direction was taken by the reform of the English tests at baccalaureat (see Chapter two Subsection 2-2-4), more decisive actions are needed at all levels of secondary education to devise more appropriate test-formats which match the objectives and
procedures of the new curriculum. Without such reforms both teachers and pupils will tend to reinterpret the new curriculum in the same terms as the old and will limit classroom practice to traditional methods and strategies of language teaching/learning.

10-3 Recommendations for action and further studies

10-3-1 Recommendations for action

Recommendation No 1: The need for a qualitative approach to teacher education with emphasis on INSET for continuous professional development (see Chapter 9 Subsection 9-1-2). As pointed out by the recommendation No 69/D /11 (Goble & Porter, 1977)

A comprehensive policy is needed to ensure that teacher education is reorganized as a continuous coordinated process which begins with pre-service preparation and continues throughout the teachers' professional career. (in Goble & Porter, 1977: 213)

The implications of such a policy for Benin would be:

a)- Pre-service training institutions should play a more active role in the continuous education of teachers. In this connection the objectives of the Ecole Normales Intégrées need to be reconsidered in the sense of a more in-service oriented training under the responsibility of the Institut National pour la Formation et la Recherche en Education

b)- Trainer training: For this new orientation in teacher education to be successful there is a need to invest in the preparation of trainers. As pointed out by the ICE conference resources devoted to these purposes "are likely to have a maximum multiplier effect" (Goble & Porter, 1977: 217). In this regard the cooperation between Benin and the British Council and other funding agencies in Britain,
America, Canada, France and others need to be reinforced and developed.

c)- Periodical retraining of all practising teachers within a time limit of five years maximum. Such training should last a minimum of three months and may take place inside or outside the country, and would be sponsored by the State or through international cooperation.

d)- All foreign language teachers should benefit from a refresher course outside Benin in a country where the language is spoken and used for everyday life at least three times during their careers, including the retraining mentioned above if done abroad. Each one of these refresher courses should last at least three months and should aim to familiarise teachers with developments in approaches to language teaching and learning as well as with the development of the language itself.

e)- Teachers' initiatives and active participation in the organisations of their own professional development should be encouraged. In this regard, as pointed out by the ICE resolution "teachers' organizations should be encouraged to contribute to the continuing education of teachers by initiating opportunities for teachers to meet and work together on common problems". Suggestions such as those made by Kouraogo (1987) on 'Groupes d'Etudes et de Réflexion' (GER- study and reflexion groups) might be considered within that context.

f)- The existing regional documentation centres for teachers should be restructured to serve as real teacher centres to help the concrete operationalisation of the above recommendation. The objective would be to extend them gradually so that they are easily accessible to teachers.
g) A clearly defined but realistic programme of pedagogical activities throughout the year at school level by subject on the basis of general but flexible guidelines from central authorities should be worked out at the end of each year to be submitted to higher authorities who would use them to plan activities at regional and national levels.

Recommendation No. 2: Need for language solidarity

In order to promote the linguistic interdependence advocated in this thesis (Chapter 2, Subsection 2-1-2), joint action by the State and foreign language teaching projects sponsors in collaboration with foreign language teachers should be undertaken. The implications of this are as follows:

a)- The state should give more encouragement to the teaching of national and African languages of wider communication in the school system from nursery to university by gradually putting them on the national curriculum according to a well defined policy and assessing their knowledge at examinations.

b)- Cooperation with Western countries on Foreign language teaching projects should be negotiated in such a way as to have built into the project a percentage of the project budget (between 15 and 30%) devoted to the promotion of national and/or other African languages of wider communication.

c)- Foreign language teachers should be required to have at least a certificate of literacy in one national or African language which they can teach.

Recommendation No. 3: Cooperative book production
In order to ensure the production of learning materials which are socio-culturally relevant as well as linguistically, pedagogically and technically valid, the National Schoolbook Production Unit at INFRE should engage negotiations with British and other western European and American publishers and writers for joint textbooks and other learning materials production with a local expertise training component.

10-3-2 Recommendation for further studies

Recommendation No. 4: In order to confirm the findings of the present study, which in a sense could only be considered as a pilot study and ensure their generalisability the CTIS-Anglais should conduct a similar study in the first cycle secondary using the set textbooks for that cycle. Other CTISes should be also encouraged to undertake such systematic experimental INSET in cooperation with CTIS-Anglais for greater impact of the quality teacher education being advocated.

Recommendation No. 5: The view, in the present study, that untrained practising teachers could be more effectively and efficiently trained through a systematic in-service training programme than through a three year pre-service training course at the Ecole Normale Intégrées was based on the performance of untrained teachers as compared with pre-service trained teachers (see Chapter 9 Subsection 9-3-4). But comparative study of cost effectiveness was beyond the scope of the study. In order to provide more insight into other factors which are of importance to decision makers a comparative cost effectiveness study should be commissioned by the study in order to assess the financial implications and benefits of the suggested alternative to the training of practising teachers in pre-service training institutions.
Recommendation No 6: The CTIS-ANGLAIS, should undertake, in cooperation with the departments of Sociology-Anthropology and the Department of Linguistics and oral tradition at the national University of Benin, a study of the elements of national culture in Benin, with possible comparison with other West African countries at a later stage, such as games, riddles, rites, etc. which could be used for the design of language learning tasks and activities and the publication of 'authentic' communication oriented materials.

Recommendation No 7: A study comparing Action Research based INSET with Distance teaching approach to teacher education and their combination should also be undertaken so as to examine the possibility and effectiveness of that approach as an alternative to action research based training or a complement to it which may help reach a greater number of teachers in localities which are not easily accessible.

As could be seen, from the list of unanswered questions the study seemed to have raised more questions than it answered, and appeared to be just the beginning of a process which will put educational research on the agenda in Benin. As a Fon saying (the researcher' first language) would put it, "Su we' eno suvo eno nyoe nwyi vo a"(it is growing up that one finishes doing, one does not finish knowing).


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