

MOTIVATION AND PERSEVERANCE
IN LANGUAGE LEARNING MATERIALS
FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

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The Spirit of the Lord God is upon me
because the Lord has anointed me;
he has sent me to bring good news to the
humble;
to bind up the broken-hearted
to proclaim liberty to the captives
and release to those in prison;
(ISAIAH 61, Verse 1)

This is the energiser (not to use the word ... MOTIVATION)
so do I wish to dedicate this study
to the perfect TEACHER, Jesus Christ,
whose teaching is perfect without teaching materials
to his loving mother, Mary the Immaculate
for loving us the 'maculates'
and to Zadio, Fololo, and Sol
for making me aware of this more than ever before.

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ABSTRACT

Motivation is often perceived as a crucial factor for learning to take place; but paradoxically very little is said about it in terms of content for teaching and/or learning materials. Usually researchers suggest, and teachers use methods and approaches that would serve as motivational factors. This practice is quite analogous to developing one's grammatical or linguistic competence and expecting communicative competence to follow or result from it.

The present study is an investigation of ways in which motivation can be incorporated into a language syllabus and subsequently in learning materials in terms of sociocultural, psychological and linguistic content as well as being a by-product of methodology and textbook structure, through the approach labelled 'SP-squared' or (SP)². The approach is designed to tackle the learners' learning problems from the learners' point of view (or from a social psychological perspective and for the purposes for which learning has been undertaken). To this end, the notion of 'PERSEVERANCE', conceived as the learners' ability to deal with a 'crisis point' and to organise and/or reorganise their motivation as troubles occur, is exploited to suggest that although motivation is important or even crucial for learning to take place, it needs the support of perseverance without which learning (either formal or informal) is unlikely to take place. The study actually shows that motivation is not all that crucial for learning to take place. Rather Perseverance is, as this is what sustains 'Activity-enjoyment' and subsequent motivation and the strategies that the learners require to solve their learning problems. This finding leads to the conclusion that motivation can profitably be exploited in learning

materials (which are shown to include the teachers and the class) if, and only if, they train the learners as 'persevering inquirers'. This can be achieved by means of 'guidance' seen as the essential characteristic or indeed criterion of any SP-squared approach.

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Lubasa N'tins

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AA	=	African Anglophones
AE	=	Activity-Enjoyment
AE1	=	" " Type 1
AE2	=	" " Type 2
AMTB	=	Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery
AOL	=	Anxiety for Other Languages or Other-Language Anxiety
APCTT	=	Advanced Practical Certificate Teacher Training
BAAL	=	British Association for Applied Linguistics
CA	=	Complete Agreement
CD	=	Complete Disagreement
CFS	=	Congo Free State (Free State of the Congo)
Ci	=	Ciluba
-CO	=	Comprehension
CWPR	=	Creative Writing and Poetry Reading
E	=	English
Ed	=	Education
EFL	=	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	=	English Language Teaching
ESOL	=	English for Speakers of Other Languages
ESP	=	English for Specific Purposes
F	=	French
FL	=	Foreign Language
FLOF	=	Foreign Languages Other than French
GeCoCo	=	General Communicative Competence
GPW	=	Group and Project Work
IATEFL	=	International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language
IMK	=	Institut Mwilu Kiawanga
INA	=	Institut National des Arts
INAS	=	Institut National des Art Secondaire
IRAAL	=	Irish Association for Applied Linguistics
ISP	=	Institut Supérieur Pédagogique
ITC	=	Institut Technique Commercial
ITCOM	=	Institut Technique Commercial
Kis	=	Kiswahili
L1	=	First Language

LELS	=	Language Experience and/or Learning Strategies
LLC-TKL	=	Learner and Learning Centredness, and Teacher Knowledge of the Language
LP	=	Learning Purpose(s)
LP1	=	" " Type 1
LP2	=	" " Type 2
LSOL	=	Language for Speakers of Other Languages
LSP	=	Language for Specific Purposes
LT	=	Language Teaching
LTL	=	Language-teaching/learning
ML	=	Motives for Learning
MT	=	Mother Tongue
MT1	=	Speak or have one Mother Tongue
MT2	=	" " " two Mother Tongues (or second Mother Tongue)
NATL	=	National Language
NATL1	=	Speak or have one National Language
NATL2	=	" " " two National Languages
NATL3	=	" " " three National Languages
NATL4	=	" " " four National Languages
NO	=	No opinion
OALDCE	=	Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English
OL	=	Other Languages
OLA	=	Other-Language Acquisition
OLL	=	Other-language Learning
OLLA	=	Other Language Learning/Acquisition
PA	=	Partial Agreement
PD	=	Partial Disagreement
PGCE	=	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
-RD	=	Reading
RF-NATL's	=	Replacement of French by National Languages
RW	=	Readiness and/or Willingness
-SP	=	Speaking
SP1	=	Specific Purposes
SP2	=	Social Psychological
(SP) ²	=	SP1 and SP2
SP-Squared		
Z	=	Zairean/Zaire
S1	=	Sample 1
S2	=	Sample 2

STATISTICAL SYMBOLS

%	= Percentage
\bar{M}	= Mean
N	= Number of Cases
SD	= Standard Deviation

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INTRODUCTION

Three years ago, in an attempt to sort out the problem of textbooks for Zairean learners, we came to the conclusion that textbooks, though they could not possibly cater for "the whole business of the management of language learning" (Allwright 1981:9), are nevertheless useful instruments, if only to object to them (cf Lubasa 1982:137). We then inferred three determining criteria for textbook selection, namely: (a) the content of the textbook; (b) the learning processes of teaching methods suggested or implied; and (c) the structure of the material.

The notion of content, however, is complex. In the context of language learning it obviously refers to the target language as a system and the subject matter. It refers, that is, to knowledge about the target language as communication (Allen and Widdowson 1978:58) its culture and literature or about topics from other disciplines, in the case of what is known as ESP. In this very same context of language learning, the notion of content can also refer to learning strategies and attitudes towards learning and other cultures or just the other culture. The present study looks at attitudes and more particularly at the concepts of Motivation and Perseverance as helping to determine content for the textbook. This is because we believe that Zairean learners need to sustain their Motivation through Perseverance to get the most positive results from their language learning. This is perhaps then the best place to describe and analyse the background of the learners that this study is intended to assist.

0.1 The learners' background

Under this title we offer a brief description of the sociolinguistic environment of the learners and the school system in which the learners operate to learn English, the only foreign language other than French learned in schools. For a more detailed description the reader is referred to Chapters One and Two of the author's previous study on the problem of materials for the teaching of English for Specific Purposes in Zaire (Lubasa 1982).

0.1.1 The sociolinguistic environment of the learners

0.1.1.1 The sociolinguistic profile of the country

Zaire can be accurately described as a multilingual/cultural country as her population can operate quite well in more than two languages. Her sociolinguistic profile can be described as consisting of two broad categories (local and other), each consisting of two subcategories (minor and major). The minor local languages are mainly ethnic and are often referred to as 'tribal'. The minor 'Other Languages' are generally European and are referred to as 'international'. In this matter English is also referred to as a language for broader communication. The minor languages whether local or international are mainly used for specific purposes which are not the same but can overlap. This is particularly the case with the international languages which are often used for academic purposes. The major local languages are either vehicular or regional, national and/or official. The official national languages are Ciluba, Kikongo, Kiswahili, and Lingala. They can be described as vehiculars supported by political decisions. Apart from these, the other major languages are international with a colonial background and/or supported by political decisions. This

TABLE 0.1

The Sociolinguistic profile of Zaire

TYPE OF LANGUAGE		STATUS
LOCAL	MINOR	ETHNIC/TRIBAL
	MAJOR	VEHICULAR REGIONAL/NATIONAL
OTHER	MINOR	INTERNATIONAL
	MAJOR	OFFICIAL

is the case of French in Zaire, which was proclaimed the official language soon after independence. This linguistic or sociolinguistic profile of the country can be represented as in Table 0.1. Such a multilingual/cultural profile is bound to affect the learners' attitudes to and interests in the languages around them whether these are local or foreign as can be seen from the following discussion of the status and function of the different types of languages.

0.1.1.2 Status and function of the different languages in the country

In terms of status, the minor local languages are referred to as dialects, the major locals as vehicular, the major 'Other language' i.e. french as the official language and the other minor languages as foreign languages. The dialects (also referred to as 'tribal languages') are generally used for interaction inside the ethnic group and among members of the same family and clan, at home and in more traditional contexts such as ritual ceremonies and 'palavers' (cf Lubasa 1982:85). In this sense these languages are used for specific purposes just as English and French are for educational matters. The vehiculars, on the other hand, are lingua francas used beyond the so-called tribal languages or dialects among people of different tribes from the same areas, regions or provinces. They are used for trade and various local, regional or inter-regional interactions where the use of ethnic languages will make communication impossible. The vehiculars and some of the ethnic languages are also used in schools as mediums of instruction - for at least the first four years of primary education. Officially education is in French from the beginning. But contradictory government measures confuse the issue (cf Kutumisa 1983:30-31). One thing is clear, though: the majority of children use the vehiculars or their own

ethnic dialect as the medium of instruction for the first few years of their primary education with French as a subject. These are the children of ordinary people attending ordinary primary institutions. The children of the rich, important and/or ambitious parents attend prestigious schools where French is the only language of instruction from the start of primary education (cf Lubasa:1982).

French may be the official language - but for those who do not speak it, the vehiculars established as national (i.e. Ciluba, Kikongo, Kiswahili, and Lingala) are also used in public and local administration. In practice, even ethnic languages are used along with the national or French, but official reports have to be written in French, no matter how bad the standard. English and other foreign languages are used for various specific purposes. English is mainly used (or indeed needed) for reading as evidenced from the present study (cf 4.2.11), and Yaba's survey of the use of English in Zaire (Yaba 1980). Despite that, many people think of it as a school language. In this respect Kutumisa's statement that English is 'symbolic' in Zairean society is indictive (cf Kutumisa 1983:28). At this point let us consider the language policy of the country before and after independence as this affects the attitudes both of learners and everyday speakers towards other languages and their own.

0.1.1.3 Pre- and post-independence concern for languages

In Zaire, it makes better sense to talk about 'language concern' rather than language policy, as no clearly defined policy exists even after independence. What is available is essentially a set of opinions and arguments for or against such different languages

or groups of languages. These opinions and arguments lead to the following often accepted or suggested hierarchy (but see also 4.3.10.2, 4.3.10.2, b);

- (1) French: Foreign and official language used as the medium of instruction;
- (2) the national languages where the hierarchy in decreasing order of importance is: Lingala, followed by Kiswahili, followed by Kikongo and Ciluba;
- (3) the mother tongues, most of which are ethnic and estimated at a minimum of 250 in number;
- (4) the other languages among which is English.

In colonial times, local languages were used for education. It is only towards the end of this period (1950's) that French entered the education system. The 1948 reform regulations theoretically limited the use of local languages in schools to four: Kikongo, Lingala, Ciluba and Kiswahili. These have now been elevated to the rank of national languages. It must be noted that these four were meant as a first step towards the unification of the languages for education throughout the country, not just four languages to be used in whatever manner (at school or in society) (cf Congo Belge 1948:34). Meanwhile other languages were used in rural schools (and are still used now) depending upon their coverage and vitality. In urban schools a lingua franca (i.e. a vehicular) progressively gave way to French. The situation caused or was perceived as causing great practical difficulties in terms of teaching staff and materials design (loc cit).

The linguistic explanation offered in the 1948 regulations (Congo Belge 1948) for the establishment of French as the language

of instruction is that in their present state local languages could not be used effectively for the type of general or specialised education that would help the élite to assimilate the necessary elements of 'advanced European civilisation' (cf Congo Belge 1948:34). This argument is still used, even by linguists to block the promotion of local languages (cf CELTA 1974), and has a tremendous effect on the attitudes of Zaireans towards local languages in education (cf 4.3.10.2, d). The attitudes can be easily apprehended in view of opinions such as Guilbert's that Zairean languages are "idioms incapable of constituting a normative model for oral and written communication" (Guilbert quoted by Kutumisa 1983:28) - an obvious nonsense. Guilbert, as a famous missionary, must have known that the Holy Bible, with its complex abstract concepts, was translated into many of the idioms to which he denied normativity, and even the capacity for written discourse.

After independence (June 1960), controversy of a different order began. In 1961 French became the official language of the country. Local languages were excluded from the curriculum, not only as a medium of instruction but also as subjects. The change sprang from the élite's view of French (in reflection of the dismissed master and as a reflection of the master's teaching) as the key to civilisation or rather to 'the' civilisation. It was less a hangover of the colonial period, rather it was a reaction to what was perceived as a privilege long withheld from the people. But the officially expressed motive was to foster national unity (cf Kutumisa 1983:30).

The consecration of French as the official language and the virtual suppression of local languages from the nation that French

was meant to foster raised a multitude of reactions. Some boasted of the value of the local languages to force their rehabilitation, others suggested various other solutions. It was in this context that 'Franco-Zairean bilingualism' was suggested by Mbulamoko (1974) who, when he became the Minister of Education, tried hard to implement it.

'Franco-Zairean Bilingualism' consists of French and one of the four established 'National' languages. In schools, it consists of (a) the use of the vehicular language of the region (i.e. one of the four national languages) in the first two years of primary education; (b) the intensification of the use of French as subject and medium of instruction from the third year of primary education onwards; (c) the use of French alone as the medium of instruction and the learning of either Lingala or Kiswahili in secondary education. There seems to be no room for other languages in the Franco-Zairean plan. In addition it reduces the national use of the national languages to two for no obvious reasons bar the relative importance of Lingala as the language of the capital (and all that implies) and Kiswahili as the language of many other countries in the East of Africa. It is obvious that this suggestion picks up the main point of the Belgian suggestion in 1948. The difference between the 1948 reform and Mbulamoko's suggestion is that the Belgians suggested a progressive change from the local languages (more than the four national languages Mbulamoko starts from) to French, while he advocates a drastic change from the four 'National languages' to French. The second difference is the introduction in secondary schools of the study of Lingala and Kiswahili.

Mbulamoko's bilingualism would have made sense, in our opinion, if the action started by the Belgians to reduce the "not less than 250" languages or dialects to a minimum of four or less vehicular languages had continued. In the present state of affairs, forcing people who do not understand the national languages to study in them for the first two years of their formal education would not be that different from teaching them in French right from the beginning. As a matter of fact, it would even be less productive as the learners would have to shift languages twice (from the mother tongue to the national language, then from the national language to French) rather than once, i.e. from their mother tongue to French. This does not help the learners nor does it serve the development purposes of the country.

There is no harm in having more than one national language nor is there any harm in abolishing French except for specific purposes, as happens with English in Zaire. This is our contention: that we need to establish: (a) not what or which language to use in education and for official purposes, and why, but rather (b) which or what language or, indeed, languages are most effective for the development of the country. It emerges from a consideration of the sociolinguistic profile of the learners compared to the sociolinguistic profile of the country.

0.1.1.4 The sociolinguistic profile of the learners

(see also 4.2.8 and 4.2.10.2)

The sociolinguistic profile of the Zairean learner of English corresponds dramatically to the sociolinguistic profile of the country. It is characterised by:

- (a) the mother tongue, which is, in the majority of cases, one of the ethnic languages. In urban areas the mother tongue is often the vehicular of the urban area (i.e. one of the four national languages); in some cases it is French, the official language;
- (b) one or more 'national languages';
- (c) French, and
- (d) English, even though this is the least mastered language (cf 4.2.9);

These languages are mastered at different levels of competence with the mother tongue first in the scale, followed by the national languages and/or French. In terms of the number of those who speak the different languages, the mother tongue still comes first (since everyone has a mother tongue) followed by the national languages (as these are the languages of urban or urbanised masses) and then by French, the language of the élite even though it is intended to be the language of the nation. It follows that the language of the urban minority takes more importance at national level, stunting the growth of the languages of the majority which provide the actual force of the socioeconomic and technical development of the country. Thus the importance of French in Zaire is not based on its communicative relevance, but its capacity to open the country to the rest of the world. This seems a poor criterion: English and many other languages also open the country to the rest of the world without being proclaimed the official language. Nor can French help the development of the country if it is not the language of the people, i.e. if it is not the language most of the population uses to communicate with each other.

Clearly Mbulamoko's Franco-Zairean bilingualism ignores the majority of the population which speaks ethnic languages as mother tongues. To be at all realistic, Mbulamoko should have suggested at least a tri-lingualism. There is evidence that Mbulamoko's bilingualism ignores the mother tongues. The languages involved in his bilingualism are the national languages and mainly Lingala and Kiswahili (cf 0.1.1.3). These, as will be remembered, are the mother tongues of some urban dwellers only, since the majority of the population has one of the many ethnic languages as a mother tongue (cf Supra). Mbulamoko's solution to the Zairean language problem thus does not help the country nor does it help the learners psychologically, indeed socially, in their education. If we had to propose a solution we would go for a down-to-the-people approach in which considerable account was taken of the mother tongue along with the 'national languages' and in which English or French, or both (depending on the need) would be learned for specific purposes including the opening of the country to the world at large. This would obviously entail a top to bottom reform and re-organisation of the education system, the substance of our next subsection.

0.1.2 The teaching system in its context and setting

The Zairean school system consists of four levels: the nursery or pre-school level, the primary, secondary and higher education levels. What follows is a demonstration that despite some observable differences, the present Zairean teaching system is exactly the same as the pre-independence one in terms of the underlying ideology and of the pedagogic structure. Such an enterprise calls for a historical approach. Thus, in the light of authentic and second hand sources let us compare the ideology and the pedagogic structures prevailing

during the century of the existence of Zaire as a country, i.e. from the Free State of Congo to Zaire today.

0.1.2.1 The ideological basis of the teaching system

Although confessional schools existed long before 1890, the first government move for a school system took place in 1889 and was carried out in 1890 with the issue of the decree providing for setting up what are referred to as 'school colonies' (cf George 1966: Note 1 on Page 3) or in French "Colonies d'enfants indigènes" (cf Kita 1982:130). The literature seems to support the idea that the first schools were set up for humanitarian or even charitable purposes, to help abandoned and neglected children. But we believe with Kita (1982) that 'neglect' and 'abandonment' are European concepts irrelevant to the (then) Free State of Congo (FSC). They were intended to cover the ideology of the coloniser in the exploitation of the colony and of the colonised. Indeed, what could parents 'neglect' and 'abandoned children' really mean in Africa of that time (or even today with 'modern civilisation') where the concept of parental responsibility and education differ completely from European practices? In African society children and their education are not merely the responsibility of only the congenital parents. There is always someone to look after the children even if the congenital parents are dead. A study of the texts related to these schools shows that their real purpose was not really to help so-called neglected and/or abandoned children. It was rather to provide the State and, later, the Colony, with "mini-concentration camps" where manpower was to be trained to serve the purposes of the settler. Van Hove, an official of the Belgian Government, (1951:4, see also 1.1.4.3) writes that the Government of the FSC's motive in setting up a school system of some kind was

its intention to settle the country and exploit its agricultural and natural wealth. In other words, it was not for humanitarian purposes or charity that the school system was started, but for exploitation. Similarly Kita (1982) denies the Government of the CFS the generosity they claim underlay the creation of the 'school colonies' for the indigenous peoples following the 1890 decree providing for the setting up of the schools. For details the reader is strongly referred to Chapter Three in Kita's book Colonisation et Enseignement (1982).

The pre-independence school system has been characterised as sporadic and slow (cf Van Hove 1951:4). It was not until 1929 that a really consistent and viable school system operated in what is now Zaire. But even then, its main characteristic remained instability which persisted until the eve of independence (cf Lubasa 1982, Chapter One, for a detailed description of the Zairean school system as a whole).

Until 1889 the Government of the FSC had not made official its intention to organise schooling in the Congo. The whole business of educating the Zaireans seems to have started from an overzealous priest, Abbot Van Impe, the Head of the 'Institut Saint Louis de Gonzague' in Belgium (cf Kita 1982:123). In 1888, Abbot Van Impe applied for the Government's support for his plans to get the Zaireans educated in Belgium. The Government covertly opposed and fought the idea. Kita (1982:123-130) studying the correspondence between Abbot Van Impe and the Government found that the education system the FSC presented later in very skilfully written official texts went far beyond trial and error; it was the product of a well thought out and deep-rooted policy. This contradicts the image the education

policy presented to the world in the official documents. In this respect, Kita's work is a revelation. It reveals that education was seen by the Belgian Government of the CFS as an instrument of oppression in favour of the development of the state, rather than the instrument of intellectual liberation and development of the local people. This is what underlies the pre-independence system of education characterised ideologically by:

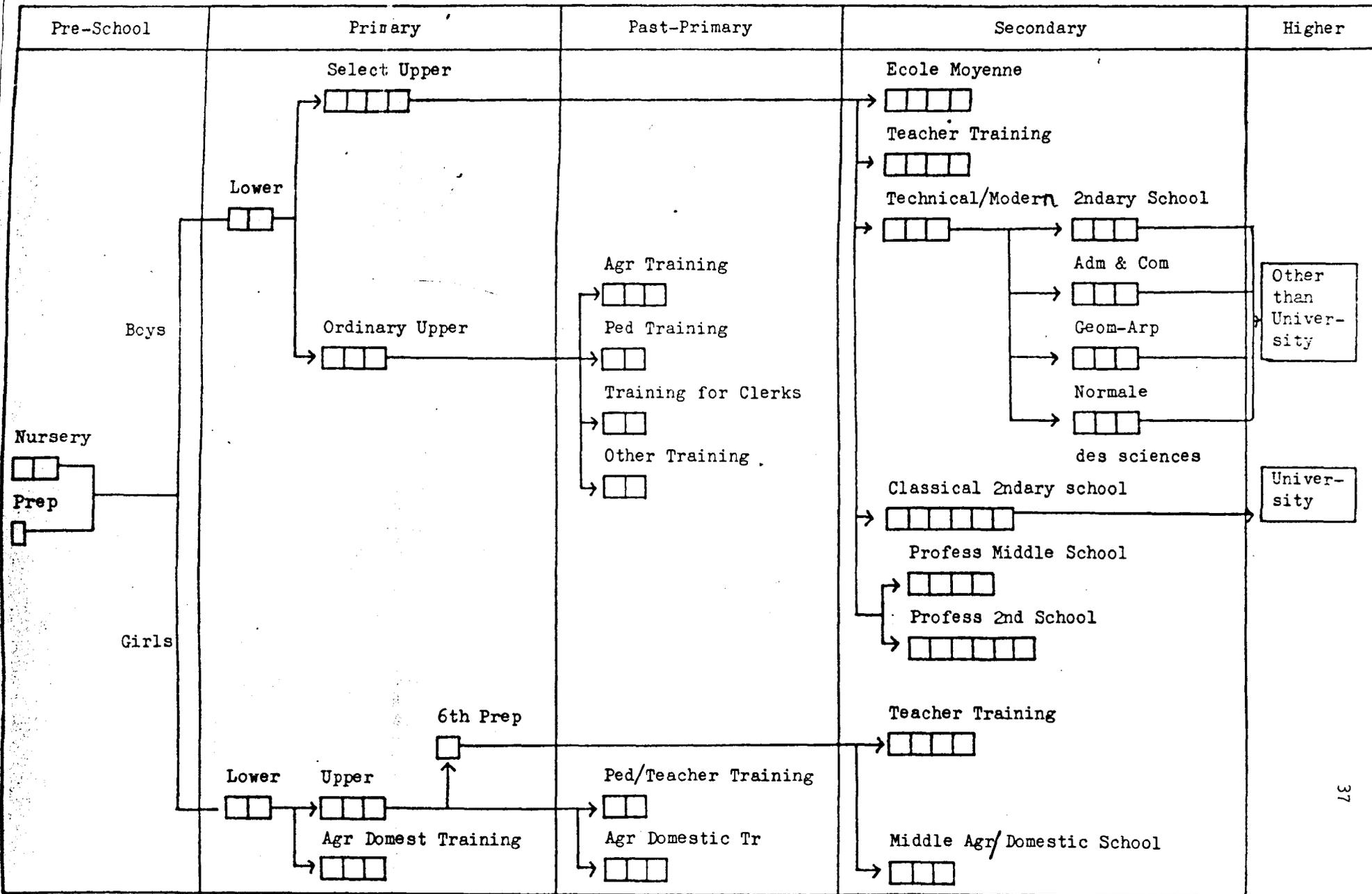
- (a) the utilitarian aims and direction of education often directed by the circumstances of the time. It explains the instability of the system before independence.
- (b) the tendency to keep the cost of the education of the indigenous people at the lowest possible level. This partly explains the recourse of the Government to the services of missionaries, the other justifications being mainly politico-administrative;
- (c) the notion of the 'state children', underlying the 1890 decree for the setting up of the 'School Colonies' for indigenous children. The text of the decree itself puts forward the idea of 'child protection' presenting the 'School Colonies' as a philanthropic work in favour of the abandoned and the orphaned. But, as we argued earlier, this is only an excuse to cover the 'Belgocentric' policy of Belgian paternalism.

How far do the characteristics of pre-independence educational ideology apply to the post-independence period? A little thought given to the relevant section of the Party Manifesto reveals the similarities (cf Mobutu 1967:23-25):

- (a) the utilitarian direction of education still persists, with a set of objectives that are even broader than before. The difference, however, is that after independence the utilitarian direction does not entail oppression. It rather offers opportunities for Zaireans theoretically to contribute to the development of the country. This would have been a major difference if on completion of their studies the right people had slotted into the right occupations.
- (b) the tendency to keep the cost of education at the lowest possible level is as relevant as before, but for different reasons. The Belgians were not inclined to spend a lot of money on the education of their subjects. The Zairean government is but financial and economic constraints force them to keep the cost as low as possible. As a consequence, they still have recourse to missionaries, or rather to religious groups to organise most of the educational institutions, especially at primary and secondary levels. Thus, though the reasons are different the outcome is still the same;
- (c) the notion of 'state children'. There are no more 'state children'. But the 'Jeunesse du Mouvement Populaire de la Révolution' (JMPR) by trying to keep everyone within school age or actually going to school under control (mainly politically) plays exactly the same role as the instigators of 'state children' played in the pre-independence period. In addition, the JMPR's aim is reasonably similar: to stop the students protesting against Government actions. Thus the pre- and post-

Fig.0.1

School System at Independence (Lubasa 1982)



independence ideologies of the education policy are interrelated if not the same (for complementary information, see Lubasa 1982:1.2.3.2).

0.1.2.2 The pedagogic structures of the system

The pedagogic structures of the school system are concerned with the actual organisation of education in terms of levels and duration. Fig. 0.1 (Lubasa 1982:27) represents the school system as it was left at the time of independence. That is, the last changes in the structures of the pre-independence school system led to the structures schematically represented in Fig. 0.1. It shows five distinct levels of education. The pre-school level, the primary, the post-primary, the secondary and the tertiary levels. The pre-school level prepared the children for primary education and was the same for the boys and the girls. From the primary level the girls were separated from the boys. They were given separate types of education. The boys were trained to work in the colonial administration or as manpower in the service of the administration. The girls on their side were trained to become good Christian wives for the élite. This level consisted of two parts for both girls and boys. The first part, referred to as lower degree primary education, consisted of two years in both cases. Its role was to select the academically apt from the non-academic students. This is the first manifestation of the colonial educational ideology which consisted in keeping the mass of the population in ignorance, and related to the utilitarian orientation of the educational policy.

After the two years of lower degree primary education, the children judged as clever and academically oriented, were selected

to enter the select upper degree of primary education. This level prepared the children for proper secondary education. It consisted of four years for the boys, and three years and a preparatory year referred to as 'sixième préparatoire' (preparation sixth form) for the girls. The preparatory sixth year was for brilliant girls able to further their education. Those successfully completing their preparatory year could enter either a four-year teaching training course or a three-year Middle Agro-domestic course, depending upon how good they were. Nothing was offered beyond this level: no university education was available. The boys could go to university on satisfactory completion of classical secondary education only. The latter was restricted to the best students of the select upper primary. The others, depending upon their intellectual ability, entered professional middle or secondary schools, technical/modern secondary education teacher training or the 'Ecole Moyenne' (Middle School). The middle schools, teacher training and the professional secondary schools were job-specific, and did not lead to tertiary education. Professional secondary and the professional middle schools differ in the length of study. Only the good students entered the secondary, the less able being oriented towards middle schools thus perpetuating the selection started at lower primary education. Those who entered the technical or modern secondary education were also job-oriented, but could further the education and specialise in tertiary institutions other than the university. After the first three years of secondary education, the children split according to their interests or rather according to their aptitudes judged by the school. The point is that the learners had no choice. They were told what to do after completion of every stage.

Table 0.2: Summary of the Pedagogical Structures (Lubasa 1982)

Level	Sub-divisions		Length	Total length
Pre-school	Nursery		2 - 3	1 - 3
	(Preparatory)		1	
Primary	Lower (1 ^{er} degree)		2	6
	Middle (2 ^{ce} degree)		2	
	Upper (3 ^{ce} degree)		2	
	Post-primary		2/3	2/3
Secondary	Orientation cycle		2	4 - 6
	Humanity cycles	Short	2/3	
		Long	4	
Higher Education	Universities		Variable	Variable
	Colleges		3 - 5	

The boys and girls judged to be non-academic received a post-primary education which prolonged their primary education to prepare the sort of manpower necessary for the administration and other sectors. When we compare these pedagogic structures to the ones we have today, we find that the changes are only superficial. Indeed, how can they be different if the ideology behind them is basically the same? Table 0.2 represents in a summary form the structures of the school system after independence as analysed in a previous work (Lubasa 1982:32-54). The first obvious change is that there is no longer a difference between girls and boys. The second change is the suppression of the distinction between select and ordinary upper primary education. The third difference is the introduction of an Orientation Cycle in which the learners' academic performance orients them towards the types of studies in which they are expected to do best. This selection is based primarily on how well one does in French, Mathematics and related subjects. The last difference (which is not obvious from the table) is that any one having satisfactorily completed the six-year period of secondary studies is entitled to enter the university or tertiary institution of their choice, thus making tertiary education accessible to everyone. But the trouble is that, despite their increased availability, these structures remain selective and reflect the colonial system of education, selecting only what was seen as progressive in the pre-independence times. Indeed, the present educational pedagogic structures are based on (if they are not a copy of) the select upper branch of the pre-independence system (cf Fig. 0.1). The Orientation Cycle which appears to be new is little more than a generalisation of the first three years of the technical and/or modern secondary school structures, reduced to two years. Thus we come to the uneasy conclusion that

the present pedagogic structures, and by extension, the system of education itself are based on the colonial system, minus its negatively perceived or unwanted aspects. The implication being that the present system perpetuates, at least partially, and perhaps unwittingly, the underlying educational ideology of the coloniser.

So far we have demonstrated the continuity between the colonial and the present systems of education in terms of the underlying ideology and their pedagogic structures. This continuity explains the social and psychological significance of education in Zaire today (cf Lubasa 1982:122-125) and some aspects of the psychology of the Zairean learner and educator.

0.1.2.3 The social psychological meaning of education

The concept of education in Zaire can be defined as an instrument of social mobility and personal achievement. Of course, one might want to argue, education is an instrument of social mobility everywhere else in the world. Indeed it is; but social mobility is not its prime significance, nor is personal achievement. To judge from the aim of education (the development of desirable qualities such as critical thought, integrity of character, creativity etc (cf Peters 1977:3, and/or 1967) the significance of education is both socially and psychologically developmental. It is thus that education is seen as the instrument of development: social, economic, individual or otherwise. Social mobility and personal achievement in society are side effects. Given the ideological and the pedagogical backgrounds of the Zairean school system, it is not surprising that the side effects are valued more than the substance.

The reason for this view of education, which is quite general in Africa (cf Miaro 1974:565-6) or perhaps in developing countries as a whole, lies with the colonialists and their educational policies. In Zaire, the view has been reinforced. Formal education is desired not for the development it can bring to the individual and society, but for the diploma and the subsequent social status. The higher the degree the better the expected status. Thus parents push their children as high as they can (even if the children are not interested or, indeed, academically able). They see their children's success as their own: they want their children to succeed where they, themselves, failed (either because they were not given the opportunity or because they were not apt). Parents regard their children's failure as their own. Disappointed, perhaps dishonoured by their children, they reject them and disgrace them. The reason they feel dishonoured stems from the highly selective system of education: children who fail are dismissed from school. It follows that the children find themselves in a stressful situation where they have to find ways of surviving the system. One of the ways is the learning by rote of the teachers' words, a practice deeply rooted in the Zairean system. From the very start learners were asked to memorise what they were taught and never to go beyond that.¹

This is a direct consequence of the utilitarian orientation of the CFS educational policy and of the notion of 'state children' (cf 0.1.2.1). Rote-memorisation thus springs from the educational ideology of the teaching system: (a) the Belgians were willing to teach only what was relevant for the immediate needs of their administration. They wanted this to be done quickly and effectively. On the other hand, (b) they were afraid to teach more than was needed lest it was used to fight their policy and their privileges. The only way

out of a situation that Kita (1982:18) rightly refers to as the "dialectics of fear and necessity" (La dialectique de la crainte et de la nécessité) (cf 1.1.4.3, ii, 2) was rote-learning and the isolation of the population from whatever could provide the learners with more information than what the teacher wanted. As a consequence the teacher quickly became the only source of information and an important person in Zairean society and in the classroom. Today the teacher is still important in the classroom, but not in society, as the social values of Zaire have moved from moral and intellectual to material and economical. It is this which still justifies the significance of formal education as a means of social mobility and personal achievement. With this background in mind we are now ready to move into the heart of the matter and consider the problem of learning materials for the Zairean learner of English.

0.2 Description of the study

The present study is concerned with ways of exploiting the learners' motivation and perseverance in learning materials in such a way as to increase the motivation of the motivated learners and to initiate and equally increase the motivation of the unmotivated or indeed of negatively motivated learners. It is not just a concern for learning materials and the ways in which they can be used to increase the motivation and perseverance of keen pupils and to increase the motivation of the less committed. It relates to the specific problem of Zairean learners of English (cf 2.3.1), whose attitudes towards various aspects of their learning are collected and analysed through factor analysis and frequency counts.

The study consists of two parts: Part One, the literature of language teaching with special reference to learning materials and motivation; Part Two, the methodology of field work, the analysis of collected data and conclusions. Part One has two chapters. The first offers a brief historical survey of language teaching in the West and how these historical facts relate to Zaire. The second, 'Motivation and Perseverance in Language Learning Materials' surveys some relevant literature. It also looks at the concept of Motivation in what is referred to here as the pedagogic tradition of Motivation, that is, Motivation from the teacher's point of view. From this study emerges what we have referred to as the operative pragmatic or pedagogic definition of Motivation, from which the rest of our definitions derive (cf 2.3.4).

The analysis of the pedagogic view of Motivation is followed by a description of the problem of Motivation as it affects ELT in Zaire and the five hypotheses which derive from it: two main ones and three related subsidiaries. These hypotheses are tested through a framework (Fig. 2.4) and empirical data (Part Two). While the empirical instruments are described in Chapter Three, Part Two, the conceptual framework is described in Chapter Two after the hypotheses. The description of the framework leads to the description of the approach that this thesis suggests for dealing with the problem at hand. The approach has been labelled 'SP-squared' where 'SP' stands for Specific Purposes (SP1) and Social Psychological (SP2). Because there are two 'SP's', we found it appropriate to square them. This is what justifies the label 'SP-squared' or, indeed, $(SP)^2$ for the more mathematical.

Part Two consists of Chapters Three to Five. Chapter Three is a description of the empirical instruments used to collect the data on which the conclusions of this study are based. Chapter Four analyses the data and Chapter Five looks at the findings of Chapter Four and their implications for learning materials, before envisaging some practical ways of accounting for Motivation and Perseverance in learning materials. Some generalisations come last by way of conclusion.

NOTES

1. Personal communication from the old, particularly Lubasa Ndongala (my father) and Ruth Page, a Protestant missionary, who worked in Zaire from the second world war period until 1981 when she retired.

PART ONE

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE ON LEARNING MATERIALS AND MOTIVATION

C'est en considérant les choses dans leur genèse
ici comme ailleurs qu'on en obtient la meilleure
intelligence.

Aristotle (quoted in Kita 1982:25)

... Language Teaching theory has a short memory.
Perhaps because of our involvement in current
problems and polemics, we have tended to ignore
the past or to distort its lessons, and to re-
enact old battles over and over again ...

Stern (1983:76-7)

CHAPTER ONE: LT HISTORICAL SURVEY

While sciences have advanced by approximations in which each new stage results from an improvement, not a rejection, of what has gone before, Language-Teaching methods have followed the pendulum of fashion from one extreme to the other. So that, after centuries of Language Teaching, no systematic reference to this body of knowledge exists.

Mackay (1965:138)

1.0 Introduction

Current thinking and approaches to syllabus design and materials production result, among other things, from dissatisfaction or disappointment with teaching methods, long considered as 'the cause of success or failure in language-learning' (Mackey 1965:138). This chapter is meant as a survey of the Language-Teaching (LT) approaches which paved the way to the present concept and development of syllabus and materials design. The reason is that most views expressed in connection with language-teaching or language-learning have repeated themselves throughout the centuries and travelled the whole world adapting themselves to the conditions of the time and the place in which they find themselves. They landed in Zaire and therefore need to be discussed in the context and the light of their new setting as well.

Obviously, the survey is based on existing literature of the history of language teaching and syllabus and/or materials design. Our intention is not to duplicate that; rather, it is to learn from the past in order to deal with the present and look to the future, if not with confidence, at least with some sense of safety.

In writing the survey we have drawn quite heavily on Mackey (1965), Kelly (1969), Stern (1983), Yalden (1983), and Howatt (1984). We rely on them.

Syllabus and materials design are linked with the development of communicative approaches to language teaching. They are, in effect, a fairly new concept or area of enquiry in the history of language teaching (cf Stern 1983:109-10; Yalden 1983; and Howatt 1984) in that before recent shifts in LT, approaches to syllabus and teaching or learning materials or course-books were limited to their analysis rather than a consideration of their design. The latter is seen now as an approach to dealing with Language-teaching/learning (LTL) problems. It seems to owe this particularity initially to the Council of Europe project (1971-73). However, the forces that shaped it go back to the period after the Second World War.

In the scope of this thesis and for the reason provided here above, it is felt essential to consider these forces and their historical background as it is reflected, perhaps unwittingly, in the present developments of language teaching with a special emphasis on teaching, and/or learning materials. In this respect aspects of Zairean LT are related every now and again; for, we believe that the study of the available LT history of Zaire will help us point at viable directions for future development, at least in, and for this part of the world.

1.1 LT before World War II

... Let us remind ourselves that the main purpose of an historical approach is to ensure that the totality of past and present developments in pedagogy

-theory, research, and practice - is not lost but constitutes a consistent source and resource for our theory of language teaching.

Stern 1983:114

1.1.0 Introduction

Language teaching history (cf Mackey 1965:141-151 and Kelly 1969:363ff) shows that the principles underlying language instruction have not changed a lot. What has changed and keeps changing is the emphasis as a consequence of social developments and change (cf Howatt 1984:129). In this connection Kelly (op cit), in the introduction to the last part (Part VII) of his book, asserts that:

The total corpus of ideas accessible to language teachers has not changed basically in 2,000 years. What have been in constant change are the ways of building methods from them ... (p363).

and that 'the part of the corpus that is accepted varies from generation to generation, as does the form in which the ideas present themselves' (Loc cit).

It follows that discussion about language teaching through the centuries was mainly concerned with teaching methods and/or approaches. Depending on changes in social values of language knowledge (cf Kelly 1969, and Howatt 1984) scholars focussed on one or the other aspect of language teaching in connection with methodology as the nucleus of language teaching and its developments.

Mackey (1965:141) suggests that the initial concern with LT methods in Europe began in ancient times and continued throughout the Middle Ages. The methods then 'were mostly limited to Latin grammars designed to enable clerics to speak, read and write their second language ...'(Mackey loc cit). The instruction focussed mainly on

literature and rhetoric (cf Kelly 1969 Fig 27). Before then foreign or second languages (Greek or Latin) were learned or acquired informally, in a similar way as for the native languages, a situation thought to have prevailed in most of sub-Saharan Africa before the fifteenth century.

With regard to Zaire, first contact and study (either formal or informal) of European languages can be traced back to the last decade of the fifteenth century through to 1504, when missionaries had built a school in the ancient Kongo Kingdom (cf Gérard 1981:286). It is not clear what the method used was. However the description of the first book in Kikongo published in 1624 suggests that there was a lot of translation involved (cf Gérard 1981:287).

It is reported that there was an exchange of letters between the Kongo court and Portugal as early as 1514, the implication being that there were literate Kongo people who could read and write Portuguese (cf Gérard, loc cit and Balandier 1968:226 and Ch 9) at that time. As the period of time referred to above falls within the European Renaissance, it would seem reasonable, in this survey, to look at LT during the Renaissance in Europe. A more serious reason to start this survey from the Renaissance is that this is the period when textbooks became important to the pupil (cf Kelly, 1969:257).

1.1.1 Renaissance and LT

The reproduction and vulgarisation of Greek and Latin classics in the Renaissance (made possible by the invention of printing) revealed the gap which existed between the Latin classics and the Latin spoken in academic Europe at the time.

This revelation caused dissatisfaction with Latin learning/teaching and, subsequently raised complaints about Latin teaching methods referred to later as 'Traditional'. The dissatisfaction resulted in attempts to 'improve the teaching of Latin by doing away with the learning of grammar for grammar's sake'(Mackey 1965:141); which is in effect another consequence of the vulgarisation of the Latin classics.

As far as methodology and teaching materials are concerned, the first fully principled move away from grammar to meaning is made by Comenius in his Orbis Sensualium Pictus first published in 1654. With this publication, consistent and systematic use of induction and pictures to teach foreign or other languages entered the LT profession and textbooks. There is evidence of use of pictures in textbooks to teach meaning before Comenius's publication. This practice stems probably from Asia where pictures were used for teaching purposes long before they were in Europe (Kelly 1969:15). In European classrooms, it is attested in the Middle Ages, but their intention was not primarily pedagogic. It was rather ornamental or aesthetic and secondly devotional. Thus Comenius's merit in this respect is to have fully thought-out a Scheme of teaching vocabulary (i.e. lexical meaning) with pictures (cf Kelly, 1969:15-8).

For Comenius, learning was 'an active process' which requires the collaboration of as many senses as possible. This idea goes back to St Augustine and is reflected in current thinking about what learning is and what learning a language involves and implies. It is manifested in the different communicative approaches to language teaching in which syllabus design and materials production occupy

an increasingly important place. Let us note, however, that the current view of language learning is based on research about language learning rather than research (or whatever) on language teaching.

Soon after Comenius's death, his 'scheme of teaching vocabulary with pictures' was forgotten for more than two centuries. One of the reasons is the cost of the Orbis pictus, his book. The other important reason is the predominance of the Cartesian spirit of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries which favoured coherent theorising about reality (cf Kelly 1969:399). Nevertheless, Comenius's ideas were revived now and then through the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries by those who, like John Locke, Besedow and Meidinger, were interested in language teaching (cf Mackey 1965:143; Howatt 1984: 147-50).

1.1.2 The Seventeenth and the Eighteenth Centuries

John Locke (1693) shared the idea of Comenius and Montaigne about Language Teaching/Learning (LTL). For him, as Quick (1880:138) quoted in Mackey (1965:142) reports,

Languages were not made by rules of art, but by Accident, and the Common Use of the People. And he that will speak them well, has no other Rule but that; nor anything to trust to, but his Memory, and the Habit of speaking after the Fashion learned from those, that are allowed to speak properly, which in other Words is only to speak by rote ...

This passage reflects both Comenius's principle of induction in other-Language Learning (OLL) and Montaigne's point that concern with rules of grammar hinders fluency, or, in current terminology, accuracy reduces fluency. Locke recommends that:

... for most practical purposes languages should be learnt by use rather than by systematic study.

We will all agree that this issue 'presents itself again today in discussions on communicative language teaching' (Stern:loc cit).

In the eighteenth century, Comenius's ideas were particularly followed by Basedow who was also influenced by the nature-education ideas of Rousseau. Later in 1783, Meidinger's work introduced translation from L1 into the second language 'through the application of rules of grammar', thus reversing the usual practice in schools consisted of translating from the other language into the first (cf Mackey 1965:142-3).

The main characteristics of the period stretching from the seventeenth century through to the nineteenth century are summarised by Kelly (1969:Fig 27) in terms of:

- (a) the orientation of grammar;
- (b) the purposes of language; and
- (c) the state of the methods.

The grammar is characterised as logical or logically-oriented due to the Cartesian spirit of the period. The purposes of language learning were anything but 'functional'. The possible social purposes of language were subordinated to literary and scholarly purposes. The methodology is characterised by the evolution of the grammar-translation methods.

By the end of the eighteenth century, the teaching of Latin grammar had become an end in itself as Latin ceased to be the medium of instruction. As a consequence, the teaching and application of Latin rules became formalised into a sort of intellectual exercise (cf Mackey 1965:143). It is this 'intellectual exercise' aspect

of language teaching which even today justifies the teaching of Latin in Zairean schools - a hang-over from the pre-independence period when Latin was taught along with Mathematics to develop reasoning in the learner (cf Congo Belge 1948:23). The same argument may well justify the teaching of other languages in some other countries where the aims of language teaching are similar to those achieved from the seventeenth through the nineteenth centuries, i.e., to a large extent, literary and scholarly.

One of the factors which helped the evolution and establishment of the grammar-translation methods is 'the easy availability of books' (Kelly 1969:260). The fact is that translation methods:

... require a text in front of the student for constant reference. While this was not necessarily in book form, lack of books would have seriously hampered the application of the method.

Kelly 1969:260

The suggestion is that in the particular case of translation methods, teaching materials, namely: the textbook, supported the prevailing LT theory of the time rather than being influenced by it. The implication (or at least one of the implications) being that teaching materials can be free from current LT theories and yet be useful and usable within the scope or framework of the theories in question as a guide for language use and usage, or in Marcel's terms:

... as models of expression, ... the only guide for speaking and writing in conformity with the genius of the language.

Marcel (1869:16) quoted in Kelly (1969:261)

The importance or indeed the unimportance of coursebooks thus is not so much related to the current teaching theory nor has their use depended entirely on teaching theory. It is rather linked with the availability, the cost, and the layout of the book, on the one

hand, and on the other hand, with the growth of self-instruction in languages.

The recognition that learners could teach themselves given the right materials is an important development of the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries. It had been made possible 'solely by the existence of books and their relative cheapness' (Kelly 1969: 257). Furthermore it affected the layout of books in such a way that they could be used for self-instruction. This is particularly the case with modern language coursebooks, as modern languages were not yet a regular part of the school curriculum (cf Kelly 1969:259).

Although coursebooks were available to the learner during this period, it is not before the beginning of the nineteenth century that a class or individual pupils in a class could have the same book. Before then, a teacher would 'face a class in which every pupil had a different textbook' (Kelly 1969:260).

1.1.3 The Nineteenth Century

The beginning of the nineteenth century was marked by a return to Comenius's ideas, especially, the induction of grammar rules through the study of texts in the other language. The end of the century was subsequently marked by reactions to the resulting method, now referred to as 'Grammar-translation'. The method was consolidated by Plotz during the second half of the century.

The reactions, at first individual, developed into what may be called 'Natural-Direct-Methodist Movement' referred to as the 'Reform Movement' (cf Stern 1983:98; Howatt 1984:169-91/Ch 13).

The movement is, thus, the culmination of long-standing criticisms, discussions, and individual attempts at reform from the middle of the century and earlier. It involved academic scholars such as Sweet, Viëtor, Passy and others, language teachers in secondary schools, and promoters of language teaching as a commercial venture such as Berlitz.

The basic principles of the Reform Movement are (cf Howatt 1984:171):

- (a) the primacy of speech
- (b) the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching-learning process , and
- (c) the absolute priority of an oral methodology in the classroom.

As such, the Reform Movement

... affected school systems, led to administrative action on the part of ministries of education, brought about the creation of new organisations, such as the International Phonetic Association and associations of language teachers, and led to an intensive debate on language teaching which has gone on ever since.

Stern (1983:98)

The 1898 international Congress of Modern Language teachers in Vienna and the Leipzig Congress in 1900 strengthened the movement which developed quite happily into Audio-lingual and Audio-visual Methods until its psychological and linguistic bases (behaviourism and structuralism respectively) were challenged.

By 1882, the year the Reform Movement actually took off with the publication of Viëtor's pamphlet, Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren! ein Beitrag zur Ueberbürdungsfrage (Language teaching must

start afresh: A contribution to the question of stress and overwork), the principles of the new Methodology referred to later, in the early twentieth century, as the 'Direct-Method' had entered the textbook with Berlitz and Sauveur (cf Howatt 1984:205-8).

Whereas, in the case of the translation methods, the teaching materials rather supported the prevailing LT theory of the time, in the case of the Direct-Methods they were influenced by the LT theory of the time. Indeed the Direct-Method (or the Reform Movement) led to the use of technology (phonographs, tape recorders, language laboratories, television, etc) for teaching or learning purposes as well as the production of coursebooks with a set of definite patterns concerning the content, the methods, and the structure of the textbook. But it is not until "the turn of the century" that it happened (cf Mackey 1965:145).

(a) The Direct Method and the content of the coursebook

With reference to the content, the 'Direct-Method textbook' made no use of the learners' language; the implication being that it contained only the other language under study (as was the case with Sauveur, for instance). Texts and/or reading materials were written in contemporary style and often dealt with the life and culture of the target country. In addition, the coursebook provided inductive grammar, modern literary texts, and written work in the form of reproduction exercises (Mackey 1965:146).

(b) The method applied in the coursebook

The method was mainly concerned with dialogues and dramatisation, implying oral repetition and imitation. Assimilation of

the other-language structure was secured through inference and abstraction. Sentence meaning, on the other hand, was taught through pictures and definitions aided by the gestures and the ingenuity of the teacher. This is an extension of Comenius's methodology coupled with Gouin's 'series' technique. That is: use of the inductive methods of teaching grammar and Gouin's technique of linking meaning and activity.

The central concept of the 'series' technique is 'that the structure of a language text reflected the structure of the experience it described' (Howatt 1984:162). Gouin, Howatt (1984:162) writes:

... believed that sequentiality was the primary feature of experience and that all events could be described in terms of a 'series' of smaller component events, so that, for example, opening the door could be analysed into moving towards the door, turning the handle, opening it, holding it open, and so on. This sequential structure provided the framework for the associated language: 'I am walking to the door, I am standing by the door, I am turning the handle, etc, and the familiarity of happenings of this kind helped the learner to understand the new language and remember it more efficiently.

Howatt (1984:162)

Gouin's emphasis on experience and particularly on the link between meaning and activity stand as the main feature of the Direct-Method. He sees speech as one or more chains of sentences. In his view of the Direct Method these chains of sentences had to deal with everyday acts and activities based on the interests of the learners, not those of the teacher (cf Mackey 1965:144). Here, Gouin raised the issues of learners' motivation in the classroom, and of learner-centredness spelt out later on in the second half of the twentieth century. It can thus be assumed that the 'Direct Method coursebook' was sensitive to the learners and their motivation.

(c) The Direct-Method and the Structure of the Course-book

As far as the structure of the coursebook is concerned, the material was roughly graded so that one class led to the next. The four language skills were organised in such a way that listening and speaking were followed by reading after some time, and by writing later on. In a sense the Reform Movement led to the realisation of 'the importance of book layout as a teaching aid' (Kelly 1969: 261-64). Gouin is one of those who emphasised this aspect of language textbook structure in the Nineteenth century (Kelly 1969:164). This is not surprising when one knows that Gouin's methodology or 'series' technique consisted of acting out each sentence while it was being uttered; which entailed precedence of hearing or listening over the other skills (speaking, reading and writing).

1.1.4 The Early Twentieth Century in LT

1.1.4.1 From Jespersen (1901/1904) to Bloomfield

The period starting with Jespersen's How to teach a Foreign Language (1904, a translation of Sprogundervisning published in 1901) is characterised by the consolidation and expansion of the monolingual methodology of the Direct Method, research in the field of language teaching and learning, and the development of the Applied Linguistic Approach inherited from Sweet and the Reform Movement. Sweet's work, mainly The Practical Study of Languages is associated with Jespersen's How to Teach a Foreign Language which tempers, so to speak, the absence of a human dimension in The Practical Study of Languages.

Sweet-Jespersen ideas are echoed and expanded by Palmer in The Scientific Study of the Teaching of Languages (1917) and following works to such an extent that he is 'often considered as

the 'father of British applied linguistics' (Stern 1983:100). Like Sweet's Study, the central concern of Palmer's Study 'is language and how it should be taught and learnt' (Howatt 1984:235). Following the lead of Sweet and Jespersen, Palmer focusses on a general methodology of language study that he wants to be placed on a scientific foundation. To that end he suggests the institution of a general inquiry into the whole question of language study (cf Kelly 1969: 407, and Howatt 1984:235), thus stimulating research in Language Methodology. He, himself worked toward 'the realisation of the principles of the Oral Method in a concrete form (Howatt 1984:214) and did vocabulary research. This research relates Palmer to Michael West who in 1926 published Bilingualism, with special reference to Bengal as a result of 'the most extensive study of English language needs yet undertaken' (Howatt 1984:215). The conclusion of the study turns out to be that

... the most pressing need was for simple reading materials written within a controlled vocabulary
 ... (Loc cit)

The same year, West published: Learning to Read a Foreign Language. He advocated a reading approach to other-language teaching, as a result of his experience as a school vice-principal, principal and later a school inspector in India (cf Stern 1983:101, Howatt 1984: 215, 335)

Another study done in America consolidated West's conclusions and resulted in the spreading of 'the Reading Method, with texts based on a controlled and limited vocabulary' (Mackey 1965:149). The findings of the study are interpreted by Coleman (1929) in what is referred to as the Coleman Report. According to Coleman the conclusions were:

... Since most pupils waste their time in trying to achieve the impossible, especially in two-year courses, it is better to try for something attainable, a limited reading knowledge of the second language.

Mackey (1965:149)

This is strikingly similar to what is heard and discussed in Zairean academic circles, and justifies this survey in that controversy repeats itself and travels long distances world-wide. The point is evidence that the specific case of Zaire is not isolated from the international setting but rather is related to developments and events that happened and still happen elsewhere in the world (namely Europe and America in this particular instance) and that what happens elsewhere has some relevance or implications for Zaire.

The conclusions, however, were not endorsed by all the members of the Committee which launched the study, and the Report has been held responsible for the decline of language learning between the two wars in the United States (cf Stern 1983:101). This is an indication that the Reading Method failed to secure any positive result or, as Mackey (1965:149) suggests, teachers failed to cope with the method.

In 1933, Bloomfield published Language, a classic in linguistics which 'made its impact on language teaching at the next stage of development (Stern 1983:101).

1.1.4.2 Expansion of the 'Direct-Method' Principles

The term 'Direct Method' was actually established or seems to have been established in 1901 in France ('when it was described in a circular of the French Ministry of Public Instruction' (Mackey 1965:146)) and spread from there throughout the world to be adapted

or adopted according to the needs of, or the objectives set by the country in which it landed. In this Connection Mackey (Loc cit) says:

As the principles of the Direct Method spread there was more and more compromise with them in order to meet the growing demands for measurable standards of accuracy. Vocabulary exercises and systematic grammar drills were added, at a more advanced level, translation was included, and at all levels certain standards of correctness were required.

The principles were adopted (as can be noticed from Van Roey 1961:7-9, 11-24) in Zaire as soon as the teaching of English began around the end of the colonial period (1958-60), and very little has been done to move away from the Direct and Audio-lingual/visual Methods except for an eclectic approach to LT or the 'Active Method', the French compromise version of the Direct Method. This seems an appropriate place to turn to the specific LT history of Zaire and remind ourselves that most points discussed elsewhere (now and in the past) in relation to teaching and learning other peoples' languages repeat themselves, and that the views discussed in this chapter are particularly relevant to modern Zaire.

1.1.4.3 LT in Zairean Schools

... It must be borne in mind that the history of English and French as second languages in Africa and Asia has again unique characteristics which make it different from the history of foreign language teaching in European and North American school systems.

Stern (1983:97)

(1) Introduction and general

The history of LT in Zaire can be traced back to the end of the fifteenth century as far as foreign languages are concerned; but for the purpose of this thesis it is more useful to look at its

history from 1884 when the current boundaries of the country were set at the Berlin Conference, and the country was made the personal property of King Leopold II of Belgium as the Free State of the Congo.

The period stretching from 1884 to the present time can be broadly divided into three periods: (a) from 1884 to the end of the Second World War, (b) the Post-war period to the independence Education Reforms (1961), and (c) from the Reforms onwards (1984/5).

The first period is characterised by a slow sporadic establishment of schools (the main instrument of foreign language instruction) and the organisation of a school system to cover the country as a whole. What Van Hove (1951:4), a counsellor to the 'Ministry of Colonial Affairs' (Ministère des Colonies), writes about the establishment of what he calls an 'embryo' of a school system is revealing for LT. According to him, the motive which forced the government of the Free State of the Congo to start some sort of schooling was its intention to settle the country and exploit its agricultural and natural wealth. But some difficulties such as lack of knowledge of local languages and ways of life, and the problem of recruiting European qualified staff willing to work in unfavourable conditions, by European standards, and the necessity of providing the schools with the required equipment delayed the organisation of a viable school system until 1906. The objective of the schools was to train 'd'auxiliaires de l'Administration et des entreprises privées' (Van Hove 1951:4). Apparently language training in the first stages of the education system was largely work or job-oriented and thus specific.

It is perhaps worth indicating that, from the start, the school system of Zaire had two orientations reflected in language instruction and LT developments. They are: schooling (a) for training 'auxiliaires d'Administration et de secteurs privés', and (b) for the mass of the population. Obviously the mass of the population will be taught very little foreign languages, if anything, while the other group will learn the necessary operational foreign languages, namely: French for the first period concerned with here (cf Van Hove 1951:5-8 or the official programme, Congo Belge 1929:11-42); French, Dutch, and English for the second period (cf Van Hove 1951:20-21, and/or the 1948-official programme, Service de l'enseignement, Congo Belge 1948:22, or Lubasa 1982:28); and French and English for the last period (see Lubasa 1982:28).

(ii) From 1884 to the end of World War II (1945)

Administratively this period consists of three subdivisions: 1884-1906 when education was the business of missionaries only; 1906-1926 marked by the first attempt by the government to set up a teaching system for local people; and 1926-1945 marked by the involvement of the government in the educational business. In the first of these three sub-divisions language learning/teaching was mainly concerned with reading and writing the local language (the mother tongue). Some elementary French was taught for elementary communication for specific purposes. This is in fact equally true of the other two subdivisions of the period. It is very much the case that the Belgian system of education for their colony attracted a lot of criticism (cf George, 1966; Sloan, 1962:191-206).

1. The Mother Tongue or Local Language Teaching/Learning

The syllabus for mother tongue study at primary school consisted of a study of grammatical notions and verb conjugations, reading and spelling, and eventually writing of short descriptions, stories and letters.

At earlier stages of primary education the method for reading is described in the official syllabus as follows:

... La lecture, l'écriture et l'orthographe doivent s'enseigner en même temps. L'étude d'une lettre comprendra donc: la recherche et l'étude du son, sa représentation, l'écriture de la lettre par les élèves, la combinaison de la lettre avec d'autres lettres étudiées précédemment, des exercices de lecture, d'écriture et des dictées; comme il faut empêcher que les élèves ne prennent l'habitude de lire sans se rendre compte de ce qu'ils lisent, tous les mots nouveaux seront soigneusement expliqués et le maître vérifiera fréquemment si les élèves comprennent bien le texte lu.

Congo Belge (1929:11)

Translation: ... Reading, writing and spelling have to be taught simultaneously. The study of a letter will therefore consist of discovery and study of its sound, its shape, the pupils' writing of the letter, the combination of the letter with other letters previously studied, reading, writing and dictation exercises; since the pupils must be stopped from acquiring the habit of reading without realising what they are reading, every new word will carefully be explained and the teacher will frequently check the pupils' comprehension of the text they have read.

Two important points stand out in this text: (a) the concept of reading (lecture), and (b) the way reading is to be done.

(a) The concept of reading

The concept of reading in the mother tongue or local language reflected in this passage is (a) recognition of letters and their respective sounds, (b) production of the sounds in question in isolation and in combination. This is done through 'reading' (in the sense above) and spelling or writing exercises and dictations.

(b) The way reading is to be done

Reading is expected to be accurate, in the sense that a reading passage should be understood the way it is intended to be understood, thus implying that texts have only one interpretation. This attitude is reflected in the teaching and learning of French and later in that of English.

At a later stage, toward the end of primary education, reading was mainly aloud (lecture courante, lecture expressive) and was preceded by a short talk about the topic or by a brief analysis of the text (depending upon the level of the class) before the 'actual reading'. This is consistent with the above concept of reading and the way reading is expected to be done, and is reflected in (or perhaps, is a reflection of) the teaching of French and Latin in Zaire even now (cf classroom observation in Chapter Three).

The structure of the language itself or the system of the language was taught through an analysis of the grammatical notions suggested in the syllabus, and its use for schooling purposes through what is referred to as 'leçons d'intuition' (Intuition lessons), 'Causeries générales', and 'Hygiène'.

The 'Intuition lessons' were mainly concerned with the description and study of the learners' environment starting from the classroom and the world at large. The suggested approach consists of four steps leading to a summary and further exercises depending on the level of the class. The four steps are: (a) free analysis of an observed object, (b) guided analysis, (c) comparison (if possible) with similar objects, and (d) synthesis, culminating in a short summary.

In earlier stages, the summary was done by the teacher; later it was done by the pupils guided by the teacher's questions, simple at earlier stages and more complex later on. The summary was eventually copied down by the pupils in their notebooks and served, if required, as the basis for a series of exercises.

'Causeries Générales' lessons were in effect moral talks by the teacher and were presumably repeated by the pupils one way or another. 'Hygiène', as the word suggests, concerned body and environment cleanliness. They were both intended to be elocution lessons. The methodology to be used is described in the official syllabus issued in 1929 as follows:

En règle général, le maître commencera par un exposé concrétisé et dramatisé (my emphasis). Il choisira l'exemple d'un enfant, qui deviendra le héros de tous ses récits et qui constatera et fera ce qu'il veut que les élèves constatent et fassent. Il multipliera les péripéties de façon à donner à ses récits un intérêt toujours nouveau (my emphasis).

Après le récit, il procédera à l'analyse et à la synthèse en graduant ses questions comme pour les leçons d'intuition.

Congo Belge (1929:12)

Translation: As a general rule, the teacher starts with a concrete and dramatised account. He chooses the case of a child, who becomes the hero of all his accounts, and who notices and does what he wants the pupils to notice and to do. He multiplies the vicissitudes to allow his accounts an always-renewed interest.

After the account, he proceeds with the analysis and the synthesis, grading his questions as with the intuition lessons.

Three main points stand out here:

- (1) a concern for the learner's environment and cultural background or the learner's knowledge and past and present experience (cf 'exposé concrétisé', concrete account)

- (2) a concern for the learners' 'motivation' or interest (cf the phrase 'exposé concrétisé et dramatisé' and the sentence 'Il multipliera les péripéties de façon à donner à ses récits un intérêt toujours nouveau').
- (3) a sense of a spiral or cyclical syllabus reflected in the methodology (cf last paragraph of the quotation). Whether the three points were actually exploited in the classroom is another story.

The sense of spirality noted above is remarkable in the official syllabus from which the passage is extracted, and can be related to two dimensions: latitudinal or within the same course or level (i.e. within the first or the second, etc year of study), and longitudinal, that is throughout the cycle (e.g. from the first year till the last year of primary education). And this is really a good or even perfect thing to do. But the main criticism attracted by the system is related to content; not only the content of the mother tongue or local language study, but also the content of the whole of the instruction including the teaching of French (cf George 1966).

2. French

The syllabus for the teaching of French was very similar to the one for the mother tongue in that it was mainly concerned with the study of grammatical forms and verb conjugations followed by writing at secondary school. And the method too was similar to the one used for the mother tongue or the local language. The only difference was the language, and any difference in the method itself

was likely to be a result of the use of the language in the teaching process, as French was expected to be taught through

Leçons d'intuition et causeries d'après tableaux, suivies de petites rédactions préparées au moyen d'une série de questions auxquelles les élèves doivent répondre oralement d'abord, par écrit ensuite.

Congo Belge (1929:23)

and also through grammar exercises and dictation (loc cit) quite like the methodology for the teaching of the local language described above.

What is interesting about this approach to teaching French in Zaire is the close relationship between the mother tongue and the foreign language not only in terms of the method but also and mainly in terms of the topics dealt with and the way of dealing with them. The topics dealt with ^{in French lessons were similar or the same as those dealt with} in the intuition lessons and 'causeries generales' in the mother tongue or local language. In dealing with them the learners' mother tongue or local language was discouraged and the teacher was encouraged to:

show, act, and speak, and to make the pupils show, act, and speak (montrer, agir et parler, faire montrer, faire agir et faire parler).

Congo Belge 1929:12

So translation was avoided during French classes, thus putting into practice the Direct-Method principles. This is not surprising when one knows that the method had been supported and eventually adopted (though indirectly) by the government in Belgium in 1895 (cf Mackey 1965:145). However, it should be said that despite the official position about the matter, most LT was done through the grammar-translation method. In this respect Van Roey (1961) writes:

La méthode quasi exclusivement appliquée pour l'enseignement des langues vivantes jusqu'il y a quelque dizaines d'années - et encore trop en

vogue de nos jours - est la méthode que les anglais appellent 'classical method' ou 'grammar-translation method'.

Van Roey (1961:11)

Translation: The method almost exclusively used to teach modern languages until the last ten years or so - and still widely used nowadays - is the one referred to in English as 'classical' or 'grammar-translation' method.

Obviously in 1961 (the Reform time and the beginning of the present period of LT development in Zaire) grammar-translation was commonplace in schools. As a consequence, local-language as well as French textbooks (mainly teaching the grammar) looked rather like Latin textbooks; or perhaps because the textbooks looked like Latin textbooks, LT was done through the grammar-translation method. It is worth noting that even the teaching of local languages as foreign languages (for instance to missionaries and other Europeans) followed French-Latin patterns, as the textbooks reveal. The extract below, from the first part of Tavares' (1915) Kikongo grammar book, illustrates the point.

Primeira Parte. Morfologia
Diferentes espécies de palavras

Em Kikongo, há onze espécies de palavras: artigo, substantivo, partícula concordante, pronome, adjetivo, nome numeral, verbo, advérbio, preposição, conjunção e interjeição.

Tavares (1915:7)

Translation:
First Part. Morphology
The Different Parts of Speech

Kikongo has got eleven parts of speech: the article, the substantive, the concord particle, the pronoun, the adjective, the numeral noun, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection.

This is a perfect image of Latin (French or Portuguese) parts of speech and grammar. For one thing, Kikongo does not have things like articles, pronouns, or prepositions. These are expressed by means of affixes. Tavares' book is structured in such a way that the rules of grammar (or in this particular instance, description of the parts of speech) are illustrated and immediately practised. A perfect reflection of foreign-language or European-languages grammar-books of the time.

Another possible reason for the grammar-translation method is that French was optional in most cases, so that there was no real need for no translation during the French classes. This opinion is supported by the fact that what was prescribed in the official syllabus became somehow effective only later on, after the Second World War, when the teaching of French became a commonplace in urban primary schools and in secondary education as a result of what Kita (1892:18) refers to as the "dialectics of fear and necessity". That is the fear of providing education dictated by political reasons and the need for perpetual power; and the necessity of providing education dictated by administrative and economic imperatives (cf 0.1.2.3).

1.2 LT during and after the Second World War

1.2.0 Introduction

Like the rest of the world, Zaire benefitted from the conflicts of the war in that the war awakened the Zaireans' national and social awareness. The accession of the liberal-Socialist coalition government in Belgium added to the Zaireans' awareness and compelled, in 1948, the formulation of a new educational policy in which knowledge of

French was essential since it became the medium of instruction in secondary schools. This fact alone changed the whole business of teaching French and the attitudes towards it.

At about the same time 'many countries in the world awakened to language learning problems in a way that could hardly have been predicted in the previous period' (Stern 1983:102-3). The reason is that more people now needed to learn other languages to communicate at the national and/or the international levels, as a result of the war and what might be regarded as its negative result or consequence: immigration. The awareness of other-language learning problems and the "increasing intellectual awareness of, and interest in the scientific study of language problems" (loc cit) contributed to the rapid growth of Linguistics as an independent discipline, and to the study of languages from the point of view of several other disciplines. Hence the establishment of Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics as sub-disciplines. The whole change in LT developments at this stage of history appears to have started in the United States during the war.

1.2.1 The War and the Post-war Period to 1970

During the Second World War, a 'result-oriented approach' to LT started in the US army under the programme known as the 'Army Specialized Training Program' (ASTP). It aimed to help the army cope with its language needs where its soldiers were based. It is important to notice that before the ASTP, change in teaching methods or approaches followed change in thinking. With it, change follows the aim as it is reflected or dictated by the expected result. In other words, before the ASTP, change in methods followed change

in aims via the thinking of scholars, etc; with it, change followed the aim through the aim itself, thus paving the way for 'needs analysis'. This move, in 1943, is thus the first step towards the present state of LT and the communicative approaches.

Among the people who helped the army to achieve its aims and objectives were linguists and anthropologists, particularly those who had learned some of the more exotic languages in their field work. Among these were Franz Boas, Sapir, his disciple, and Bloomfield (cf Mackey 1965:149). Boas in particular suggested that:

... the bulk of the time be spent on accurate imitation of the natural conversation of native speakers of the language. He was supported by Sapir and also by Bloomfield, who had already pointed out that pseudo-grammatical doctrine and puzzle-solving translation had been largely responsible for the failure of the schools to give even a small percentage of the population a working knowledge of a second language.

Mackey (1965:149-50)

This suggestion entailed a reduction of grammar to the essential, and of reading and writing to the minimum. The reverse of the situation in which the war found the teaching of other languages in the United States.

After the war, schools and colleges attempted to duplicate war-time centres and their 'method' which actually consisted of anything capable of producing the expected result following the principles established by language specialists. But the attempt failed for a number of reasons, the most important being the time devoted to language learning programmes in schools, and the necessity of 'highly competent language-teaching specialists' (Mackey 1965:151). As a consequence,

... language teachers reverted to the use of grammar and translation, to the Reading Method, and to other methods which had been developed in the past.

Mackey (1965:151)

However this new return to 'old patterns' of language teaching proved more constructive than any preceding return in that "the battles over 'grammar' and 'translation' were over" (Howatt 1984:260), thus allowing the development of what has been described as "a modified 'direct method' approach which teachers could handle with confidence and learners could assimilate with ease" (Howatt 1984:151): the audio-lingual method derived from the structural approach developed by Fries at Michigan in the United States, and the audiovisual method or the situational language teaching approach in France and Britain (cf Stern 1983:113; Howatt 1984:225). These methods entailed the use of new technology: the tape recorder, language laboratories, the radio (especially with the audiolingual method), the television, film strip projector and, more recently, computer-assisted instruction (mainly with the audiovisual method).

The new return to 'old patterns' of language teaching, the world-wide awakening of countries to language-learning problems, and the "increasing intellectual awareness of", and the "interest in the scientific study of language problems" (Stern 1983:103) encouraged "renewed and resolute attempts ... in the fifties and sixties to tackle once more the inveterate problems of improving second language learning" (loc cit). Beside the methodological innovations and the use of technology referred to above, the attempts included:

- (a) new organisational patterns, such as languages in primary or adult education, intensive and 'immersion' courses, etc.

- (b) the development of ambitious language materials and language teaching programmes;
- (c) teacher education schemes, and
- (d) a new research emphasis which was applied to some of these innovations.

The attempts did not achieve the expected results. On the contrary, they paved the ground for further "controversy and renewed search for a more adequate basis for language teaching in the next period" (Stern 1983:104).

In Zaire the new attitude towards French led to the exploitation and indeed the application of the principles of the new or idealised version of the Direct Method. But the Belgian 'dialectics of fear and necessity', once again, operated and prevented the teaching of French and other languages taking full advantage of the new Western return to 'old patterns', and the other attempts listed above. The teaching of French and Dutch, for instance, was basically through the principles suggested in the period just before with an important dose of pronunciation practice, as the following paragraph from the official syllabus for the 'Ecole Moyenne' (Middle School) suggests:

In the study of the European Language great attention should be given to the course of 'correct pronunciation'; pronunciation and elocution exercises are not enough; pupils should also be told about the position of the organs of speech to secure language accuracy.

Translated from: Congo Belge (1948:17-8)

The original text of the paragraph is:

Dans l'étude de la langue européenne, on accordera une grande attention au cours d'orthophonie; il ne suffira pas de procéder à des exercices de prononciation et d'élocution; on montrera aussi aux élèves la position que doivent occuper les organes de la voix pour assurer la correction du langage.

The tendency expressed in this recommendation was as clearly reflected in the teaching materials as it reflects aspects of the principles of the Reform Movement and the Direct Method which dominated the LT literature of the previous period with no apparent effect. As far as French was concerned, teaching involved analyses of literary texts similar to the analyses in Latin, another aspect reflected in the teaching materials of the time and those of the next period of LT developments, imported from Belgium.

1.2.1.1 From the 1961-Educational Reforms onwards, or the Illusion of a Deadlock

This period is characterised by a feeling of impasse which generalised a series of educational reforms in different parts of the field. As far as language teaching is concerned, some change in methods or LT approaches is reflected in the teaching materials involved. The list below contains those coursebooks which had a wide use in the teaching of English during this period of LT developments in Zaire, except for the last one which is only a pilot book:

1. Britain (series) Edition Marcel Didier, Bruxelles, Gijssels H. and P Lievens (1961)
2. 'Anglais' (Series) Edition Marcel Didier, Bruxelles, Delree, De Paepe, and Gijssels (1963)
3. An English Course for French-Speakers (Series) , H A Cartledge and T J C Baly of the British Council (1965), Longman Group Ltd, London
4. English for Africa (series) Edition Bobiso, Kinshasa, Mills, Zodéougan and Tim Doust, Adapted by René Box (1977)
5. The LTC English Course (LTC Documents/ISP-Mbanza-Ngungu) Lubasa, Mwaka, Kinkela and Nkwanga (1982)

The first three books on the list are bilingual (French-English); the content about the target language as a system and the subject-matter is in English, but the explanations of the language (grammar, etc) and the instructions for most exercises are in French. The last two are monolingual and are exclusively in English. Their analysis, however superficial, shows some aspects of LT developments with reference to English in particular and to French, the other major foreign language of the country for this period.

1.2.1.1.1 The Britain Series

In this series, the first book (Britain *1^{re} année*) was very widely used. It contains (a) an introductory section on phonetic symbols to help the learners and the teacher, or the teacher to help the learners to pronounce English well, (b) forty-five lessons, all referring to English contexts and culture, illustrated by pictures, (c) a review (in French) of the grammatical structures contained in the book, (d) an English-French and French-English glossary supported by phonetic transcriptions, and (e) a few poems.

The methodology suggested focuses on mechanical repetition of structures and on translation from English into French and vice versa (version and theme). The excessive use of phonetic transcription suggests the oral orientation of the textbook, or rather an 'oral-orientation cover', an aspect on which French teaching had focused on already in the preceding period (cf 1.2.1).

1.2.1.1.2 The 'Anglais' series

The second series which has had a wide use through the country is the 'Anglais' series. The series uses phonetic transcription

it did not produce the expected effect: effective learning or knowledge of English for communication. There was a lot of learning going on in terms of knowledge about English grammar and vocabulary, but not much in terms of use. This is presumably the reason (or at least one of the reasons) for which the series was replaced by the four-volume series written by Cartledge and Baly whose results were no better than the other two textbooks.

1.2.1.1.3 The English Course for French-speakers Series

The main criticism against this book is the irrelevance of the cultural background for French-speaking learners of English (the very people for whom the book had been designed). The series has attracted a lot of criticism from teachers of English and ELT specialists, especially those who have studied in Britain. Katesi (1978), for example, analysing the second book of the series points out that the course

... requires of the teacher much skill and imagination. The non-provision of materials for the development of (the) listening skill is one of its shortcomings. The combination of Christian and African names makes it irrelevant to Zaire ... Texts such as 'A Day at the Bank' which depicts the English banking system should be adapted to the Zairean situation in which crossed cheques are not in use.

Katesi 1978:21

He concludes his essay saying that the particular volume of the series he focused on

... is structurally acceptable but culturally only moderately appropriate for use in Zaire.

This conclusion is not surprising when one knows that the cultural background of the content is mainly Nigerian. The background is thus African but not Francophone, and certainly not Zairean.

Notice that what Katesi means by 'structurally' is not the structure of the textbook but rather the language structures or content contained in the textbook. With reference to the structure of the course as a series, the underlying principles are fair enough as each lesson in the series contains (a) a number of structural patterns, each followed by illustrative sentences, (b) a reading passage containing the patterns in question, followed by comprehension questions, (c) a conversation passage on a topic related to the reading passage, and (d) some exercises to practise the structural patterns and the vocabulary presented in the chapter. These are oral and/or written. The trouble however is that the reading and conversation passages are often too long to be dealt with in one session and to have any lasting effect on the learner in practice. This entails the necessity of able teachers, highly qualified and motivated, to spend the required time and energy to simplify the passages so that pupils can handle them with ease and enjoy them.

After every five chapters there is a revision chapter which covers most points treated in the preceding chapters. The series also exploits anecdotes, songs, riddles and poems. However, the feeling about it is far from always positive (cf Lubasa 1982:126).

1.2.1.1.4 English for Africa Series

The last series to have been introduced in the teaching system of Zaire is an adaptation of the book by Mills et al entitled English for French-speaking Africa conceived for former French colonies of West Africa (cf Lubasa 1982: 127). The Zairean version is entitled English for Africa.

The series is conceived in such a way that the first eleven chapters are taught exclusively orally as they are only in the teacher's guide. The learners' book starts from section or Chapter Twelve. The first book of the series consists of four sections only. Each of them is approached orally first. Reading and writing exercises follow in that order. Like all the others, this series is structure-based and behaviour-oriented. Its distinctive feature is the use it makes of dialogues (rather than prose texts) contextualised by a set of pictures. In this sense the series is situational, a step towards semantic-based materials.

1.2.1.1.5 The LTC English Course (Series)

Some attempts have been made quite recently to produce 'more appropriate' materials adapted to the learners' culture and background. These attempts have resulted in the production of a pilot textbook by the staff of the Language Teaching Centre of Mbanza-Ngungu (LTC) at the 'institut Supérieur Pédagogique' of Mbanza-Ngungu, Bas-Zaïre, influenced by the concept of a notional-functional syllabus. However, the most the book can claim to be is structural and situation-based, rather than functional. Yet, it constitutes a step forward in Zaïrean LT history in that it is an alternative in a place where teaching materials are scarce and where, when they are available, they are seen as inappropriate in one way or the other.

The LTC English Course is intended as a series to cover three levels: elementary, intermediate and advanced. The elementary course consists of two parts of which Part One is being surveyed here. The whole idea of the series is summarised in the introduction when the authors write:

... In this course what matters is the actual communicative language or the manipulation of the language structures - but not rules or structures - needed to be effective at different levels. For what most, if not all, learners of English need is not to know the different rules of the language, but to communicate in the new language.

Lubasa et al 1982:i

This passage shows that the wind of the communicative approach current has blown over the Zairean professional LT milieu, but that the profession is still rooted in the confines of linguistic structures and some mechanical way of looking at language teaching. This is partly justified by the concern for the learners' psychological and cultural backgrounds and learning habits. The driving idea of the series is to break the habit by conforming to it and then moving away from it without raising the suspicions of the learners. It is in this sense that the first fourteen lessons are purposely structure-based and the last nine dialogue-based, and thus, are situational. The structures as well as the dialogues are supported by pictures relating to given situations. The grammar is presented in a table form which allows for an inductive assimilation. The tables contain examples which allow for deduction if required. The series thus caters both for inductive and deductive-oriented learners.

The ideas which led to the production of the LTC English course are directly related to the work of the council of Europe which, in a sense, is the culmination of the post world war western developments to which we return now.

1.2.1.2 Applied Linguistics and the Communicative Approaches to LT

... if there is one single source which has been responsible for stimulating innovation and activity, it is (in one or another of its various guises) applied linguistics. It has not performed miracles, but has a focus of enquiry, critical self-examination, and new ideas, it has enriched the profession at least as much as it has irritated it.

Howatt 1984:226

Howatt (1984:182, 189, 265) suggests that the term 'Applied Linguistics' was first used in the United States by Fries in 1948, but the applied linguistic tradition in language teaching started with Sweet as his work, particularly his paper, 'On the Practical Study of Language' (1884), later published as a book under the title The Practical Study of Languages (1899), articulated "for the first time the partnerships between the science of language and the science of learning" (Howatt 1984:182).

However, with reference to the present development of Applied Linguistics, Bloomfield can rightly be considered as the forerunner. Not only because of his interest in education (cf Bloomfield 1933: Ch 28), but also because the early version of Language (1933), had influenced Palmer (1917), often referred to as the father of British applied Linguistics' (cf Stern 1983:100). On top of that, Bloomfield 'was interested in the development of a more efficient approach to the teaching of reading to young children' (Howatt 1984:265). Another detail worth considering in this respect is the close similarity of the title of his 1942 publication (An Outline Guide for Practical Study of Foreign Languages) to the title of Sweet's book in 1899 (The Practical Study of Languages), the very document

which "articulated for the first time the partnership between the science of language and the science of learning" (cf Supra). Though initially intended as a practical fieldwork guide for a linguistic study of previously unwritten languages, the Guide found its way into the teaching of foreign languages, to the extent that it served as the model for the ASTP. In this sense it is a contribution to Applied Linguistics. The Guide has served ever since as a framework for structure-based syllabuses, as discussion about syllabus design (either structural or otherwise) was virtually non-existent.

The meaning of the concept 'Applied Linguistics' when the word or phrase was launched and even later in early 1970 (cf Corder 1973) was quite different from what is understood nowadays. Fries's Applied Linguistics, for instance, is rather 'Linguistics Applied', i.e. the application of linguistics to teaching languages. In Corder's view, Applied Linguistics is "collaboration between a linguist and ... a language teacher" (Corder 1973:282); that is, what a language teacher and a linguist or a language teacher who is a linguist (or vice versa) do. These views of Applied Linguistics are essentially LT related.

The current concept is seen as "the interaction of aspects of those fields of study which contribute to the theory and practice of (language) teaching" (Broughton et al 1978:37). In this view, Applied Linguistics is the interaction of aspects of sociolinguistics, linguistics and psycholinguistics. They are seen as the central contributory fields of study (cf Broughton et al 1978:37-8). Its function is to supply a theory of language from which language teaching practice could be derived, or which justifies LT classroom principles

and practice in conjunction with sociology, psychology and pedagogy.

The latter is mainly concerned with the operative aspect of the theory and practice in question:

The often forgotten field of pedagogy is concerned with class management, questioning techniques, lesson planing and teaching strategies and the numerous daily tricks of the trade that separate the professional teacher from the amateur.

Broughton et al 1978:38

It follows that Applied Linguistics is not essentially LT related, though used for LT purposes. With reference to language textbooks, Applied Linguistics during the period under consideration based the grading of the material on contrastive analysis rather than on intuitive. The syllabus was thus structural, since it was based on structural descriptions.

The arrival of transformational Generative Grammar initiated new ways of thinking in the field of LT which syllabuses, texts, and language exercises exploited; but its impact on LT theory and practice proper and especially on the preparation of teaching (learning) materials and LT pedagogy was slight until Hymes, drawing on Chomsky's approach to the study of language (specifically his competence-performance distinction in Aspects (1965)) produced a communicative competence framework for the description of language use (cf Howatt, 1984:271). The framework stressed the cruciality of language use as opposed to grammar rules or usage. In focussing on use rather than usage, Hymes put American Applied Linguistics in line with British Applied Linguistics which he influenced, and pointed towards the current communicative approach (cf Roberts 1982:100; Howatt 1984:271-2).

Current British Applied Linguistics goes back to Palmer's work (Palmer 1917, 1921 and 1922) or rather the Sweet/Jespersen-

Palmer traditions (cf Kelly, 1969:406-7; Howatt 1984:237, 264) but is strongly influenced by Firth's notion of 'context of situation' (cf Roberts 1982:100; Howatt 1984:272). This notion stressed the unity of language and social activity, and paved the way for the development of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) as an aspect of the communicative approach..

1.2.1.3 ESP/LSP as a Communicative Approach

We should like to start this discussion with Professor Widdowson's observation that:

... in spite of the implied claim, an ESP course is in one sense really no more specific in its purposes than is one designed for general purpose English teaching (GPE for short) ... What distinguishes them is the way in which purpose is defined, and the manner of its implementation.

Widdowson 1983:5

This is absolutely right except, perhaps, the point that "the way in which purpose is defined" should be one of the two things which distinguish ESP from EGP, as this can be flexible, not as rigid as Munby (1978) suggests. This is particularly the case if ESP courses are defined as

... those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner, rather than by nonlearner-centred criteria such as the teacher's or institution's predetermined preference for General English or for treating English as part of a general Education.

Munby 1978:2

For one thing GPE courses can well have a syllabus and materials "determined in all essentials by prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner" in similar ways to ESP courses, if these are

"viewed in terms of education rather than training" (Waters and Hutchinson 1983:12). Secondly ESP courses as 'stereotypes' or some types of 'training' can well be 'nonlearner-centred' in the sense that teachers and institutions know well in advance what people want their courses for from previous needs analyses. Finally, if we take the view that "there is no such thing as 'general', as opposed to 'specific', English" (Waters and Hutchinson, loc cit) and that ESP courses can be to some extent educational or "part of a general Education" as Widdowson strives to show and as is the case of English in commercial and administrative studies in Zaire, then the difference between ESP and GPE is reduced to the "manner of implementation". It is in this respect that ESP is thought of as an approach. More about this in Chapter Two (cf 2.3.3.2).

ESP as a concept was or is based on needs and register analysis, and extended to the specificity and specification of learning activities and processes, and learning purposes. To quote Robinson (1980:1) "many exciting new developments have occurred under the aegis of ESP" but, in fact, they represent "simultaneous but separate developments" from ESP which stimulated it but were not necessarily contained by it. Among these developments are the concepts of communicative competence, communicative language teaching, syllabus design and Discourse Analysis. They are at least partly results or consequences of a sense of dissatisfaction or disappointment with teaching methods and/or their results. 'Partly', because events are not always relatable to one cause. It so happened that dissatisfaction or disappointment is not the only reason for the development of ESP as is clear in the passage below; or perhaps other reasons like the ones related in the passage caused dissatisfaction and disappointment. The passage

suggests that changes in the educational aims and in the socioeconomic situation in Britain and overseas account for the origin of ESP:

... The appearance of large numbers of overseas students fuelled an expansion of language teaching institutions in Britain itself, as well as hastening the development of English-teaching operations in the students' countries of origin. Furthermore, the generally weak pound of 1974-77 attracted customers into British EFL classrooms and tempted publishers into expansionist investment policies. While the optimistic project-funding of the earlier period tended to favour home-based language teaching initiatives ..., the later swing in world economics brought greater benefits to EFL, particularly in the rather expensive market for tailor-made specific-purpose courses.

Howatt 1984:274

This passage is indicative of the mood and the educational and economic situation which prevailed in Britain at the moment the notion of communicative competence and communicative teaching crystallised, and the motivation of materials publishers in joining in the current tendencies. In this respect Widdowson (1983:16) is right in relating 'the assumption' that ESP has a 'separate and special status' to a change of attitude. The reasons for this, he suggests, "have something to do with the changing pattern of requirements for English in the emerging Third World" (Widdowson loc cit). He then explains that at the time ESP emerged

There was ... a coincidence of two different kinds of movement. One created socio-economic changes which needed to be serviced by English language resources. The other seemed to provide a mode of linguistic description which rendered the language particularly serviceable. ESP was generally seen as the natural pedagogic issue of this circumstantial coupling.

and that:

it is important ... to distinguish ESP as a socio-economic phenomenon with its attendant administrative consequences from the notion of linguistic and pedagogic specificity. Failure to make this distinction has caused a good deal of confusion ..

Widdowson 1983:16

Confusion was reflected in related materials.

The current communicative approach is a genuine and important development in the history of LT, but the materials which go along with it are not always genuinely communicative. Teaching materials at the beginning of this stage of history were still based, to a large extent, on intuition and on structural description. In practice, the first real shift from exclusively structurally organised syllabuses in LT, with reference to English, in Britain was made between 1966 and 1972, with the publication of Scope II. Scope had the merit of bringing together EFL and the British

... primary school tradition of activity methods which required the children to use the new language co-operatively to make puppets, charts, models of various kinds, and so on.

Howatt 1984:275

In this, Scope stands as the practical basis for the present communicative approach, in its essence, and the forerunner of group work in teaching languages for speakers of other languages.

To consolidate the work of Scope, a sound theoretical basis was needed. This was to be initiated among others by Halliday (1973, 1975, and 1978) with Explorations in the Functions of Language (1973)

... a collection of papers which explore the wider implications of Halliday's functional theory of language, with reference to sociology, education and literary criticism.

Allen & Widdowson, in Allen & Corder (eds) 1975:95

and particularly with Learning how to mean: explorations in the development of language (1975), and Language as Social Semiotic: the Social interpretation of language and meaning (1978). This work, along with other people's like that of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969),

is seen as the major contribution to the 'theoretical underpinnings' of the communicative approach, crystallised by Hymes (1970/1) and the work of ethnomethodologists (cf Roberts, 1982:100). Halliday's work is related to Hymes and Labov in the USA in that they are all concerned with relating rules of grammar to rules of use, a concern which led the way to the concept of Discourse Analysis with Sinclair and colleagues (1972, 1975) and Candlin et al (1974, 1976), to syllabus design study with Wilkins (1976) and Munby (1978) and to what is named P communicative teaching (a branch or aspect of communicative teaching) with Savignon (1972), the other branch being the L communicative teaching represented by Widdowson in Britain (cf Roberts, 1982:99-104). 'P' stands for psychological and pedagogic and 'L' for linguistic, analytical and 'formal'.

The 'L' communicative teaching branch' owes its development to Firth and the work of Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Halliday (1973, 1975 and 1978) (cf Stern 1981:135; Roberts 1982:100; Howatt 1984:273) and the work of ethnomethodologists like Goffman (1967) (Hill, personal communication). It is regarded as "the logical continuation of the efforts made by structural linguists to bear on prevailing views of language pedagogy" (Stern 1981:134). Its main focus is "the language 'syllabus'" (Stern *ibid*:135) whereas the 'P communicative teaching branch' focusses on communication as part of language instruction or pedagogy, that is:

... as an authentic direct experience which is deliberately and systematically built into the curriculum at a very early stage of language learning and not delayed to a 'never-never' stage of advanced proficiency.

Stern 1981:138

The latter was

... advocated by Jakobovits (1972) in the preface to a seminal experimental study by Sandra Savignon (1972) which pioneered a communicative approach as a technique of language teaching.

Stern Loc cit

thus establishing Savignon (1972) as the stimulator of the P approach to LT. For her

... the crux of the matter was that students themselves should be allowed freedom (my emphasis) to learn to say what they wanted, and not what the teacher wanted.

Roberts 1982:102

As Fig 1.3 suggests, freedom is indeed important in language learning as it implies some direct involvement of the learner's motivation and perseverance in the process of learning. Indeed people learn or do not want to learn because they are free to do so in the first place (cf 1.3).

While the P approach is based on psychological and pedagogic considerations, and has led to experiments with deschooled language learning, real-life simulation and human relations approaches in language classes etc, the L approach is rather based on (a) socio-linguistic and semantic research, (b) speech act and discourse analysis, and (c) inventories of notions and functions that have led (a) to language needs analysis, and (b) to Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) and to notional-functional and other communicative syllabuses (cf Stern 1981:141), one of the main themes of the present study (the other being motivation and perseverance) to which we turn now.

1.2.2 Communicative Approaches and Syllabus-materials Design:
an Aspect of LT in 1970 and onwards

By the end of the 1960's, dissatisfaction with the situational approach and/or disappointment with the inconclusive outcomes of large-scale research projects led to the decline in interest in methodology research in favour of studies on the design of syllabuses and the production of classroom materials. The factor which prompted consideration of communicative syllabus design and subsequent materials production is the revival of the semantic dimension of language and language teaching, related to Jespersen's notion of 'notions' in The Philosophy of Grammar (1924) (cf Howatt 1984:280-1). The reconsideration of the notion of 'notions' stimulated the 'Threshold Level Project' initiated by the Council of Europe. The project in effect started in September 1971 when a group of experts was set up to consider the steps to be taken to follow up the recommendations of the Rüschtikon symposium. Three of the experts (Richterich, Wilkins, and Van Ek) were to prepare preliminary papers "on theoretical and methodological aspects of certain basic problems" to serve as the "basis for the preparation of an operational specification of learning objectives and an attempt to map out an integrated European unit/credit system" (Council of Europe 1973:9).

The basic problems in question as spelled out in the general introduction of the Council of Europe publication (1973:9) are:

- (i) a model for the definition of adult language needs, (ii) the nature of a competence common to most if not all types of language learner, and (iii) the basic level of competence below which the grant of credits was impracticable.

Council of Europe 1973:9

In the face of the problems the project set itself to solve, it is obvious that the project touched on the issue of syllabus design and materials production.

The first problem was dealt with by Richterich who eventually produced an analytic classification of adult language learners followed by a model for the analysis of adult language needs. His paper entitled 'Definition of language needs and types of adults' published in Systems Development in Adult Language Learning, Council of Europe/1973, set the basis of all other work in that "it set the parameters within which all other elements were designed to work" (Howatt 1984:281). His model culminated in the work of Munby (1978) misleadingly entitled Communicative Syllabus Design. The title is misleading because the book does not deal with the design proper of any communicative or other syllabus, but with what is needed to design one.

Problems (ii) and (iii) were respectively treated by Wilkins and Van Ek. They are both aspects of the same problems: the problem of syllabus specification. Problem (ii) was theoretical and required a theoretical solution whereas problem (iii) was practical or pedagogic and needed a practical or pedagogic solution. Hence, Wilkins tackled the problem from a theoretical Applied Linguistic point of view and made an Applied Linguistic statement on how to specify the core whereas Van Ek worked from a practical standpoint to set the limits of the common core.

The work of the project, as can be seen in the general introduction of Systems, Council of Europe (1973:9-14), and in the papers it contains (i.e. the papers by Trim, Richterich, Van Ek, and Wilkins in that order), is the first serious study in the area of syllabus design and materials production. More important, the project constituted the first move away from structure-based materials and syllabuses, though the syllabus and materials proposed by Wilkins

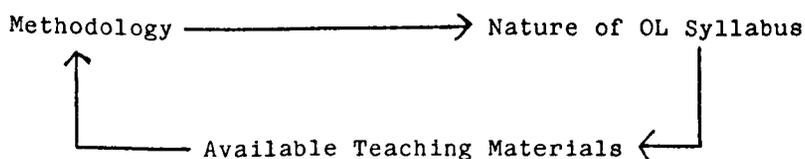
and Van Ek were in practice 'structural' with a semantic bias. In other words they consisted of structures functionally organised or based on notions and functions rather than linguistic forms or structures: what Widdowson (1979:248) refers to as "notional rather than structural isolates". The merit of the project, however, is to have led the way to an "alternative basis for course and examination structure" (Council of Europe 1973:13) and brought together teaching and testing "into a single integrated learning system" (Trim 1973:28).

As the aim of the project shows (cf Trim 1973:18), the approach or approaches resulting from the project were adult-based and oriented, just like ESP, but the approaches found their way into the classroom soon after the publication of the preliminary papers referred to above. With reference to syllabus design the most influential of the three papers seems to be the one by Wilkins which, later on, was extended and published in the form of a book (Wilkins, 1976).

1.2.2.1 Syllabus Design and Materials Production

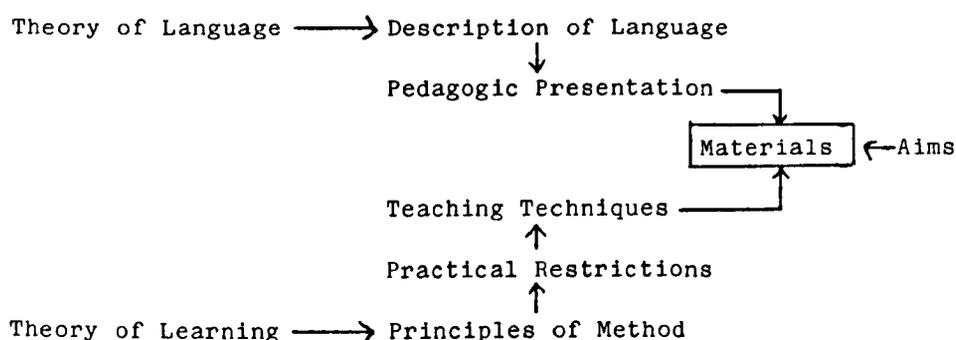
We have mentioned earlier that for a long time in the history of language teaching, the content of the teaching materials depended upon the method in force at the time. It so happened that classroom teaching procedures/techniques were and indeed are often influenced by available materials. The situation can be represented as below:

Fig 1.1: Syllabus-Materials and Methodology Relationships



This is a vicious circle. Recent developments have led to the assumption that specification of aims determines course or materials design along with teaching techniques and pedagogic presentation (cf Howatt 1974:1-5; Widdowson 1983:5-7, 12, 20-23). This is represented as follows:

Fig 1.2: Course Content Background (Howatt 1974:5)



1.2.2.2 The Concept of 'Syllabus'

The notion of syllabus is often confused with others, such as the concepts of programme and curriculum; and, as Yalden (1983:18) points out, "it is not an easy task to find a definition of 'syllabus' in current literature". Her own definition of the term 'syllabus' is a contrastive one, after Shaw (1982:78). Shaw starts by considering the concept of 'curriculum' to define the one of 'syllabus'. By so doing he found that the most satisfactory definition of 'curriculum' is the one by Robertson (1971:564) which says that:

... the curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs (for example, field trips, library programs, work experience education, guidance and extra-classroom activities).

Robertson 1971, quoted in Shaw 1975:64 and in Shaw 1982:78

In his effort to relate the concept of 'syllabus' to the one of 'curriculum' he comes to the conclusion that:

... a syllabus should consist of objectives and content and may also include a pedagogical component...

Shaw 1975:74

After distinguishing between 'student-oriented' and 'curriculum' evaluations, he suggests that the former can be included in the definition of 'syllabus'. To establish the relationship between 'curriculum' and 'syllabus' he refers to curriculum design defined after Hooper (1971:122) as:

... an iterative process, where each question is constantly being reprocessed in the light of answers to subsequent questions.

Hooper, quoted in Shaw 1975:74

He then defines 'syllabus' as:

... a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself.

Shaw 1975:74

Widdowson (1983) questions this assumption and offers a framework which would relate aims and objectives to teaching approaches or methodology and course design (cf Widdowson 1983: Ch 3).

The trouble is most teachers of English or indeed of any other language, despite the evolution we have just surveyed, are still "more used to thinking about methodology than about syllabus design" (Yalden 1983:17). The evidence that the 'method concept' is not 'dead' is given by the development of such methods as 'the Silent Way', 'Community Language Learning' and Lozanov's 'Suggestopaedia'.

In this respect Stern (1983:109) writes:

In spite of the strong reaction against methods, however, and rather surprisingly, several new methods have aroused interest among teachers and the general public.

Stern 1983:109

It is not likely that the 'method concept' will get out of the scene of LT development, especially if one thinks of work by people like Widdowson (1983) and Brumfit (1983/4).

The 'method concept' per se is not bad, but the trouble is that those teachers who rely on it generally cannot produce an overall and comprehensive plan or design for a course unless it is based on, and closely related to a textbook, the available textbook (cf Fig 1.1). When they base their plan on the available book or books (often prescribed by the government or some official representative) they also refer (or have to refer) to the official syllabus often reflected in the prescribed textbook (cf the case of the series by Cartledge and Baly in Zaire, Lubasa 1982:126). This is another vicious circle which, together with the former, entails the necessity for more suitable textbooks and syllabuses. In a note (Note 47) related to this definition Shaw makes it clear that the definition "should not be taken as referring to examination syllabuses" that he sets out to discuss later in his thesis, and concludes his section on the definition of 'Syllabus' by saying that "the syllabus should be viewed in the context of an ongoing curriculum development process" (Shaw 1982:72), because otherwise it may "become a fossilising force" (Shaw 1975:74).

For Yalden (1983:18), Shaw's definition is "the most suitable and clear definition" of the term 'syllabus'. This assertion is justified and justifiable by the fact that most definitions one meets in current literature about syllabus design go like this:

A language syllabus (like any other) is a device for helping learners to arrive at their objective in the most economical way.

The reason for such definitions is not hard to find. Most literature about 'syllabus' is concerned about its design rather than what a syllabus is, i.e. its essence. This is what makes the difference between Shaw's definition and other writers'. The difficulty with it, however, is that it excludes the element of 'student-oriented' evaluation. If we take the view that a syllabus is a pedagogic instrument or "a device for helping learners to arrive at their objective in the most economical way" (Widdowson and Brumfit quoted above) then the syllabus should logically include, as Yalden (1983:19) suggests, "an approach to testing". This is consistent with the view that a programme is the actual execution of the syllabus.

A programme consists of two aspects: the organisational, which relates it to the syllabus and the executive, which takes it beyond the scope of the syllabus. Like a syllabus a programme is thus a "plan for any part of the curriculum", including a testing approach (organisational aspect of the concept), but unlike it the programme stipulates the conditions of implementation (the executive side of the concept 'programme'). In other words:

The programme is how the syllabus is actually carried out in terms of personnel, timetabling, materials selected, and procedures employed.

Hill, Personnel Communication

In this sense a programme contains information about who is doing what and when, with what and how.

The above definitions (of curriculum, syllabus and programme) show that these concepts are interrelated and imply that the design of the curriculum, syllabus and programme involves the collaboration of many people (the teacher, the linguist, the psychologist, the

sociologist, the politician, the economist, etc) or the collaboration of people with a working knowledge of related disciplines (cf Broughton et al 1978: Ch 4). Another implication is that their design should be related to particular students in a particular setting or 'context of situation', and there are other implications too.

1.2.2.3 Syllabus design and the coursebook

Wilkins in his Notional Syllabus (1976) traces six approaches to syllabus design gathered into two conceptually distinct types of approach. The six approaches are: the grammatical or structural, the vocabulary-based, the situational, the semantic or notional, the functional, and the operational. The conceptual approaches are the 'synthetic' and the 'analytic'. The synthetic approach or strategy consists of the first two approaches often considered as one. The analytic approaches to syllabus design include the remaining ones: that is, the situational, the semantic or notional, the functional, and the operational approaches. In addition to these approaches, Wilkins recognises or suggests three different types of notional category, namely: the semantico-grammatical category, categories of modality, and categories of communicative function. To these categories Van Ek (1975) "adds a category of 'specific' notions which represent word-meanings" (Howatt 1984:282) collapsing Wilkin's first two categories into 'General Notions'. In addition Van Ek lists language functions separately. This separation of notions and functions caused the approach suggested by Wilkins (1976) and Van Ek (1975) to be called the 'Notional/Functional Approach'. The trouble with the notional/functional approach, however, is the assumption that a syllabus consists of the content. No more, no less. This is obviously an unsatisfactory view of syllabus and syllabus design

unless one refutes the above definition of 'syllabus' by Shaw (1975, 1982).

With reference to Wilkins' Notional Syllabus, the distinction between the types of syllabus or approaches to syllabus design discussed is made on the basis of textbook analysis, and mainly in retrospect. This fact establishes the close relationship between syllabus and materials design. However close the relationship is, it is not clear from Wilkins (1976), nor is it from most of the other sources referred to in this thesis. Again, the reason lies perhaps in writers' concern with design and content as the passage below suggests:

... it is unclear whether 'syllabus' refers to some underlying system which is the foundation of a teaching strategy, to the basis of the teaching materials themselves, or merely to a broad description of what language teachers should be doing.

Brumfit 1980:101

If we put this passage back into its context which is the reassessment of notional syllabuses we would not expect the writer to focus on the relationship between syllabus and the textbook; but as it stands anything, including the relationship between the syllabus and the textbook, can be expected; and the line of the argument makes Brumfit continue as follows:

Whichever way we take this, the implication here is that a change to notionalism is a change of emphasis rather than of principle.

Brumfit 1980:101

Let us pick up from the passage above the point that change in syllabus design is a change of emphasis to refer to the history of syllabus design.

Most writers who deal with the history of syllabus design or survey it are quite comfortable in dividing the history of syllabus design into two and labelling the two eras as either structural/grammatical and communicative (e.g. Shaw 1982:79) or traditional (method) approach and communicative (e.g. Roberts 1982:98-9) as if there was nothing communicative in what existed before.

Yalden (1983:19) in her second chapter distinguishes three types of syllabus evolution: (a) Traditional; (b) Structural or Grammatical; and (c) Semantic. The Traditional Syllabus is the one the teaching of Latin and Greek was based on. It was extended to the teaching of Modern Languages during the twelfth century, through the Renaissance. It consists of two components: a list of linguistic structures (that is, the 'grammar' to be taught) and a list of words (the lexicon to be taught). The methodology related to this type of syllabus is what is called 'Grammar-translation', and the language model was literary, i.e. from ancient Greek and/or Latin literature texts.

The Grammar or Structural Syllabus is the one consisting of careful selection and grading of grammatical structures and of vocabulary control. It is the product of what has been named Synthetic approaches or strategies to language teaching or syllabus design (Wilkins 1976), and strongly influenced by behaviourist psychology and obviously structuralism or structural linguistics (cf Broughton et al 1978: Ch 4, p44). Associated with it are the Grammar-translation and the Audiolingual methods, the eclectic approach to method, and the Cognitive Code Learning Theory. Its objectives, like those for the 'Traditional Syllabus', are stated in terms of linguistic forms,

i.e. in terms of "mastery of the substance and form of language - its phonology and lexicogrammatical system" (Yalden 1983:23) or, in more accessible language, its "syntax ... as a limited number of patterns into which the lexis or vocabulary could be fitted" (Broughton et al 1978:39). This is the most criticised point of the grammatical syllabus. Widdowson (1968) is one of the first thinkers to have attacked this idea, and the generally accepted criticism against it is perhaps best expressed by Broughton and his colleagues when they refer to the traditional and structural approaches to language teaching as being "about as practical as driving lessons in an immobilised car" (Broughton et al, loc cit). However, there is a positive side to the grammatical or structural syllabus in that it distinguishes between the purposes and the objectives of a course of instruction even though the purpose or aim/goal remains the same as the objectives in the syllabus, i.e. "mastery of the substance and form of language - its phonology and lexicogrammatical system" (Yalden 1983:23). Yalden (loc cit) describes this positive aspect of the structural syllabus as "a large step toward precision in defining the goals of a course of instruction".

As for the selection and sequencing of items for inclusion in the structural or grammatical syllabus, the rise of scientific procedures in linguistics in this century allowed for better exploration (and certainly more precision) through frequency studies, studies of range, availability, familiarity and coverage. It also allowed for more effective use of the syllabus in the development of teaching materials. However what was selected and graded in this approach was vocabulary; structures were only ordered since language being seen (as it was) as a system, all the target-language structures

had to be taught sooner or later. A point that communicative advocates criticise.

The Semantic Syllabus is the product of the strategy named 'the analytical approach' by Wilkins and includes communication or meaning-based syllabuses. Among these are found the situational syllabus, the notional-functional syllabus with the Council of Europe, and the operational syllabus with the Bangalore Project (cf Prabhu and Carrol 1980).

The situational syllabus has, in fact, run through the history of other-language teaching. It can be further divided into contextual and topical or thematic. The contextual syllabus is dialogue-oriented and the topical or thematic one is based on language in social context. The methodology for the situational model of syllabus design is mainly audiovisual, a method equally relevant for the structural syllabus.

The notional-functional approach to syllabus design has its roots, as suggested above, from another vision of kinds of meanings to be considered in other-language teaching. It consists of three meaning components: the semantic or notional, the functional and the formal. This model of syllabus is meant to link rules of use with rules of grammar and is an alternative to the grammatical and situational syllabuses. But, as Brumfit (1980) points out:

... the objections put forward so cogently against the grammatical syllabus can be applied point by point to the notional one. A description of function is no more an application of functions than a description of grammatical items is an application of them to a language situation, arguments for and against taking learners systematically through the whole of the grammatical

system are exactly paralleled by arguments about whether to go through the whole of a notional/functional taxonomy ...

Brumfit 1980:101-2

Widdowson (1979) makes the same point when he writes:

The structural syllabus quite openly-brazenly, you might say - leaves the learner to realise his linguistic competence as communicative behaviour when the occasion arises ...

The notional syllabus, it is claimed, develops the ability to do this by accounting for communicative competence within the actual design of the syllabus itself. This is a delusion because the notional syllabus presents language as an inventory of units, of items for accumulation and storage. They are notional rather than structural isolates, but they are isolates all the same ...

Widdowson 1979:248

The point in both these quotations is that:

A linguist's description, whether syntactic or functional, cannot in itself provide the basis for a syllabus designed to teach not what but how to do.

Brumfit 1980:102

Since both the structural and the notional-functional syllabuses together with the traditional syllabus are language-based they can only be seen as different in terms of "emphasis rather than of principle" (Brumfit 1980:101), and complementary rather than mutually exclusive (cf Widdowson 1979:250). In this sense the notional-functional syllabus is seen in the scope of its "weak claim" (cf Johnson 1982:142). The strong claim sees the notional-functional syllabus as a replacement of the structural syllabus. The underlying belief, according to Johnson (1982) is that:

... the language system itself is best taught in relation to 'uses' irrespective (the implication is) of whether the use categories one selects to teach the language system in relation to are ones which the student will ultimately need to perform ...

Johnson 1982:142

In this sense the notional-functional syllabus joins the procedural syllabus in that it specifies "means rather than ends; a set of 'excuses to teach language' rather than a list or areas of use for which a need to be taught has been identified" (Johnson 1982:143).

The procedural or operational syllabus is the only type of syllabus which is not language-based. It is stated in terms of tasks "and in a way which appears not to attempt a mapping out of linguistic content" (Johnson 1982:140). The tasks are graded conceptually.

But because procedural/operational categories are non-linguistic and conceptually graded, "and if teaching based on these can indeed proceed without linguistic specification then", Johnson argues, "the same should hold true for notional categories which are likewise non-linguistic" (Johnson 1982:140), i.e. the semantico-grammatical categories. The argument leads him to question the implied assumption that the operational or procedural syllabus can do away with the linguistic syllabus to conclude that if it can, then the strong version of the notional syllabus might do the same and thereafter become, like the procedural syllabus "a specification of means rather than ends" (Johnson 1982:143).

From the foregoing it is obvious that the types of syllabus surveyed here are either a specification of aims in linguistic terms (syntactic or functional) or a specification of means (i.e. the pedagogic content). Referring back to Shaw's definition of 'syllabus' it would seem more appropriate to design syllabuses containing aspects of both types (linguistic and procedural), entailing some type of a spiral syllabus; unless one opts for the methodological

solution to the communication problem of language teaching (cf Widdowson and Brumfit 1981) focussing on fluency rather than accuracy activities. In this case one would end up with an operational-type input syllabus (cf Widdowson and Brumfit 1981:207-8). These options make sense only if we agree that a syllabus consists of "objectives and content and may also include a pedagogical component" (Shaw 1975:74). An integrative syllabus approach will accommodate the objective and content components as well as the pedagogical one. Similarly the methodological solution will accommodate the three components. An integrative approach to the communication problem of language teaching, able to accommodate both the syllabus and the methodological solution is maybe the ideal, in that it would accommodate the approaches of a variety of teachers and learners to the problems of language learning. It will simultaneously help the syllabus-oriented and the methodology-oriented teachers. This point justifies the scope of this survey in that the survey provides the setting of the elements to be integrated for more appropriate and effective learning materials as well as providing the setting of the present research.

1.3 Summary

This chapter has looked at the history of LT development from the Renaissance with a particular emphasis on teaching/learning materials, especially the coursebook. LT developments in Zaire were surveyed in some detail with the same perspective. We have pointed out that methodology has been the nucleus of LT developments throughout the centuries until recently when, in the 1970's, research reverted to a consideration of:

- (a) "teaching objectives, language content, and curriculum (or syllabus) design" (Stern 1983:109);

- (b) "the learner as an individual and a person" entailing some degree of sensitivity "to human values and human relations in the language class" and attempts

... to create an awareness of the hidden curriculum of the social and affective climate created by the interaction among students and between students and the teachers.

Stern 1983:110

- (c) language learning research;
 (d) communicative language teaching.

Among these recent developments we have chosen to focus on syllabus design and subsequent course and/or materials design. The reason is that we believe this is where we can account for the learner's freedom to proceed towards any type of learning or knowledge. The underlying belief is that the learner as a human being is free. Freedom is his right, in the sense that he is free to use his intellectual or cognitive and affective abilities along with any other relevant factor to learn(or indeed not to learn). Secondly, it is believed that Man learns freely about things and people as freely as he gets to know and learn about God. Now knowing God and growing up in Christianity means, we believe, discovering God more and more. Similarly, learning a subject or indeed another language is a discovery freely undertaken or to be undertaken freely using the itinerary or itineraries offered by the syllabus. Thirdly, it is believed that, as for God, no two people learn in exactly the same way. This is to say that learners aim at the same thing (language for communication) but take different routes and speeds to reach it. It follows that the teacher's task is to help with the 'travel' to that 'same thing', i.e. to help the learners use their freedom to discover

or learn the foreign language in their own way or ways using their own speed. For this purpose he is bound to know when to help and how. This point links up with the methodological solution suggested by Widdowson and Brumfit (1981) and Brumfit (1983/4) and the subsequent input syllabus. In this thesis it is assumed that the key to the problem of other-language teaching (or language teaching to speakers of other languages) is in the motivation and perseverance of the parties concerned or involved in the learning business (mainly the learner and the teacher with reference to formal language learning) and the place of motivation and perseverance in the syllabus and learning materials. If motivation and perseverance could play some role as part of the syllabus and learning materials, and serve the purpose of the learners' freedom within the constraints of their acquired habits, their background and their society, then the problem of language teaching and/or learning for communication would have made a step (however small) towards a solution. There will be more about this in Chapter Two; but for the time being, let us keep in mind that the concept of freedom is essential in language learning-acquisition even though the literature does not emphasise it. The reason can only be that it is taken for granted. Let us thus bear in mind that freedom of choice as an educational concept is essential because human beings are, by nature, free. They freely decide to learn or not to learn languages. They freely choose the languages they want to learn. They freely use their motivation to persevere in learning the languages. They are completely free in the informal language learning/acquisition context. They therefore need the 'freedom component' in the formal language learning-acquisition context to achieve. This is where the syllabus and the textbook, and indeed the teacher should play the game, or they fail to help the learners.

FIG 1.3 MOTIVATION AND PERSEVERANCE, FREEDOM, AND LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

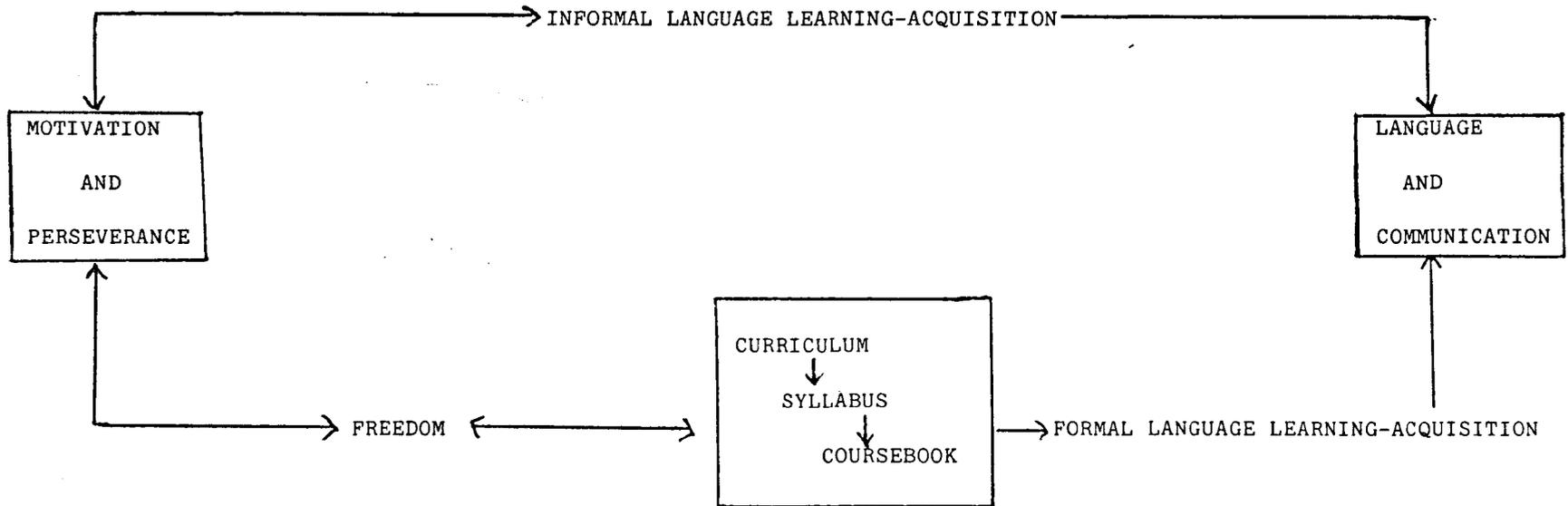


Figure 1.3 is an attempt to illustrate the foregoing argument, which can be reformulated as follows: in informal language contexts, people freely use their motivation and perseverance to learn other languages for communication. For a formal language learning context to result in similar achievement as the informal context, curricula, syllabuses, and coursebooks ought to take account of the learners' freedom, their motivation and their perseverance.

With this, and past and recent LT developments in mind we now are ready to move on and look at the place of motivation and perseverance in other-language learning-materials, the relationship between motivation and perseverance and later the relationship between freedom and motivation.

CHAPTER TWO: MOTIVATION AND PERSEVERANCE IN
LANGUAGE LEARNING MATERIALS

Where there's a will there's a way.
(Proverb)

There are, however, some dangers inherent in the blanket term 'motivation'. For example, some inexperienced teachers may confuse the generating of enthusiasm, undoubtedly an important motivational element, with the whole task of motivating students to undertake and persevere with work.

McDonough 1981:142

2.0 Introduction

In the preceding chapter we have looked at some aspects of the history of language teaching and learning. We have found that methodology governed its developments until 1970 when methodology shared this role with other concepts, such as the one of syllabus design, which is the focus of our inquiry. We have noticed in passing that Motivation was seen as a crucial factor for language learning to take place, especially in recent developments; but very little is said about it in relation to the content of the syllabus and learning materials, except perhaps in terms of attitudes (Allwright 1981:8).

The present chapter is meant:

- (a) to investigate the place and the role of Motivation in syllabuses and coursebooks, and the relation which exists between Motivation and Perseverance; and
- (b) to offer a viable operational or pedagogic definition for the often confusing notion of 'Motivation'.

It ends with the description of the hypotheses and the problems which raised them, and a consideration of an approach to their testing.

2.1 Motivation and Perseverance in Language Learning

2.1.0 Introduction

Cofer and Appley (1964) in their effort to understand the concept of motivation from the point of view of the psychologist found that the definition of motivation depended very much upon "the orientation of the tradition from which it derives" (Cofer and Appley 1964:7). They subsequently singled out three major traditions, the philosophic-theological tradition, the biological and the cultural traditions. The first tradition is mainly concerned with issues like the nature of human nature. It involves interest in moral conduct and ethical principle, freedom of choice, "the nature of historical causation, esthetics, religion and the like" (Cofer and Appley 1964:16). The second tradition, said to represent the scientific study of motivation, is associated with Darwin's evolutionary theory and the "physicalistic approach to biological phenomena" (Cofer and Appley 1964:16). Experimental psychologists (particularly learning theorists) are said to belong to this tradition. The third tradition focusses on motivational problems related to interest in the behaviour of social classes, societies, and cultures and their variations. Social psychology, for instance, belongs to this tradition, as it tends to "relate motivational processes to the experiences of individuals in their particular cultures" (Cofer and Appley 1964:17). This is where the study of language learning, therefore, belongs.

2.1.1 Motivation and Language Learning

Social psychology or the social psychological approach to language study is concerned with "the complexities and dynamics of cognitive organisation and representation of the social world" (Giles

1982:viii). It is only a recent development in the field of social sciences as a coherent approach to language and communication and it seems to have been pioneered by Wallace E Lambert. His work led to some theoretical generalisation such as:

... a person can comfortably become bilingual and bicultural; (and) ... one's attitudes toward the other group whose language is being learnt play an important role in language acquisition and ... such attitudes both affect and are affected by one's motivation to learn the other language; ...

Dil 1972:xiii

The point made particularly by the second generalisation has been further elaborated by social psychologists for whom speech behaviours are not only influenced by a complex set of cognitive mechanisms but also influence, change and even determine one's own and others' attitudes and cognitions as well (cf Giles 1982:ix). This is what underlies the main argument of the present thesis. The theory involved different models of language learning from which our model, i.e. the conceptual framework described later in this chapter, has drawn its substance.

The first studies leading to the present state of the theory "were carried out in 1959 through 1961 with English-speaking Montreal high school students studying French" (Lambert 1972:292). The students:

... were all carefully tested for their language learning aptitude and verbal intelligence as well as their attitudes towards French people and the French Canadian community, the intensity of their motivation to learn French, and their orientations toward learning the language.

Lambert 1972:292

The findings of the study (confirmed and extended in 1960 by Robert Gardner) indicated that there are two quite important factors in learning other languages. These are:

- (a) a general language-learning aptitude, and
- (b) a favorable attitude toward the other linguistic group, coupled with a sympathetic orientation toward learning that group's language.

Lambert 1972:293

The fact that the two factors or 'determinants' are independent implies that:

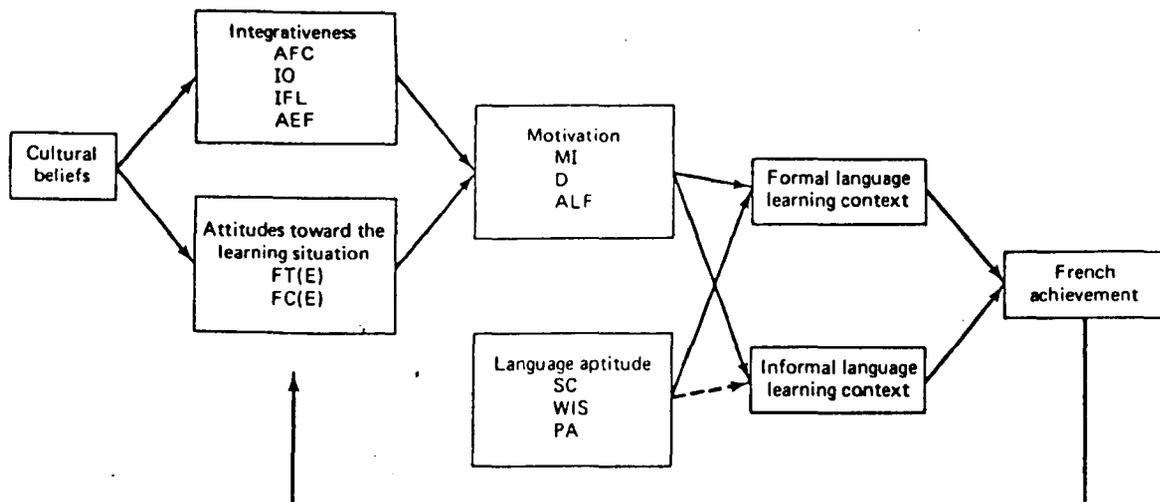
- (a) they do not correlate, and
- (b) a person without aptitude can learn the language well if the attitude and motivation are strong, at the same time as a person with unfavorable attitudes and motivation can do well if his aptitude is strong.

cf Lambert 1972:293

It follows quite logically that "a person with both aptitude and the proper orientation will be particularly likely to do well in the study of a second language" (loc cit). It is the contention of the present thesis that the strength of motivation does not matter, if one is perseverant, as Perseverance will help sustain the Motivation, however little it may be, and eventually increase it (cf 2.3.2).

The present development or state of the theory is perhaps best represented in Gardner's 'social-educational model of second-language acquisition' reproduced in Figure 2.1. It is a variant of his 1979 Model shown in Figure 2.2, and dismisses the distinction between the instrumental and integrative orientations as meaningless. The dismissal results from the view that all research so far linking attitudes with second language acquisition has been concerned with only one factor: the individual's perception of the motivational properties of the language learning process; that attitudes are important "only to the extent that they influence the individual's level of motivation to study and use the language" (Gardner 1982:144).

Fig. 2.1 Schematic representation of the role of attitudes, motivation, and language aptitude in the acquisition of French as a second language (Gardner 1982)

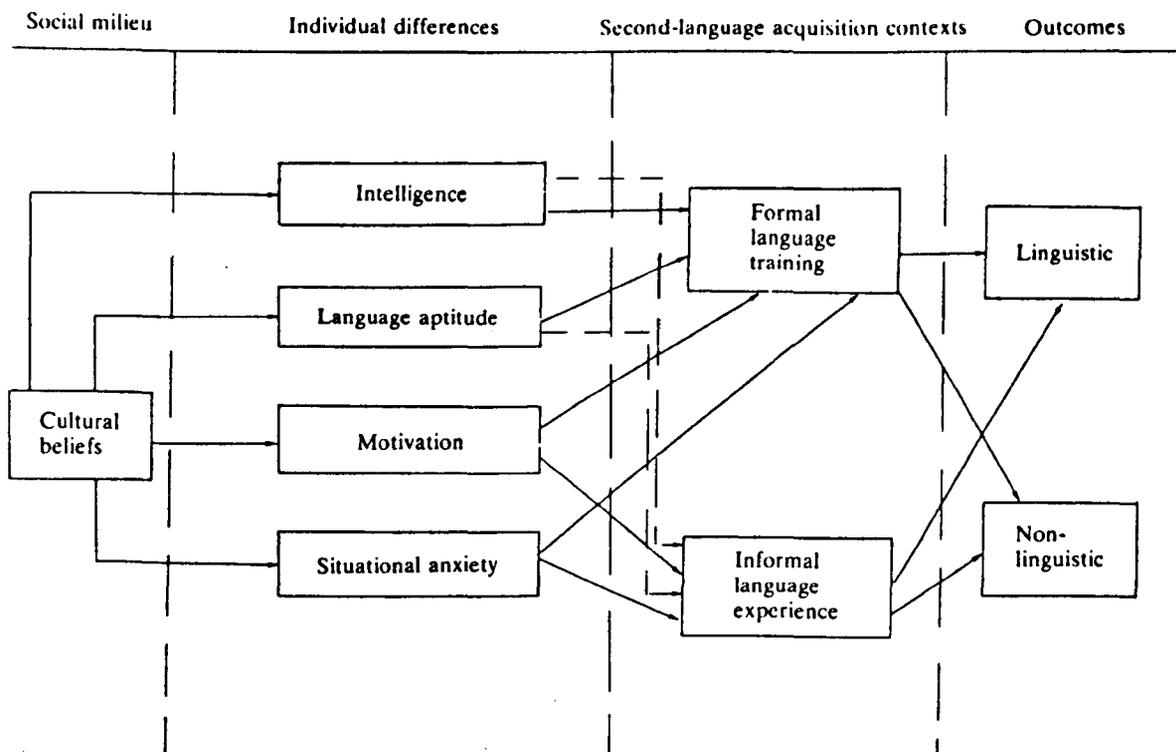


Legend:

AFC = Attitudes toward French Canadians
 IO = Integrative Orientation
 IFL = Interest in Foreign Languages
 AEF = Attitudes toward European French
 FT(E) = Evaluation of the French Teacher
 FC(E) = Evaluation of the French Course

MI = Motivational Intensity
 D = Desire to Learn French
 ALF = Attitudes toward Learning French
 SC = Spelling Clues
 WIS = Words in Sentences
 PA = Paired Associates

Fig. 2.2 Theoretical model of Second-language acquisition
(Gardner 1979)



The model (Fig 2.1) suggests that cultural beliefs, seen as the reflection of the cultural or social milieu, "will influence individuals' attitudes and beliefs about a number of factors associated with second language learning" (loc cit). These attitudes reflect a number of general attitudinal constructs like 'Integrativeness' (defined as the attitudinal reactions toward the other ethnic community which might influence the extent to which individuals are willing to take on behavioural patterns of another ethnolinguistic community) and 'Attitudes towards the learning situation', involving affective reactions to the classroom setting. Their function is to provide the foundation for the motivation to learn the language. This is indicated in the model by the arrows connecting each of the general attitudinal constructs with Motivation. The model also shows a separate language aptitude component, and indicates, by means of solid arrows, that:

... both aptitude and motivation are implicated in the formal language acquisition context ..., but that motivation (with the solid arrow) more than aptitude (with broken arrow) is involved in informal contexts ... Both contexts aid promoting language achievement.

Gardner 1982:146

The model finally shows achievement as having a reciprocal influence on attitudes. This link is thought to be the weakest in the model as research results in its support are equivocal.

The model, thus, shows that Motivation is all important for language achievement in both formal and informal learning-acquisition contexts. However, it raises a number of questions, such as the one concerning the place and role of Perseverance in language learning, whether the aptitude component influences learning in

informal contexts, and whether the instrumental orientation of motivation is included in what is referred to as 'Integrativeness'. With reference to the theme of this thesis the question is: "How is Motivation accommodated in the coursebook and indeed in the classroom? An attempt to answer this particular question is made in a later paragraph (cf 2.2.3). Let us now look at what the literature says about Perseverance.

2.1.2 Perseverance and Language Learning

In the description of his model, Gardner alluded to the relation that exists between Motivation and Perseverance in these terms:

Attitudinal/motivational variables and to some extent, aptitude are related to perseverance in language study.

Gardner 1982:146

This relation is thought to be one of the reasons "why attitudes are related to achievement in second language" (Gardner 1982:136). The point is supported by a number of studies. Gardner (loc cit) reports three of them, one by Bartley (1970), another by Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen, and Hargreaves (1974), and the third by himself and Smythe (1975).

He reports that Bartley was the first to have investigated the relationship between attitudes and the tendency to drop out of language programmes. He says that Bartley based her study on the stated intention of the subjects to drop out, and measures of their attitudes towards the language obtained at both the beginning and the end of the academic terms to classify her subjects as 'drop-outs' or 'stay-ins'. In this way she demonstrated that 'drop-outs'

were lower than 'stay-ins' in both attitudes towards the language and language aptitude. Burstall et al used a more objective index of Perseverance (the actual behaviour of registering in the language class in the subsequent year) to classify the students as 'drop-outs' or 'stay-ins'. They found that boys with poor attitudes towards learning French dropped out when given the opportunity though similar results were not obtained with girls. Gardner and Smythe contrasted 'stay-ins' with 'drop-outs' initially in Grades 9, 10 and 11, on a large battery of attitude, aptitude, and French-achievement measures, obtained while they were still registered in the French programme. The results showed significant correlations between measures of attitudes and motivation directly associated with French and measures of French achievement. But the differences involving aspects of language aptitude, intelligence and also other attitudinal characteristics such as ethnocentrism proved inconsistent. The implication of these studies then, Gardner concludes, is that:

... attitudinal variables are related to achievement in second language because they help to maintain an individual's motivation to succeed in the language.

Gardner 1982:136

The implication of this statement is that attitudinal variables affect Perseverance one way or the other and the Perseverance is subsequent or subordinated to motivation. This is in effect a statement of the relationship between Motivation and Perseverance.

2.1.3 Implications of the Attitude/Motivation Theory for Other Language Teaching

The implications of this theory from the social psychological point of view is perhaps best expressed by Lambert(1972). With reference to the significance of the findings of the theory for teachers

of other languages, Lambert points to the importance of what takes place 'within' the minds and the emotions of the students to conclude that:

For those who have to stay at the front lines with students, perhaps they will see somewhat more clearly the significance of their role as interest stimulators, convincing students that foreign language is much more than maze learning, that it is the code of a different and interesting social group. The challenge is to go beyond the mere achievement motives of students and to link language teaching with more appropriate and more productive motives.

Lambert 1972:298

What is suggested here is not just a learner-centred approach to LT but rather a learning-centred one, or better, a social psychological approach to language teaching/learning, that is, an LT approach which exploits the complexities and dynamics of cognitive organisation and representation of the learner's social world. Such an approach would account for Motivation and Perseverance in a direct manner in the design of the syllabus and the production of the coursebook or teaching/learning materials, especially through an explicit reference to attitudes. This point implies that Motivation and, indeed, Perseverance are educable (cf 2.2.3 and 2.3.4.2).

2.1.4 Observations

It is worth noting that Lambert's and Gardner's work is mainly related to bilingual and bicultural communities in Canada and America and that Gardner's model evolved from research in this context. The model, however, can be applied and indeed is applicable to more complex contexts offered by multilingual and multi-cultural contexts. In its general lines "the model is completely general to all contexts" (Gardner 1982:144), but when it comes to the principles underlying the model one is inclined to reconsider some aspects. With regard to the multilingual and multicultural context offered

by Zaire, Swekila (1981) is one of those who look into the theory underlying not only Gardner's model (Gardner 1979) but other models among which are Schumann's model of the second language learning process (Schumann 1976), and Swain's model of the second language learner and second language learning (Swain 1977). Using these models along with Gardner's, and having the Zairean context in mind, Swekila designed a 'theoretical framework' of his own relatively more complete than the models it derived from. His model thus designed was meant to tackle Zairean learners' problem of motivation and proceed towards a viable solution.

At this point it is useful to note that Swekila's thesis addresses the same problem as the present thesis and points to the same area of syllabus and course design for a lasting solution (cf Swekila 1981:89). With reference to the possible impact of his study in terms of solving the problem at hand Swekila writes that though his investigation will not solve the problem of failure in achievement, it will at least provide:

... some useful elements which might help us design better courses suitable to meet our students' needs and expectations.

Swekila 1981:89

But as is remarked below, Swekila himself failed to exploit the 'some useful elements'. Its value, as far as we can see, lies in the fact that (a) it reveals the attitudes of tertiary learners of English (as far as his sample is representative) towards learning English and towards their own languages and/or society, on an empirical basis, and (b) by so doing it demonstrates that the Zairean ELT problem is not motivation, but something else: the discrepancy between "the students' goals and expectations and the objectives of the course" (Swekila 1982:102) and the way it is taught (see also Lubasa 1982:12).

His study is based on data obtained from a sample of forty-three tertiary-level students: eighteen from the University of Kinshasa, fifteen students from the School of Commercial Studies, and ten from the Teacher Training College for Girls in Kinshasa. At the time of data collection the subjects, except three, had completed five years of English learning: four years at secondary school and one in their respective institutions of higher education. The other three had completed six years: the four years at secondary school and two afterward at tertiary level. The results of the study showed that:

... in general tertiary level students in Zaire have favourable general attitudes towards English..

and that:

... the majority of students approach the study of English with an instrumental outlook rather than an integrative motive.

Swekila 1981:101-2

Swekila then comments that:

With such favourable general attitudes and a powerful instrumental orientation as background, one would have thought that learning does not, and should not, present any particular difficulties in terms of interest and motivation since ... favourable attitudes are supportive of motivation.

Swekila 1981:102

and that the main reasons for ineffective learning are to be found in the discrepancy which exists between "the students' goals and expectations and the objectives of the course as it is taught ..." (loc cit). This is a significant piece of information in that it reveals that the real problem in Zairean ELT is not a problem of motivation as most teachers including Swekila himself (cf Swekila 1981:89) and educationists usually think, but rather a problem of course or syllabus design. It is in this respect that the present

thesis makes the point that what is missing in the Zairean ELT context is not Motivation but rather Perseverance, and that the teachers precisely 'kill' the learners' motivation with their teaching. The point is taken over and discussed in some detail later in this chapter (cf 2.3).

Swekila's work is indeed worth the effort and the time spent on it. Unfortunately, it missed the point (or so we think) when it comes to the implications of the findings for Teaching/Learning materials and methods (cf Section 5.5, pp102-4). Here it is suggested that because students "have an encouraging basic attitude towards English people, their culture and their language" (p103), the teaching materials or the course should (a) 'develop' or stimulate the missing 'integrative orientation', while it caters for the existing 'instrumental orientation', and (b) be changed in terms of the content, the method of presentation and objectives "so as to change attitudes towards the courses". This is a fair suggestion especially as it is based on empirical data. But there is no point in providing additional motivational orientation while still unable to exploit the existing one. Secondly if we take the point above (cf 2.1.1) by Gardner (1982:144) that the distinction between instrumental and integrative orientations in language acquisition is meaningless, then the suggestion is irrelevant. The second suggestion is apposite, but the suggested manner of implementation makes it or would make the suggestion as sterile as the existing instrumental orientation referred to just now, in that after the change of attitudes had occurred the situation would revert to the status quo.

With regard to the method of presentation of the course materials Swekila (ibid) suggests a more learner-oriented approach to language teaching; and encourages, quite logically, approaches focussing on language use rather than on the other language for passing examinations. This point raises the issue of the English-course objectives according to the syllabus within the curriculum, a problem which, obviously, is beyond the capacity of the teacher. The point made in this respect is that:

... the basic objectives of the course as laid down in the curriculum ought to be modified in order to allow the inclusion of the development of speaking ability alongside reading comprehension.

Swekila 1981:103

What this actually means is that the objectives should change first for the 'method suggestion' to work. It follows that in the present state of affairs the suggestion is impotent unless the changes are made by the teacher in the classroom. At any rate more is needed to get Swekila's suggestions through. This can be done through a social psychological approach to LT in the sense above (cf 2.1.3) based on motivational and perseverance factors, in the sense Motivation and Perseverance take in this study.

2.2 Motivation: What is it?

2.2.0 Introduction

We all talk about it; teachers work through it; Applied Linguists write on it; we all know what it is but dare not tell. This section is an attempt to 'tell' what motivation is, in the light of what teachers and Applied Linguists think and say about it, and of some philosophical discussions.

2.2.1 What the Dictionary says

We often check up on a word in a dictionary when we do not know its meaning. Therefore, let us start with what dictionaries say. For a word like motivation it is not surprising that one turns to a psychological dictionary. The passage below is thus extracted from a psychological dictionary: The Encyclopedic Dictionary of Psychology edited by Harré and Lamb (1983).

In everyday language the term motivation is used to describe the urges, desires or reasons that are thought to account for people's behavior. In the early days of behavioral science motivation was envisaged in terms of the drive that was necessary for the manifestation of behavior: sexual behavior was due to the sex drive, eating to the hunger drive, etc. This is no longer a prevalent view and it is generally recognised that it is not necessary to account for behavior in terms of motive forces, rather that a particular activity is the result of an animal being in a particular motivational state.

Harré and Lamb (ed) 1983:401

This is fine, but does not tell us what motivation exactly means.

In order to define the item 'motivation' the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (OALDCE) starts from the verb 'motivate' defined as:

be the motive of; give a motive or incentive; act as an incentive.

The dictionary then continues to say that 'motivation' is the noun.

The fact that no definition of motivation is provided in this dictionary is indicative of the difficulty there is in defining the concept. If one ventures to assemble the elements of the definition provided in the OALDCE one comes up with a definition of motivation which, according to one's purpose, may be either of the following:

1. 'Motivation is the motive of', where the concept of motivation is equated with the motive and therefore means 'that which causes somebody to act' (cf OALDCE:Motive) as seems to be the case in this sentence by McDonough (1981:142):

... In what follows, attention is directed more to the motives that appear to play an immediate role in the learning process, than to socio-cultural background ...

2. 'Motivation is that which gives a motive or incentive to ...' or else, 'the fact of giving a motive or incentive to ...;' in which case motivation will be regarded as 'that which gives that which causes somebody to act', or 'that which stirs up or encourages somebody'
3. 'Motivation is that which acts as an incentive, or encouragement'.

From these definitions we can clearly see what motivation is not and only infer what it is or might be. For instance, it is not incentive but can act as an incentive (cf third possible definition above). It is motive (definition 1) and causes motives (definition 2), a source of confusion.

It is generally accepted that motivation is a 'blanket' or 'general cover term', a dustbin and its dangers in the field of education arise from the very fact that it is a 'general cover term' (cf McDonough 1981:142-143) It includes:

... a number of possibly distinct concepts, each of which may have different origins and different effects and require different classroom treatment.

McDonough 1981:143

The problems, McDonough (loc cit) suggests, are of two kinds: pedagogic and theoretical. Theoretical, because:

... findings in the psychology of motivation will often be difficult to extrapolate justifiably to the pedagogic situation, unless the resemblance of the experimental situation to the teaching one is very close.

McDonough 1981:143

Pedagogic, because confusion between distinct concepts under the concept of motivation does not help teachers and materials writers/producers to exploit those aspects of 'motivation', 'amenable to manipulation' (McDonough 1981:142) nor guide them as to when, where, and how to exploit them.

McDonough (ibid:143) suggests the following distinctions:

(a) energy, (b) willingness to learn, (c) perseverance, (d) interest, (e) enjoyment of lessons, (f) incentives, and (g) benefits of knowing the language. Then he writes:

Many, more detailed, distinctions could be drawn. The origin of any of these variables for any particular learner may well be different from that of other learners. The classroom treatment they can be given also differs ...

McDonough 1981:143

In view of the foregoing and of the psychological traditions of motivation study spotted by Cofer and Appley (1964) (cf 2.1.0), we adopted an alternative analytical approach to the definition of 'motivation'. It consists in looking at what teachers and/or teacher trainers do with their classes as well as what they, and representatives of related disciplines say and write about motivation as part of their teaching experience. We believe that this is a more effective and practical way of spotting the meaning that the concept of motivation takes in the real world of language teaching and learning-acquisition, and of establishing what might be referred to as the 'pedagogic tradition' of motivation.

2.2.2 What teachers and applied linguists say or imply

The analysis of what language teachers and those concerned with language learning and/or teaching write reveals that motivation,

for them, is not quite what psychologists say or think it is, though they agree with them or even draw their understanding of the concept of motivation from psychological theories. As a matter of fact, the teachers' view of 'motivation' is eclectic. It draws from the psychological traditions described earlier in this chapter (2.1.0). It is pragmatic in that it stresses the value of the task, and indeed, of the goal as an incentive. It focusses on the learners' interest and self-confidence on the one hand, and on their 'freedom' on the other. For them what matters is the relevance of the concept in the classroom and how to make sense of it in language learning and in learning materials.

To make the concept of motivation operational in learning materials and in the classroom, one has to consider what teachers (as language-learning helpers) mean and understand by 'motivation' and what the learners' motivation really means. We undertake the discussion below in the light of this. The views analysed are mainly from professional papers and/or their summaries published in professional journals and/or newsletters and the like. Most of them are drawn from 'Modern English Teacher' and the 'IATEFL Newsletter'. Why especially these two? Because they are intended for ordinary unsophisticated language (here English) teachers (to help them), and for those specialists who are concerned with language teaching and learning to express and share their views in a language that ordinary unsophisticated teachers understand.

2.2.2.1 Bruce Pattison's View in ELT Journal (1976:286-293)

Pattison in his article first points to the difficulty of demonstrating how human beings behave as they do; then he points

out the difficulty of controlling all the variables that might affect what is isolated for investigation in tests voluntarily undertaken by people under laboratory conditions. He recognises, however, that a good deal of information has been accumulated from the said tests and asserts that:

... a full account of motivation, or even a generally accepted theory that fits the verified facts, is a long way off. Yet, though fragments of knowledge may help teachers with details of their teaching, a comprehensive view of what makes people want to learn (our emphasis) is necessary for planning their work as a whole (p287).

Here motivation is equated with "what makes people want to learn", and is considered quite rightly as "necessary for planning" a course and even a single lesson or an activity. Pattison thus thinks of motivation in terms of willingness to learn as what follows shows:

I have decided to ... set before you a few impressions I have formed ... of some of the conditions that seem to affect willingness to learn English well enough for the purposes it is required to serve today (loc cit).

(The emphases are ours)

It is important, here, to consider the phrase "well enough for the purposes it is required to serve today", more specifically the use of "well enough" and of the word "purpose" in relation to "willingness to learn". Well enough refers to some standard of achievement the learner has to aim for and implies that motivation has to do with some goal. The goal has to bear some meaning or value for the learner. This is suggested by the use of the word purpose. The plural use of the word implies that the goals may be multiple and should therefore be accounted for in planning a course or anything intended for the learners to use in their learning. The implication is that teaching or learning materials have to have a goal or goals which are meaningful

or valuable to the learners for them to want to learn.

This opinion is implicit in Pattison's article especially when he writes:

... It is a well-attested psychological principle that Motivation is increased by knowledge of the results of one's efforts ... Aims involving the use of the language tend to be too distant and their attainment too doubtful to sustain morale throughout the long and arduous journey towards them. If an immediate use is required it is not clearly enough related to the work necessary for establishing a firm framework for any use at all of the language. The motivation is too indirect to have much power (our emphasis). Evidence of progress in general linguistic competence seems to generate more motivation for language learning than extraneous objectives, especially long-term ones. (p290)

This passage is not only indicative of the author's view of motivation, but also of the psychological theories and tradition from which it derives (namely: the principle of reinforcement in the Biological tradition of motivation). It also reveals the LT theories which influence the author and the role of motivation in language teaching. Here motivation appears as a state of mind (morale) related to one's knowledge of the aims and of the results of one's efforts, functioning as an energiser. In the author's opinion, this role of motivation is 'too indirect' in language teaching to be fully operative. In this sense motivation is seen as neglected in language teaching practice. The notion of perceived progress and relevance is particularly emphasised when the author writes that:

Trying what has been learned is really the final part of the learning process, and it will act as an incentive only if it does not result in too many failures (p270).

Thus supporting the point that the results of 'learning' have a motivational effect on the learner. He then continues to say that failure or success and subsequent incentive or lack of it depend upon:

... the efficacy of the learning which has preceded it. The chief influence of motivation is the learning process itself (p290).

still making the point above that learning maintains motivation more explicitly. In this connection he further writes that:

People begin learning a language with various kinds and strengths of motivation. What they do in order to learn sustains, increases, or decreases that original motivation (p290).

This passage suggests that Pattison is like most teachers (if not all) aware of the role of Perseverance (understood as the ability to deal with 'crisis points' and/or critical situations as they occur) and the important role played by the incentive to learn and motivation in the learning process.

Pattison sees Motivation, like Learning, as a dynamic self-regulating process which obviously is bound to be complex; and because of this dynamism responsibility for learners' continuing motivation is shared or is to be shared with the teacher and the learners or the group, or better still, in the minisociety of the classroom. For him, the two driving elements of motivation are interest and "confidence about being on the right route" related to evidence of progress. Without them, he says, "the best-laid plans for learning will not get very far" (p290). The importance of 'interest' in motivation is universally established to the extent that for some teachers and even some specialists in LSOL (Language for Speakers of Other Languages) 'motivation' equals 'interest'. Confidence, as the passage below suggests, is generally related to motivation but to a lesser extent than 'interest' is:

In general, teachers ... motivate their students by building self-confidence as much as command of English.

The implication of these associations and more specifically of Pattison's statement above that without consideration of interest and confidence "the best-laid plan for learning" will not work is that a course and "by ricochet" a coursebook which does not stimulate the learners' interest and does not bring about confidence in the learner is more likely to be a failure and, that the dynamism of Motivation is secured by the learners' interest and confidence. If we take Pattison's point in this matter, then there is a case for thinking that motivation or, at least, aspects of it such as 'interest' and 'confidence' should figure in the content of language learning syllabuses and materials or coursebooks. The difficulty, however, is that Interest and Confidence are of a different nature, and even their relation to motivation is different. For example, 'Interest' precedes actual motivation and receives feedback from it whereas 'Confidence' is the result of previous learning and, therefore, subsequent to some previous motivation. In other words 'Interest' leads to motivation and is affected by the result of motivation whereas 'Confidence' is generated by the result of motivation and leads back to motivation. It is in this respect that Pattison's assertion that the two driving elements of Motivation are Interest and Confidence can only make sense. One of the ways of getting these elements into the course, despite the difficulty pointed out here above, is through activities which make the learners think, as thinking in Pattison's opinion leads the learners to be "more active, more involved in what is going on, ... to be interested" (Pattison 1976:291).

2.2.2.2 Maria de Julio Serrao, Giovanna Occhipinti and Marina Villone,
in MET, Vol 9 No 4, April-May 1984

Serrao, Occhipinti and Villone are all teachers of English in Naples, Italy, and teach different levels in different schools or institutions. Their article, 'Where's Captain Cook's Treasure?', is actually a description of a reading exercise and the technique related to it. At the outset of their article they write:

One of our aims when we thought of this exercise was to motivate students by giving them a real purpose and, therefore, a reason for using their reading and speaking abilities (p 12).

Here motivation is seen as a consequence of purpose and perceived reasons for doing things, in the context of the article, that is for using reading and speaking abilities. The exercise is the means of motivation beside the other aims for which it has been designed. Its main feature is information transfer or use of an information gap. Thus it is the design of the exercise which is meant to motivate the learner not its content. In this sense motivation is a function of the activity in the classroom not of the content proper, a common feature, among others, of communicative teaching.

2.2.2.3 Rod Bolitho, MET, Vol 9 No 4, April-May 1982

Bolitho is a college lecturer and is a Chief Examiner for the RSA (Cert. TEFL). He is author of Start English for Science, Longman (cf MET p26). His article, 'Marrakesh Marketplace: a structure practice game', describes a game intended "to give intensive further practice in, or revision of, 'if' sentences of the first two types" (p26).

After explaining how the game works, Bolitho says: "Motivation is usually very high ... and the only problem I ever have with this activity is stopping it" (p27).

What is meant by motivation is not clear from the sentence itself nor is it from the context, i.e. the article. Motivation here may well mean interest or willingness to act or to perform the activity. What is clear is that there is a lot of learner involvement. Is this what is meant by 'motivation'? Why not? If we take Pattison's point referred to above (see 2.2.2.1) that thinking leads learners to be more active, more involved in what they are doing and likely to be interested, and that interest and confidence are the "driving wheels of motivation" (Pattison 1976:290), then it is justifiable to presume that involvement is an indication of some sort of motivation. In any case involvement is evidence that motivation is at work. It is not surprising that it is, if such is the case, mistaken for motivation itself. In this case 'motivation' equals 'involvement'.

2.2.2.4 Luke Prodromou, MET, Vol 9 No 1, September 1981

Prodromou teaches or was teaching at the time of the publication of his article, 'Teaching Beginners', at the British Council Institute and the University in Salonika, Greece. The article consists of six sections of different length each focussing on a particular problem. The section we are concerned with here (Section Three) is headed 'The Teacher Speaks'. It is a discussion of the teacher's speech in the classroom, preceded by a discussion of the beginner-learner speech (Section Two), and opens as follows:

Clearly, the pupil needs to be given (a) confidence in this new language (b) a feeling that it is related in some way to reality, that it can be useful (p3).

"This new language" in the quotation refers to the discussion preceding the section about the teacher's speech and also to part of the heading of the section: 'This New Language ... The Beginner Speaks'. With regard to the two things "the pupil needs to be given" the author refers to (b) as 'Motivation'. With reference to confidence he suggests that it "can be built on the idea that language is systematic", not "an amorphous, threatening mass" (p3); and this should be made clear to the learner. In this respect he thinks that there are advantages in using a structural syllabus and audiolingual texts despite their use of language "in unreal contexts" (p3). Motivation is seen as the key to the problem of language "presented by the textbook in an unreal context" and as the responsibility of the teacher (cf 2.2.2.1).

Prodromou indeed thinks that it is the teacher's responsibility to make the learner realise that:

Language is not only an abstract system of sounds but also a concrete system of meanings that can be activated and put to use, even in the earliest stages.

What is suggested here can be related to the concept of the spiral syllabus (cf Widdowson and Brumfit 1982:208-9). It consists of the structural core of the language to which "items derived from a traditional structural syllabus as well as others from notional, functional or indeed any other appropriate taxonomies" (ibid:208) are added. In Prodromou's suggestion the core would have something to do with 'Confidence' and the spiral with 'Motivation': the core would be in the textbook and would service the learners' confidence whereas the spiral content would be provided by the teacher for the

sake of motivation. In this respect Prodromou writes that the teacher should aim to "create a need for the student to learn English" as he often does not have one "or does not feel that he has it" (p3). He further says that the teacher must give the learner something to say if he has nothing to say and that "this is often a matter of giving the student and the language something to do" (p3). This sounds as if the teacher is a dictator and this dictatorship is often disguised in such terms as 'guide' or 'initiator'. Our opinion is that the learners should be granted some Freedom of choice and decision in the matter. The teacher only helps when he is required. On the other hand, it sounds as if motivation is an 'electric shock' that starts the learner off.

With reference to the coursebook, Prodromou suggests that if the language in it

... is represented in such a way that it does not do anything, does not communicate, then we make it do something (p3).

He then defines the concept of "doing something with language" as

... not just making a noise, albeit a systematic one, but (a) saying something which is not obvious to the listener, (b) saying something which the listener will respond to perhaps by performing an action, reacting emotionally, replying.

Thus language is used to exchange information, attitudes and feelings ...

Prodromou 1981:3-4

This text and most of what precedes reflects the main line of the communicative approach as it focusses on the communicative or interactional aspect of language and on 'the use of language' to learn 'the use of the language'. His concept of motivation is mainly concerned with providing the learner with some need to learn the language through

activities and exercises as already noted with Serrao et al (cf 2.2.2.2).

This is the tendency in the present current of LT, as Robinson (1980:26-31) shows in her discussion of student motivation and the analysis of needs. She writes:

... ESP has developed alongside a new concern for the needs and feelings of the learner rather than the requirements of an externally imposed syllabus ...

Robinson 1980:26

She then presents some views and counter-views about student motivation and how motivation can be satisfied. One of the views is found in the 'English in focus approach' (Robinson loc cit) and is mainly concerned with maintaining the students' interest by establishing the relationship between the English class and "what goes on in the Engineering workshop or Physics lab" (Allen, quoted in Robinson 1980:26). The counter view is seen in Macdonald and Sager (1975) who propose joint teaching of foreign languages and "academic subjects presented to a considerable extent in the foreign language" at university to open the students to something new. Robinson (1980) then writes:

A few writers, however, query what they see as an excessive demand for usefulness or relevance, characteristic of the communicative approach.

Robinson 1980:27

thus indicating that usefulness or relevance is for the communicativists what is essential for motivation to be maintained. This implies that motivation is goal-directed, and can only be maintained or stimulated by exercises or activities reflecting the goals in question, thus subordinating Motivation to Activity and Exercises rather than subordinating activity and exercises to motivation, though the latter is the normal process.

Another article by Prodromou, 'ambiguity in EFL', published in a later issue of the same journal (MET, Vol 9, No 4, April-May 1982) supports or perpetuates this view as the concluding words of the article show:

I feel however that teachers should also be encouraged to devise their own techniques, by adapting available material towards communicative ends - and if an activity takes seconds or minutes to prepare and can stimulate student involvement in the learning process, so much the better. This is what I have tried to outline in this article.

Prodromou 1982:6

2.2.2.5 Jean-Paul Steevens, in MET, Vol 9 No 4, April-May 1982

Steevens is a teacher in Belgium and organises in-service training courses for English teachers in vocational schools. His article, 'pop songs as a device for listening comprehension', is concerned with the use of pop songs to teach English to beginners and students at elementary level. It is intended to:

... illustrate how pop songs can be a natural and highly motivational device for listening comprehension (p17).

In this connection he comments that:

Pupils generally tend to sing the most popular song texts by heart without even thinking what the verses mean. A listening comprehension exercise offers a challenging and unexpected test of their ... (his dots) comprehension of the song; they suddenly discover these strange sounds also have a meaning (p17).

Suddenly, like magic, pupils discover that the songs they know and sing have a meaning, and this motivates them to listen for comprehension. Motivation or the motivating factor here is thus seen to be the link between knowledge of the song and its meaning. Knowledge of the pop songs will incite or encourage learners to listen and hopefully understand the verses. The assumption is that knowledge of the songs

will make the students want to listen and to understand. The implication being that there is an element of readiness and willingness in the notion of motivation, which further implies some type of Freedom on the part of the learners.

2.2.2.6 Roy Pearse (1982), MET, Vol 10 No 1, September 1982

Pearse teaches in Barcelona. His article, 'Helping the student help himself' is concerned with some useful "basic points on simple oral communication" (p22) and makes the point that Character and Motivation are responsible for the ability to communicate. Pearse sees motivation as the desire "to talk and to be heard". The following is how he puts it:

Some students will always get the message across better than others. Character is important. The extrovert will communicate better than the introvert. Some people find self-expression easy; ... Motivation is also important. Some are bursting to talk and to be heard ... character and motivation are all-important (p22).

Following this and his introduction Pearse discusses a number of hints on self-expression that he thinks the extrovert uses and that he feels should be practised not to stimulate or motivate learners but to help the motivated learners to perform properly or adequately. The hints are (a) the use of the situational context, (b) gestures, (c) the use of brand names (for example biro instead of ballpoint pen, Kleenex instead of paper handkerchiefs, etc), (d) putting the interlocutor on the right track, where the situational context does not particularise and possible confusion can arise, (e) not persisting with one form not immediately understood (an aspect of, or a device for Perseverance), (f) repeating and having repeated what is not understood (another device for Perseverance), (g) knowledge of the local ways, (h) knowledge of the subject matter, (j) knowledge of

target language habits, (i) knowledge of the life and the culture of the people who speak it, and (k) distinction between fluency and knowledge.

Pearse's article suggests that there is a sense in which we can conceive of an exercise or activity as enhancing Motivation thus having Motivation as its subordinate, and cases where exercises are designed to help motivated learners to get their message across or to 'communicate' with the effect of adding to Motivation. In the latter case learning activities and exercises are a function of Motivation and lead back to Motivation by complex routes that will be discussed later in this chapter (cf 2.3.3.1). It appears that in LT focus is often on the first instance. This thesis is an attempt to find ways of proceeding via the alternative as well.

2.2.2.7 Peter Buckley of the British Council Teaching Centre, Salonika, Greece, in MET Vol 10 No 1, September 1982

Buckley has taught in West Germany and in Britain. At the time of publication of his article: 'The successful Adult Learner', he was Director of Studies at the British Council Teaching Centre in Salonika, Greece. In the introduction to the article Buckley writes that he believes that:

... teaching English to foreign students often involves teaching them how to learn rather than teaching them English (p20).

He then argues that:

This seems to contradict one of the foundations of student-centred learning: that adult students are already successful learners, and therefore know how to learn. But I think they are only successful in the context of their previous educational experience. And in many cases, this experience has been teacher-centred, exam-aimed

and textbook-bound. They are as potentially capable as anyone of benefitting from a student-centred approach but their previous experience has not prepared them for this (p20).

This passage and the article it introduces are important to us in that they raise the issues of learners' past experience and the habits already formed in them about learning and about what learning is. In connection with these issues the author suggests that adoption of 'the deep-end' approach might just work "depending on the perseverance and enthusiasm of the teacher", but that it is "more likely to confuse and antagonise the students" (p20). He then suggests the adoption of a 'gradual approach' "so that the teacher is in fact teaching the students how to learn" (p20). For this purpose he recommends consideration of (a) teachers' explanations of the reason why pupils do things and what they are learning in doing things; that is, provision of meaning and purpose; (b) information about the rationale of the activities involved in their learning/teaching; (c) students' independence and 'independent' thinking involving the principle of induction; (d) the function of error in language-learning; and (e) sources: coursebook, dictionary, grammar book, etc. These recommendations suggest a direct use or exploitation of the learners' motivation to enhance his learning. If analogy with language description à la Chomsky is allowed one may describe the five recommendations as part of a deep structure of the concept of Motivation understood as a dynamic process, the process whereby the learners' assign meaning and purpose to what they want to do or they are doing. More about this later (cf 2.2.3).

2.2.2.8 Patrick Woulfe, MET Vol 10 No 2, November 1982

Woulfe taught for some time in Germany where he was one of the founder members of HELTA, the Hamburg Teachers Association

(cf p20). At the time when his article, 'Exploiting good friends', was published he was Director of the New Zealand English Language Institute in Auckland, which helps cater for the language needs of migrant workers in industry (p20). His article, 'Exploiting good friends' addresses the problem of vocabulary teaching along a line similar to that of Buckley just discussed in that he also considers the learners' previous experience. Woulfe's reason for 'exploiting good friends' is that good friends (i.e. True Cognates) can relate to five principles of language teaching and learning, the first of which is the principle of motivation.

In Woulfe's opinion 'good friends' can be used as a motivational factor to make the pre-intermediate student feel he is approximating faster to the target language by being exposed to 'easy vocabulary'. Secondly, good friends help the teacher to build on the student's previous language experience. In the first instance Woulfe touches on the problem of authenticity of the language taught and suggests that exposure to the right type and level of language can motivate and maintain learners' motivation, a point which links up with his second point to suggest that authentic language is the language that the learner can cope with.

2.2.2.9 John Gibbons, in MET, Vol 8 No 4, April-May 1982

Gibbons has taught in Spain, Kenya, Poland, and London (immigrants), and has produced learning materials for Hong Kong and is co-author, with Pamela Smith and Kenneth Wescott, of Career English, Nelson (cf p23). At the time of writing the article, 'Coping with authentic texts' he was teaching and training teachers at the School of Education, University of Hong Kong (cf p23). In the fifth point

of the article dealing with "teaching students to comprehend Authentic Texts" (this is in fact the heading of the paragraph under consideration) Gibbons ascribes two elements to the teacher's task (a) training the learners to "recognise the clues to meaning, the information they already have", and (b) "encouraging students to use (our emphasis) the available information to the fullest extent". In this respect he writes:

Teaching comprehension means encouraging students to work on the text, using all available clues, plus reasoning to reach the best possible interpretation (p25).

That is, the teacher should encourage the learners to use their "in-built puzzle-solving equipment" (cf Aitchison 1976:126) to process the text; and this is done through teaching techniques and classroom activities as the following passage shows:

The teacher should rarely give the answer but if the students appear unable to make progress, should help (our emphasis) by indicating available clues, or by asking open questions to get students working along the right lines. Another way of encouraging this type of approach is to allow learners to work in groups and discuss ... Another aspect of reasoning is, of course, the role of the purpose ... (p25).

In this particular instance teaching is seen as setting the appropriate or relevant mood or condition for the learners to want to do some practical intellectual work, culminating in learning. As such this view reveals or rather establishes the relationship between cognitive factors like intelligence (reasoning) and affective factors such as purpose (wants, desires, etc), the conjugation of which will yield reasons or motives for acting or doing the (practical) intellectual work referred to above.

2.2.3 Towards a Viable Definition of Motivation

At this point we should like to consider a viable definition of what is understood by motivation but before we do so let us explore

a point Widdowson makes in his Explorations in Applied Linguistics (1979: Ch 13). In the conclusion to Chapter Thirteen (originally a paper) entitled 'The process and purpose of reading', Widdowson suggests that:

We should try to encourage learners to relate what they read to their own world of knowledge and experience.

Widdowson 1979:180

To justify the reactive aspect of reading that Widdowson sees as being essentially interactive, Donn Byrne (1983) adds to the suggestion the following:

... and what they are going to read.

Byrne, in MET, Vol 10 No 3 1983

Widdowson carries on and says that his suggestion can be realised:

... in part, by selecting reading material that is likely to appeal to their interest, but there is no point in doing this unless we also ensure that their interests are actually engaged (our emphasis) by allowing them the same latitude of interpretation that we, as practised readers, permit ourselves. The texts have to be converted into discourse and the language put to creative use.

Widdowson 1979:180

Here, as in most texts discussed here or other which are published in professional journals other than MET, 'INTEREST' occupies the central position when motivation comes to be talked about, to the extent that, as has been said before, in some cases 'interest' is synonymous with motivation. As in most texts with a communicative flavour Widdowson suggests the use of activities in class and the provision of a purpose for reading to gain learners' involvement. It follows then that 'INVOLVEMENT' is an important feature of motivation for the teachers as it is the observable result of motivation.

From the foregoing and referring back to Pearse, Gibbons, Widdowson's conclusions and Byrne's addition to the suggestion, one may rightly think of Motivation as something not static or even stable but rather dynamic and changing. Thus Widdowson's suggestion can be realised partly through the topics and partly through the activities set out to deal with reading the topics in question. A third dimension that needs to be mentioned is the more direct motivational involvement suggested by Pearse, Buckley and Byrne by telling the students the meaning of the activity for their learning and its purpose, and by getting them to evaluate their experience with the activity and also the relevance of the topic (cf Pearse (1982), Buckley (1982) and Byrne (1983:5)) or indeed of the activity itself. Finally, the word 'INTERPRETATION' in Widdowson's suggestion quoted above suggests and, indeed, supports the point that some type of Freedom is to be allowed in the classroom, the course-materials and the syllabus. This Freedom is not only conceptual or cognitive as the word interpretation above implies and suggests but also organisational and affective as other places in the foregoing discussion suggest. See, for instance, Buckley's recommendation of 'students' independence' and 'independent' thinking (2.2.2.7).

'Operative Motivation' is clearly conceived of, among teachers and specialists in related disciplines, in terms of LINKS: links between perceived goals or aims and objectives, or else between interest and the meaning they take for the learner, between perceived progress and relevance for the learner, from the learner's point of view, and subsequent confidence resulting from some evidence of progress; links between other things which make the concept of 'motivation' complex and at times confusing. This 'LINKING' concept

of Motivation is clearly formulated by Hill (1984) in his summary of the paper 'Motivating Teacher-Trainers in Training' (Hill 1984: 41-2). The paper concerns students on the Advanced Practical Certificate in Teaching (APCTT) for ESOL programme. The programme is closely attached to "the Institute's Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) initial training programme for TESOL" (Hill 1984:41) and includes "lectures, seminars, tutorials, and workshops, the micro-teaching sessions, and most importantly the teaching practice in state secondary schools in Madrid" (loc cit). The teacher trainers "are given a series of appropriate tasks and a programme of reading to carry out" (loc cit) in special seminars. This is the setting in which the (prospective) teacher trainers are to be motivated.

With it in mind Hill writes:

The motivation of the teacher trainers arises from the fact that they are self-selected (our emphasis), from the obvious relevance of the PGCE as a case study and from the explicit linking (our emphasis) of the tasks, readings and special seminars to what occurs in the PGCE programme.

Problems in maintaining motivation are most likely to arise if these links (our emphasis) are not well made, or if the case-study nature of the PGCE programme is not properly perceived.

Hill 1984:42

Beside the linking aspect of motivation, this passage sums up most of the points discussed under the heading 'What Teachers and Applied Linguists Say and Imply'. Above all it clearly shows that FREEDOM, the organisational and implicitly the affective freedom of the learners, is of paramount importance in raising their motivation, thus supporting the point made earlier that the learners' freedom (affective, cognitive, organisational or otherwise) should be accounted for in the design of syllabuses, courses and coursebooks.

The linking aspect of motivation is particularly present in the concept of 'Motive' as discussed by Peters (1958). He suggests that the concept 'Motive' is an explanatory concept not a causative one. It consists of three main characteristics in ordinary language:

- (a) it is used in contexts where conduct is being assessed and not simply explained, where there is a breakdown in conventional expectations;
 - (b) it is used to refer to a reason of a directed sort and implies a directed disposition in the individual whose conduct is being assessed;
 - (c) it must state the reason why a person acts, a reason that is operative in the situation to be explained.
- The motive may coincide with his reason but it must be the reason why he acts.

To the question of knowing why certain types of reason are operative Peters suggests that many people and, in particular, anthropologists and sociologists would refer to "culture and knowledge of the individual" to answer the question while psychologists would refer to "emotion and movement" (cf Peters 1958:36-7) or better to:

... a causal connexion between directedness and some inner springs in the individual. A motive, it would be argued, is an emotively charged reason. The directedness of behaviour is set off by an emotional state. Motives, on this view, inhabit a hinterland between reasons and causes. They refer not only to the goal towards which behaviour is directed but also to emotional states which set it off.

Peters 1958:37

In this thesis, the concept of motive accommodates both views: the culture-knowledge explanatory view and the causal view of the psychologist. This choice is directed by what teachers and their allies think Motivation is, i.e. a set of links between perceived

things or values and the meaning they take for the learner that a reasonable amount of confidence resulting from some evidence of progress confirms and maintains.

Widdowson (1979:180) quoted above reflects the culture-knowledge explanatory view that teachers hold of motivation, but also the causative aspect of it when he refers to the learners' interest. This integrative concept of motivation is noticeable in most of the excerpts discussed above. This means that teachers are aware that human beings, learners in particular, are not mere psychological units but also social beings, i.e. members of society with a given culture that affects their behaviour (motivated or not). The acceptance that "some behaviour qualifies as motivated action but some does not" (Harre' and Lamb 1983:403) entails acceptance of some routines of behaviour, referred to as habits. If habits can be culture-bound it goes without saying that motivated actions and, therefore, motives are culture-bound, and therefore educable (cf 2.1.3).

Our accommodation of both the above views considers the 'psychological causes' such as knowledge, interest and experience as necessary conditions for motivation to take place. Motives are then seen as "goals towards which behaviour persists" i.e. the operative reason for a given behaviour. In other words no causal connection is seen "between pursuing the goal and some inner spring of action" (Peter 1958:38-9) or what is referred to here as "psychological causes". Finally Motivation is regarded as the motives coupled with some disposition to act or perform and willingness to do so. In this sense Motivation can be conceived of as the organisational force or just the organisation of motives for a specific purpose reflected in the goals.

If we refer back to some aspects of motivation drawn from teachers' opinions in relation to Wright's survey of visuals in the Audio-visual Method and their use in the 1970's onward (cf Wright 1982(a):32-37 and Wright 1982(b):46-49) we can induce a link between students' interest and meaning and purpose in language learning. In view of all these elements, this thesis considers Motivation as a process whereby a learner assigns meaning and purpose to what he wants to do or is doing. The process is made possible if the learner is prepared and willing to perform the desired behaviour or to achieve the goal he sets for himself. This definition is relevant in language learning in particular and can be extended to other behaviours, and is consistent with the social psychological view of language learning described by Lambert (1972:291) when he writes that the social psychological theory:

... in brief, holds that an individual successfully acquiring a second language gradually adopts various aspects of behavior which characterize members of another linguistic-cultural group. The learner's ethnocentric tendencies, his attitudes toward the other group, and his orientation toward learning are believed to regulate or control his motivation to learn and ultimately his success or failure in mastering the new language.

Lambert 1972:291

According to this theory motivation is regulated or controlled but not caused by the learners' ethnocentric tendencies (a socio-psychological factor), their attitudes towards the other group (a psychological variable closely related to interest) and their orientation toward learning. The latter is the motive for learning (but see 3.1.1.3.1,d) and the other two can be entered under what has been considered here as 'necessary conditions' for motivation to occur, referred to later (cf 3.1.1.3.1) as 'Motivation Conditioning'. It can be induced from the theory that motivation is a result (if it is a result of anything)

of successful acquisition of another language and is a process of some kind which makes the learners decide on the adoption of "various aspects of behavior which characterize members of" the target linguistic-cultural group. The assumption in this theory is that motivation is directly related to achievement, i.e. that there is a direct correlation between motivation and achievement. The present work suggests that there is not, and that the statement that:

... given motivation, it is inevitable that a human being will learn a second language if he is exposed to the language data.

by Corder (1967:164 quoted in McDonough 1981:142) is misleading. This point leads us to consider the hypotheses of this thesis and the problem which raised them.

2.3 The Problem and the Hypotheses

2.3.0 Background

Zaire is a multilingual country with French as the official language, and Ciluba, Kikongo, Kiswahili and Lingala as main regional-national languages. English is the second foreign language as it is the third or maybe the fourth language most people learn at school. It is compulsory and begins either in the second or the third year of secondary education. (See General Introduction)

2.3.1 The problem as it affects ELT

Most teachers of English in Zaire complain that their pupils are not interested in learning and are hard to motivate. This is especially the case for older or supposedly more advanced learners (Classes 5 and 6, age 16 to 19 or more). The teachers generally maintain that pupils learn English not to speak it but rather to

pass their exams. The irony is that pupils too complain. They argue that English lessons are boring and the teachers too demanding. This suggests that learners are willing to learn but the classroom setting or context discourages them and entails a decline of motivation and a subsequent lack of perseverance in learning.

Boredom results from lack of or little activity in the classroom and other factors like the rigidity of the teaching system (cf Lubasa 1982: Ch 1), the language syllabus, the teacher's motivation and qualification, the scarcity and/or irrelevance of coursebooks and teaching materials. The phrase 'too demanding' suggests (among other things) that the learners are not prepared and subsequently are unwilling to work hard, though willing to work. Obviously the learners are motivated one way or the other to learn the language especially at earlier stages (cf Lubasa 1982:121-124) but school 'kills' their motivation.

It is often said that motivation is crucial for learning to take place (cf 2.1.1 and Corder 1967, quoted above); but paradoxically very little is said about it in terms of content for (teaching and/or) learning materials (cf Waters and Hutchinson 1983:11). Usually researchers suggest, and teachers use methods and approaches that would serve as a motivational factor. This practice is seen as analogous to developing one's grammatical or linguistic competence and expecting communicative competence to follow or result from it. Here I should like to refer to Dawson (1982:27) when he says that recent developments in TEFL and:

... the abandonment of the old grammar translation methods ... have led to a concentration on our

students' ability to communicate in English in an English-speaking environment.

Dawson, in MET Vol 9, No 4, 1982:27

I would say "... in an English-speaking-like environment". This shift from grammar-translation is directed by a need to deal with the learners' communicative needs directly. If we see Motivation as the heart of communication along with Character (as Pearse above suggests when he says: "character and motivation are all important") or other features like the learners' Freedom and Perseverance, then we cannot expect it to be tackled indirectly.

Dawson continues by objecting that although the result of recent developments in LT is in many ways excellent:

... it has caused us to overlook two essential and unavoidable facts:

- (a) many of our students may never need to function in an English-speaking environment;
- (b) English is only a secondary language. Most communication will continue to be in their L1.

Therefore we have overlooked the students who will never travel but will nevertheless need to use their knowledge of English at home.

Dawson loc cit

This is particularly true of Zaire where English is at least the fourth language and the second European language most pupils learn. It is not surprising that teachers find it difficult to sustain the pupils' motivation to learn English, and that they form an opinion that the pupils are not interested in learning English or even that it is impossible to sustain the pupils' motivation and get better results from teaching English. This takes us to the description of the hypothesis or hypotheses.

2.3.2 Description of the Hypotheses

2.3.2.1 Hypothesis 1

In the face of the problem what is missing in the Zairean ELT context is not motivation or interest but rather perseverance. This lack of perseverance results from a decline of motivation, in turn resulting from the teaching situation, i.e. the ELT context of Zaire and includes the school system, the classroom situation, the teacher and his training or background and motivation, the methods and/or techniques and the materials involved.

Although motivation is the most important factor affecting terminal behaviour in language learning (cf Gardner and Lambert 1972; Lambert 1972; Gardner 1981, 1982; and Corder 1967) it is believed that it needs the support of Perseverance conceived of as the ability to deal with a crisis point. The hypothesis can then go like this: No matter what the intensity of motivation, learners learn if they can persevere; and the more they learn, the more they persevere and the more motivated they are likely to be. In other words, the more they learn, the more they are involved in the process of learning and persevere, and the more perseverant they grow the higher their motivation is likely to get.

2.3.2.2 Hypothesis 2

Learning foreign languages can be more effective and enjoyable if aspects of motivation and perseverance can be incorporated into the syllabus and into learning materials in terms of sociocultural, psychological, and linguistic content as well as being a by-product of methodology and textbook structure through an (SP)² approach,

that is: Specific Purpose (SP1) and Social Psychological (SP2) approaches. In other words, to specify a type of content easily processable by most, if not all, learners of a particular socio-cultural, psychological or socio-psychological, and sociolinguistic background because it is based as far as possible and necessary on motivational factors. This second hypothesis seems to follow quite logically from the first and links up with the point made earlier that for motivation and perseverance to be operative in learning materials, the syllabus should account for the learners' Freedom (cognitive, affective, and organisational) and thus be flexible. This is the *raison d'être* of the (SP)² approach developed in this thesis.

2.3.2.3 Further hypotheses

Additional hypotheses related to these two hypotheses derive from the analysis of the teachers' and Applied Linguists' opinions. They constitute the substance of the conceptual framework (Fig. 2.4) meant to test the main two hypotheses. The analysis revealed a number of points, such as:

- (a) that teaching a language is:
 - (i) teaching how to learn rather than teaching the language itself;
 - (ii) encouraging the learners to use their "in-built puzzle-solving equipment" to process the learning material;
- (b) that (i) and (ii) can be done through activities stimulating the learners' motivation (indirect use of motivation) or through activities derived from the learners' motivation (direct use of motivation);

(c) that motivation is:

- (i) what makes people want to learn, implying some readiness and willingness;
- (ii) willingness to learn a language well enough for some purpose;
- (iii) a state of mind related to one's knowledge of the aims and the results of one's efforts; hence the concepts of perceived progress and relevance;
- (iv) an energiser and a dynamic self-regulated process where the learning process itself is a major motivational factor;
- (v) something demanding involvement, etc.

1. Hypothesis 3

This hypothesis focuses on learning and teaching and suggests that teaching is the development or training of the learners' ability to cope with difficulties (i.e. to use their "Puzzle-solving Equipment" when it is needed), and that learning is problem-solving, and requires the development of the necessary ability or strategies to overcome 'crisis points' in the process of solving the problems. It thus suggests that perseverance is the crucial factor in learning other languages (cf Hypothesis 1). Hence the hypothesis that perseverance is equally important, if not more so, than motivation in language learning-acquisition.

2. Hypothesis 4

It follows from 'Hypothesis 3' that the learning process is a chain of processes including the motivational process and the "dynamics of perseverance" (cf 2.3.3).

3. Hypothesis 5

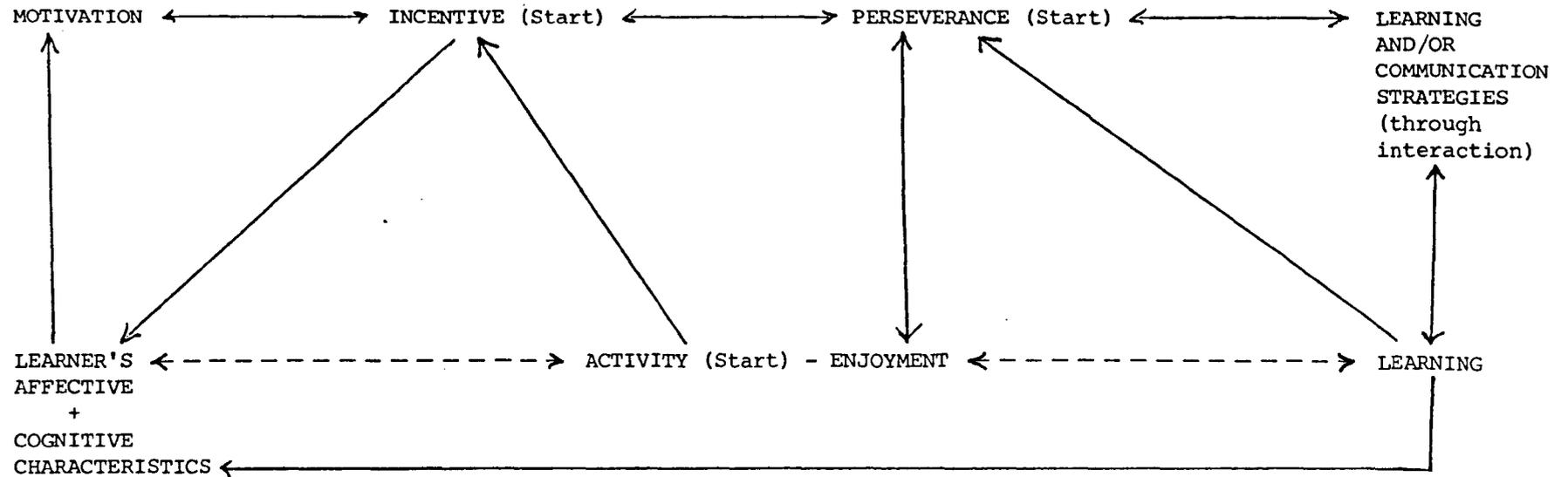
This hypothesis is concerned with the use of motivation. It suggests that the concepts of 'Motivation' and 'Perseverance' can be directly exploited in language learning materials through the SP-Squared approach, where factors such as "Previous Language Experience, Attitudes and Interest, Incentive, Activity-Enjoyment, and others are particularly concerned and stressed. This hypothesis links up with 'Hypothesis 2'".

2.3.3 The SP-Squared Approach and the Test of the Hypotheses

2.3.3.0 Introduction

Under this heading we wish to describe in general terms the process and the approach followed to test the hypotheses described above. To test these hypotheses a conceptual framework, in turn to be tested, was found indispensable. For this purpose we designed a model of Other-Language Learning, based on the work of Gardner (1979, 1981, 1982), McDonough's study of motivation in connection with language teaching (McDonough 1981), and some of the points revealed in the analysis of teachers and Applied Linguists' opinions. It is made of three 'dynamics' assumed to constitute the 'chain of processes' (cf Hypothesis 4) of the learning process. For the purpose of convenience, these dynamics can be represented as in Fig. 2.3. This shows schematically the learning process as a chain of dynamic processes among which 'motivation' is only one. The motivation process, referred to here as the dynamic of motivated behaviour, goes from 'Incentive' through the learners' affective and cognitive characteristics. The latter include concepts like interest, attitude and others which serve as preliminary conditions for motivation to occur (cf 2.2.3; and 3.1.1.3.1). It is suggested that Motivation can directly be

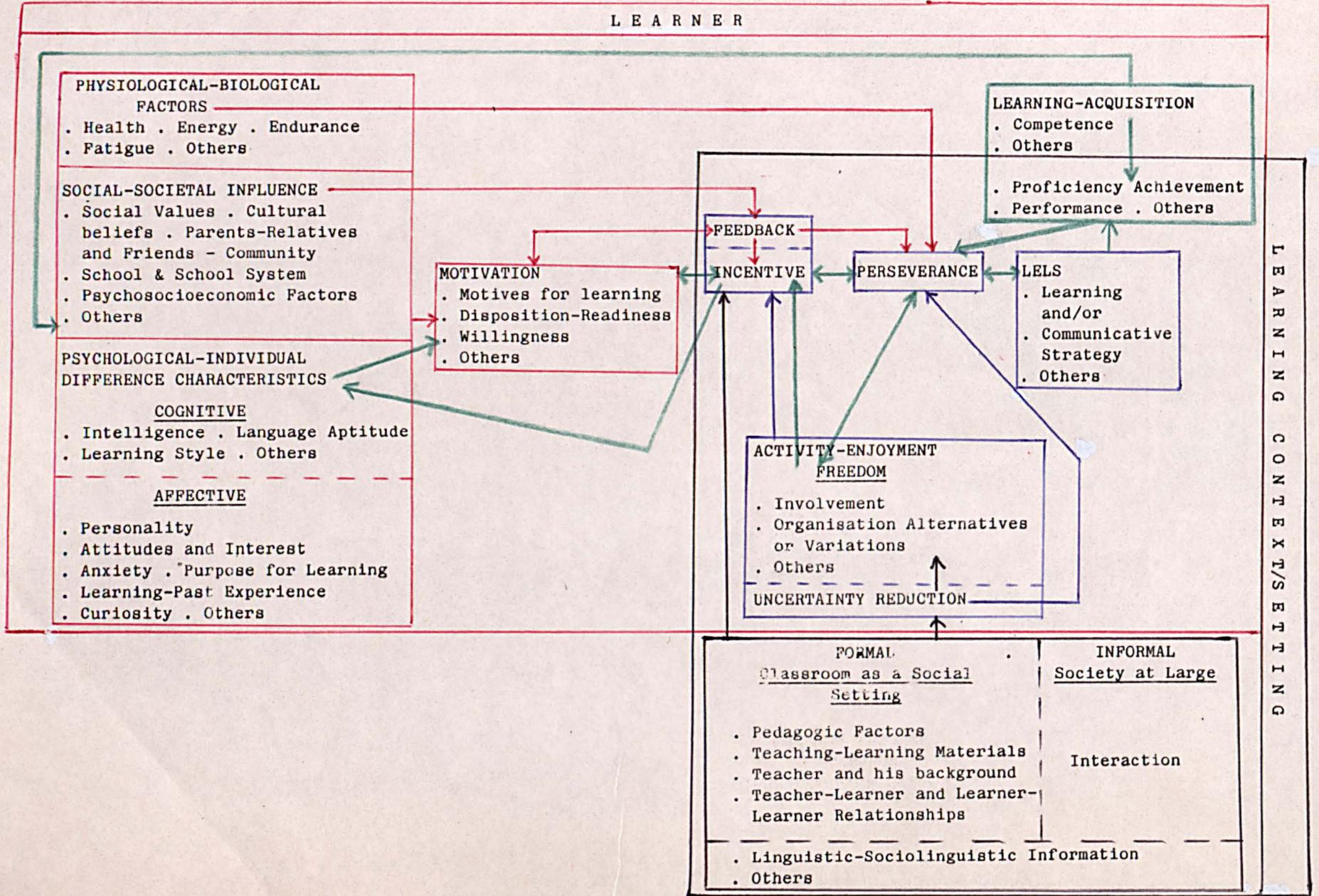
Fig.2.3: THE DYNAMIC OF MOTIVATED BEHAVIOUR AND ITS INFLUENCES IN THE PROCESS OF
LEARNING OTHER LANGUAGES



Legend: (Start) = beginning of dynamic

affected and maintained by 'Incentive'. The second process in the chain is the one referred to as the "dynamic of Perseverance" where 'Incentive' still plays an important role. It starts from 'Activity-Enjoyment' whose impetus comes from the learning context. The double arrows indicate that 'Activity-Enjoyment' and 'Incentive', both influence the learner's Perseverance which in turn positively (or indeed negatively) affects both of them. The third process is the one which might be referred to as the 'dynamic of Learning', or indeed, of Language Acquisition. It consists of (a) the learner's Perseverance (where it starts), (b) Learning or Communication strategy (activated and developed through interaction), and (c) cognitive and affective learning proper. The suggestion is that Learning (whether cognitive, affective or both) and Communication strategies are stimulated by the learner's Perseverance and are affected one way or the other by Learning, i.e. by their own result. The other process illustrated in the diagram consists of the feedback loop-system of the chain of processes. This leads back to the learner either directly or through some complex routes (i.e. via 'perseverance' and 'incentive' or via 'perseverance', 'activity-enjoyment', and 'incentive', or perhaps through 'activity-enjoyment' alone) or both. (See the definitions of the concepts of Perseverance, Activity-Enjoyment, and Incentive in the definition section:2.3.4). The hypotheses will be said to be invalid if one of the dynamics proves to be false. The framework (the model) itself (Fig. 2.4) is tested by means of various instruments: questionnaires, interviews, classroom observation, and discussions (cf Chapter Three). The results of these instruments, beside testing the conceptual framework, provide us with clues to the motivational and perseverance factors to account for in designing learning materials, through what we have named the SP-Squared approach.

Fig. 2.4 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK: A MODEL OF OTHER-LANGUAGE LEARNING-ACQUISITION



2.3.3.1 Description of the Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is in effect a self-explanatory predictive model of Other-Language Learning-Acquisition. However, a description of it will help better understanding. It shows the interaction of the learner and his background with the learning context and setting in the process of learning. What is exclusively internal to the learner is shown in the part labelled: LEARNER, and what is external is in the one labelled: LEARNING CONTEXT/SETTING. The overlapping area contains what is assumed to be both internal (i.e. belonging to the learner) and external (i.e. belonging to the learning context and/or setting) to the learner.

The framework as a model views the learner of other languages as a whole; that is, in all different aspects of his life: as a biological and psychological entity, and as a social or societal and classroom member exposed to a fair amount of the target language. In other words, the learner is seen as taking with him into the classroom or the learning context and setting the different aspects of life mentioned in the left hand interconnected boxes of the model. These aspects influence the learner in many different ways; and he reacts or responds to them in a variety of different ways. His motivation is seen as the effect of the many ways he reacts or responds to the different aspects of his life. It results in positive or negative Incentive which in turn appeals to the learner's affective and cognitive characteristics thus establishing the first dynamic referred to as the one of Motivated Behaviour. The other effect of Motivation, feedback to Behaviour or Knowledge, ultimately affects both the nature of the Incentive (positive or negative) and the intensity of Perseverance, thus contributing to both dynamics: the Dynamic of Motivated Behaviour and the one of Perseverance.

Both FEEDBACK and INCENTIVE are directly influenced or affected by the social milieu and/or by the learner as a member of society and of a particular speech community, as well as being affected by the learner's motivation which, itself, is an effect (in part) of the social milieu and/or the learner as a member of society. In part, because MOTIVATION is mainly the effect of the learner's psychological characteristics seen as the necessary condition for Motivation to occur. FEEDBACK and INCENTIVE both receive their input from the classroom and the result of the classroom interaction in the formal context of 'other-language' (OL) acquisition, and, in the informal context, from society at large and the result of interpersonal interaction. In both cases the results are: ACTIVITY-ENJOYMENT, where Freedom is essential, and UNCERTAINTY REDUCTION. They both have an impact on PERSEVERANCE; but, unlike the UNCERTAINTY REDUCTION variable, ACTIVITY-ENJOYMENT is sustained and perhaps enhanced by PERSEVERANCE which, as already mentioned, is also affected by the INCENTIVE and secures the cycle which is regarded as the Dynamic of Perseverance (cf 2.3.3.0).

The arrow from the PHYSIOLOGICAL-BIOLOGICAL FACTORS component to PERSEVERANCE suggests that Perseverance is not dependent upon the FEEDBACK-INCENTIVE and UNCERTAINTY REDUCTION-ACTIVITY-ENJOYMENT variables alone but also on physiological factors such as health, fatigue, energy, endurance, etc ...

Learning in this model is seen as an affective and cognitive process handled by the learner himself which brings him to understand language (use and usage) principles and "to an ability to act upon them" (Widdowson 1983:18). Proficiency Achievement and Performance

are some of its external observable effects. Competence is one of the internal effects. In this view, learning is conditioned by a certain amount of Perseverance (in the sense of this study (cf 2.3.4.1)) whose role is integrative (i.e. to help the learner to integrate the different experiences of learning for specific purposes, gained in the struggle or while struggling with different tasks), and results from the learner's Language Experience and his development of Learning and/or Communication Strategies referred to as LELS (Language Experience and Learning Strategy). It is assumed that LEARNING-ACQUISITION in turn affects PERSEVERANCE, thus allowing the cycle PERSEVERANCE, LELS, and LEARNING-ACQUISITION, referred to as the Dynamic of Learning or indeed of Learning and/or Acquisition (cf 2.3.3.0).

The learning process as a whole constitutes a feedback-loop system where what has been learned appears to have an impact on the learner as a whole (i.e. on the different aspects of the learner's life through himself) and establishes a self-regulating servo-mechanism (the feedback-loop system, that is). This is shown in the model by the arrow from the LEARNING-ACQUISITION box to the left hand series of connected boxes representing the learner and his background.

The argument underlying this model views Perseverance as the key to Learning and/or Language Acquisition: it helps or urges the learner to look for learning strategies and techniques that he needs to learn and achieve his learning objectives and/or purposes; it helps or forces the learner to perform or interact and use his new or newly acquired or learned language. But since Perseverance is only subsequent to motivation (cf 2.1.2), discussion of Motivation proves essential when dealing with it. This is what justifies our

focus on both Motivation and Perseverance, on the one hand, and on Incentive and Activity-Enjoyment as 'activators' of Motivation and Perseverance, to make teaching and learning other languages more enjoyable.

2.3.3.2 The (SP)² Approach: What is It?

The (SP)² approach is conceived of as the approach whereby aspects of Motivation can be incorporated into a language syllabus and in learning materials in terms of sociocultural, psychological and linguistic content, and thus strike some balance between the 'Motivation-Activity' relationship and motivation as a by-product of methodology and textbook structure. It deals with 'Specific Purposes' (SP1) and the learner's 'cognitive representations', and thus relates to Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) seen as an approach (cf 1.2.1.3) and to Social Psychology (SP2).

If we take the view that language and society are inter-dependent and not dichotomies, and that cognitive representations described as the way people cognitively represent (that is, the idea people have of) their

Social and psychological characteristics and subjectively define the situation in terms of its norms and their goals as is any objective classification of that situation imposed from without...

Giles 1982:viii

are "important mediators between language and social context" (loc cit) and between goals or objectives and the meaning they take for the learner and his purposes (cf 2.2), then it is sensible to think of ESP or LSP as an approach not only in terms of 'process-orientation' but also in terms of learners' learning-habit as a base and orientation

of the approach. ESP then, seen as an approach, is not only process-oriented but also 'learners' learning-habit' based and oriented, in which case it includes most, if not all, ESP's present orientations. In this sense ESP is educational in nature and skill oriented in scope, that is: both educational and training oriented and minimises the Education-Training and Specific-General dichotomies. This justifies the SP for 'Specific Purposes' referred to here as SP1, and for 'Social Psychological' referred to as SP2, in the '(SP)² Approach'.

By 'learner's learning-habit based and oriented' is meant that teaching approaches (as opposed to learning approaches) and the learning materials in which they appear should ultimately be based on the idea the learner has of learning in his own environment (the learner's concept of learning, that is) and should aim to meet that concept as it is reflected in his society or learning situation and context. This is the expression of the static or stable aspect of teaching and learning and/or education. The process-oriented side of the SP1 approach is what can be regarded as the changing or dynamic aspect of teaching and learning, and/or education. These aspects together correspond to one of the three features or characteristics of culture and society, that culture and, by ricochet, society is both dynamic and stable. This is also true of language. The other two features of culture are that culture is universal and an unconscious phenomenon. Since education deals with people and society or people in society and therefore with culture (at least partially), it should be able to incorporate and reflect the object or target of its essence (i.e. people-society-culture). It follows that education should be at the same time universal (though specific), dynamic and stable, and unconsciously absorbed.

An approach by its very nature as a product of man is specific but also universal (since man is both specific and universal). This implies that an SP1 approach or E/LSP seen as an approach is or should be universal. An SP1 approach which is simultaneously process-oriented and learner's learning-habit based and oriented would then be educational and therefore, universal, dynamic and stable, and would operate unconsciously, i.e. its effects on the learner would be unconscious. Its degree of training capability will vary according to the specificity of the purpose and the specificity of the learning environment at hand. A course designed through such an approach will fit (a) the learner's cultural background, (b) the objectives and aspirations of his society, and (c) the learner's cognitive and affective characteristics, all of which affect (directly or indirectly) motivation to learn as Figs. 2.3 and 2.4 show. The implication is that for learning to take place, a course should satisfy the learner (a) culturally, (b) socially and/or societally, (c) psychologically, and of course (d) linguistically in the case of language learning. This is where the (SP)² Approach becomes essentially social psychological as it focuses on the learner's 'cognitive representations' and cognitive and affective variables shown in the conceptual framework (Fig. 2.4).

The (SP)² Approach thus described aims to exploit the learner's 'cognitive representations' and the meaning objectives and goals have for the learner so that they help him meet the purposes for which he learns English or indeed any other language, by complying with the learner's concept of learning and the socially constructed significance/cultural value of the formal system' (cf Brumfit 1983:68) and moving from there to target-language use. And since any educational process aims at a certain desirable type of change, the (SP)² Approach

will help us accommodate the learners' liberty or freedom and exploit their Motivation and Perseverance in what Brumfit (1983:187-92) describes as a product-based syllabus. The empirical data (collected partly for this purpose) along with the information provided in Chapters Three and Four is meant to provide us with clues to the approach.

2.3.4 Definition of the Key-concepts: Perseverance, Learning, Incentive and Activity-Enjoyment

2.3.4.1 Perseverance

With the definition of motivation provided earlier in mind, it is possible to define 'Perseverance' as the learner's ability:

- (a) to keep on organising and reorganising his motives for one or more specific purposes as these change in the course of his learning; and,
- (b) to deal with crisis points and/or situations as they occur.

Alternatively, by way of implication, Perseverance can be defined as the individual's ability to develop and use the learning and communication strategies that he requires to achieve his purposes. By definition 'Perseverance' refers to a:

... refusal to be discouraged by failure, doubts, or difficulties, and a steadfast or dogged pursuit of an end or an undertaking.

Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms 1968:606

Our definition of the concept as the learner's ability to tackle a crisis adds to the usual definition found in dictionaries, and focusses on the organisational and instantaneous abilities of the learner or the individual to deal with difficulties, doubts, or failures in his "refusal to be discouraged and his steadfast or dogged

pursuit of an end or an undertaking'. In this sense Perseverance is either a natural quality or a quality learned or acquired from school or from society at large, and is therefore the responsibility of the learner, but the responsibility can be shared with the teacher. This view of Perseverance has to be distinguished, however, from the 'social' type of Perseverance observed in most developing countries or among immigrants in industrialised or developed countries as the basis of drop outs in schools. The factors affecting this type of Perseverance or rather lack of it are mainly socioeconomic and therefore out of the learner's control, or competence to handle, irrespective of the nature of whatever incentive may be present. Thus, Perseverance can be defined in social or in psychological terms, or both in social and psychological terms. In this thesis the emphasis is rather on the psychological view of the concept as it is this type of Perseverance that the learner himself, assisted by the teacher and the learning material, or by society at large can control.

2.3.4.2 The Concept of Learning

The underlying Learning concept or theory from which the definition of Perseverance derives views language learning as a problem-solving process or a process in which the learner develops and uses (and vice versa) strategies to solve communication and learning problems. It follows that language in this view is a series of problems to be solved. This point justifies the linking of motivation and the role of 'incentive' in the chain of the learning process (Fig. 2.3), and allows us to move on and look at the other two leading concepts that the (SP)² Approach is meant to take account of.

2.3.4.3 Incentive and Activity-Enjoyment

Like 'Perseverance', Incentive and Activity Enjoyment can be defined in social or in psychological terms, or in both social and psychological terms. In this thesis we are inclined to look at them as both social and psychological phenomena, since they are under the learner's control and depend upon the learning context and setting in both cases, i.e. irrespective of whether the concepts are seen from the social or from the psychological point of view.

Definition of 'Incentive'

Incentive, here, is seen as the realisation of Motivation and the generative force of continuous and/or increasing motivation and perseverance, which it is indeed by definition. Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms (1968) refers to it as applying especially to a cause "for which the person affected is not himself responsible or which does not originate within himself". In learning other languages, the factors which influence the incentive are related to the classroom and/or to society at large and their resultants, one of which is what is referred to as 'Activity-Enjoyment' (cf 2.3.3.1).

Definition of 'Activity-Enjoyment'

Activity-Enjoyment can be defined in social terms as the pleasure of being a member of a group and the satisfaction resulting from the interaction. In psychological terms, it is regarded as the pleasure of struggling with a task or a problem and the satisfaction resulting from solving it.

With these definitions in mind, we are ready to approach and discuss the empirical data.

2.4 Summary

This chapter has attempted to look at the role of motivation in the syllabus and, more particularly, in learning materials, and the relation which obtains between Motivation and Perseverance. It is also an attempt to offer a viable operative or pedagogic definition of Motivation. It leads to the description of the hypotheses of this study, the description of the conceptual framework meant to test the hypotheses, and the suggestion of an approach to the direct use of Motivation and Perseverance in learning materials. It ends with the definition of the key words 'Perseverance, Learning, Incentive and Activity-Enjoyment, in the light of the conceptual framework and the hypotheses.

We have gathered that motivation is an important factor in language learning (2.1.1) indirectly accounted for in learning materials as a function of the material and the design of activities rather than part of the actual material, be it in terms of attitude training (2.2.2). We have noticed that Motivation or 'attitudinal/motivational variables' (along with aptitude) are related to Perseverance for the very reason that attitudes are related to achievement in languages other than one's own (2.1.2). This point suggests that Perseverance in learning other languages is crucial to the extent that we have hypothesised that achievement in other languages depends heavily upon the learners' Perseverance (Hypothesis 1 and 3). Hypotheses 2 and 5 are particularly concerned with the incorporation of elements of 'Motivation and Perseverance' in the learning materials in a more satisfactory or direct and effective way. Hypothesis 4 is rather a statement of the integration of the different dynamics operating in the learning process. These hypotheses are falsified if one or

more of the dynamics suggested in the model (cf Fig. 2.3 and/or 2.4) are proved false. The 'SP-Squared Approach' is suggested to implement or put to use the findings of the investigation if they support the model (Fig. 2.4). The suggestions for the approach hold from the implications of the attitude/motivation theory for other-language teaching (2.1.3) that we need more than learner-centred approaches, that we need learning-centred approaches. They also hold from the specific purpose discussion (1.2.1.3).

More than anything else, the chapter has revealed what we have referred to as "the pedagogic concept of Motivation". It consists of links freely made by the learner (with or without the help of the teacher) to start and maintain the course of an action or activity for one or more specific purposes, reflected in the learner's goals. This view of the concept of 'Motivation' has led to the definition that Motivation is the process whereby the learners or the individuals make sense of their behaviour; or the process through which the learners assign meaning and purpose to what they want to do, or what they actually are doing. Thus, Motivation is seen as the organisation of motives for one or more specific purposes reflected in the learners' goals. Once again the concept of Freedom comes into play. It is indeed associated with Motivation in that the learners interpret or are bound to interpret for themselves the meaning of the activity they engage in as well as organising their work to achieve their goals (cf 2.3.3). We have already said that the learner, as a human being, is indeed free to use his intellectual, cognitive, and affective abilities along with any other relevant abilities to learn or indeed not to learn (cf 1.3). Freedom is thus central to the notion of Motivation in Language Learning. It is the basis of the learner's

sense of challenge accounted for by his dignity as a member of a social group, his desire for social recognition, and his need for survival (often referred to as integrative and instrumental orientations of motivation).

Finally, the chapter has provided us with an insight into the problem which initiated it, that is, that the teaching of English is ineffective, not functional, in Zaire. The reason, teachers think, is that pupils are not motivated to learn. The present study suggests that the reason is rather lack of Perseverance because the teachers kill the learners' Motivation. To stop teachers killing the learners' motivation we have suggested the SP-Squared or $(SP)^2$ Approach whereby the learners' Motivation and Perseverance is to be exploited. Part Two provides us with what is required of the SP-Squared Approach in practice.

PART TWO

COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

OF THE

EMPIRICAL DATA

CHAPTER THREE: COLLECTING THE EMPIRICAL DATA

The Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is mainly concerned with the description of the fieldwork and of the empirical instruments used to carry it out. The first section of the chapter describes the instruments; the second deals with the fieldwork and the administration of the instruments. They consist of questionnaires, interviews, discussions, and classroom observation. They have been conceived in the light of much of what we have discussed in the first part of the thesis, and put together within the conceptual framework described above (cf 2.3.3.1). The reason being that they are meant to test the model (the conceptual framework) and to provide us with the necessary information and insight for the exploitation of Motivation and Perseverance in learning materials.

3.1 Description of the Empirical Instruments

3.1.0 Introduction

The instruments for collecting the data consist of three questionnaires, an interview flow-chart, notes on discussions and classroom observation. They benefit from diverse influences: sociolinguistic, social psychological, and educational or pedagogic. The main sociolinguistic influence comes from discussions of bilingualism and multilingualism and the notion of domain as discussed by Fishman (1971), Sankoff (1971) and others (cf Pride and Holmes, (eds) 1972). It is reflected in Section One of Questionnaires Two and Three, and Sections One and Two of the Learners' Questionnaire,

i.e. Questionnaire One (cf Appendix I). The social psychological influence is mainly from Gardner, Clément, Smythe and Smythe's Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (Gardner et al 1979) to which Section III of the students' questionnaire owes its structure and most of the content. The pedagogic or educational influence comes from various sources among which Fadil (1975) and Bertrand (1970) whose work inspired the last section of the learners' questionnaire and parallel sections in 'Questionnaire Two', for instance Section II and Section VI. The content of the Teachers' Questionnaire is, for the most part, adapted from Williams' appendix to his article, 'Developing criteria for textbook evaluation' (Williams 1983). The appendix is, in fact, a checklist for textbook evaluation. In this sense Questionnaire Three is mainly a pedagogic instrument. Another influence I should like to acknowledge is Swekila's on matters related to Zairean languages and their evaluation in Questionnaire One and Two (Swekila 1981: Questionnaire).

The interviews, discussions, and classroom observation are mainly intended as a cross-check and as feedback for the information collected in the questionnaires.

Gardner et al's AMTB is a questionnaire validated and standardised on samples of anglophone Canadian students in Grade 7-11 consisting of approximately 1000 students at each level from seven regions across Canada. It is concerned with the assessment of 'the non-linguistic skills' of students (cf Gardner et al 1979:1-2). It measures or, in their own terms:

... provides estimates of four composite attitudinal/motivational variables which have shown

consistent relationships with various aspects of second language acquisition ...

Gardner et al 1979:1

and the measures are derived from eleven scales described in their 'Appendix 1'. The eleven scales are:

- (1) French class anxiety concerned with the subject's "degree of discomfort while participating in the French class",
- (2) Attitudes toward French Canadians,
- (3) Interest in foreign languages,
- (4) Instrumental orientation,
- (5) Integrative orientation,
- (6) Attitudes towards learning French,
- (7) Attitudes towards European French people,
- (8) Motivational intensity,
- (9) Desire to learn French,
- (10) French Teacher-Evaluative, and
- (11) French Teacher-Rapport.

The four composite indices (or attitudinal/motivational variables) derived from the above eleven scales are (cf Gardner et al 1979:2): (a) Integrativeness, measured through Samples 2, 3, 5, and 7; (b) Motivation, "assessed in terms of the amount of effort the individual expends in learning French, his desire to learn French and his attitudes toward learning French" and by means of scales 8, 9, and 6 respectively, (c) Attitudes toward the learning situation, consisting of students' evaluations of the French teacher and French course, thus involving scales 10 and 11, and (d) Attitude/Motivational Index (AMI), consisting of "all items from the above three indices plus measures of French classroom anxiety (negatively weighted) and Instrumentality". In other words, AMI is assessed by means of scales 1 and 4, and all the other scales. In this sense the battery is mainly concerned with AMI after which, as a matter of fact, it is named.

Fadil's questionnaire is mainly concerned with measuring Sudanese pupils' motivation/attitude towards English and consists of six parts (cf Fadil 1975:27-8). Part One is designed to collect such data as the respondents' names, whether they are day or boarding pupils, their year of study etc. In short, Part One deals with the respondents' personal details. Parts Two to Six focus on the attitudinal aspect of the questionnaire. Part Two measures the pupils' attitudes towards English. Part Three referred to as 'Orientation Index' after Lambert (1972) aims to test "if the dichotomy of 'instrumental' and 'integrative' orientation (holds) true for Sudanese pupils" (Fadil 1975:29-30). Part Four concerns itself with "the pupils' study habits", and measures things like the learners' regularity in studying, and how hard they study, how prepared they are to do their assignments etc. Part Five, labelled 'Desire to learn English scale' is a 'five-point scale' consisting of 'nine items', each related to a "skill that any pupil learning English would aspire to acquire" (Fadil 1975:31). The object of this scale is said "to assess the relative popularity" of each of the skills in question. Part Six, referred to as 'Quality of course scale' seeks to weigh the pupils' satisfaction with the different aspects of the English Language Course.

Bertrand's 'Portrait du professeur de langue idéal' inspired our paragraph on the ideal teacher of English (cf Questionnaires One and Two in Appendix I). His paper is in fact a classification of qualities it is thought a teacher should have, based on responses given by some 288 learners of German to the question "Wie Stellen Sie sich den idealen Sprachlehrer vor?" (How do you imagine an ideal language teacher?) The question was asked as part of a proficiency or placement test for the 'Ecoles nationales supérieures d'Ingénieurs

Art et M \acute{e} tiers'. The objective or aim of the question was to find out what students expect from teachers, an idea adopted and expanded in the part of the instrument referring to Bertand's work.

Our questionnaires thus adopted or adapted aspects of the above described pieces of work to meet the purposes they were designed to meet; that is, to test the conceptual framework (Fig 2.4) and to provide us with clues about which aspects of Motivation and Perseverance to exploit in the classroom and how; but they are not exclusively based on the work adopted and/or adapted.

3.1.1 Questionnaire One: the Learners' Questionnaire

The Learners' Questionnaire consists of five sections:

(1) Personal Details; (2) Learners' Linguistic Profile; (3) Affective factors measure: Motivation and Perseverance assessment; (4) Learners' wishes and desires; and (5) The Learners' attitudes towards the learning situation. Section Four is subdivided into three subsections concerned with the abilities to be developed (subsection 1), the course content and activities (subsection 2), and the teacher (subsection 3).

Section Five is also divided into three. Subsection One deals with the learners' evaluation of the English course, the second subsection with the teacher, and the third with the textbook.

3.1.1.1 Personal Details

This section aims at collecting the maximum information about the learner. The information includes items about the learners' identification, school and class identification, age and sex, place of birth, religion, the learners' mother tongue(s) and the national languages they can speak, the number of years of French and English

study completed at the moment the learners filled out the questionnaire, etc (cf Questionnaire One in Appendix I).

(a) The learners' identification

The learners' identification includes the learners' names and, more importantly, their status: whether they are day or boarding school pupils or have a 'gong unique' (i.e. one session a day, either in the morning or in the afternoon) or a double session (i.e. morning and afternoon). This gives us a clue as to the type of school the learners go to and leads us to the next subsection. The type of school the learners go to is particularly important as afternoon learners might always be tired before school, and this would affect their learning.

(b) School identification

This subsection involves the school name, but more importantly the type of administration to which it belongs. Whether the school is administered by a religious group or by the state is an important detail in the Zairean education system for reasons related to the history of schooling and the system of education (cf 0.1.2 and/or Lubasa 1982: Ch 1; Kita 1982; Masiala 1981; Hull 1979; George 1966; Sloan 1962).

(c) Class identification

This is mainly concerned with class level (first to sixth year of schooling), the option, and the section the learners attend. The latter are in fact related to the subjects taught to the learners. Whether a learner is in the fifth or sixth year of secondary school might not make much difference as far as their motivation and their ability

to cope with difficult situations are concerned. But the matter is different when it comes to their options and sections or subject course of study.

(d) Age and Sex

Motivation and Perseverance vary according to the learners' age and sex (cf Lubasa 1983 or 1984:36).

(e) Birthplace

This variable is thought to be important because the history of the teaching system established two types of schools: one for rural people, the other for urban people; and two categories, day and boarding schools. Boarding schools are thought to be better equipped and even organised than day schools. The point about asking the learners' place of birth is that, although the distinction between rural and urban schools is not so obvious nowadays, those who attend them are nevertheless aware of their urban, provincial or rural origins and this awareness is reflected in everything the learners do in or outside the classroom. Birthplace is also an indication of the learners' range of mobility in space.

(f) Religion

The learners' religion has an influence on their behaviour in general but also on their motives for learning English in particular. A committed Protestant for instance will be inclined to learn more English than a Muslim, as most Protestant missionaries are anglophones or have anglophone background. Although the Muslim learner will still learn English, the Protestant learners might not want or feel the urgency to learn any Arabic for instance.

(g) Permanent Residence

Many Zairean students do not study in their home areas as schools are not a commonplace everywhere in the country. After primary school (which often is in the learners' home area), most children who go to secondary school leave their homes either for a boarding school (generally located in the province or a rural area) or for a day school in a town where the learners either have relatives to stay with, or rent a bedsit (a small room) (cf Lubasa 1982:91). This movement exposes the learners to more languages and has an effect on their attitude to other peoples and their languages.

The information about the learners' permanent residence is indicative of the learners' mobility within their own society and serves as a cross-check about the languages they speak. This mobility has some influence on the learners' motivation and perseverance, if only external, societal, or attitudinal (See also Chapter 4).

(h) Languages

This subsection consists of three further subdivision:

- (a) the languages spoken by the learners including the mother tongue(s);
- (b) the number of years spent on formal learning of French and English;
- and (c) self evaluation of the competence in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing the languages spoken.

Information about the local languages the respondents use is informative about their attitude towards the other local, national and other languages, English included. The number of years the respondents have been learning French together with their self-evaluation gives us a clue about the learners' aptitude and, more importantly,

about their attitude towards learning it. The information is indicative of the learners' pre-disposition to persevere. The information about the number of years spent on learning English along with the self-evaluation confirms or disproves the point about the learners' perseverance and the learning of other languages. Self-evaluation of language competence is particularly informative of the level of understanding to expect of the learners in dealing with the questionnaire, i.e. how reliable their responses are in view of their competence in French. This is double checked in their linguistic profile (cf 3.1.1.2). Most importantly the respondents wishing to improve their competence in English are expected to rate themselves more favourably than others with regard to the four language skills; which is an indication of positive attitudes and motivation for further learning (Murchu 1984:145).

(i) Family Status

Whether the family is monogamous or polygamous has some bearing on the learner. Although there is no evidence about it in connection with language learning, this questionnaire might prove or disprove the point.

(j) Parents' Level of Education and Religion

In as much as parents influence their children (cf Gardner 1979, 1981) checking what is fundamental in parents, i.e. their education and their faith, is essential.

3.1.1.2 The Learners' Linguistic Profile

This section aims to establish the degree of multilingualism of the learners since this is liable to affect their attitudes, motivation and perseverance. It consists of six questions: Questions One to Six (cf Appendix I,1)

(a) Question One (Variables 32-45)

This question has thirteen variables concerned with understanding, speaking, reading and writing the mother-tongue(s), the national languages and a few other European languages among which are French and English. It is intended to establish the degree of the learners' multilingualism and possible multiculturalism.

(b) Questions Two and Three (Variables 46-7)

Question Two collects information about the respondents' origins (rural or urban) and is in a sense a cross-check of the information about their permanent residence (cf 3.1.1.1, g), while it informs us along with Question Three about the learners' familial background. Question Three is mainly related to the fathers' occupation, and tells us along with Question Two, the type of social background the learners come from (cf Bernstein, 1965, 1970, 1977).

(c) Questions Four and Five (Variables 48-56/57-66)

Questions Four and Five are concerned with the respondents' abilities to use the mother tongue(s) and/or the national or local languages and the foreign languages at home (Question Four) and outside home with friends (Question Five). Question Four is constituted by nine items (variables 48 to 56) and Question Five by ten items (variables 57 to 66). The intention in using these questions is to identify the domains for/in which the respondents use the specific languages they know, and the skills and mediums they use when they speak the languages in question. They are cross-checks of the learners' degree of multilingualism.

(d) Question Six (Variables 67-72)

Question Six consists of six variables and aims to identify the learners' domains of oral language use outside home settings.

It is like Questions Four and Five, a cross-check of the learners' language profile.

3.1.1.3 Section Three: Motivation and Perseverance Assessment

3.1.1.3.0 Introduction

This section is mainly after Gardner et al's AMTB and is adapted to measure Motivation and Perseverance. It consists of eight scales or subscales: (a) Attitude and Interest; (b) FL Course Anxiety; (c) Learning experience/strategies; (d) Learning purposes; (e) Motives; (f) Readiness/Willingness scale; (g) Achievement and Perseverance; and (h) the Activity-Enjoyment and Incentive scale. They are contained in four interrelated indices. These are 'Motivation Conditioning', (b) the Motivation Index, (c) the Perseverance Index, and (d) the Activity-Enjoyment and Incentive Index. They are so interrelated that some scales could just as easily be included in two or more indices. The learning purpose scale is an example. The items of each scale are randomly dispersed throughout the section to avoid 'set'. The summary or outline of the questionnaire (cf 3.1.1.6) shows how this has been done.

Learning purposes are considered as conditions for motivation to occur. However, they could well be used to measure the learners' motives for learning and therefore appear under the 'Motivation Index'. Similarly, the items under the 'Perseverance Index' could well make sense as measures of 'Motivation Conditioning'. The decision about which scale goes into which index is a matter of choice based on predominance of the content of the scale. If the content of the scale is predominantly about Motivation (in the Learning-purposes scale instance), then the scale goes into the Motivation Index, if not then it remains in the 'Motivation Conditioning Index'.

In this questionnaire the learning purpose scale accounts for reasons why learners learn or want English but it does not tell us whether these are the actual reasons why they are currently learning. The point here is: if learning purposes turn out to be the actual reasons and therefore the motives for current learning then they can measure Motivation, otherwise they are only purposes for concurrent learning and can only measure the conditions for Motivation to occur. This is, in our opinion, what misleads those who talk of Motivation in terms of instrumental and integrative orientations, as the AMTB by Gardner et al (1979) suggests.

3.1.1.3.1 Motivation Conditioning

This index is made of four scales consisting of a varied number of items which can further be distinguished. The four scales are (a) Attitude and Interest, with five subscales themselves further subdivided, (b) OL course anxiety, (c) Learning experience or strategies (past and present), and (d) learning purposes. Below is a detailed account of them.

(a) Attitude and Interest scale

This scale is made of four subscales each with further subdivisions:

1. Attitude and/or interest in Foreign Languages

This scale consists of six items subdivided into two groups as 'general' (items 8, 30, 48) and 'English versus French (items 25, 42 and 51) where English is worded positively except in item 51.

2. Attitude and/or Interest in English and learning English

This subscale consists of three subdivisions containing a different number of items. The first subdivision, Interest in English, contains five items (items 20, 24, 35, 47 and 70) of which one (item 70) is negatively worded. Items 24 and 47 refer to reasons for the interest (reading journals written in English and listening to English broadcasting for item 24, and curiosity for item 47) while the others do not. The second subdivision of the subscale refers to the learners' attitude towards English lessons (or learning situation) and contains two items (items 43 and 46) negatively expressed. The third is concerned with Attitudes/interest in learning English and consists of nine items (items 11, 19, 28, 34, 40, 57, 61, 64, 67). Among them, five are worded negatively and have therefore to have their scores reflected in order to calculate the total score related to the subdivision (cf Gardner et al 1979:7 for details about reflection).

3. Attitude and/or Interest in Zairean Languages

The intention here is to measure the ethnocentricity of Zairean learners and the value they ascribe to foreign languages. This would serve as an indication of the status of the foreign languages and local languages involved in Zairean society. Subdivision one of the scale concerns itself with this point. Four of its five items are positively worded for Zairean languages and negatively for the foreign ones. These are items

7, 13, 60 and 66. Item 84 is neutral in that it asks learners to allocate values of importance to those languages they think are most useful for the development of Zairean society. The second subdivision deals with the attitude towards the Zairean languages for national use (items 16 and 36) and includes five preferential items (items 26, 33, 45, 53 and 59) questioning the learners' inclination for the four national languages and French, thus linking up with subdivision one especially with item 84.

4. Attitude towards Peoples

This subscale is meant to check attitudes and some opinions people hold of Africans, Americans, Anglophones in general and Europeans. The attitude towards other people and peoples may affect Motivation and this is explicitly investigated through item 18 concerned with the relationship between attitude towards the Americans and the British and the desire to learn their language.

The subscale contains six items gathered into three subgroups:

- (a) Attitude towards African Anglophones (item 31 supplemented by item 17 belonging to the 'Motive for learning scale'),
- (b) Attitude towards Americans and Europeans (items 15, 21 and 69, where 15 and 21 are negatively worded and item 69 discriminates between the Americans and the Europeans),
- (c) Attitudes towards Anglophones in general and the American and the British in particular (items 18 and 68, where item 18 considers the learners' desire to learn English based on the attitude towards the anglophones).

(b) OL Course Anxiety

This is a four-item scale (items 12, 23, 41 and 50) intended to measure the subjects' degrees of comfort or discomfort while participating in the English class with the minimum score (4) reflecting minimum comfort and score 20 reflecting minimum discomfort, i.e. maximum comfort (cf Gardner et al (1979) Appendix 1).

(c) Learning Experience and Strategies (Learning-Past experience)

This is a three-item scale (items 10, 56 and 63) intended to measure reference to previous learning and/or language experience in terms of strategies (for communication or otherwise). The maximum score (score 15) reflects minimum reliance on previous experience. The response here is cross-checked with the multiple choice item 73.

(d) Purpose for Learning

Here we are confronted with the problem of deciding which items to consider, which not, and why, since learning purposes, it was said earlier (cf 3.1.1.3.0) can well make sense as a measure of Motivation understood as a process, facilitated by the learners' readiness and willingness to act, whereby the learners subscribe to one or more purposes and ascribe meaning to an action. In this case learning purposes must be the motives for learning and belong ipso facto to the Motivation index.

Gardner et al's instrument would use items 9, 14, 17, 22, 27, 32, 36, 39, 44, 49, 54 and 58 to measure or assess Motivation orientation i.e. integrativeness or instrumentality. It so happens that items 9, 17, 36 and 54 are presented in such a way that it questions the actual reasons, i.e. the motives, for the

current learning of English. The other eight items are presented in a way which focusses on the purpose rather than the actual motive. The reason they all appear under the same scale is, I guess, that they are mutually interchangeable: the motives can be worded in a way which denotes purposes and vice versa. We are then open to two possibilities: either to compute the twelve items as items of the 'learning purpose subscale' twice (once under Motivation Conditioning and once under the motivation index) to minimise any effect of the Gardner et al's instrument, or to use an alternative assessment where items 9, 17, 36 and 54 would account for the Motivation Index and the remaining for the Motivation Conditioning. In this case the motives for learning would double-check the purposes for learning and substantiate (at least partly) our definition of Motivation. This thesis opts for the alternative.

With the alternative, learning purposes will consist of eight items (items 14, 22, 27, 32, 39, 44, 49 and 58) set to assess the learners' Motivation Orientation à la Lambert and Gardner. Not because we accept the integrative-instrumental distinction which makes sense in the Canadian or similar context, but for need of an operative frame of reference, since some students might not be integratively or instrumentally oriented. Furthermore, integrativeness is instrumental in that the learners use English or their knowledge of English as an instrument for their integration in an English speaking community. Therefore, the contrast integrative-instrumental is irrelevant here though the concepts of integrativeness and instrumentality are accepted and regarded as different degrees of instrumentality if not as instrumental orientations of different natures as the distribution of the items of the Learning Purpose

subscale' tend to show. Among the eight items mentioned above, three (items 27, 32 and 44) are designed to measure the Integrative Orientation of the learners; two (items 14 and 49) are designed to measure their Instrumental Orientation. One of the questions (item 58) is both integrative and instrumental in content and therefore measures both orientations. Items 22 and 29 are neither instrumental nor integrative, or rather cannot be rated in terms of integrativeness and instrumentality. They can, however, be instrumental in the sense pointed out above with respect to the concept of integrativeness, that the learners use English or their knowledge of English for a purpose. In the case of items 22 and 29 the purpose is related to Prestige in society and some sort of self-prestige and satisfaction, a sense of egocentrism. In this sense items 22 and 29, along with items 44 and 58 measure aspects of the subjects' personalities. Thus the alternative 'learning purpose scale' not only assesses the learners' Motivation Orientation but also aspects of their personality. This argument suggests that 'Integrativeness' as a concept is an affect-based type of Instrumental Orientation and 'instrumentality' à la Lambert and Gardner is the social or societal-based type of Instrumental Orientation thus supporting the hypothesis that 'Integrativeness' and 'Instrumentality' are Instrumental Orientations of different natures, or, to avoid the word 'instrument', they are utilitarian orientations of different natures.

The sum total of this scale along with the sums of the other scales described above provide an estimate of the learners' conditions which are likely to influence his Motivation and serve as the 'deep-structure' of their Motivation and Perseverance.

3.1.1.3.2 Motivation Index

This index is obtained with the sum of two scales related to the three components of Motivation suggested in our conceptual framework and defined in connection with it. The scales are: the Motive Scale and the 'Readiness-Willingness Scale'.

(a) Motive Scale

The motive scale has been described above and consists of four items (items 9, 17, 36 and 54) intended to see how 'personal' or 'impersonal' the learners' motives are. That is, how internal or external his motives are. The internal or personal motives are those which are directly affected by the learners' affect whereas the external or impersonal motives are mainly societal. This distinction is parallel to the distinction drawn above between the concepts of integrativeness (internal or personal) and instrumentality (external or impersonal). It goes without saying that a motive can be both internal and external. All of these are what the motive scale attempts to measure.

(b) Readiness/Willingness Scale

Like Gardner et al's Motivational Intensity scale (after which the present scale is designed) the Readiness-Willingness scale consists of multiple choice items. They are twelve in number designed not "to measure the intensity of a student's Motivation to learn..." (Gardner et al 1979: Appendix 1) but rather to measure the amount of readiness or preparedness and volition or willingness put into classroom work for learning purposes. These can be interpreted in terms of the "effort being spent in acquiring the language" (loc cit) as Gardner et al do. But this cannot reduce the impact of volition and the learner's predisposition to produce the effort in question.

Readiness and Willingness can well stand as separate scales. The decision to keep them together in only one scale comes from the fact that these two components are closely related and that the items that the scale includes reflect both components. We would suggest, however, that items 72, 74, 75, 77 and 82 are more related to the readiness aspect of the scale and that items 71, 76, 78, 80 and 81 are more related to the willingness aspect of the scale. High scores in each of these subscales would suggest a smaller chance that the learners will get positive incentives from their classroom work and persevere.

3.1.1.3.3 Perseverance Index

This index consists of four items (29, 37, 52 and 55) of which two (items 29 and 37) are negatively worded. A low score in this index reflects the learners' tendency or readiness and willingness to struggle with tasks until they succeed. A high score then will reflect the fragility of their readiness and willingness to struggle and reveal the degree of likelihood that the learners will drop out. The index is double-checked with item 77 of the Readiness-Willingness scale and item 83 of the 'Activity-Enjoyment (and Incentive) Index'.

3.1.1.3.4 Activity-Enjoyment (and Incentive) Index

This index consists of two straight forward statements (items 62 and 65) and a multiple choice item (item 83). It measures 'Activity-Enjoyment' and 'Incentive' - related to Motivation and Perseverance. In other words, it is a measure of Motivation and Perseverance on the basis on the incentive subsequently from the enjoyment of learning activities. Scores Three or Four here suggest that the learning activities produce positive incentive and sustain Perseverance. Higher scores, therefore, suggest that the activities

kill the learners' motivation (i.e. they provide no, or negative incentive which subsequently kills the learners' motivation) and subsequent perseverance.

The sum total of the four indices described here provide an estimate of the learners' Motivation and Perseverance as relevant at the moment of data collection.

3.1.1.4 Section IV: Learners' Wishes and Desires

This section consists of three parts all related to aspects of the classroom. The first concerns learning aims and objectives, the second deals with approaches to the aims and objectives, and the third with the teacher as a helper or facilitator of learning.

3.1.1.4.1 Desired Abilities and Activities

The first and second parts of Section IV are in effect aspects of the same index. The first part measures the skills or abilities the learners wish to develop and Part Two assesses the means whereby the learners expect to reach the skills and/or abilities. In this sense these two parts are two scales of the same index that we would like to name 'Course Orientation Index' or just 'Desired Abilities and Activities'. The Course Orientation Index thus consists of two scales: (a) Desired Skills and/or Abilities (items 85-96) and (b) Desired Learning Activities and/or Devices (items 97-114).

(a) Desired Skills and/or Abilities

This scale is made up of twelve items one of which (item 96) is open-ended for the learners to enter any of the skills and/or abilities they wished to work for that are not mentioned in the scale.

Subscales of this scale are:

1. Everyday use of language in speaking and understanding spoken language, reading and/or writing: items 85, 92, 94 and 95.
2. Use of English for specific purposes in speaking and understanding spoken language, reading and/or writing: items 86, 87 and 93)
3. Educational use of English: for cultural and/or literary purposes: items 88, 89, 90 and 91.

The scores of the open-ended entry of the scale are added to the above relevant subscales and the sum total of each subscale tells us about the orientation or the aims and objectives of the learners in terms of the skills and abilities aimed at.

(b) Desired Activities and/or Devices

This scale consists of seventeen items (items 97-113) grouped into four subscales and an open-ended item (item 114) of which scores are entered in the relevant subscale. The subscales are:

- (i) Study of language for communication (either everyday or specific): items 97, 100, 103, 106, 110 and 112;
- (ii) Study of language as a system: items 98, 99, and 107;
- (iii) Learning-strategy development or free individual and group work: items 101, 102, 104, 105, 109 and 113;

- (iv) Organisation/administrative changes: items 108 and 111.

The sum total of each of these subscales tells us about the learners' orientation in terms of necessary or required devices and/or activities to reach the aims and objectives striven for. The index itself is in addition indicative of the Zairean learners' concept of learning.

3.1.1.4.2 The Ideal Teacher of English

This scale has got two parts, an appreciative and a selective part. The appreciative consists of seventeen items (items 115-31) grouped into five subscales and five open items (items 132-6) for the learners to complete at will. The learners' scores on the added items are eventually entered in the appropriate scale to provide the image learners have of teachers. The scale on the whole is an assessment of the Zairean learners' concept of teaching.

The subscales of the first part are:

- (a) Teacher's Linguistic/Communicative Competence: items 115 and 116;
- (b) Teacher-Learner and Learner-Learner Relationship: items 117, 118, 119;
- (c) Course Management: items 120-22
- (d) Course Content: items 123-26
- (e) Methodology: items 127-31

Part Two of the scale allows the learners to select among their responses in Part One, five items which, according to them, are essential for a good language teacher and five others of those they regard as less important, i.e. the first five and the last five

in importance. Part Two together with the scores of Part One give us a clue to the sort of things learners expect teachers to do to feel comfortable (a prerequisite for Motivation) and involved (a prerequisite for Perseverance). These are classroom and individual conditions necessary for Activity-Enjoyment to occur and serve as an incentive, and for Motivation and Perseverance to be sustained and increased.

3.1.1.5 Section Five

Section Five of this questionnaire is meant to assess learners attitudes towards the learning situation especially the course, the coursebook and the teacher. It is in effect a double-check of the learners' orientation and image of the ideal teacher of English considered in the index just above. The section closes with a question on the qualities of an ideal learner or pupil aimed at collecting the ideas learners have of themselves to serve as a further clue to their concept of learning.

3.1.1.6 OUTLINE OF THE LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION ONE: Personal details

- 1.1 Respondents' identification
 - . Name (or case number)
 - . Status: day or boarding school; morning or double sessions
- 1.2 School identification
 - . School name
 - . Type of school
- 1.3 Class identification
 - . Section .. Option ... Level or grade

- 1.4 Age and Sex
- 1.5 Birthplace
- 1.6 Religion
- 1.7 Permanent Residence
- 1.8 Languages
 - . Languages used by the respondents
 - . Previous/past experience of formal learning (instruction) of other languages, expressed in terms of length or duration of instruction (of French and English)
 - . Competence self-evaluation
- 1.9 Family status
- 1.10 Parents' Religion and Education
 - . Fathers' education
 - . Mothers' education
 - . Religion

SECTION TWO: Learners' (or respondents') linguistic profile

- 2.1 Multi-lingualism/culturalism Index (variables 32-45)
- 2.2 Respondents' socio-cultural (or familial) background (Q's 2 and 3)
- 2.3 Domains of language use (Q's 4 to 6, i.e. variables 48-72)
 - . Home (Q 4)
 - . Outside home settings, with friends etc (Q5)
 - . Spoken medium (Q6)

SECTION THREE: Motivation and Perseverance (Items 7-84)

- 3.1 Motivation Conditions
 - . Attitude and Interest in:
 - (a) other languages (general): items 8, 30, 48

- (b) English vs French: items 25, 42, 51
- (c) English: items 20, 24, 35, 47, 70
 - (English lessons: items 43, 46
 - (learning English: items 11, 19, 28, 34, 40, 57, 61, 64, 67, 79
- (d) Zairean languages vs Foreign/European languages:
 - items 7, 13, 60, 66, 84
 - Zairean languages and the Nation: items 16, 26, 33, 38, 45, 53, 59
- (e) Peoples:
 - . Anglophone Africans: item 31
 - . Anglophones (in general), and the Americans and the British (in particular): item 68
 - . Americans and/or Europeans: items 15, 21
 - . American vs European: item 69
 - . Attitudes towards the Americans and British and desire to learn their language: item 18

.. OL Anxiety; items 12, 23, 41, 50

... Learning Experience/Strategy: items 10, 56, 63, 73

:: Learning purpose: items 14, 22, 27, 32, 39, 44, 49, 58

3.2 Motivation Index

- . Motive scale: items 9, 17, 36, 54
- : Readiness-Willingness scale:
 - Readiness: items 72, 74, 75, 77, 82
 - Willingness: items 71, 76, 78, 80, 81

3.3 Perseverance Index

Items 29, 37, 52, 55

3.4 Activity-Enjoyment

Items 62, 65, 83

SECTION FOUR: Learners' wishes and desires

- 4.1 Desired abilities and activities or course orientation
- . Desired skills and abilities:
 - Everyday use of English: items 85, 92, 94, 95
 - Use of English for specific purposes: items 86, 87, 93
 - Educational use of English (for cultural and literary purposes): items 88, 89, 90, 91

 - . Desired activities and/or devices:
 - Study of language through use or interaction: items 97, 100, 103, 106, 110, 112
 - Study of language as a system: items 98, 99, 107
 - Learning-strategy development or free individual and group work: items 101, 102, 104, 105, 109, 113
 - Organisational/administrative change: items 108, 111
- 4.2 The learners' image or concept of the ideal teacher of English or other languages:
- Teacher's linguistic (and communicative) competence: items 115, 116,
 - Teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships: items 117, 118, 119
 - Course management: items 120-122
 - Course content: items 123-126
 - Methodology: items 127-131

SECTION FIVE, Learners' attitudes towards the learning situation

- 5.1 The English Course
- 5.2 The Teacher of English
- 5.3 The English Textbook
- 5.4 The Learners' Image of the Ideal Learner

3.1.2 Questionnaire Two: Parents and Teachers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire, unlike the learners' questionnaire which investigates the learners' Motivation and Perseverance, is intended to collect data for a better understanding or interpretation of Zairean psychology in language matters, i.e. the Zaireans' concept of language learning and their attitude towards learning foreign languages and towards their own languages and learning them to support or as a support for learners' attitudes and interests in foreign and their own languages, and in learning them. This is a test of the idea that the social milieu influences the learners' affect and that Motivation and Perseverance are culture-bound.

The questionnaire contains six sections: (a) personal details, (b) the ideal learner, (c) the concept of learning and teaching foreign languages, (d) attitudes towards learning and teaching so-called national languages (e) national and other languages evaluation, and (f) the ideal teacher.

3.1.2.1 Section One: Personal Details

This section is intended to collect such information about the respondents as their identity, age and sex, the languages they speak and a self evaluation of their mastery of each of them (item 16), their religion and education or training, their occupation and sector of work (public or private), their marital status and number of children, their parents' religion and education; that is, as much information that can influence the respondents' perception and interpretation of the reality of the society in which they live and/or the world about them. These interpretations and perceptions are reflected one way or the other in society and/or are taken over by

younger people in the course of their integration into society. They are thus passed on to younger generations from the older generation.

3.1.2.2 Section Two: The ideal learner

This section is a twenty-two item scale presented in three stages and different ways. The first fifteen items are gathered into five subscales. These are (a) Personal effort (items 17, 21, 23, 24 and 31); (b) Pragmatic cognition and intelligence (items 18, 22, 27); (c) Rote-memory (item 19); (d) Language aptitude (items 20, 26 and 29); and (e) Interest in the other language and its culture (items 28 and 30). As the brackets show the items are randomly distributed in the scale to avoid set, i.e. to avoid influencing the respondents' opinion. The next five items (items 32-36), which constitute the second stage, are left open for the respondents to fill in and score or rate. The responses and their scores are added to the relevant subscales (subscale (a) to subscale (e) above to assess the respondents' concept of a good language learner and, by extension, of language learning. The last two items, the last stage and scale, request the respondents to select the five qualities they think essential for an ideal learner and five others they think to be the least important. This information along with the scores of the previous information of the scale tells us by extension about what it is thought language learning is.

3.1.2.3 Section Three: the concept of OL learning and teaching

As the heading shows, the section consists of measures of two things: the concept of other-language learning (or learning languages other than one's own) and the concept of other-language teaching (or teaching languages for speakers of other languages).

3.1.2.3.1 Learning languages other than one's own

This is a nine-item scale (items 39-47) with an additional open-ended item (item 48) designed to assess the respondents' understanding or concepts of learning languages other than their own. The nine items are divided into four subscales which are; (a) Study of language as a system and its literature (items 39 and 40); (b) Use of the target language for the study of language for communication (items 41, 42 and 43); (c) Development of communication strategies (items 44, 45 and 47); and (d) Learning by rote (item 46). Two of the scales (scales (a) and (d)) are based and consequently focus on a widely spread vision of language learning in Zairean schools to judge from the way languages are taught (cf 3.2.1.2) and from recently produced textbooks for teaching the four national-regional languages, i.e. Ciluba, Kikongo, Kiswahili and Lingala by Kadima, Nsuka, Bwantsa, Kitewo, and Mbula of the 'Institut Pédagogique National' (IPN), one of the nation-wide teacher-training Institutions. The other two (scales (b) and (c)) are basically related to current approaches to LT and correspond (or so it seems) to the view society holds of learning other people's languages. In focussing on these somewhat contrasting views it is hoped that the scale will point at the generally accepted view of foreign-language learning in the Zairean context.

The score(s) of the open-ended question are added to the relevant category or categories and the sum total of each subscale reflects the different orientations in the respondents' concept of learning other languages.

3.1.2.3.2 Teaching languages for speakers of other languages

This is a six-item scale followed by an evaluation of modern and traditional education, and the evaluation of ELT in Zaire. The scale itself has got three subscales,; (a) Provision of language as systematic input (items 49 and 51) related to subscales (a) and (d) in the scale above (i.e. learning languages other than one's own); (b) Use of the target language for teaching language use and usage (items 50 and 52); and (c) Strategies for learning and communication in the other language (items 53 and 54).

Whereas subscale (a) above relates to subscales (a) and (d) in the OL learning scale (cf 3.1.2.3.1), subscales (b) and (c) here similarly relate to (b) and (c) in the OL learning scale .

The scores for the open-ended question (item 55) are added to the relevant subscales and the sum total of each subscale reflects the tendency of the respondents with respect to the concept of teaching languages for speakers of other languages.

The evaluation of Modern and Traditional education is an open-ended question (cf item 56). The teaching of English is evaluated in two four-point-scale items (items 57 and 59). The respondents are then led to justify their responses (items 58 and 60). The information under these measures is intended to assess people's feeling about ELT and the impact of schooling or 'Modern Education'.

3.1.2.4 Section Four: Attitudes towards the teaching and learning of Zairean languages

This section consists of six items. Three of them are five-point scales each followed by a justification request item. A minimum

score of three on the five-point scales reflects a very favourable attitude towards the idea of using Zairean or national languages in schools. The maximum of fifteen reflects a totally negative attitude.

3.1.2.5 Section Five: National and foreign language evaluation

This section is mainly concerned with and measures the respondents' attitudes towards their own Mother tongue and the four Zairean languages regarded as national together with their attitude towards a few other languages among which are English and French. It is a five-point scale which informs us about the prestige each language enjoys in Zairean society, and is followed by a justification request item.

3.1.2.6 Section six: the ideal teacher

This section consists of two subsections or scales. Scale One is a short description of the 'ideal teacher' in general as imagined by the respondents. An 'ideal teacher' in effect is an illusion but it is good to know how people imagine him or her. Scale Two consists of three stages parallel to those in Section Two, the 'ideal learner' (cf 3.1.2.2). In the first stage the subjects are asked to score sixteen items gathered into five subscales, namely:

- (a) the teacher's linguistic/communicative competence (item 70);
- (b) teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships (items 72, 73 and 74);
- (c) course content (items 71, 75, 79 and 81);
- (d) methodology (items 76, 80, 82, 83, 84 and 85); and
- (e) course management (items 77 and 78, but also 74, 84 and 85, i.e. the circled number above, thus indicating the close relationship between them).

In the second stage the respondents are asked to add any five qualities they think important that have been missed out. In the last stage the respondents select what they think to be the first five qualities

and the last five or least important qualities of a good teacher. In so doing the respondents give us a clue to what they think a good teacher should be and what good other-language teaching should consist of.

3.1.2.7 OUTLINE OF THE PARENTS AND TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION ONE: Personal details

- 1.1 Respondents' identification (Question 1 and 2)
 - . Name (or case number)
 - . Category (Parent, administrator, or teacher)
- 1.2 Age and Sex (Questions 3 and 4)
- 1.3 Languages
 - . Languages used by the respondents (Question 5 and 6)
 - . Competence self-evaluation (Question 16)
- 1.4 Religion (Question 7)
- 1.5 Respondents' education (Question 8 and 9)
- 1.6 Occupation (Question 10)
- 1.7 Sector (Question 11)
- 1.8 Marital Status (Question 12)
- 1.9 Number of children (Question 13)
- 1.10 Parents' Religion and Education
 - . Religion (Question 14)
 - . Father's education (Question 15)
 - . Mother's education

SECTION TWO: The Ideal learner

- . Personal effort: items 17, 21, 23, 24 and 31
- . Pragmatic cognition and intelligence: items 18, 22 and 27
- . Learning by rote: item 19
- . Language aptitude: items 20, 26 and 29
- . Interest in the other language and its culture: items 28 and 30

SECTION THREE: The concept of OL learning and teaching

3.1 Learning languages other than one's own

- . Study of language as a system and its literature: items 39 and 40
- . Use of the target language for the study of language for communication: items 41, 42 and 43
- . Development of communication strategies: items 44, 45 and 47
- . Learning by rote: item 46

3.2 Teaching languages for speakers of other languages

- . Provision of language as systematic input: items 49 and 51
- . Use of the target language for teaching language use and usage: items 50 and 52
- . Strategies for learning and communication in the other language: items 53 and 54

3.3 Evaluation of Modern and Traditional Education (item 56)

3.4 Evaluation of the teaching of English (items 57 to 60)

SECTION FOUR: Attitudes towards the teaching and learning of Zairean languages

- . For or against National Languages as subjects at secondary and tertiary levels: items 61 and 62
- . For or against National Languages as elective alongside English: items 63 and 64
- . For or against National Languages as compulsory subjects, and French and English as elective: items 65 and 66

SECTION FIVE: National and Foreign Language Evaluation: items 67 and 68

SECTION SIX: The ideal teacher of English

- 6.1 Short description of the 'ideal teacher' by respondents
- 6.2
- . The teacher's linguistic/communicative competence: item 70
 - . Teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships: items 72, 73 and 74
 - . Course content: items 71, 75, 79 and 81
 - . Methodology: items 76, 80, 82, 83, 84 and 85
 - . Course management: items 77 and 78 (but also 74, 84 and 85)

3.1.3 Questionnaire Three: Textbook Evaluation

This questionnaire concerns itself with the evaluation by teachers of the textbook they use most frequently to teach English. It is made up of two sections: (a) 'Personal Details' which, like the other two questionnaires, collects as much information as possible

about the respondents, and (b) the evaluation proper. This section contains five parts preceded by an introduction in which the procedure and the codes are explained and where the teachers indicate the title, year of publication and the publisher of the material they most use. The five parts in question are: (a) the content; (b) methodology; (c) the textbook structure; (d) the teachers' personal views of the textbook; and (e) teaching and learning habits, an evaluation and description of the way the teachers themselves use the textbook and how the learners react or respond to this use of the textbook.

3.1.3.1 The content

The content assessment is done in terms of topics, grammar, vocabulary and skills, i.e. speech, reading and writing. Low scores reflect positive evaluation whereas higher scores reflect negative evaluation.

3.1.3.2 Methodology

Methodology is assessed in terms of learning processes, learning tasks or activities, activity management, and flexibility. Again low scores reflect positive evaluation, higher scores, negative evaluation.

3.1.3.3 The structure of the textbook

This is an eight item scale where score eight reflects a very positive opinion of the structure of the textbook.

3.1.3.4 Teachers' personal views of the textbook

This part consists of an open-end item asking the teachers to gloss any positive or negative point related to the textbook.

3.1.3.5 Teaching and learning habits

This part consists of three questions (items 63-65), two open-ended (items 63 and 65) and one yes/no question (item 64). Question 63 asks for a description of the way the teachers use their coursebook and the type of reactions or responses they expect from their pupils. Question 64 checks whether the learners conform to the teachers' expectations. In the event they do not, the teachers are required to express their impressions or experience of how they think pupils learn or use the textbook. This information together with the one obtained from item 63 reflect some of the teaching and learning habits double-checked with 'classroom observation' (cf 3.1.6 for its description and 3.2.1.2 for the description of the actual visits or observation).

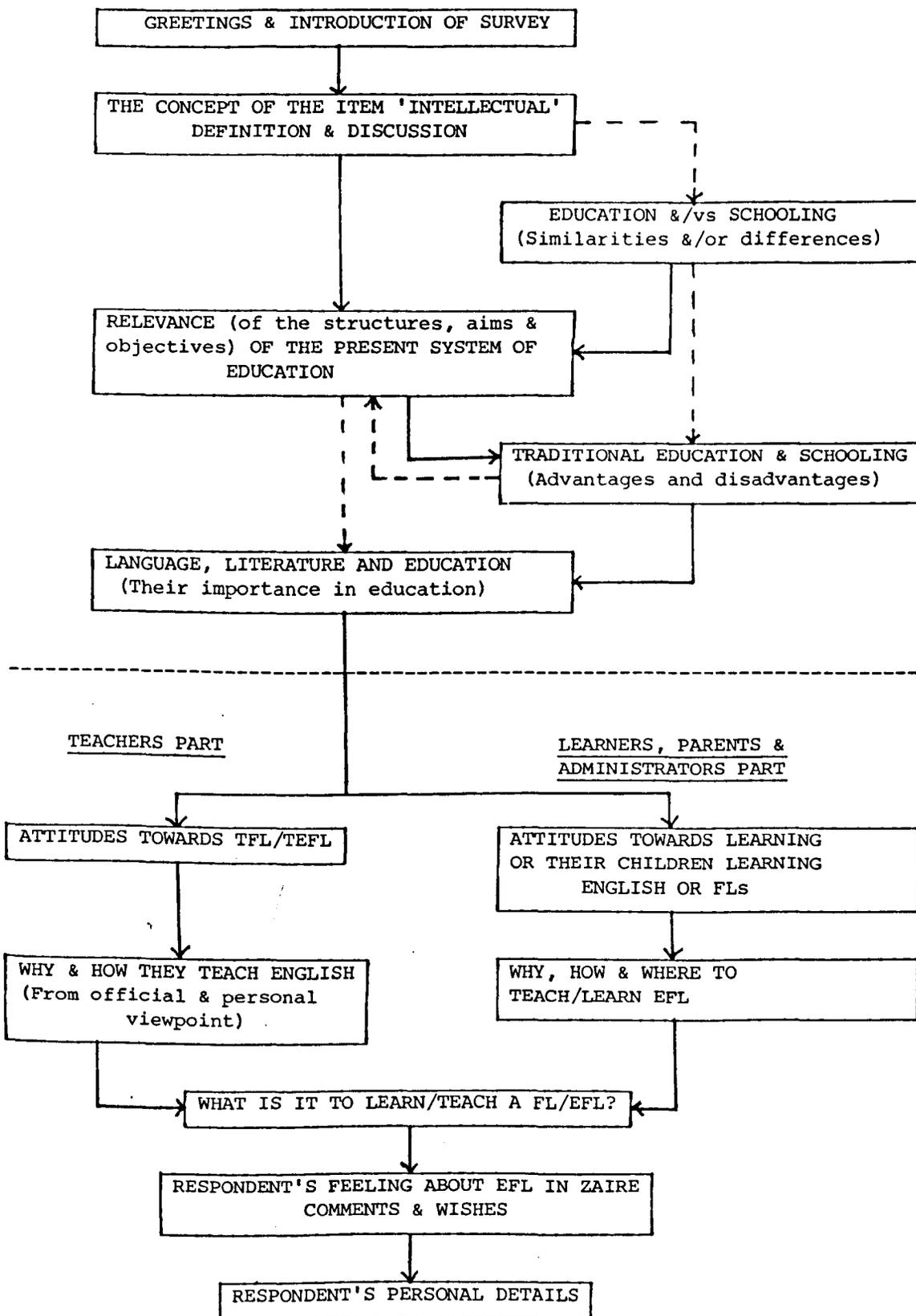
3.1.4 The interview

3.1.4.1 Introduction

The interview was designed in a way which allowed the collection of the same basic information as the questionnaires put together, in a relatively flexible manner following the respondents' lead. The chart below (Fig 3.1) reflects the nature and the content of the interviews and the arrows in it reflect its degree of flexibility, the alternative routes being shown by broken arrows.

The interviews consist of two parts; (a) the interview proper; and (b) the respondents' personal details concerned, as with the questionnaires, with the information about the respondents themselves. The interview proper has got two subdivisions: (a) a part which is common to all interviewees; and (b) a second part discriminating between teachers and the other interviewees.

Fig.3.1: PARENTS, LEARNERS, TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS INTERVIEW FLOW-CHART



Legend: —→ = Suggested route
 - - -> = Alternative route

3.1.4.2 Descriptive explanation of the Interview Chart

The interview chart is in effect self-explanatory. It starts with the greetings and the introduction of the survey and the research topic. After the introduction the interviewer proceeds with a first set of questions related to the concept of the word 'intellectual' as used in 'c'est un intellectuel!' (He is an 'intellectual'). The first question can be of a general type like: "what do you understand by the word 'intellectual'?" This can lead to a definition or a discussion of the concept 'intellectual'.

Following the respondents' orientation or argument the interviewer can move on to question the relevance of the present system of education. This happens if the respondents touch on aspects of education as opposed to schooling in the development of their argument. If they do not, then the interviewer takes the alternative route indicated in the chart by a broken arrow thus leading to a consideration of education and schooling (their similarities and/or differences, their value and/or efficacy etc) before questioning the relevance of the system of education.

If it happens that while still discussing aspects of education and schooling the interviewee starts talking about traditional and modern education or schooling in terms of advantages and disadvantages, then the interview moves on to that aspect of the problem, then either back to the question of relevance of the teaching system or on to the question of language and literature in education. If while talking about traditional and modern education the respondent touches on aspects of the teaching system, so much the better! Then the next step is the business of language and literature in education,

which leads to the second part of the interview where teachers are treated differently from the other respondents.

If, on the contrary, the respondent does not contrast traditional and modern education or otherwise, then the interview follows the projected route shown by a solid arrow, thus moving on to the question of the relevance of the school system, and then from there on to the contrast between traditional and modern education which then leads us to the discussion of language and literature in education.

a) The Teachers' Part

If the respondent is a teacher then the interview proceeds with the discussion of the respondent's attitudes towards teaching other languages in general and ESOL in particular. By ricochet questions about learning foreign languages may be asked. From this point the interview moves on to the teachers' reasons and perhaps motives for teaching English and the way they teach.

b) The Other Respondents' part

With other respondents the questions about the respondents' attitudes focus on learning. The main points to investigate here are the learners' attitudes towards learning English (if the respondent is himself a learner of English) and parents and (school) administrators' attitudes toward their children or pupils learning English. This step leads to the next stage where reasons or motives for learning English or for English to be taught are asked for along with the way and the place where it might be best taught or learned. From here the interview moves on to the concluding step where the teachers' part and the other respondents' parts join again to check into the

concept of learning and teaching other languages or ESOL, and to find out about the respondents' feelings about EFL/ESOL in Zaire. This is where comments and wishes are expressed. In fact, the actual interview ends here.

The next stage of the interview is concerned with collecting details about the respondents for classification purposes. The information to be collected is provided in Appendix Two, and the reasons for its collections are the same as those provided earlier for the questionnaires with respect to the 'Personal Detail' sections.

3.1.5 Discussions

3.1.5.0 Introduction

Discussions are either formal (in conferences or colloquia and seminars) or informal with friends and colleagues or students/pupils. The objective of the discussions was to learn from other people (informed or not) while exposing the conceptual framework for challenge. Informed or not, most people have an experience of other language learning. That experience is as important in language learning research as are well established 'scientific' findings.

3.1.5.1 Formal discussions

Formal discussions consist of two parts: (a) an exposé or talk followed by (b) some discussion of the kind which occurs in conferences and seminars. In three of the formal discussions held two in Zaire and one in Britain, the theme or content of the exposés was based on, and discussed the conceptual framework (cf 2.3.3.1). In Britain the discussion was held with teachers of English and

representatives of related disciplines at the seventeenth IATEFL conference in London (April 1983). A summary of the discussion and the type of feedback received is available in the IATEFL Newsletter No 82 (April 1984:36-38). The other two held in Kinshasa, Zaire, took place in two institutions of higher education: (a) the 'Institut Pédagogique National' (IPN), a mixed two-cycle ('graduat' and 'licence') Teacher Training College, and (b) the 'Institut Supérieur Pédagogique' (ISP) of Gombe, teacher training college for girls consisting of only one cycle, the 'graduat' cycle. The discussions involved the staff and advanced students (third Graduat, first and second Licence at IPN, and the second and third Graduats at ISP/Gombe) of the English Departments. The feedback obtained from the discussions consolidated the framework and are consistent with the hypotheses of the present work.

While the discussions just mentioned focussed on the framework and confirmed the hypotheses, the others focussed on a variety of other points related to this study and investigated in the questionnaires. Among them are the position and/or importance of English in Zaire in particular and francophone Africa in general, and the relevance of teaching materials and prescribed textbooks for English in Zaire. The former topic was discussed on two occasions at the Institute of Education, once in a colloquium organised by the ESOL Department in 1983, and the second time with a group of English teachers from a number of francophone African countries on a visit to the Department of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) early in 1984. The other topic was also discussed twice. On both occasions the discussions involved third-year Graduat-students and their tutors at ISP/Gombe and ISP/Mbanza-Ngungu. The discussions focussed on

the content of Questionnaire Three, concerned, as it is, with textbook evaluation. This particular discussion served as a briefing and also as an indication of what could be expected from the teacher-trainees who filled in the questionnaire and even from the tutors themselves. Other similar discussions were held with research colleagues and tutors in research seminars either directly (e.g. when research progress is reported) or indirectly (i.e. when attending the seminars and discussing and making notes of points related to the present thesis).

3.1.5.2 Informal discussions

These are mainly held with research colleagues and tutors in the ESOL Department and in other departments at the Institute or elsewhere, within and occasionally outside the University of London premises; with teacher-colleagues of English or other subjects in Zaire, and anybody interested in the matter like teacher-trainees (of English or other subjects), learners of English and ordinary people, or parents (in Belgium, Britain, Romania and Zaire). In most such discussions interlocutors' opinions and remarks were taken note of. With reference to those discussions held in Zaire importance was accorded to reports interlocutors made of their own experiences about learning English in particular and about learning other languages in general. In one case a secondary school learner of English whose experience was exciting was asked to write up a report of the details he thought were significant in his learning. The report is reproduced (with stylistic corrections) in Appendix Three. Other such discussions are of the type of those informal discussions which occur at meetings like the IATEFL conference or the BAAL annual meetings and seminars such as the LTC/ISP in-service seminars in Bas-Zaire, Zaire.

3.1.6 Classroom visits/observation

Classroom visits are concerned with the observation of elements of classroom life:(a) the use of teaching and/or learning materials; (b) methodology and classroom management; and (c) teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships and interactions. The intention was to identify these three factors in the classroom and investigate how they operate and relate to Motivation and Perseverance, and to Incentive and Activity-Enjoyment (cf Fig 2.4).

Classroom visits/observation should lead to a statement of the way teachers and learners operate in Zaire's classrooms and about what makes them operate the way they do. In other words, this instrument looks into what goes on in the classroom and relates what happens in the classroom to reasons or motives. In this sense the classroom observation instrument tests the Incentive and Activity-Enjoyment elements of the conceptual framework.

The instrument itself can appropriately be described as both interactional and anthropological as it involves the observation and analysis of a set of classroom behaviours related to the use of learning materials, methodology and classroom management, and class relationships and interaction, but not based on 'an observational system' which would "reduce the stream of classroom behaviour to small-scale units suitable for tabulation and computation" (Delamont and Hamilton 1976:6). The observation is thus natural and focusses on a few aspects of classroom life. Furthermore, the observer does not just sit at the back of the classroom and observe but joins in the classroom activities as much as possible. The instrument has the advantage of benefitting from the author's previous notes and

remarks on the observed aspects and others made while teaching in one of the schools which has been visited. It so happens that one of the observed classes (the sixth form, cf 3.2.1.2.1) had been taught at an earlier stage (third form, i.e. first year of English) by the author of the present study who also taught during the same period of time the sixth form, i.e. the level at which the observed students found themselves at the time of investigation. This state of affairs provides the instrument with a full anthropological dimension.

Now that the different empirical instruments have been described it is only fair to move on to the description of the administration of the instruments. To this we turn now.

3.2 The administration of the instruments

3.2.0 Introduction

The data of this study have been collected in two areas: Kinshasa and Mbanza-Ngungu. The former is the capital city of the country, and therefore represents the modern urban environment of the learners. The latter is rather a country agro-administrative town, and is considered as a semi-rural environment. It is multi-lingual and multi-cultural with Kindibu (a variety or dialect of Kikongo) as the dominant language, and a heavy influence from Lingala (the dominant language of the capital city) dominated by Kongo cultural features. Kinshasa, on the other hand, is a highly multi-lingual and multi-cultural environment dominated by Lingala (the major language of the city) and features of Kongo Culture. Such is the environment in which the instruments have been administered.

We were able to pilot our main instrument (the learners' questionnaire, referred to as 'Questionnaire One') in London among the few available Zairean students. These were five in number with a variety of educational backgrounds:

- (a) One of them was a 'graduée' in Applied Pedagogy, Bio-chemistry option, improving her English under the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA);
- (b) One was a secondary school learner who happened to study English in a language school in South London;
- (c) the other three were undergraduate students reading for a BSc.

The responses of this limited number of people, and particularly their comments on the questionnaire helped us to re-structure and produce the present format of 'Questionnaire 1'. However, limitation of time for the actual administration of the questionnaire, and lack of financial support made us cut out the last part of the questionnaire (Section Five) and pages five to seven (i.e. Q's 4 to 6) as these were mainly conceived of as double-checks of the learners' orientation and the image of the ideal teacher of English, and of their degree of multilingualism, respectively (cf 3.1.1.2, c) and d); and 3.1.1.5). Financial/administrative problems particularly hindered the reproduction of the other two questionnaires on a large scale. They even influenced their administration and the interviews. These constraints justify the extensive use made of the cut-down version of 'Questionnaire 1', of the discussion instrument, and of classroom observation, leaving the other instruments as references only. Thus Questionnaire 1, the discussions and the classroom observation stand as our major research instruments, and the interview and the other two questionnaires stand as reference instruments.

3.2.1 The Major Instruments

3.2.1.1 The Learners' Questionnaire

Questionnaire 1 was administered both in Kinshasa and Mbanza-Ngungu. Two versions of the questionnaire were forced upon us and have been administered as follows:

- (a) Version One (the quasi complete questionnaire, less Section Five) to a sample of eighteen students studying in Kinshasa, and of sixty-five students studying in Mbanza-Ngungu.
- (b) Version Two (the questionnaire without questions four to six, and Section Five) to a sample of one hundred and eighty-seven students studying exclusively in Mbanza-Ngungu.

3.2.1.1.1 The Population

In both cases, the respondents were picked at random from some schools themselves selected randomly. The schools involved in what is referred to as 'Sample 1' (cf Chapter 4), i.e. 'Version One', belong to three administrative types and consist of a majority of fifth form students (71 students), nine second 'Graduat' students of the 'Cultural animation' section of the 'Institut National des arts' (INA), Kinshasa, and three sixth-form students of the Institut National des Arts secondaire (INAS), Kinshasa. Six of the seventy-one fifth-form students are equally from INAS. The remaining sixty-five fifth-form students came from two different classes of two different schools:

- (a) 45, from the 'Institut Technique Commercial' BADIKA (ITC-BADIKA), Mbanza-Ngungu, and
- (b) 20, from the 'Institute Mwilu Kiawanga' (IMK), Mbanza-Ngungu.

While INA and INAS are official secular schools, the other two schools of Mbanza-Ngungu are run by religious organisations, namely: Protestant for the ITC-BADIKA, and Kimbanguist for the IMK.

'Version Two' on the other hand was distributed to schools belonging to the four major administration types: official, Catholic, Protestant, and Kimbanguist:

- 34 students came from the Government-run school, the Institut Supérieur Pédagogique of Mbanza-Ngungu (in short, ISP-Mbanza-Ngungu)), which in fact is an institute of higher education.
- 99 students came from a few Catholic-run schools. These are 'Institut BANKAZI'(with 36 students); 'Institut Technique Commercial NGUIZANI (ITECOM-NGUIZANI) with 45 students; and Institut NSONA-NKULU, with eighteen students.
- 38 students came from a Protestant-run school, the Institut DISENGOMOKA, and
- 16 students came from the only Kimbanguist secondary school of the town of Mbanza-Ngungu.

The thirty-four students from the ISP-Mbanza-Ngungu were newly enrolled students of the Department of English and African Culture. That is, they were first year students of the 'graduat' cycle of ISP. All the other students were secondary school learners of English from different sections and from both the sixth and the fifth forms. The sections and options involved are:

- (a) Literary, option 'Latin-Philosophy' (34 students)
- (b) Scientific, with 17 students in the Biochemistry option and 20 students in the Mathematics and Physics option.
- (c) Pedagogy, General Pedagogy option (37 students)

(d) Technical, 'commercial and Administrative' option (45 students).

Among these 153 secondary school students, 89 were from the sixth form (normal age = 17 to eighteen years old), and 64 students were in the fifth form (normal age: 16 to 17 years).

3.2.1.1.2 The actual administration of the questionnaire

For every group of learners, the subjects were given the questionnaire (one questionnaire each). The investigator introduced the questionnaire explaining to them the purpose of the study and the relevance of their opinions. The learners were then asked to read carefully the introduction printed on their questionnaire. Afterwards, the investigator invited questions from those who needed further explanation, if any. Then he asked the respondents to read the instructions on Page eight, and to ask him to clarify anything they did not understand. Whether there were questions or not, the investigator still explained the processes to follow in filling in the questionnaire, and encouraged every one to stop and ask the investigator to clarify anything they were not clear about as they went along in answering the questionnaire. The investigator insisted that the respondents had to start responding from page nine to the end, and then move back to the beginning to answer Sections One and Two. The reason is that he was aware of the length of the questionnaire and expected many respondents either to be tired by the time they reached the end of the questionnaire, and therefore to be careless, or not to be able to reach the end. In which case most of the important information for the present study would not have been collected if they started responding from the personal detail section (i.e. Section 1). The surprise was great when we noticed that in fact most of the respondents

reached the end, and that even the slowest were excited and wished to carry on until they finished answering the questions.

The questionnaire took two hours to answer. It took the slowest respondents two hours and a half, i.e. half an hour more, to finish the questionnaire. The teachers and the administrative body of the schools concerned were so cooperative and understanding that they deserve a word of gratitude even though this may seem to be the wrong place to express such feelings.

3.2.1.2 Classroom observation

3.2.1.2.0 Introduction

We suggested in the description of this instrument (cf 3.1.6) that it is both interactional and anthropological. Indeed the observer did not just sit in the back of the classroom and watch the behaviour of the class, but also participated in the lesson, contributing responses and questions. The observer was familiar with the observed teachers (most of whom are his former students) and some of the observed classes as he taught in one of the schools involved in this study.

Four English classes were observed in three secondary schools of Mbanza-Ngungu, one at INA in Kinshasa, and a class of French in a secondary school in Mbanza-Ngungu. For further insight into what happens in the classroom we observed a three-hour English Methodology session at the local 'Institut Supérieur Pédagogique'. This is where the observed teachers were educated and trained.

As suggested in the description of the instrument, the observation focussed on three elements of classroom life:

- (a) the use of teaching or didactic materials;
- (b) methodology and classroom management; and
- (c) teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships and interactions, or the class interaction.

3.2.1.2.1 The Observed Classes

The four secondary-school classes observed in Mbanza-Ngungu are:

- (a) Fourth year of Biochemistry (normal age: 15-16 years old), Lycée Bankazi, run by Catholic missionaries.
- (b) Fourth year/level of pedagogic studies, Institut Mwilu Kiawanga, run by the Kimbanguists;
- (c) fifth level (normal age: 16-17 years old) of the Administrative and Commercial Studies, ITC-BADIKA, a protestant school, and
- (d) Sixth level (normal age: 17-18 years old) of the Administrative and Commercial Studies, ITC-BADIKA

The French class observed is the sixth form or level of pedagogic studies or humanities at Lycée Bankazi and was taught by a former student of the French Department of the Local ISP. To the extent the methods and/or techniques used in the French class are similar (if not the same) to those used in the English class, we can assume that training for the teaching of French is similar or the same as the training for the teaching of English.

The English Methodology class observed was in the second year of study at ISP-Mbanza-Ngungu, Department of English and African Culture. This is when prospective teachers of English are professionally

trained, as the methodology classes are supplemented by teaching practice in a local secondary school.

At INA in Kinshasa, we observed a revision session of a pre-recorded poem. The students were in their second year of the 'graduat' programme in the cultural animation option (school of development). All these classes were mixed in the sense that they contained girls and boys.

3.2.1.2.2 The observed teachers

The teachers of English, and the one of French observed at work are non-native speakers of the respective languages they teach. They are male, qualified teachers; but only three (two English teachers and the French teacher) were especially trained as teachers. One of them is a full-time lecturer at the local ISP, in the Department of English and African Literature, and acts as a part-time teacher of English in the last two classes of secondary education (5th and 6th form) at ITC-BADIKA. He is thus a very experienced teacher of English: ten years of experience at the time of data collection. He holds a postgraduate diploma in TFL from Britain. The teacher of the fourth pedagogic form at IMK has some four years of experience. He graduated from the local ISP. The other teacher, teaching the fourth Biochemistry form graduated from the same ISP a few months before the collection of the data of this study. He is a fresh starter with no teaching experience. They are both full-time teachers in their respective schools.

The teacher of English at INA has the status of a lecturer, referred to in Zaire as 'Assistant'. He had been teaching English

for two years at the time his class was observed. The Methodology teacher at ISP-Mbanza-Ngungu had nine years of teaching experience at the time of data collection. He taught English at secondary school before taking up his present position. He had also done a postgraduate diploma in teaching English, in Britain.

The teacher of French teaches French in the last two years of secondary education, full-time. He graduated from the local ISP and had four years of teaching experience at the time of data collection.

3.2.1.2.3 The Observed lessons

In the fourth Biochemistry form, Lycée Bankazi (cf 3.2.1.2.1), the lesson was an application of the use of 'MUST' and 'HAVE TO'. In the fourth pedagogic class, it was a test as part of a revision scheme. In the fifth form, the lesson consisted of the study of the 'Passive Voice'. It was reinforcement work basically. In the sixth form at ITC-BADIKA, the lesson consisted of exercises on the Simple Past Tense. The French lesson was in effect a reading comprehension session referred to as 'Text analysis'. The revision session observed at INA is based on a previously studied or analysed poem, 'The Pasture' (an American poem). The session consisted of listening comprehension and repetition of the pre-recorded comments and poem (in an American accent). The Methodology session was a discussion of methods for teaching English. Two approaches were particularly contrasted that day: the inductive and the deductive approaches or methods. It is particularly informative to consider how these separate lessons related to each other with reference to the three elements set out as our frame of reference. We will come back to this point later in this chapter (cf 3.2.1.5). Before then let us consider

our third major instrument (i.e. the Discussions) and its assumptions.

3.2.1.3 The Discussions

The actual implementation of the formal Discussion instrument has been described along with the description of the instrument itself. Here only the abstracts or the content of the talks and papers to stimulate the discussions are described.

3.2.1.3.1 Zaireans motives for learning English

Description 1

This is a summary of the main points made in the paper entitled 'Zairean motives for learning English: problems and solutions', given at the Seventeenth IATEFL International Conference, April 1983. The paper attempted: (cf Lubasa 1984(a): 36);

... to show that what is missing in the Zairean teaching situation is not really motivation or interest but rather perseverance. This lack of perseverance results from a decline of motivation, in turn resulting (as I see it) from the teaching situation.

The argument of the paper revolved around the difference between adult and children's Motivation based on the author's teaching experience of both adults and younger people, mainly adolescents. The solutions proposed are based on the same experience and rest on the assumption that:

Since all learners of English (had) mastered at least two languages by the time they start to learn English, they should in principle be able to cope with any new language provided they are exposed to the necessary data in a way which arouses their interest and matches with most (if not all) of the factors affecting their motivation to learn (loc cit).

The paper ended with the recommendations that a permanent interaction be promoted between the class and the teacher to negotiate classroom methods and techniques.

Description II

This description is related to the content of a version of the same talk as in 'Description I', given to the students of the English Department and African Culture of ISP Gombe, Kinshasa, Zaire. The talk focussed on the motivational problems of the Zairean learners and did not propose solutions, as it was entitled 'Zaireans' motives for learning English'. It emphasised the point that learners are definitely motivated to learn English especially at the beginning of their learning of English, but the teachers "kill" their motivation by using inappropriate methodology and inappropriate teaching materials inappropriately. The argument here revolved around children and adults' difference of Motivation once again and a discussion of the adults' motives for learning English isolated in a previous piece of work (Lubasa 1982:110-122). The latter are:

- (a) further study;
- (b) socio-cultural purposes; and
- (c) what is generally referred to as English for Specific Purposes.

The paper then suggested that the secondary school learners' initial motives (if any) are mostly socio-cultural, with some type of integrative orientation of their motivation, as a result of schooling. Since this is the objective of the teaching of English in Zaire. The fact that the more they learn the language the less they cope with it or persevere, suggests that something is wrong. This could be the teaching or the motives. By way of conclusion, it was suggested

(a) that the objectives of English needed to be redefined as these are what influences the learners' motivation, and (b) the classroom should be considered as a minisociety so that the learners open up and give as much as they learn from school.

3.2.1.3.2 Motivation and Perseverance in EFL/ESOL learning materials:

a point of view

Description III

The talk referred to by this title is an attempt to put together some of the issues involved in the present study. Its aim is to relate motivation and perseverance to learning materials and possibly to syllabus design within an ESP scope, where ESP is seen as an approach to language teaching.

The talk was given in Kinshasa, at IPN (INSTITUT PEDAGOGIQUE NATIONAL). The audience consisted of the staff and the students of the third 'Graduat' and of both levels of Licence, in the Department of English. its main argument goes around the main hypothesis which is:

No matter the intensity of Motivation, learners learn if they can persevere; and the more they learn, the more they persevere and the more motivated they are likely to be (cf 2.3.2.1, p154)

The details of the argument are in Appendix IV.

Description IV

The paper of which the abstract follows is the consolidation of the discussion at IPN in Kinshasa. It is referred to as Motivation and Perseverance in foreign language learning and has been presented and discussed at the BAAL-IRAAL joint seminar in Dublin, Ireland in September 1984.

Motivation and Perseverance in Foreign Language Learning

Motivation is often said to be crucial for learning to take place; but paradoxically very little is said about it in terms of content for teaching and/or learning materials. Usually researchers suggest, and teachers use methods and approaches that would serve as motivational factors. This practice is quite analogous to developing one's grammatical or linguistic competence and expecting communicative competence to follow or result from it.

This paper considers (or at least attempts to consider) ways in which motivation can be incorporated into a language syllabus and in learning materials in terms of sociocultural, psychological and linguistic content as well as being a by-product of methodology and textbook structure, through an SP (Specific Purposes) approach or LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) seen as an approach to language teaching. For this end, the notion of 'perseverance' - conceived as the learner's ability to deal with a 'crisis point' and/or critical situation - is exploited to suggest that although motivation is important or even crucial for learning to take place, it needs the support of perseverance without which learning (either formal or informal) is unlikely to take place. This suggestion is discussed in some detail and leads to a model of foreign language learning that shows both the decisive role of perseverance in the process of learning foreign languages, and that effective learning or success in learning does maintain and indeed increase perseverance which in turn sustains and increases the learners's motivation in a sort of feedback loop system.

By way of conclusion some ways of developing the learner's ability to tackle critical points and situations (and in consequence to keep up their motivation) are suggested for inclusion in learning materials in accordance with (a) the learner's 'learning habit' and psychological difference variables, (b) his/her sociocultural background and environment, and (c) the target language data; that is, from the learning situation rather than the point of view of the target situation. Hence the need for the SP approach referred to above.

The integral text of the talk is available in the proceedings of the seminar (cf Singleton and Little 1984:101-113). Another paper related to, and directly benefitting from the one described here is entitled 'The SP-Squared Approach to Motivation and Perseverance in Learning other Languages'. It is an improved version of the former focussing on the approach suggested to deal with Motivation and Perseverance, rather than the very concept of dealing with Motivation and Perseverance in learning materials. Many of the definitions offered in this thesis started to crystalise with this paper and the discussion that followed the Bangor BAAL Annual meeting, September 1984.

3.2.1.3.3 Is Motivation 'really' an umbrella word?

This is actually an attempt to clarify in my own mind and for others, the concept of 'Motivation' from the pedagogic point of view, and a test of the concept itself by discussing it with the very people who work through it: the teachers of English to speakers of other languages. The talk was given at the nineteenth IATEFL International Conference, in Brighton, April 1985; and an extensive summary of it is available in the IATEFL Newsletter, Number 88 of August 1985.

3.2.1.3.4 English in francophone (Central) Africa

Description V

Here we were concerned with the relationship between ELT and the position and/or the importance that the language takes in society within the context of four countries considered as sociolinguistically representative of francophone Central Africa. The countries are: Burundi, The People's Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Zaire. The aim was achieved through the analysis of the sociolinguistic

setting of ELT and the discussion of the status and function of the different languages attested in the four countries, followed by an investigation into the ESOL classroom and the problems it poses.

By way of conclusion it was suggested that success in TESOL in multilingual francophone (Central) Africa depended upon clear language policy and proper management of the classroom and its factors. The talk ended by making clear the relationship between language policy, classroom management and learning materials production.

This discussion took place at the Institute of Education, University of London, and involved the staff and students of the Department of English for Speakers of Other Languages and some specialists in Education in Developing Countries, in June 1983.

Description VI

Basically, this is the same discussion as above, but with francophone teachers of English, studying in Britain. The argument here revolved around the elements of classroom observation collected in Zaire.

Description VII

Again, the same discussion as above, with a group of francophone teachers of English on a visit to the Department of English for Speakers of Other Languages, University of London Institute of Education, 27 February 1985. This time the argument was based on the frequency count of Question 84 in 'Questionnaire 1'. The question concerns the perceived value of twelve languages among which are French, English the Mother Tongue and the four national languages.

3.2.1.3.5 'Langues européennes et langues africaines, politique linguistique et éducation

This talk was given at the Zairean Embassy in Bucharest, Romania in August 1984. It involved Zairean students in Romania and representatives from African and some European French-speaking Embassies. The talk is actually a plea for a language policy in education geared towards the developmental needs of the country and, indeed, of Africa.

The argument revolved around the history of language teaching in Europe and in Africa, and led to the conclusion that a language policy which takes account of the importance of the mother tongue in education and the role of the other languages in society is liable to bring about socio-economic development.

3.2.1.3.6 Observations

These talks test the hypotheses and discuss what is perceived as important in the learning context and/or social milieu. The point that seems to emerge is that 'relevance' of the language to study (in terms of utility rather than just prestige) is a motivational factor which should therefore justify the teaching of the language in question.

Besides these quite formal discussions we had a lot of informal ones of which notes of some points, made during or immediately after the discussions are available in Appendix IV. On one occasion a learner was asked to report in writing on his experience as a learner of English. At the moment of data collection he was in the fifth year of secondary education, Literary Studies. His English is excellent

by Zairean standards and, indeed, by international standards. This is what justifies his report (cf Appendix III). He says that when he started learning English in the second year of secondary school, he hated it. The reason was that he found the language funny. But the next year the new teacher changed his attitude towards English. He was so interested that he decided to learn most of it on his own. (This is an indication that something was wrong with the classroom, though he does not say so). He started with the first book of English edited by Didier Marcel 'L'Anglais Ie ann e' (cf 1.2.1.1.2). He then studied the second book of the series. At the end of the second book he could already manage to speak English. To enrich his vocabulary he started reading English novels. After he had completed the textbook entitled 'L'Anglais sans peine' edited by ASSIMIL he was able to communicate with native speakers of English. (Notice that the first two books are the ones prescribed by the Education Ministry. The latter is not. And yet this is the one which appears to have given him confidence). To improve his pronunciation he ordered a few cassettes. He kept practising whatever he learned whenever it was possible.

In another informal discussion a lecturer in the Department of Biochemistry, ISP-Mbanza-Ngungu mentioned that he always thought that learning another language was a pleasurable thing. But when he was learning English (which he regrets not being able to speak nor understand), he just hated the English classes like everybody else. The reason was, he said, that their teacher inspired nothing but fear! When he entered the class everyone kept his fingers crossed not to be chosen to answer questions. He concluded saying: "This is all I remember of my English lessons." Poor man! What does all this tell us about learning English? This question leads us to a

consideration of the assumptions and conclusions of the Discussions which, in effect, helped to consolidate the Model (cf Fig. 2.4, p160) and the questionnaires.

3.2.1.4 The Assumptions and Conclusions of the Discussions

3.2.1.4.0 Introduction

As will be remembered, the objective of the Discussions was to learn from other people and to test the conceptual framework, our model (cf 3.1.5.0). Under this heading we report the main points which contributed to the objective.

3.2.1.4.1 Zaireans' motives for learning English

In both contexts in which the topic was discussed it was accepted that learners' learning results are often poor not because of lack of Motivation. The question then comes, "What follows high motivation so that results are actually reduced?" (Adeyanju: transcribed from the IATEFL-1983 Discussion tape). C.T.K. Adeyanju referring to Schumann (1978) and his Nigerian research findings raised two questions in support of the perseverance hypothesis. These are:

- (a) how to motivate the teachers to have a positive attitude towards the international variety of English in which most people (including the teachers themselves) wish to be competent?
- (b) "What follows high motivation so that results are actually reduced?"

These two questions are interrelated in that one leads to the other and maybe explains the other. Adeyanju in his research found that Nigerian student teachers have a positive attitude towards British

and American English and the countries where these accents are spoken but that 25% of them said that they would not aspire to any of these varieties themselves as this would make their fellow countrymen and friends mock them. Hence the point that: if teachers themselves are not prepared to teach some particular aspects of English for which competence is needed for international intelligibility, then hopes of motivating students at different levels are much more limited. This is what led to question (a). The second question arose from the puzzling situation in Nigeria where the learners are highly motivated to learn English but fail to attain good results. To conclude his comments, Adeyanju said that perhaps what is needed is better teacher training and teaching materials, on top of some propaganda work to convince teacher-trainees that they need to be the best possible models for their students (cf IATEFL Newsletter No 82 April 1984:37). The point about teacher education and the teaching materials came up again and again during this discussion suggesting and, indeed, supporting the point that the learners are initially motivated in many cases but the teachers 'kill' their motivation. The discussion in Zaire provided the evidence that the problem which triggered this study is real, actual, not a fiction when the point that school pupils' results (as opposed to adults') are poor because they have no motivation, was made from the audience. The same discussion supported the point that more learning brings about more motivation. Thus the assumption that there is a dynamic process of some sort between Motivation and Learning and vice versa was established, on the one hand. On the other hand, it was agreed that there is something operating between Motivation and Learning, and that it depends a lot on the teacher and the learning or teaching materials. We have referred to this 'something' as 'Perseverance' which, in our model depends upon, as

well as affecting, Activity-Enjoyment, which in turn depends on the teacher and the learning materials or the classroom as a social setting (cf Fig. 2.4, p160).

3.2.1.4.2 Motivation and Perseverance in EFL/ESOL learning Materials: a point of view

The discussions related to this topic led to the crystallisation of the different definitions offered in this thesis (cf 2.3.4) and to the distinction between two types of Perseverance: one that the learner can control and another which is rather social or socio-economic and that the learner cannot control (cf 2.3.4.1). They also revealed that the teacher and his appearance are important and influential factors in arousing and sustaining the learners' motivation. This point came up more particularly in Zaire (cf Appendix IV) and is related to one of the points made during the informal discussions reported above (cf 3.2.1.3.6), that the learners hated the English classes because they were frightened of the teacher. A testimony made by one of the students again suggests and supports the opinion that the learners are initially motivated but the teachers kill their motivation before they can even consider persevering (cf Appendix IV points 1 and 2 of the notes). The discussions in Dublin helped more to clarify the concept of perseverance when a participant referring to the case of immigrants in Britain pointed out that many immigrant children lack Motivation and Perseverance to learn English because of their social environment and their socioeconomic conditions. Whether in Zaire or in Dublin or again in Bangor the main issue remained the teacher and his attitude vis a vis the learners, the suggestion being that the rapport between the teacher and the learners and vice versa is a motivational factor liable to bring about Perseverance.

3.2.1.4.3 English in francophone (Central) Africa

The discussions of the present topic led to comments on the relevance of the syllabus, the textbooks or teaching/learning materials, the perceived utility of the language in society and the type of examination. In the discussion of 14 March 1984 it was suggested that at least three elements needed to be considered in teaching English in francophone Africa:

- (a) the role of the examination;
- (b) the syllabus: who makes it and what does it contain;
- (c) the textbook and the methodology it entails or involves.

These three elements make sense only in connection with the idea the learner has of language learning and the perceived utility of the language in the country. Such are the salient points which emerged from the discussions on the language topics. The same points emerged from the discussion in Romania with the only difference that the focus was the role of language as an instrument for the socioeconomic and technological development of developing countries (cf 3.2.1.3.5). It was observed that very few peoples in the world ever developed with the language of other peoples.

With the Model (the conceptual framework), and these assumptions and conclusions in mind we went to visit the classroom (cf 3.2.1.2) to find what follows (i.e. 3.2.1.5 below). These findings, like the assumptions and conclusions of the discussions contributed to the testing of the framework in those aspects related to the classroom.

3.2.1.5. The findings of classroom observations

This is a report of the three elements of classroom life on which the observation focussed (cf 3.2.1.2):

- (a) the use of the teaching or didactic materials;
- (b) methodology and classroom management; and
- (c) teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships and interactions.

3.2.1.5.1 The teaching or didactic materials

The main didactic materials in the observed classes are the blackboard, a piece or pieces of chalk of different colours, a textbook for the teacher, and the learners' copy-books. INA is the only place where modern technology is available. The learners have no textbooks in most cases, except for the case of Lycée Bankazi, where the books are provided by, and kept in, the school. The textbook used in the fourth forms observed is entitled: English for Africa, 4e année (cf 1.2.1.1.4). It is an adaptation from a series by David Mills, Boniface Zodéougan and Tim Doust, entitled English for French-speaking Africa. In the fifth and the sixth forms described above (cf 3.2.1.2.1), the texts to be studied were copied in the students' copy-books from the teacher's book (via the blackboard) some time before the lesson. At these levels, the teacher exploits any book which suits his purposes.

3.2.1.5.2 Methodology and classroom management

The methodology used in the three teaching sessions of English at secondary school was based on what is known as the 'eclectic approach to LT'. It was a combination of aspects of the reading, the active, the direct and the audio-lingual methods used in very similar ways in each lesson. It was characterised by the reading aloud of a text, followed by a few activities. The same techniques were used in the french lesson observed in exactly the same way as the English lessons.

At INA, where a tape recorder was used, the emphasis was on 'listening comprehension', and 'listening production'. The former is concerned with listening in order to answer one or more 'focus

questions', whereas the latter is a listening exercise for accuracy. As it was a revision session (cf 3.2.1.2.3) one would expect the students to be active and productive. But they were not. The procedure followed here again was very similar to the reading comprehension sessions such as the French one where the teachers asked a few questions for comprehension after the reading of the text.

The methodology session observed was more a discussion in which the teacher had most of the talk. It thus appears that teaching in Zaire is rather teacher centred even if it is learner oriented. What is more, it is teaching-centred/oriented rather than learning oriented. This is so from top to bottom, if we can rely on what we have observed. No wonder then, that classroom management was in these classes exclusively the teachers' business.

In the fourth Biochemistry form observed, for instance, the lesson (cf 3.2.1.2.3) began with the reading aloud of a dialogue by some students selected by the teacher. The latter corrected the students' errors of stress, rhythm and pronunciation as they occurred. Then the learners were required to repeat the teacher's examples of patterns, and to produce eventually their own examples of the pattern. The lesson ended with the study of the use of 'must' and 'have to' through some substitutions. In the fifth form, the text read was a description. The activity set for the lesson was the reading aloud of a sentence or passage. The students were requested to stop or to get the one who was reading aloud to stop reading whenever they came across a verb in the passive form, as the lesson consisted of the study of the passive voice (cf 3.2.1.2.3). This technique was conceived of as a game. The teacher helped his students whenever

it was necessary, but the whole thing was done by the students. A pattern of how the passive voice is formed or what it looks like was given on the blackboard to help the students to do the task. This is the pattern:

"-V + PP"

where V stands for Verb and PP for the Past Participle. Some students, however, did not get the meaning of the 'formula' or of the abbreviations in it, and therefore failed to do the task as expected. The method used in this class was basically 'active', that is, what is referred to as the 'Active Method'. In the sixth form where the lesson consisted of exercises of the past tense (cf 3.2.1.2.3), the teacher who happens to be the same as for the fifth form (cf 3.2.1.2.2) used the same 'Active Method' and game-based techniques. The learners were asked to read aloud the text in the simple present, provided by the teacher who selected somebody in the class to read the same passage in the simple past tense. After the 'Simple Present-Simple Past' exercise came a 'sound' and a 'meaning' exercise. They consisted of a group of five words among which only one was different in meaning (for the meaning exercise) or in sound, mainly the vowel sounds (in the case of the sound exercise). The students were requested to spot the differing word and to underline it as in the example below from the observed lesson:

Example: Student, future, basic, education, continue
 The words of this group were meant to have the sound /ju:/ in common so that the students can underline the word 'basic'. Unfortunately for the example, there are two words not belonging to the group soundwise: 'basic', the word the teacher wanted underlined and 'education' that the teacher did not perceive as different from the other 'u's' of the group. No comment is needed! The oral part of the exercise appears to make no real sense as far as language use learning is concerned. It consisted of the class telling the student designated by the teacher to underline on the board the word not belonging to

the group of words, i.e. which word to underline. No reasons were asked for, and no discussion followed. If some sort of discussion followed, the exercise as a whole would have been more meaningful and useful. The underlining of the words would then have served as a pretext to start the discussion. The alternative suggested by the observer during the lesson went along these lines. It consisted of work in pairs or groups of four based on the initial exercise just described above. Instead of the teacher providing the five words among which one is different, we suggested that students' groups and pairs make up as many groups of words as they wished to, with only one word having a different sound or meaning in each group. The class got excited and a discussion about what to choose and on what basis (sound or meaning) emerged among students and their groups. Some groups referred to dictionaries even to make up their groups of words. The language to be used was English, but as usual, some groups mixed French and/or some local languages with English in their discussions; which is good! The next stage consisted of reporting the group of words obtained by each group or pair to the rest of the class which was encouraged to challenge the presenting team.

The testing session observed (cf 3.2.1.2.3), as will be remembered, was part of a revision scheme. The text was asking the students:

- (a) to define or provide the meaning of 'transportation';
- (b) to use 'the preposition off' in two sentences;
- (c) to fill in the blanks of two sentences with 'the'
or 'Ø' article.

This short test (which lasted fifteen minutes), along with the teaching sessions described above are indicative of the tendency and line of the teaching of English in Mbanza-Ngungu, and probably in most of Zaire. The tendency is the teaching of some aspects of the grammar

of English. It follows then that the students learn about the language but not the use of the language. Perhaps they learn how to use the language but not the use of it. In other words, the students learn how or about how to use the language but they do not learn the actual use of the language. Learning to use a language is different from using the language in that one uses language to learn to use it the way one uses language to learn about it. In the lessons described above English is used to learn/teach about English and (about) how to use it: not to teach or learn the use of it or to use it.

3.2.1.5.3 The teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships and interactions

In the lessons observed, the teacher-learner type of relationship and teacher-learner-teacher interactions predominated. They seem to constitute the favourite style of teaching English, or indeed other languages, which, in fact, derives from, as well as reflecting on the methods used. These types of relationship and interaction are also derived from, as well as reflecting on the structure of the education system, which requires discipline and quietness in the classroom.

With these observations and the conclusions of our discussions in mind, we are now ready to move on to consider the results on the learners' questionnaire to explain what we have observed and to support or refute our conclusions and assumption. But before doing so, let us briefly consider what we referred to as the 'reference instruments'.

3.2.2 The reference instruments

These are the interview, 'Questionnaire II' and 'Questionnaire III'. Most of the interviews were tape-recorded. Only one

was recorded by hand writing. They were done with experienced teachers of English who have been in Britain or in the United States for training of at least one year. Questionnaire II was destined for those who are concerned with the education of the children concerned in our study. These are parents, teachers and the administrative staff of schools. The questionnaires were given out to adults willing to answer questions. The investigator then arranged a time and a day to go back and collect the completed questionnaires. The respondents thus were given time to answer the questions at their own convenience. Of the hundred questionnaires given out only thirty five were completed and returned.

'Questionnaire III' was particularly designed for the teachers of English. It was distributed to fifty teachers of English in different schools. They were given time to complete the questionnaires at their leisure and return them when they felt like it. Only sixteen completed copies were returned.

These three instruments are referred to as 'Reference Instruments' because we only turned to them to consolidate our conclusions and/or our interpretation of the data from the 'Major Instruments'.

3.3 Summary

This chapter has described the empirical instruments used to collect the information this study requires (cf 3.1). These are a set of questionnaires (Questionnaires I to III), Classroom Observation, Discussions, and the Interview. These instruments have been gathered into two categories referred to as 'Major' and 'Reference'. The Major-instrument category is constituted by the

learners' questionnaire referred to as 'Questionnaire I', classroom observation and the Discussion sessions. The 'Reference' category is thus constituted by the Interview and the other two questionnaires of which Questionnaire II was designed for educators in general, and Questionnaire III, particularly related to textbook evaluation, was destined for teachers of English.

The chapter has also described the way in which the instruments were used to collect the data (cf 3.2), and reports the results of the Discussions (cf 3.2.1.4) and of the classroom observations (cf 3.2.1.5) as they contributed to the refinement of the conceptual framework and the subsequent use of the learners' questionnaire, the results of which are treated in our next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS OF THE EMPIRICAL DATA

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is essentially concerned with the analysis and the interpretation of the results of the empirical data. These results, more specifically the results of the learners' questionnaire, are seen as the empirical statistical test of the conceptual framework. The latter has been constantly tested throughout the research period through one of our research instruments, namely: 'The Discussions' (cf 3.1.5). Classroom observations have also contributed to the testing of the framework in those aspects related to the classroom. The data we are concerned with here are chiefly from the learners' questionnaire and relate, one way or the other, to the data from the classroom observations and the Discussions. The reason is that the learners' questionnaire is the one which investigates the learners' attitudes, Motivation, and Perseverance in learning other languages, and accounts for the results of the classroom observations, while it tests the assumptions and the conclusions of the discussions. In other words, the results of the learners' questionnaire will clarify and help us make full sense of results of the Classroom Observations and support or disprove the points made or raised in the Discussions, and subsequently support or disprove the hypotheses of the present study and the framework related to them.

4.1 Outline of the Learners' Questionnaire

As will be remembered, the learners' questionnaire is divided into five sections of which only four have been actually administered (cf 3.1.1.6 and 3.2.1.1). Section One is concerned with the learners'

personal details; that is, identification, the identification of school and class, age and sex, birthplace and permanent residence, the status of the family, religion, parents' religion and education, the identification of the languages used etc (cf 3.1.1.1).

Section Two is mainly concerned with the learners' language profile. It investigates the learners' degree of multilingualism/culturalism, their sociocultural or familial background and the domains in which they use the different languages they know. Of this section, only the sociocultural background is fully analysed. This is because the degree of multilingualism/culturalism and the domains of language use are meant to cross-check the information about languages in the section about the learners' personal details. In the treatment of the paragraph on the languages the learners use (cf 3.1.1.1.h) reference is, therefore, made to the paragraph on multilingualism/culturalism of Section Two of the questionnaire.

Section Three is the one concerned with the assessment of the learners' Motivation and Perseverance. It consists of four subdivisions meant to test the main components of the conceptual framework; namely Motivation, Perseverance and Activity-Enjoyment alongside the learners' attitudes and beliefs. The subdivisions in question are:

- (a) Motivation conditioning - mainly concerned with attitudes and beliefs;
- (b) The Motivation Index, designed to assess the learners' motivation;
- (c) The Perseverance Index, designed to assess perseverance;
- (d) Activity-enjoyment, designed to assess the learner's attitude towards classroom or learning activities.

Section Four, entitled 'Learners' wishes and desires', assesses the learners' desired abilities and activities together with their image or concept of the ideal teacher of English in particular and of other languages in general.

4.2 The Analysis

4.2.0 Introduction

The data has been derived from two samples. One of eighty-three subjects and another of two hundred and fifty-two cases. The first consists of subjects selected from three secondary schools and a class of nine undergraduates picked at random, in two relatively different areas: Kinshasa, the capital city, and Mbanza-Ngungu, an agro-administrative town. The undergraduate class and two of the secondary schools of this sample have a technical (i.e. Specific Purpose) orientation. This is what is meant to be common to the sample. The second sample consists of subjects studying in schools of Mbanza-Ngungu. This is what is meant to be the common factor of this sample.

4.2.1 School and class identification

The schools in the first sample (let us refer to it as 'Kin-Mbanza Sample' and to Sample Two as 'Mbanza Sample') belong to three different school administrations. These are the official, the Protestant and the Kimbanguist. The schools operate on a one session basis. Two of them are located in Mbanza-Ngungu. The other two are in Kinshasa. The undergraduate students of this sample are second year students of the 'Animation Culturelle' option at the Institut National des Arts (INA), Kinshasa. Most of the other subjects,

Table 4.1 Number and Percentages of Students by School and type of School : SAMPLE 1

NOTE:- = BLANK

TYPE OF SCHOOL SCHOOL NAME	OFFICIAL		PROTESTANT		KIMBANGUIST	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
INA	9	10.8	_____	_____	_____	_____
INAS	9	10.8	_____	_____	_____	_____
ITC BADIKA	_____	_____	45	54.2	_____	_____
IMK	_____	_____	_____	_____	20	24.2
TOTAL	18	21.6	45	54.2	20	24.2

Table 4.2 Number and Percentages of Students by option and Type of Studies or Sections : SAMPLE 1

NOTE:- = BLANK

TYPE OF STUDIES OPTIONS	TECHNICAL		LITERARY	
	N	%	N	%
"ANIMATION CULTURELLE"	9	10.8	_____	_____
DRAMATIC ARTS	9	10.8	_____	_____
COMMERCE AND ADMINISTRATION	45	54.2	_____	_____
LATIN AND PHILOSOPHY	_____	_____	20	24.2
TOTAL	63	75.8	20	24.2

Table 4.3 Number and Percentages of Students by class and level of Education : SAMPLE 1

NOTE:- = BLANK

CLASS \ LEVEL OF EDUCATION	SECONDARY		HIGHER EDUCATION	
	N	%	N	%
2nd "Graduat"	_____		9	10.8
6th Form	3	3.7	_____	
5th Form	71	85.5	_____	
TOTAL	74	89.2	9	10.8

78.4%, are from the two secondary schools of Mbanza-Ngungu. Only nine i.e. 10.8% come from the secondary school of the Institut National des Arts in Kinshasa, thus bringing the total of the subjects from Kinshasa to 18, i.e. 21.7% of the total population. All the subjects of this sample are day-school students. They are distributed as shown in Tables 4.1 to 4.3. These tables translated into words mean:

- (a) 54.2% of the population concerned attend the commercial and administrative option of the technical section (Table 4.2) offered at the 'Institut Technique Commercial' (ITC) BADIKA run by the Protestants (Table 4.1);
- (b) 24.2% of the population are in the Latin and Philosophy option, Literary Studies (Table 4.2) offered by the Kimbanguist school, Institut Mwilu Kiawanga (IMK) (Table 4.1);
- (c) 21.7% (i.e. 18 people) of the population are in official schools (Table 4.1). Half of the 21.7% are undergraduate students in their second year of study (Table 4.3) in the 'Animation Culturelle' option at the Institut National des Arts (INA). The other half are secondary school students studying dramatic arts (Table 4.2) at INAS, the secondary school of the National Institute of Arts (INA).

Tables 4.2 and 4.3 are particularly interesting in that they show that 75.8% of the population do technical (in the sense of Specific Purpose) studies (Table 4.2) and that 89.2% are secondary school students. Most of the 89.2% are in their fifth year of secondary education. Thus the 'Kin-Mbanza sample' or Sample 1 is characterised by

- (a) the area (Kinshasa and Mbanza-Ngungu)

Table 4.4 Number and Percentages of Students by School and type of School : SAMPLE 2

NOTE:- = BLANK

TYPE OF SCHOOL NAME	OFFICIAL		CATHOLIC		PROTESTANT		KIMBANGUIST	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
ISP/MRANZA-NGUNGU	34	13.5	—	—	—	—	—	—
LYCEE BANKAZI	—	—	36	14.3	—	—	—	—
ITECOM NGUIZANI	—	—	45	17.9	—	—	—	—
NSONA-NKULU	—	—	18	7.1	—	—	—	—
DISENGOMOKA	—	—	—	—	38	15.1	—	—
ITC BADIKA	—	—	—	—	45	17.9	—	—
IMK	—	—	—	—	—	—	36	14.3
TOTAL	34	13.5	99	39.3	83	33	36	14.3

Table 4.5 Number and Percentages of Students by option and type of Studies or Sections : SAMPLE 2

NOTE:- = BLANK

TYPE OF STUDIES OPTIONS	SOCIAL		LITERARY		SCIENTIFIC		PEDAGOGY		TECHNICAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
ENGLISH AND AFRICAN CULTURE	34	13.5								
LATIN-PHILO			54	21.4						
BIOCHEMISTRY					17	6.7				
MATHS AND PHYSICS					20	7.9				
GENERAL PEDAG.							37	14.7		
COMMERCE AND ADMINISTRATION									90	35.7
TOTAL	34	13.5	54	21.4	37	14.6	37	14.7	90	35.7

Table 4.6 Number and Percentages of Students by Class and Level of Education : SAMPLE 2

CLASS	LEVEL		SECONDARY		HIGHER EDUCATION	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1st "Graduat"					34	13.5
6th Form	89	35.3				
5th Form	129	51.2				
TOTAL	218	86.5			34	13.5

- (b) the level (secondary education/fifth form);
- (c) the Section (Technical or Specific Purpose).

The 'Mbanza Sample' is slightly different from the 'Kin-Mbanza' in all these three aspects:

- (a) the area is Mbanza-Ngungu only;
- (b) the level includes a large representation of sixth form students;
- (c) all sections are represented.

Unlike the Kin-Mbanza sample, the Mbanza sample includes both day and boarding school students at the rate of 90.2% and 9.8% respectively. Thus about 10% of the population of this sample consists of boarding school students. The four major types of school are represented in this sample which includes the 65 students of Sample 1 studying in Mbanza-Ngungu (cf 3.2.1.1.1). The schools all operate on a morning session basis. Tables 4.4 to 4.6 illustrate the characteristics of the sample. They show that:

- (a) 13.5% of the population of Sample 2 are undergraduate students in their first year (Table 4.6) of training as teachers of English and African Culture (Table 4.5) at the 'Institut Supérieur Pédagogique' (ISP) of Mbanza-Ngungu (Table 4.4)
- (b) 39.3% of the population went to Catholic schools, 33.0% to Protestant schools and 14.3% to Kimbanguist ones (Table 4.4);
- (c) 21.4% of the population are enrolled in the Latin and Philosophy option of the Literary Section, 14.6% in the Scientific Section (with 6.7% in the Biochemistry option and 7.9% in the Maths Physics one); 14.7% do

pedagogy and 35.7% do Technical Studies of Commerce and Administration (Table 4.5);

- (d) 35.3% of the population are in the sixth year of secondary education and 51.2% in the fifth.

At the moment of data collection the 13.5% undergraduate students had only done two months in the first year. While their attitudes towards English might be different from secondary school students' their knowledge of the language is not far from the secondary school students' levels concerned with here.

4.2.2 Age and Sex

The sex of nine of the eighty-three respondents ^{of} Sample 1 is unknown. Fifty-six respondents (i.e. 67.5%) are male. Only 18 subjects (i.e. 21.7%) are female. Thus valid percentages for this variable are: 75.7% of male respondents and 24.3% of female ones. As for Sample 2, there are 26 missing cases, 165 male and 61 female respondents. Valid percentages are then 73% of male and 27% of female respondents. As far as age is concerned the majority of respondents range between 17 and 26 years old in both samples. Only six respondents are below age 17 and 6 above age 26 in Sample 2 out of 251 subjects (one missing case). In Sample 1, 3 are below 17 and only 2 above 26 with no missing case. The mode in Sample 1 is age 19 to 19 and a half; in Sample 2 it stretches from 19.6 to 20.6 years old. In principle a child who has evolved normally throughout the primary and secondary schools completes his secondary education when he is 18 to 19 years old. We notice here that the subjects in both samples, the majority of whom are in the fifth year of secondary education, are 19 or about this age. This is an indication that some delay occurred some time

in the course of their studies. And since, the older one gets, the fewer chances there are for one to stay at school (cf Lubasa 1982:34), it makes sense to think that these children gave the best of themselves to get where they are and not to be dismissed. It, therefore, makes sense to associate age with Perseverance even if it is in a remote way (cf 4.2.9).

4.2.3 Birthplace and Permanent Residence

As far as place of birth is concerned two of the eighty-three respondents in Sample 1 gave no indication of where they were born. Two others were difficult to trace, one was born abroad, 23 in Kinshasa, the capital city, three in the region of Bandundu, two, in the Region of 'Kasai Occidental', two others in 'Kasai Oriental', and 48 in the Region of Bas-Zaire. Twenty-eight of the 48 born in Bas-Zaire were born in or around Mbanza-Ngungu. Thus the two places surveyed in this study are relatively equally represented in Sample 1 in terms of birth background. In Sample 2, 175 of the 252 subjects were born in the Region of Bas-Zaire, 47 in Kinshasa, and two abroad. Of the remaining 28 subjects, nine were not easy to trace, two gave no indication of their place of birth, one was born in the region of Bandundu, another one in the region of Equator, three in Upper Zaire, five in 'Kasai Occidental', one in Kiyu and five in Shaba. Ninety-five subjects of those born in Bas-Zaire were born in or around Mbanza-Ngungu. Thus Sample 2 is representative of the Mbanza-Ngungu area in particular and of Bas-Zaire in general in terms of birth background. In addition, 159 out of the whole population of Sample 2 are permanent residents of the Mbanza-Ngungu area. While only 37 subjects out of 252 live on a permanent basis in Kinshasa, 193 (including the 159 of the Mbanza area) permanently reside in Bas-

Table 4.7 Learners' and parents' religion in Percentages :
SAMPLES 1 and 2

RELIGION	LEARNERS' RELIGION		PARENTS' RELIGION		
	FREQUENCY	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2
CATHOLIC		56.8	61.1	50.7	49.3
PROTESTANT		35.1	27.9	31.0	36.1
KIMBANGUIST		4.1	4.3	8.5	5.5
MUSLIM		1.4	2.9	—	.9
CHRISTIAN		—	1.0	7.0	6.8
CHRISTIAN- NON-CHRISTIAN (1)		IRRELEVANT	IRRELEVANT	—	.5
NEUTRAL (2)		1.4	1.9	—	.5
NO RELIGION (PAGAN)		1.4	1.0	2.8	.5

(1) = i.e. mixed marriage

(2) = Believe in God but are not concerned with any religious sect

Zaire (21 cases are missing). This is a good reason to refer to Sample 2 as the Mbanza-Ngungu or Bas-Zaire sample, as opposed to Sample 1, the Kinshasa-Mbanza-Ngungu sample. Indeed, 27 of the population of Sample 1 (83 subjects) live permanently in Kinshasa and 36 in or about Mbanza-Ngungu. This is a good enough representation of these two areas to refer to Sample 1 as the Kin-Mbanza sample.

This is particularly the case if we consider the fact that out of the 83 cases, only one comes from the Region of Bandundu, another one lives abroad permanently and stays in Zaire during term time, and that 12 have their permanent addresses here and there in Bas-Zaire (6 missing cases).

4.2.4 Religion of respondents and their families

Most students surveyed are, as expected, Christians. Only 1 out of 83 (Sample 1) and 2 out of 252 (Sample 2) claim to have no religion. In Sample 1, 42 out of 83 are Catholic, 26 are Protestant 3 are Kimbanguist, 1 is Muslim and another one is neutral (9 missing cases). Similarly the parents of most of these students are Christians. Only two families are reported as non-believers. Thirty-six families are Catholic, 22 Protestant, 6 are Kimbanguist and 5 Christian with each parent belonging to different faiths (12 missing cases). In Sample 2, 127 students are Catholic, 58 are Protestant, 9 Kimbanguist, 6 are Muslim, 4 are neutral. Two belong to some other religious sects (44 missing cases). Most parents here again are Christians: 79 Protestant families, 12 Kimbanguist families, 108 Catholic families, 2 Muslim families, 15 Christian families with parents belonging to different sects, 1 mixed Christian - non-Christian family and 1 neutral one (33 missing cases). Table 4.7 compares the results (in percentages) of both groups and both variables (i.e. Sample 1 and 2, and the learners' religion and their parents').

Table 4.8 Parents' Formal Education in Percentages :
SAMPLES 1 and 2

FREQUENCY SCHOOLING	FATHER		MOTHER	
	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2
NO SCHOOLING	2.8	6.8	18.6	25.1
PRIMARY	19.7	16.4	32.9	24.7
POSTPRIMARY	18.3	12.3	25.7	16.1
SECONDARY	52.1	54.3	20.0	30.5
HIGHER EDUCATION	7.0	8.7	—	.9
NOT KNOWN	—	1.4	2.9	2.7

Beside the fact that most families are Christian, the table suggests that the children do not necessarily adopt their parents' religion. This observation can be regarded as the children's expression of their freedom in important matters such as Religion and Education.

4.2.5 Parents' education

With respect to the education of the respondents' parents we have observed that the highest percentage falls under secondary education. However, it is easy to see from Table 4.8 that mothers are generally less educated or rather have less instruction. This is not surprising, given the pre-independence educational background (cf 0.1.2.1). It would be interesting to see how this affects the children's Motivation and Perseverance. Space and time pressure does not allow us to turn to this exciting aspect of the study.

If we rely on the figures we may say that about 22% of the mothers in both samples are illiterate while only 5% of the fathers are illiterate. At the other extreme, while there is an average of 7.85% of fathers with higher education degrees, only an average of 4.45% of mothers hold a tertiary level degree. Even at the level of secondary education the gap between the population of mothers and fathers with secondary education is still big. While there is an average of 53.2% of fathers with secondary education, there are only 25.25% of mothers in the same position. This leads to the conclusion that in most families the mother is under-educated, and that the highest level of the father is secondary education level. Referring to the educational system within which the children operate, it is not surprising to see parents pushing their children to aim higher and persevere in their aims. The principle being that where they themselves failed, parents would like to see their children achieve.

Table 4.9 Percentages of Occupation of Head of Parental Household by order of importance in SAMPLES 1 and 2

SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2
1. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (24.7%)	1. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (26.3%)
2. BUSINESS/COMMERCE (18.2%)	2. CRAFTMANSHIP (14.4%)
3. FARMING (14.3%)	3. FARMING (14.0%)
4. CRAFTSMANSHIP (10.4%)	4. BUSINESS/COMMERCE (12.3%)
5. EDUCATION (9.1%)	5. EDUCATION (11.0%)
6. LABOUR (7.8%) and PRIVATE FIRMS + INDUSTRY (7.8%)	6. UNEMPLOYED (7.6%)
7. UNEMPLOYED/RETIRED (5.2%)	7. PRIVATE FIRMS + INDUSTRY (7.2%)
8. OTHER (2.6%)	8. LABOUR (4.7%)
(6 missing cases)	9. OTHER (2.5%) (16 missing cases)

4.2.6 Family status

In both samples 77.2% of the respondents come from a monogamous family and 22.8% from a polygamous one.

4.2.7 Respondents' sociocultural or familial background

Under this heading we look at the learners' family residence (that is the residence of their nuclear families as opposed to the extended family) and the occupation of the head of the household.

As far as the learners' family residence (and, therefore, place of origin) is concerned, 22.4% of the population of the Kin-Mbanza sample come from a rural area, 14.5% from semi-rural areas, and 63.2% from urban areas. For Sample 2, 21.8% of the population come from the rural area, 20.1% from the semi-rural, and 58.1% from the urban area. That is: the population of both samples is mainly constituted by urban dwellers and a fair representation of both rural and semi-rural dwellers. This information is consistent with the information about the learners' permanent residence (cf 4.2.3).

As far as the occupation of the head of the household is concerned, public administration is the most representative with 24.7% in Sample 1, and 26.3% in Sample 2; followed by commercial business in Sample 1 (18.2%), and by craftsmanship (14.4%) in Sample 2. The next occupation in both samples is farming: 14.2% in Sample 1, and 14.0% in Sample 2. This is not a matter of chance, given that Sample 1 is mainly urban with some rural elements and that Sample 2 is from an agro-administrative environment. Table 4.9 gives details about the occupations of the head of the parental household in both samples.

Table 4.10(a) Languages used by the respondents ; SAMPLE 1
FREQUENCY COUNTS

Language Status Language	MT1		MT2		NATL1		NATL2		NATL3		NATL4	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
NONE	-----		39 ⁽¹⁾	53.4	3	3.9	12	18.2	54	90.0	58	96.7
CILUBA	1	1.2	1	1.4	4	5.3	1	1.5	3	5.0	-----	
KIKONGO	37	45.7	6	8.2	38	50.0	15	22.7	-----		2	3.3
KISWAHILI	2	2.5	1	1.4	4	5.3	3	4.5	1	1.7	-----	
LINGALA	25	30.9	12	16.4	27	35.5	35	53.0	2	3.3	-----	
FRENCH	5	6.2	10	13.7								
KONGO DIALECT	9	11.1	2	2.7								
OTHER	2	2.5	2	2.7								
TOTAL	81	100	73	100	66	100	60	100	60	100	60	100
MISSING	2	=====	10	=====	7	=====	17	=====	23	=====	23	=====

Note 1 : Number of those who say that they have no second Mother Tongue, and are therefore monolingual

Legend : MT1 = have one Mother Tongue or a first Mother Tongue
 MT2 = have two Mother Tongues or a second Mother Tongue
 NATL1 = speak one National Language
 NATL2 = speak two National Languages
 NATL3 = speak three National Languages
 NATL4 = speak four National Languages

Table 4.10(b) Languages used by the respondents ; SAMPLE 2
FREQUENCY COUNTS

Language Language Status	MT1		MT2		NATL1		NATL2		NATL3		NATL 4	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
NONE			132 ⁽¹⁾	54.5	15	6.3	78	34.7	208	93.7	219	98.6
GILUBA	6	2.4	1	.4	7	2.9	2	.9	4	1.8	1	.5
KIKONGO	126	50.6	17	7.0	44	60.5	30	13.3	1	.5	1	.5
KISWAHILI	3	1.2	3	1.2	7	2.9	4	1.8	6	2.7	1	.5
LINGALA	48	19.0	51	20.2	65	27.3	111	49.3	3	1.4		
FRENCH	3	1.2	13	5.2								
KONGO DIALECT	55	21.8	22	8.7								
OTHER	8	3.2	3	1.2								
TOTAL	249	100	242	100	238	100	225	100	222	100	222	100
MISSING	3	=====	10	=====	14	=====	27	=====	30	=====	30	=====

Note 1 : Number of those who say that they have no second Mother Tongue, and are therefore monolingual

Legend : MT1 = have one Mother Tongue or a first Mother Tongue
 MT2 = have two Mother Tongues or a second Mother Tongue
 NATL1 = speak one National Language
 NATL2 = speak two National Languages
 NATL3 = speak three National Languages
 NATL4 = speak four National Languages

Table 4.10(c) The Learners' linguistic profile : Percentage of those who are mono/bilingual and use NATL1-4 in both Samples

	MONOLINGUAL		BILINGUAL		NATL1		NATL2		NATL3		NATL4	
	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2
YES	53.5	54.5	46.5	45.5	96.1	93.7	81.8	65.3	10.0	6.3	3.3	1.4
NO	46.5	45.5	53.5	54.5	3.9	6.3	18.2	34.7	90.0	93.7	96.7	98.6
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Legend : MT1 = have one Mother Tongue only
 MT2 = have two Mother Tongues, or a second Mother Tongue
 NATL1 = speak one National Language
 NATL2 = speak two National Languages
 NATL3 = speak three National Languages
 NATL4 = speak four National Languages

Let us now turn to the languages the learners use, their previous experience of formal learning of other languages and the self-evaluation of their competence in the languages they use, to try to make sense of the information discussed so far.

4.2.8 The Mother Tongue (MT) and the National Languages (NATL) or the languages used by the respondents

Table 4.10(a) gives the details reported by Sample 1, and Table 4.10(b) shows the results of Sample 2. They exclude the missing and, therefore, invalid values from the calculation of the percentages. Comparing these two tables we get Table 4.10(c) showing:

- (a) 53.5% monolinguals in Sample 1 and 54.5% in Sample 2;
- (b) 46.5% bilinguals in Sample 1 and 45.5% in Sample 2;
- (c) 96.1% with one national language in Sample 1, and 93.7% in Sample 2;
- (d) 81.8% with two national languages in Sample 1, and 65.3% in Sample 2;
- (e) 10% in Sample 1 and only 6.3% in Sample 2 with three national languages; and
- (f) 3.3% in Sample 1, and 1.4% in Sample 2 with four national languages.

It looks as if the more people there are, the fewer there are with more national languages, and that the number of those who have two mother tongues is in the region of 45% or so. If we can extrapolate, we can say that most Zairean learners are at least trilingual before they actually master French. By the time they start learning English, they are quadrilingual with a varied degree of competence in the languages they speak. More about competence later (cf 4.2.9).

The results also show that Kikongo and Lingala have the highest percentage of speakers. This is not surprising given that the areas surveyed are predominantly Kikongophone with a heavy influence from Lingala. Kinshasa in Sample 1 represents the Lingalophone area with a heavy representation of the other national languages. In fact, it is a multilingual/cultural area with Lingala as the major language. Whereas Mbanza-Ngungu is still a multilingual/cultural but Kikongophone, area with a heavy influence from Lingala. It is therefore not surprising to see Lingala and Kikongo at the top of the range. Obviously in a Ciluba and/or Kiswahili speaking area the pattern would be different with Lingala coming next in the hierarchy of knowledge and use. This point is supported by the Mbanza-Ngungu survey (Sample 2, Table 4.10(b)) where 50.6% of the population have Kikongo and 22.1% a Kikongo dialect for mother tongue; 19.3% have Lingala for mother tongue; 3.2% have dialects other than Kikongo, 1.2% have Ciluba and another 1.2% have Kiswahili as their mother tongue.

When it comes to the national languages spoken or used by this population, Kikongo still comes first (60.5%) followed by Lingala (27.3%) as first national language. The same languages are used by more people as second national language, with Lingala coming first (49.3% and Kikongo next (13.3%). The percentage of the population who claim to possess a third (6.4%) or fourth (1.2%) national language does not exceed 10% of the total population. What these results tell us is consistent with the extrapolation above that the zairean learner is basically trilingual (without French). But the linguistic pattern of each of them varies according to their mother tongue and the linguistic area they find themselves in. Indeed, out of the six people of the Mbanza survey for whom Ciluba is the mother tongue,

three actually use Ciluba as their first national languages, two use Kiswahili and only one can speak or use Kikongo. Among the three Kiswahili natives, two actually speak Kiswahili as their first language, one speaks Kikongo. Out of the 123 for whom Kikongo is the mother tongue, 96 actually speak it as their first national language, 19 speak Lingala as their first national language, and 8 claim to speak none of the four national languages. This quite surprising result emerges from the confusion that the term Kikongo caused in the mind of the respondents. While Kikongo refers in this study to the national variety used on the radio and the television, commonly referred to as 'Kikongo ya Leta', the respondents perceived it as the language spoken by the Kongo speech community. This includes 'Kikongo ya Leta' and the many dialects of the Kongo people. This seems like a negative point about Kikongo, yet it is positive in that it tells us that psychologically and socially, Kikongo is perceived as only one language, not as a set of dialects. This is what made some respondents refer to what is commonly accepted as dialect as 'national', and vice versa, and justifies the 8 Kikongo natives who claim not to speak any of the four national languages among which 'Kikongo' (i.e. Kikongo ya Leta) is. It means that the 8 Kikongo natives speak a variety of Kikongo.

When it comes to Lingala, two of the forty-six Lingala natives claim to make use of none of the four national languages, one considers Kiswahili and another considers Ciluba as their first national language, thirteen speak or use Kikongo and twenty-nine use Lingala. This result may sound peculiar and controversial, but it makes sense in the Zairean context at least. The two respondents who claim not to make use of any of the four national languages among which Lingala

(their mother tongue) and Kikongo (the language of their area) are may be using the local variety of Kikongo (referred to as Kindibu) which is not recognised as the national variety and is commonly referred to as a dialect of Kikongo. On the other hand, they might have lost use of their Lingala as a result of being in a Kikongophone environment, especially if the parents do not use Lingala at home. In this sense the two cases are similar to the case of the other two Lingala natives who have Kiswahili and Ciluba respectively as their first national languages in that Kiswahili and Ciluba, respectively, might be their parents' mother tongues. In addition these might be the languages used at home. Which links up with the Kikongo-case argument where the eight Kikongo natives claimed not to speak Kikongo or any of the other national languages. Like the Kikongo case, it is a social and psychological phenomenon. However, the Kikongo case is different in that the respondents identify their own Kikongo dialect to the national variety of Kikongo, while the Lingala natives identify themselves or their national language with reference to the language of the family. The process of identification is the same in both cases but the outcome is different. In the Kikongo case the outcome is one's dialect substituted for the national. In the Lingala natives' case it is one's national native language substituted for one's family's. In this respect, it is equally interesting to notice that two of the three children for whom mother tongue is French speak Ciluba as their first national language in a Kikongo-Lingala biased environment. No other explanation is obvious except that they are from Ciluba speaking families. However, it would not be easy to say (without further investigation) that the other French native child who has Kikongo as his first national language is from a Kikongo speaking family (though this is more likely) as he is found in a Kikongo speaking

area. What is more, the pattern of those for whom the mother tongue is one of the many Kikongo dialects is strikingly similar to the pattern of those who have or claim to have the national variety of Kikongo as their mother tongue: 31 for Kikongo as their first national language, 13 for Lingala and 5 who have no first national language. The argument concerning the two Lingala natives with no national language holds here on top of the argument about the eight Kikongo speakers. On the other hand, those for whom the mother tongues are other than a Kikongo dialect, French or one of the four national languages have each one of the four national languages. The suggestion thus being that the linguistic profile of the Zairean learners depends upon the mother tongue and the area lived in. In this particular case, the Kikongo speakers living in the Kikongo area influenced by Lingala would have their mother tongue (which in practice is one of the varieties of Kikongo) Kikongo (though not necessarily the national variety), and Lingala. A Ciluba child in this environment would have the mother tongue (Ciluba), Kikongo (again not necessarily the national version) and/or Lingala. Now the same child in a Ciluba area (with some influence of either Kiswahili or Lingala or both) would have Ciluba (or a variety of it) and Kiswahili or Lingala or both. On the other hand, those children with French as their mother tongue do not seem worried, and feel quite comfortable with their French and possibly with their family's language. Obviously, the position of French in the country is such that those who have it as a mother tongue feel no need for national languages, except for community identity purposes.

4.2.9 Previous or past experience of formal learning of other languages

Previous or past experience of formal learning (or instruction) of other languages has been investigated in terms of length or duration of the instruction in French and English. Why French and English? Because these are the two languages taught in schools. The length of their study, it is assumed, gives us a clue about the learners' aptitude and, more importantly, about their attitudes towards learning these languages and their ability or predisposition to strive for the set aims of schooling in their society. In other words, this information is indicative of the learners' predisposition to persevere. How is this so?

The education or school system of Zaire focusses on two major groups of subjects to pass or fail a student. These are Mathematics and related subjects, and the Language group. In the latter, French is the major language. Failure in one of these groups and more specifically in either Maths or French alone entails repeating the class or being expelled from school. One is liable to be expelled from school if one fails one or more times and/or repeats a class more than once. Officially, and therefore in principle, education in Zaire is compulsory. In practice, however, it is not. The school system works against it (cf 0.1.2 and/or Lubasa 1982:32-34). Therefore the learners have to struggle to keep up to the expectations of the system. The longer one stays in the system, the more persistent one has proved. The more persistent one is, the more probable it is that one has worked out a set of strategies to cope with the situation, not to drop out. If we now refer to our definition of Perseverance as the learners' ability to develop the strategies that they require to survive or to learn (cf 2.3.4.1),

then it makes sense to think of the learners' previous learning experience (in this context) as an indication of his readiness to persevere (if not of just perseverance).

In principle, a learner in the fifth year of secondary education (under the conditions described above) should have at the most eleven years (inclusive) of French and four to five years (inclusive) of English. A longer period of time in these subjects indicates that the respondent had repeated a year or more at some stage of his education. Since the learner is still struggling through the system, not just in French and English but in everything offered to him, it makes sense to assume that he has some predisposition to persevere or indeed that he is perseverant.

With the population surveyed in this thesis (both samples included) the minimum length of French study should, in principle, be ten years and a term and the maximum should be eleven years and a term inclusive. The average should then be ten and a half to eleven years. For English the average is roughly five years. The results show that the majority of the population surveyed in both groups have twelve years of French study and five years of English study. This means that they have one year more over the average for French and about the right timing for English study. This suggests that by the time they have reached the level where English begins, the learners had developed relevant strategies to cope with their education system and its requirements. However, a close look at their self evaluation on their own competence in some languages including French and English shows that they all agree that they have not mastered English well enough. The blame for the low agreed competence may

Table 4.11 SELF-EVALUATION : Percentages claiming various levels of competence in MT, French and English - SAMPLES 1 and 2

SCORE BY SAMPLE LANGUAGE	EXCELLENT		GOOD		FAIR		POOR		NOT AT ALL	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
MTCO	80.3	81.5	15.5	15.2	2.8	2.8	1.4	.5		
MTSP	67.1	70	23.3	22.1	5.5	4.7	4.1	3.3		
MTRD	61.6	63.4	30.1	25.8	6.8	9.4	1.4	1.4		
MTWR	61.6	64.3	23.3	22.1	13.7	10.8	1.4	2.8		
FCO	50	46.2	42.7	47.8	7.3	6				
FSP	22.9	26.8	65.1	63.2	12	10				
FRD	56.6	55.4	38.6	38.6	4.8	6				
FWR	25.3	34.5	61.4	52.6	13.3	12.9				
ECO	1.2	6.4	25.6	35.7	58.5	50.2	13.4	7.2	1.2	.4
ESP		3.6	13.3	24.4	55.4	56.4	30.1	15.2	1.2	.4
ERD	2.4	10.4	36.1	40.8	48.2	43.6	12	4.8	1.2	.4
EWR	1.2	6.4	18.1	28.4	53	51.6	26.5	13.2	1.2	.4

NOTE : MT = MOTHER TONGUE
 F = FRENCH
 E = ENGLISH
 -CO = COMPREHENSION
 -SP = SPEAKING
 -RD = READING
 -WR = WRITING
 S1 = Sample 1
 S2 = Sample 2

be put on the standards of the education system or, indeed, on the teacher (cf 3.2.1.3.6). But this does not undermine the present argument. Table 4.11 illustrates the point about the learners' self evaluation of language competence by comparing the number of people claiming to be competent in English with the number of those who think they are competent in their mother tongue and French.

Assuming that the proportions in the self evaluation of the mother tongue reflect the normal tendency of the distribution of a population, one would expect the number of people or the percentages for each language and in the different skills to decrease from left to right and from the top downwards. We notice that, with French, the left-right decreasing tendency holds for the receptive skills or abilities. The pattern for the productive skills/abilities shows that more people, and, indeed, the majority of the population think of themselves as good at speaking and writing French rather than comprehending spoken or written discourse. This pattern is further reinforced with those who report themselves as fair. The idea of being able to speak a language without understanding is perhaps odd, but not unreasonable. Indeed, it is not unusual to find language learners who can utter perfectly comprehensible sentences but who cannot understand or even recognise them in other people's discourse. The pattern is substantiated by the results of those who report themselves as fair and poor in their mother tongue. Thus, there is a case to wonder at if this is not the way languages are learned. This state of affairs can be related to the incubation period in first language acquisition when the children process a number of utterances for assimilation in silence, i.e. they stop producing them for a while before the utterances become an effective part of their linguistic load.

Table 4.11(a) Probability Value of Self-Evaluation other than .000 : Both Samples

SAMPLE PAIR	Sample 1	Sample 2
MTCO/MTSP	.001	_____
MTCO/MTRD	.001	_____
MTCO/MTWR	.001	_____
MTCO/FCO	.001	_____
MTCO/FRD	.02	_____
MTSP/MTRD	.849	.077
/MTWR	.334	.03
/FCO	.382	.003
FRD	.81	.116
MTRD/MTWR	.278	.328
/FCO	.427	.082
/FRD	.896	.669
MTWR/FCO	.899	.246
/FSP	.002	_____
/FRD	.615	.947
FWR	.003	_____
FCO/FRD	.172	.004
FSP/FWR	.829	.158
ECO/ERD	.064	_____
EWR	.006	.002
ESP/EWR	.181	.004

NOTE : MT = MOTHER TONGUE
 F = FRENCH
 E = ENGLISH
 -CO = COMPREHENSION
 -SP = SPEAKING
 -RD = READING
 -WR = WRITING

When it comes to competence in English, the pattern further changes. Most people rate themselves lower than for French and the mother tongue. In addition, the shift in the distribution is not as consistent as it is for the mother tongue and French between the two samples. Very few people claim to be excellent in the four skills. In Sample 1, for instance, only 1.2% say that they comprehend English perfectly, but nobody claims to be excellent at speaking the language. In Sample 2, 6.4% claim to be excellent in comprehension and 3.6% in speaking. For these two skills the pattern spotted with the mother tongue holds and is consistent with French. For the other two skills, (reading and writing), the mother tongue pattern no longer holds, but the French pattern does, as more people (10.4%) claim to be excellent at reading English and fewer (6.4%) at writing. Thus, as for French, more people claim to be better with receptive skills with fewer claiming the same for productive skills. The distribution of those who think that they are good in English shows a new pattern which is only consistent with the French pattern for the excellent people: more people claim to be good in receptive skills than productive skills, and vice versa. If we compare the patterns under good in all three languages (English, French, Mother Tongue), we notice that the pattern is similar in both samples between French and mother tongue for aural-oral competence, and between English and mother tongue for the reading-writing competence. While the difference between reading and writing in the mother tongue is not significant ($P = .278$, in Sample 1 and $.328$ in Sample 2) (cf Table 4.11(a)), it is significant for English ($P = .000$ in both samples). The English pattern as a whole suggests that more people feel quite comfortable with receptive skills and fewer with the productive skills. This is the reverse of the mother tongue and French (cf Table 4.11).

The pattern for those who think that they are only fair is consistent between French and the mother tongue. Fewer people feel comfortable with the receptive skills and more with the productive skills. When it comes to English, the pattern between the two samples is no longer congruent. While Sample 2 is consistent with the French and mother tongue patterns, Sample 1 is not. In Sample 1, fewer people report themselves as comfortable in speaking and reading. More report themselves comfortable in comprehending and writing. This result raises the question of interpretation of the question or questions put, and the reasons for such rather than such other interpretation. In short, the question is: what question did the respondents in Sample 1 (and, indeed, in Sample 2) answer and why?

The association of reading with speaking and comprehension with writing suggests that reading is understood, or has been interpreted as reading aloud and writing as note-taking or something to do with writing down what has been spoken or read aloud by someone else and understood. This is not surprising when one knows that classroom practice focusses on note-taking while the teacher is speaking. Similarly, most reading in Zairean schools is done aloud, to the extent that reading is substitutable for reading aloud followed by comprehension questions. This is what might justify the association of reading with speaking. Another related justification is that conversation lessons often evolve around a text or reading comprehension. Thus, these associations are the result of classroom procedures. The question, then, which follows is, why is this only clear in Sample 1 not in Sample 2? Is it because the effect of classroom procedures are more pronounced in the Sample 1 area? However, the possibility that the other sample perceive these skills in the same manner as

Sample 1 is not excluded. This complicates the matter and calls for further investigation. Nevertheless, we can still deduce that English is the least mastered language of the three and that the respondents' attitude towards it is not unfavourable. In effect, most respondents' English is poor. Their self evaluation as fair is an indication that they do not hate English (and, therefore, are favourable to English). This favourable evaluation of themselves is, in turn, an indication that they wish to improve their competence in English. If we agree that "respondents wishing to improve their competence in the language rate themselves more favourably than others with regard to the four skills" (H O Murchu 1984:145), then the observation above should pose no problem. Thus, the analysis of the learners' past experience of other languages and their self-evaluated competence suggest that most learners of English in schools are indeed motivated and disposed to persevere (cf 3.1.1.1(f)). This finding supports one of our hypotheses that Zairean learners of English are motivated but lack Perseverance (cf hypothesis 1) as a result of demotivation caused by the teaching-learning situation. In other words, the finding suggests that the learner of English is in essence motivated and perseverant but school kills his Motivation and Perserverance.

As far as competence in the languages discussed so far and the national languages is concerned, the results show that most people have a positive attitude towards other languages. This point will be fully discussed later in this chapter (cf 4.2.10.1 and 4.2.10.2). It is important, however, to point out henceforward that to most learners and, indeed, most Zaireans (cf Questionnaire 2) their mother tongue is equally as important as French. They grant a second class or even lower position to the national languages (cf item 84). On the other hand, English which is far less well mastered than any

of the national languages, is well off in terms of prestige or perceived importance for Zairean society, and well above the mother tongue. The question is why is this so. We will come back to this issue later in the section about national and other languages and peoples (cf 4.2.10.2). For the time being suffice it to say that this observation supports the point that attitudes can influence but do not determine success in OL learning, and, therefore, by extension that attitudes influence Motivation and Perseverance rather than cause them. With reference to the hypotheses of the present thesis, the things which are likely to cause and maintain motivation are to be found in the classroom and society at large (cf hypotheses 1 and 2, p154).

4.2.10 Motivation and Perseverance

4.2.10.0 Introduction

As will be remembered, a conceptual framework was set up to test the validity of the hypotheses we have just referred to. These hypotheses are invalid if one of the dynamics (the Dynamic of Motivation and/or the Dynamic of Perseverance) proves to be false (cf 2.3.3). This questionnaire is one of the instruments used to falsify or look for instances which would falsify the framework and therefore, demonstrate the invalidity of the hypotheses all together. This is why the questions under this section focus on the main concepts (Motivation and Perseverance) and two closely related concepts (Activity-Enjoyment and Incentive). Beside testing the Model, this section is meant to gather elements of guidance towards more suitable learning materials for the Zaireans in particular and other people whose particulars are similar and known. In other words, should

the Model be false, this section will provide us with alternative and/or further information to correct both the Model and the hypotheses. These hypotheses will then lead us to criteria to consider in the production of teaching and/or learning materials for this specific group. The components of the questionnaire meant to test and cater for the necessary information are:

- (a) Motivation conditioning;
- (b) Motivation;
- (c) Perseverance; and
- (d) Activity-Enjoyment.

Motivation conditioning as an index failed completely. But some subdivisions meant as the scales of the Motivation Conditioning Index produced consistent factors which can be used for the analysis of this component. A few reasons for the failure of the Motivation Conditioning as an index might be that:

- (a) the Zairean context is so different from the Canadian one that this component mainly based on Gardner et al's (1979) AMTB was not appropriate. Indeed, the Zairean context is a multilingual/cultural situation where the value of English is perceived in utilitarian terms versus aesthetic terms rather than integrative and instrumental. This may be the main reason why the correlation matrix of this component is ill-conditioned and liable to produce incorrect results.
- (b) Variability of interpretation or variation in the interpretation of the questions might have contaminated the result. This point is closely related to our first and the learners' personality. A few questionnaires in which some questions were duplicated on two different

pages showed different responses to the same questions.

In some cases the responses are completely different for most questions.

If one single person can interpret the same question differently within a short time, it would not be surprising to think of the respondents answering different questions on reading the same question. In other words, the same questions might have triggered different interpretations which, as a consequence, produced the ill-conditioned correlation matrix which marred the component on an index.

- (c) The third reason might be that the index was actually not testing what it was meant to test.

These three reasons are equally good and may have worked together to produce this negative result on the component. It may be argued that the component failed to converge because the model is simply wrong. In other words, the failure of the Motivation Conditioning Component to converge in factors may be seen as an instance of the falsification of the Model. Unfortunately (or maybe fortunately for the Model) the other components of the questionnaire along with some scales of the Motivation Conditioning work together to support the Model. The scales in question are:

- (a) attitudes towards, and interest in other languages;
- (b) Zairean versus other languages and peoples;
- (c) OL Anxiety, Learning Experience and Strategy, and Learning Purpose.

It amounts to saying that the conceptual Motivation Conditioning Index failed because it is constituted by scales which in effect test different aspects of the learners' attitude, liable to influence

Table 4.12 Attitudes towards, and Interest in other Languages.
Rotated Factor Matrix with 5 Factors, Threshold = .30.
SAMPLE 2

ITEMS*/FACTORS	1	2	3	4	5
ATTITUDE 1					
70	.67				
64	.64				
67	.60				
43	.51				
ATTITUDE 2					
20		.62			
24		.53			
11		.51			
35		.46			
28	-.32	.45			.40
25		.43	.33		
19		.36			
30		.30			
48		—			
8		—			
ATTITUDE 3					
51			.75		
42			.72		
ATTITUDE 4					
57				.61	
34				.43	
61				.34	
40				.30	
47				.30	
ATTITUDE 5					
46	.33				-.62
79					.49

- Legend : ATTITUDE 1 = Negative attitudes towards English and Learning English
 ATTITUDE 2 = Positive attitudes towards English and Learning English and other languages
 ATTITUDE 3 = Positive English and Negative French attitudes
 ATTITUDE 4 = Complex feelings about English and English Learning
 ATTITUDE 5 = Satisfaction with ELT

*See Appendix I(i) for content of items

their Motivation, their subsequent Perseverance, and their learning processes. Thus the failure statistically of the Motivation Conditioning Index to converge in factors is rather a failure in consistency within the index rather than failure of what has been tested. The other three conceptual indices are soundly supported statistically and in turn support the main point of the model as described and hypothesised in Chapter Two (2.3.3.1 and 2.3.2 respectively). Therefore, the results which follow are reported in terms of the scales referred to above and of the factors isolated through factor analysis.

4.2.10.1 Attitudes towards, and interest in, other languages

These are measured by 23 simple questions, rated on a five point scale where 1 equals complete agreement with the opinion expressed and 5 equals complete disagreement. The Principal Axis Factoring analysis extracted 8 factors of which varimax convergence is .00411, and where 5 of the 8 factors are related by means of one or more items loading in more than one factor. The 5 factor analysis provides the network shown in Table 4.12. We are using this network for the interpretation of the results related to this scale. It shows that there are five types of attitudes towards other languages as far as Sample 2 is concerned. They are:

- (a) a set of negative attitudes towards English and learning English, referred to as 'Attitude 1';
- (b) a set of positive attitudes towards English and learning English and other languages referred to as 'Attitude 2';
- (c) a complex of positive attitudes towards English and learning English and negative attitudes towards French and learning it, referred to as 'Attitude 3';
- (d) a set of attitudes consisting of varied complex feelings about English and English learning, referred to as 'Attitude 4';

- (e) a factor concerned with the learner's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the English lessons, i.e. the way English is taught. This factor is referred to as 'Attitude 5'.

Except for Attitude 4, all the other types of attitudes are inter-related. The network suggests that Attitude 4 is more likely neutral in the sense that positive scores in it do not necessarily entail negative or positive scores in the others. Conversely, positive scores in, say Attitude 1, will entail negative scores in the others as is the case for item 46 (Table 4.12), and vice versa, the case of item 28 (Table 4.12).

(a) Attitude 1

With reference to Attitude 1 in Sample 1, only 13.3% of the population say that they hate English as a language (item 70). 4.8% think that English lessons are a waste of time (item 64), 8.4% claim that they do not see the relevance of English in their society (item 67), and 9.6% say that they hate the English lessons (item 43). Sample 2 reveals similar results. These figures suggest that the great majority of Zairean learners of English want and value English. Only a minority has a really negative attitude towards English and learning it.

(b) Attitude 2

The point that English is valued and wanted is substantiated by the results for Attitude 2 in both samples. Table 4.12(a) is self-explanatory. It provides the totals of positive and negative responses and the frequency of the neutral ones.

Table 4.12(a) Frequency Counts of Attitude 2 in both Samples

FREQUENCY BY SAMPLE ITEMS OF ATTITUDE 2		SAMPLE 1		SAMPLE 2	
		N	%	N	%
ITEM 20	+	70	85.4	229	91.2
	0	6	7.3	9	3.6
	-	6	7.3	13	5.2
ITEM 24	+	57	68.7	198	78.9
	0	10	12.0	18	7.2
	-	16	19.3	35	14.0
ITEM 11	+	55	67.9	174	72.8
	0	18	22.2	32	13.4
	-	8	9.8	33	13.8
ITEM 35	+	60	72.3	180	71.5
	0	10	12.0	28	11.1
	-	13	15.6	44	17.4
ITEM 28	+	56	67.5	185	74.9
	0	9	10.8	25	10.1
	-	18	21.7	37	15.0
ITEM 25	+	45	54.9	152	62.1
	0	17	20.7	46	18.8
	-	20	24.4	47	19.2
ITEM 19	+	56	67.5	171	67.9
	0	12	14.5	36	14.3
	-	15	18.0	45	17.8
ITEM 30	+	68	81.9	211	84.4
	0	4	4.8	11	4.4
	-	11	13.2	28	11.2
ITEM 48*	+	41	50.0	136	55.1
	0	19	23.3	48	19.4
	-	22	26.8	63	25.5
ITEM 8*	+	77	93.9	220	88.4
	0	3	3.7	13	5.2
	-	2	2.4	16	6.4

Legend : N = NUMBER OF SUBJECTS
 % = PERCENTAGE
 + = POSITIVE, AGREEMENT WITH EXPRESSED OPINION
 - = NEGATIVE, DISAGREEMENT
 0 = NO OPINION, NEUTRAL OR DO NOT KNOW
 * = Notes (see notes below)

Item 8 = If I had to live in another country or another region of Zaire, I would make a great effort to learn that local language even though I could get along with my mother tongue.(3)*

- Item 11 = I'd like to learn as much English as possible.(4)
- Item 19 = If English was not taught in school I would make a great effort to learn it privately.
- Item 20 = I'd like to speak English perfectly.(15)
- Item 24 = I wish I could read magazines written in English and listen to English broadcastings.
- Item 25 = I wish I could speak English better than French.
- Item 28 = I love the English lessons.(22)
- Item 30 = I'd really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.(43)
- Item 35 = I love English.
- Item 48 = Although there are a lot of Zairean languages, it is important that the Zaireans learn European languages.

- Notes : (1) Items 8 and 48 have a loading below the minimum of .30
- (2) The figures in brackets refer to Gardner et al's item from which the present item is derived or adapted. (Gardner et al 1979)

Table 4.12(b) Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude 3 in both Samples
(Minimum = 1 : Maximum = 5)

ITEM and SAMPLE SCORE		ITEM 51		ITEM 42		AVERAGE %		TOTALS OF AVERAGE %	
		S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
PERCENTAGES	CA	27.7	26.7	28.9	27.6	28.3	27.15	40.3	49
	PA	14.5	22.3	9.6	21.5	12	21.9		
	NO	20.5	22.3	20.5	17.9	20.5	20.1	20.5	20.1
	PD	21.7	15.5	20.5	18.3	21.1	16.9	39.2	30.8
	CD	15.7	13.1	20.5	14.6	18.1	13.85		
Mean		2.831	2.661	2.94	2.707				
SD		1.447	1.365	1.517	1.418				
N		83	251	83	246				

Legend : S1 = Sample 1
 S2 = Sample 2
 CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of valid cases

ITEM 42 = English is easier than French

ITEM 51 = I think English is easier to learn than French

(c) Attitude 3

Attitude 3 is concerned with the respondents' attitudes towards French and English contrasted. The objective of this contrast is to find out which of the two languages learners favour or find easy to learn. English turns out to be the most favoured, or at least to compete with French. Indeed, in Sample 1 for instance, (cf Table 4.12(b)) 27.7% of the respondents completely agree that English is easier to learn than French (cf item 5); 15.7% completely disagree with the opinion; 14.5% partly agree with the opinion and 21.7% disagree; 20.5% of the population keep quiet. When it comes to item 42 (English is easier than French) about the same percentage (28.3%) completely agree that English as a language is easier than French. But more people (20.5%) disagree with the opinion. Still 20.5% keep quiet. Those who partly agree with the opinion decrease in number in favour of partial disagreement. Thus a total of 41% disagree that English is easier than French against 38.5% agreements. If the learners find that English is not easier than French and yet find it easier to learn, we can only conclude that English, or at least, learning it, is perceived more positively than French. When comparing the total average scores of the agreements and disagreements (40.3% vs 39.2%) we notice that the difference between them is so little as to wonder whether it is significant at all. Because the difference is negligible and, in view of the role of French in Zairean society and the education system, there is cause to think that English is perceived more favourably both as a language and as a subject. The results for Sample 2 support this opinion as a total of 49% of the population against 31% of disagreements think that English is an easy language (cf Table 4.12(b)).

Table 4.12(c)

Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations (Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5)
of ATTITUDE 4 : Samples 1 and 2

ITEM and SCORE	ITEM 34		ITEM 40		ITEM 47		ITEM 57		ITEM 61	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
CA	16.9	11.6	17.3	16.3	10.8	9.6	22.9	17.5	46.9	41.4
PA	18.1	14.4	22.2	24.1	15.7	14.9	18.1	19.4	25.9	27.3
NO	12	12.4	21	18.8	26.5	18.5	25.3	17.1	12.3	15.7
PD	12	16	11.1	13.9	16.9	18.5	14.5	14.7	7.4	9.2
CD	41	45.6	28.4	26.9	30.1	38.6	19.3	31.3	7.4	6.4
Mean	3.422	3.696	3.111	3.11	3.398	3.614	2.892	3.23	2.025	2.12
Standard Deviation	1.53	1.455	1.475	1.451	1.352	1.375	1.423	1.5	1.255	1.229
Number of Valid Cases	83	250	81	245	83	249	83	252	81	249

Legend : S1 = Sample 1
 S2 = Sample 2
 CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement

- ITEM 34 = I'm learning English simply because I have no choice, as it is a compulsory school subject.
- ITEM 40 = English should be an optional subject at school.
- ITEM 47 = I learn English by curiosity to discover and explore the English humour for instance.
- ITEM 57 = English learning gives me a feeling of alienation and of rejection of my own identity and culture.
- ITEM 61 = English learning makes me feel good, because with English, I can be identified with the anglophones, especially the Americans and the Britons.

(d) Attitude 4

This factor derived from five items concerned with the learners' attitudes towards the compulsory learning of English (items 34, 40, 47) and the effects of its knowledge (items 57 and 61). This factor has a certain impact on the learners' Motivation Intensity in both directions, (positive or negative) to the extent that it is referred to in some researches (Gardner et al 1979, Swekila 1981) as Motivation Intensity or part of it. As far as this piece of work is concerned 'Attitude 4' just like the other sets of attitudes is a preliminary condition for Motivation to occur. With reference to Sample 2 and item 34, we notice that 45.6% of the subjects completely disagree with the opinion that English is learned because there is no choice (item 34) against 11.6% complete agreement and 14.4% partial agreement. Partial disagreement scores 16% and brings the total of disagreement with this opinion to 61.6%. Only 12.4% are undecided. Regarding the point that English ought to be optional in schools (item 40) more people are undecided (18.8%). Those who are extremely against the idea amount to 26.9 against 16.3% of complete agreement and 24.1% of partial agreement. The percentage of those who are positive one way or the other is thus 40.4%. With the 13.9% of those who are partly against the idea of turning English into an optional course, the total of negative responses amounts to 40.8%. Considering the increase in the number of the undecided and the equally important number of agreements and disagreements, there is cause to think that there is unhappiness with the compulsory courses of English. What learners are unhappy with is not necessarily the compulsory nature of the course (all courses are compulsory at secondary school in Zaire). It might well be that they are unhappy with the way the compulsory English course is run. This is the main concern of

'Attitude 5'. Thus the wish to see English taught or learned optionally in schools is the expression of a tendency to escape the stress and boredom of the compulsory lessons. Item 47 (Learning English by Curiosity) suggests that some 24.5% of Sample 2 learn English partly or entirely to discover one or more things about anglophones and their ways of life and that 57.1% study it for reasons other than curiosity. 18.5% are not sure about their motives in this respect. Sample 1 also gives the same type of results with regard to these three items. Table 4.12(c) compares the results of both samples. Item 61 has the greatest number of positive answers (46.9% CA's and 25.9 PA's against 7.4% PD and 7.4% CD). 12.3% claim not to know whether they feel any pleasure in knowing English and whether or not they wish to be identified with the anglophones, particularly the Americans and the Britons. Item 57 expresses the opposite feeling expressed by item 61, namely: the feeling of alienation and of rejection of one's cultural identity. The results show a high percentage of 'don't knows' (25.3%). Those who completely take this view amount to 22.9% of the population of Sample 1. Their antagonists amount to 19.3%. The partial positives and negatives respectively amount to 18.1% and 14.5%. Thus altogether 41% of Sample 1 agree that knowledge of English alienates them, 33.8% disagree, and 25.3% do not know or are undecided. These figures compared with those obtained with item 61 reveal that knowledge of English is indeed desired for socio-cultural purposes but that there is caution about it when their own culture is threatened or jeopardised. Thus 'Attitude 4' reveals that there are complex feelings and reasons that make the Zairean learners want English in schools or out in language centres. These feelings and reasons, however, are sensitive to their own cultural background, a truism (in the fields of sociolinguistics and social psychology) that needs no comment.

(e) Attitude 5: Satisfaction with ELT

This factor is concerned with the learners' attitudes towards the actual English lessons in schools. It is constituted by two items: a straight forward opinion (item 46) and a multiple choice item (item 79). Item 46 (I want to know English but the English course lets me down) scores (Sample 1):

- (a) 23.5% of complete agreements (CA)
- (b) 23.5% of partial agreements (PA)
- (c) 12.3% of no opinions (NO)
- (d) 12.3 % of partial disagreement (PD); and
- (e) 28.4% of complete disagreement (CD)

Although there are more people who take the extreme negative view (28.4%), the overall pattern shows that there are more positive responses than negative ones (47% vs 40.7%). In Sample 2, however, the negative responses override the positive ones (45.7% Disagreement vs 41.3% Agreement). 13% of the subjects remain undecided. Unless it is proven that these samples are significantly different, these results tell us that there is concern about the English course and lessons among Zairean learners of English (see also Attitude 4). This point is strengthened by the results of item 79 where the majority of the population (68.7%) assert that they would definitely learn English if they had a choice between learning English and any other language. Indeed given the problem described in 2.3.1, and the results of item 46, one would expect the learners to want to drop out given the opportunity to do so. Surprisingly enough, only 4.8% (Sample 1) say they would drop out if they had a choice, and 26.5% say they do not know whether they would drop out or take the course. What this factor then tells us is that English is so valued and wanted that most people would take an English course at school (or elsewhere

in a language centre) no matter how it is run. This very point is an argument in favour of better suited courses to meet the learners' needs and expectations, and supports the point that there is concern about ELT in schools among learners of English. Thus the analysis of the five factors of this scale (Attitudes towards, and Interest in other languages) has revealed that, contrary to what teachers of English think of their learners (cf 2.3.1), Zairean learners are very much interested in English, and their attitude towards learning it is the most positive. There should, therefore, be no problem in motivating them. However, teachers complain that the students are hard to motivate. What is wrong then? This is what we are after.

4.2.10.2 Zairean versus other languages and peoples

When treating 'Attitude 4' especially items 57 and 61 we came to find that English was highly valued and desired for socio-cultural purposes as long as one's own culture is not jeopardised. This scale is meant to provide us with the sociocultural framework of the learners' attitudes towards their own and other languages and peoples. This is to be found in Table 4.13. It consists of ten factors of which seven are interrelated. The ten factors have been labelled as follows:

- (1) Foreign Languages other than French (FLOF)
- (2) Mother Tongues and the National Languages (MT & NATL's)
- (3) Ciluba and Kiswahili (Ci & Kis)
- (4) Anomie and Ethnocentricity
- (5) Replacement of French by National Languages (RF-NATL's)
- (6) Zairean and Other Languages in Education (Z & OLS in Ed)

Table 4.13 Zairean versus other languages and Peoples : Rotated Factor Matrix (SAMPLE 2)

Items*/Factors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
FLOP										
German	.79									
Spanish	.77									
Portuguese	.73									
Russian	.73									
Arabic	.64									
English	.38							.37		
Lingala		MT + NATLS								
MT		.79								
Kikongo		.67								
Kiswahili		.66								
Ciluba	.30	.52	.39						.36	.39
Item 45			CI & KIS							
Item 26			.60							
			.44							
Item 15				Anomie & Ethnocentricity						
Item 53				.61						
Item 69				.42	.39					.30
Item 21				.41						
				.36						
Item 60					RF - NATLS					
Item 33					.51					
Item 7					.31					
					-					
Item 66						Z & OL'S in Ed				
Item 13						.52				
						.52				
Item 38							Knowledge & Use of NATLS			
Item 16							.56			
Item 18							.51			
							-			
French								French		
Item 68								.64		
								-		
Item 59									F + NATLS	
									.44	
Item 31										Z + AA
										.41

- Legend:
- FLOP = Foreign Languages other than French
 - MT & NATL'S = The Mother Tongue and the National Languages
 - CI & Kis = Ciluba and Kiswahili
 - RF - NATL'S = Replacement of French by National Languages
 - Z & OL'S in Ed = Zairean and other Languages in Education
 - F & NATL'S = French and National Languages
 - Z & AA = Zairean and African Anglophones.
 - NATL'S = National Languages

*See Appendix I(1)

- (7) Knowledge and use of National Languages
- (8) French
- (9) French and National Languages (F & NATL's)
- (10) Zairean and African Anglophones (Z & AA)

The items of the scale consist of seventeen straight forward statements expressing opinions about Zairean and (or versus) other languages and peoples, and an evaluative item of twelve languages among which are the mother tongue, the four national languages, French and English, and a few commonly spoken other languages. Factor 1 precisely gathers these languages together with English, and links up with factor 8 through English. Factor 2 (MT & NATL's) gathers the mother tongue and the national languages, and links up negatively with factor 9 (French & NATL's), and positively with factor 3 concerned with the appreciation of Ciluba and Kiswahili. Factor 4 (Anomie and Ethnocentricity) on its side links up with factors 9 and 5 through some negative connection (item 53). The three factors without clear connections with the others are factors 6, 7 and 10. They are respectively concerned with the place and role of Zairean and other languages in education, the national languages and the nation, and the attitude of Zaireans towards African anglophones and their ways of life.

(a) Factor 1: Foreign Languages other than French (FLOF)

Factor 2: MT & NATL's, and Factor 8: French

These factors result from the respondents' rating of the twelve languages in item 84 of the questionnaire (cf Appendix 1(i)). They were asked to rate on a five point scale the different languages for in order of importance/Zairean society today and in the future.

The study of Table 4.13(a) reveals that except for English, the languages in factor 1 (FLOF) are consistently rated as less or not important,

Table 4.13(a)

Percentages of FLOF, MT and NATL's, and French in both Samples

LANGUAGES : FLOF + FRENCH	GERMAN		SPANISH		PORTUGUESE		RUSSIAN		ARABIC		ENGLISH		FRENCH	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
DO NOT KNOW	5.1	1.2	3.8	.8	2.5	.4	3.8	.4	3.8	.4	1.2	—	—	—
VERY IMPORTANT	16.7	11.5	14.1	9.5	7.6	6.6	10.1	6.2	7.7	4.5	64.2	59.9	85.0	84.9
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	15.4	15.2	12.8	14.9	11.4	11.2	10.1	6.2	7.7	7.0	21.0	26.7	11.2	13.1
AVERAGE	30.8	28.7	21.8	26.1	34.2	28.5	19.0	20.2	10.3	13.1	13.6	11.7	1.2	.8
LESS IMPORTANT	16.7	23	24.4	22.8	22.8	21.9	17.7	21.1	23.1	27.9	—	.8	2.5	.8
NOT IMPORTANT	15.4	20.5	23.1	25.7	21.5	31.4	39.2	45.9	47.4	47.1	—	.8	—	.4

LANGUAGES : MT + NATLS	LINGALA		MT		KIKONGO		KISWAHILI		CILUBA	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
DO NOT KNOW	—	—	—	—	1.2	—	3.8	.4	3.8	.8
VERY IMPORTANT	33.3	32.8	46.9	51.6	34.6	37.4	15.2	14.8	16.7	12.8
FAIRLY IMPORTANT	30.9	27.9	18.5	17.9	23.5	25.2	29.1	23.4	20.5	18.5
AVERAGE	24.7	21.7	14.8	14.6	24.7	19.5	29.1	33.2	20.5	27.2
LESS IMPORTANT	3.7	10.7	2.5	7.3	7.4	11.8	12.7	16.8	19.2	24.3
NOT IMPORTANT	7.4	7.0	17.3	8.5	8.6	6.1	10.1	11.5	19.2	16.5

Legend : FLOF = Foreign Language other than French
 MT = Mother Tongue
 NATL's = National Languages
 S1 = Sample 1
 S2 = Sample 2

or at best as having an average value for the future of Zairean society. English, not surprisingly, is seen as very important or fairly important, and at the worst as having a middle value for Zaire and its society. When it comes to French (factor 8) it is unanimously rated as very important and at the worst as fairly important. When we compare the positive scores of English and French we notice that English competes with French quite closely (85.2% vs 96.2% in Sample 1, and 86.6% vs 98% in Sample 2). These figures further support the point made earlier that English is highly valued in Zairean society. The percentages of the languages in mother tongue and national languages show that Zaireans generally value their own languages even though their value is perceived as lower than the value of French and English. From the figures in Table 4.13(a) we can rank these twelve languages in the following order of importance:

- (1) French
- (2) English
- (3) The Mother Tongue
- (4) Kikongo and/or Lingala
- (5) Kiswahili and Ciluba
- (6) The other foreign languages with Arabic at the end of the queue.

This hierarchy, in effect, counters the argument that foreign languages, by the very fact that they are foreign and mainly European, have more prestige than the local national languages (cf Lubasa 1982:89).

(b) Factor 3: Ciluba and Kiswahili

This factor consists of two items among five designed to check the respondents' language preference among the National Languages and French. The discussion above has shown Kiswahili having similar

value to Ciluba. Both languages are rated lower than French, Kikongo and Lingala in Zairean society. This, as we argued earlier in this chapter (cf 4.2.8), is not surprising given the position of French in Zairean society and the fact that the survey took place in a non-Kiswahili/Ciluba area. The results of this factor (Ciluba and Kiswahili) substantiates the argument which suggests a mingling of the four national languages in the hierarchy of language prestige as follows:

- (1) French
- (2) English
- (3) The Mother Tongue
- (4) The National Languages; and
- (5) The Other Foreign Languages.

This order is revealing and informative in a place where the linguistic order is the other way round for, it is claimed, socio-economic or rather politico-economic reasons (cf 0.1.1.3; Kutumisa 1983:36-7). The hierarchy French-Lingala-Kiswahili 'Kikongo-Ciluba' is taken for granted in Zairean political, economic, and even academic milieu, to the extent that Lingala is being pushed as the unique national language to operate alongside French. The reason is mainly economic we are told (cf Kutumisa 1983:30-38). But if we consider the fact that the Zairean economic agents (i.e. the mass of the population which is mainly rural) speak no French and very little of the established national languages altogether (cf Kutumisa 1983:36), and in view of the hierarchy revealed in the present study, two propositions are in force:

- (1) An economic order which integrates the very people who make the economy, i.e. the rural people, the mass of the population;

- (2) The adoption of a language policy which promotes not the national languages which are only national politically not socially (cf the Kikongo and subsequent cases in 4.2.8), but rather the mother tongues, where this proves effective for the purposes for which languages are used (i.e. to inform and educate)

The linguistic hierarchy generally accepted in Zaire for economic reasons is rather imposed by the imperatives of world and city economy. This is what justifies the primacy of French, the slow but certain integration of English, the four national languages, and the tendency to push Lingala as the only national language. This does not help the country to develop or to say it properly, to get out of its underdevelopment. On the contrary, it helps the underdevelopment of the country (cf 3.2.1.3.5), for it is not usual for people to develop with the language of other peoples (cf 3.2.1.4.3).

- (c) Factor 4 (Anomie and Ethnocentricity), Factor 5 (Replacement of French by National Languages) and Factor 9 (French and National Languages)

Anomie and Ethnocentricity are investigated through four straight forward statements (items 15, 21, 53 and 69) rated on a five point scale (1 to 5) where 1 is 'complete agreement, and 5 equals complete disagreement (cf Appendix I(i)). The responses to these questions are expected to reveal the Zaireans' feelings towards Americans and Europeans, and their own society. These feelings are transparent from a different perspective in the other two factors under discussion here.

Table 4.13(b) Percentages and Means and Standard Deviations (Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5) of Anomie & Ethnocentricity, Replacement of French by National Languages, and French National Languages in Both Samples

Item and Sample Score	ANOMIE AND ETHNOCENTRICITY								REPLACEMENT OF FRENCH BY NATL'S FR + NATL'S							
	Item 15		Item 21		Item 53		Item 69		Item 7		Item 33		Item 60		Item 59	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
CA	2.5	5.8	18.3	13.2	19.3	15.5	23.2	15.4	14.8	12.7	36.1	38.1	22.9	16.3	48.8	38.4
PA	11.4	9.5	9.8	14.	30.1	27.8	12.2	17.	48.1	33.5	20.5	22.6	16.9	21.4	19.5	24.8
NO	53.3	64.3	54.9	49.6	15.7	19.	56.1	53.4	12.3	10.2	13.3	12.3	20.5	21.8	7.3	12.4
PD	11.4	9.1	4.9	5.6	18.1	14.7	4.9	7.7	13.6	17.1	9.6	11.5	12.	14.7	11.	13.2
CD	11.4	11.2	12.2	17.6	16.9	23.	3.7	6.5	11.1	26.5	20.5	15.5	27.7	25.8	13.4	11.2
Mean	3.177	3.104	2.829	3.004	2.831	3.02	2.537	2.729	2.58	3.114	2.578	2.437	3.048	3.123	2.207	2.34
Standard Deviation	.874	.927	1.163	1.197	1.387	1.404	1.021	1.026	1.223	1.438	1.555	1.475	1.529	1.427	1.48	1.391
Number of Valid Cases	79	241	82	250	83	252	82	247	81	245	83	252	83	252	82	250

- Legend:
- S1 = Sample 1
 - S2 = Sample 2
 - CA = Complete Agreement
 - PA = Partial Agreement
 - NO = No Opinion
 - PD = Partial Disagreement
 - CD = Complete Disagreement
 - Item 7 = Can survive in Zairean Society without European languages.
 - Item 15 = The Europeans and the Americans are hypocrites.
 - Item 21 = The Africans are more honest than the Europeans and the Americans.
 - Item 33 = Like Kikongo better than the other three National languages.
 - Item 53 = Like Lingala better than the other three National languages.
 - Item 59 = Like French better than the other four National languages.
 - Item 60 = Think national languages should be promoted to replace French in Public administration and education.
 - Item 69 = Americans are more friendly than most Europeans.

The results in Table 4.13(b) show that most Zaireans are undecided as far as their feelings towards other peoples (here Americans and Europeans) contrasted with their feelings towards their own society, and that there are more signs of ethnocentricity than anomie among Zaireans. This is consistent with the point in 4.2.10.1(d) that English is desired and wanted for sociocultural purposes as long as the learners' own culture is not threatened or jeopardised. The table shows that the items expressing opinions about Americans and Europeans without contrast with Africa or Zaire (items 15 and 69) have the greatest percentage of indecision. They are followed by item 21 which contrasts the Africans with the Americans and the Europeans. Item 53, which deals with what is specific to Zairean society has the lowest percentage (15.7% in Sample 1, and 19% in Sample 2) of the undecided. At the same time, it has the highest total positive responses (49.4%). It may be argued that the high percentages of indecision under items 15 and 65 are due to ignorance. Ignorance about other peoples is a very strong indication of the specific people's ethnocentricity. While some degree of ignorance can be accepted with respect to these results, the total positive attitudes towards the Americans versus the Europeans expressed in item 69 (35.4% against the negative total of 8.6% in Sample 1, and 32.4% against 14.2% in Sample 2) indicates that the learners, in fact, are not ignorant of other peoples. Rather, they do not care as long as the other peoples do not interfere in the essence of their lives and background constituted by their culture and society. This indifference is, at the same time, an indication of their ethnocentricity and, covertly, of their anomie. The minus sign in the loading value of item 53 (Table 4.13) justifies this converse relationship between the two elements of this factor. The means and standard deviations

(Table 4.13(b)) allow us to appreciate better the percentages provided in the table (cf Table 4.13(b)) and the ongoing argument.

The ethnocentricity and anomie feelings are further apparent in the factor referred to as 'Replacement of French by National Languages'. Items 7 and 60 of the factor are good illustrations of the point that Zaireans are more ethnocentric than showing anomie. A total of 62% in Sample 1, and of 46.2% in Sample 2, think that European or foreign languages are not indispensable to survive in Zairean society. They claim that the local and national languages and some elementary French can take them around Africa and the world. But when it comes to the idea that national languages should be promoted to replace French in public administration and education (item 60), the opinions greatly diverge. In Sample 1, for instance, the total percentage of those who disagree with the idea (39.7%) equals the total percentage of those who agree (39.8%). In Sample 2, however, more people disagree with the idea (40.5% versus 37.7% of agreements). If we look at the mean and the standard deviation in both samples (cf Table 4.13(b)), we notice that the scores in Sample 2 ($SD = 1.427$, $\bar{M} = 3.123$) are more clustered close to the mean than the scores in Sample 1 ($SD = 1.529$, $\bar{M} = 3.048$). The suggestion being that for the same percentages over an index (1 to 5), those in Sample 2 are more indicative. Thus, we can argue that the Zairean learners are not favourable to the idea of replacing French in public administration and in education by national languages. But since the mean of both samples are slightly above the code or index for 'No opinion' (i.e. 3.000) which happens to be the median of Sample 2, it may equally be argued that most Zairean learners do not mind using national languages instead of French, and seeing French replaced by the national languages

as the total percentage of those who agree and those who have no opinion is 59.5% in Sample 2, and 60.3% in Sample 1. This argument is supported by the results of item 7 where (following the same logic as above concerning the mean) 62.9% in Sample 1 and 56.4% in Sample 2 are in favour of local languages. Those who stick to French against the national or local languages, however, can be accounted for in terms of the prestige that French enjoys in Zairean society (cf 4.2.10.2(a) above). This is obviously what produces the results for item 60 in both samples.

The results obtained with item 33 are particularly informative, and support a few points made earlier (4.2.8, and 4.2.10.2(b)). For the respondents in both samples, Kikongo is associated with the national languages to replace French in the public administration and in education. Unconsciously, most respondents identify Kikongo as the national language to replace French. Again, as we argued earlier, had we done the survey in a Cilubaphone or Kiswahiliphone area, or indeed, in an exclusively Lingalaphone area, Kikongo would not have been identified with the national languages to replace French. This point demonstrates the Zaireans' sense of ethnocentricity as well as a sense of community loyalty. When the national languages are referred to in terms of preferences, the Zaireans tend to prefer their own national language. This attitude is only natural in terms of community loyalty and identity, but it entails a number of problems for a national language policy which is not federal with all its implications.

The other language identified with the national languages to replace French is Lingala with the loading of .39 (cf Table 4.13).

This is accounted for in terms of the strong Lingala influence on the area surveyed. The result, again, supports the point discussed earlier (4.2.8) that the languages the children master and value depend upon their mother tongue and the area they live in. The negative loadings of Kiswahili and Ciluba along with the positive loading of Lingala on factor 9 (cf Table 4.13) speak for themselves in support of the point. In addition, this factor (i.e. item 59) confirms the point that French is more prestigious than the local or national languages (cf 4.2.8). Despite the fact that Zaireans value their own languages, they cherish French. A total of more than 60% of the respondents (cf Table 4.13(b)) claim to like French more than the four national languages. Given that there is caution where what is Zairean is contrasted with what is foreign, we must say that French does quite well in Zairean society. For, it is not perceived as a threat to one's own language and culture. This can be seen as a further reason why French is not readily pushed back in favour of the local and national languages (cf Supra). French is so well established in the system that those who speak it or aspire to speak it well think of it as if it was one of the many Zairean languages. Some respondents referred to it as a national language. No wonder that it is not perceived as a threat of any kind and that it is liked the way it is, and preferred to the local and national languages just as Kikongo or any other language is preferred to another Zairean language, and vice versa. Thus French and the Zairean languages mingle so well that some Zaireans no longer perceive French as a foreign language. To them, the business of replacing French by any local language is a mere fallacy. And they are right, since they perceive French as one of the many Zairean languages. Those who, while they like French, wish for the promotion of local languages are linked

Table 4.13(c) Percentages, and Mean and Standard Deviations
(Minimum = 1 ; Maximum = 5) of the Factor :
Zairean and other languages in Education,
SAMPLES 1 and 2

ITEM and SCORE	ITEM 13		ITEM 66	
	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2
CA	19.5	18.6	18.1	16.3
PA	19.5	19	20.5	18.7
NO	14.6	18.2	16.9	17.1
PD	18.3	16.6	20.5	15.9
CD	28	27.5	24.1	31.9
Mean	3.159	3.154	3.12	3.283
Standard Deviation	1.511	1.479	1.452	1.484
Number of Valid Cases	82	247	83	251

Legend : CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement

Item 13 = It is more natural and practical to study in local or national languages and learn French or English, or French and English as foreign languages at school.

Item 66 = Would be glad to study in a Zairean (national) language if they are developed or promoted, and to learn French or English, or French and English as optional foreign languages.

up with their own local languages at the expense of the local languages of other fellow countrymen. This situation, complicated though it may be, suggests a federal language policy rather than a national one.

(d) Zairean and Other Languages in Education (Factor 6)

Table 4.13(c) clearly shows that many Zaireans do not believe that their languages can positively be used in education at all levels, and have English and French as options. This is, again, a side-effect of the position of French in the society and the prestige it enjoys together with English in science and technology, and indeed in educational matters.

The position of French and English at the moment, especially in connection with developing countries, is similar to the position of Latin during the classical period, when no education, it was thought, could be given in any other language than Latin. Then, French, English and many other European languages, referred to as 'modern languages' were in a similar position as the Zairean languages now. It was unthinkable and unthought of that a vulgar language like French, or, indeed, English, could convey anything as serious as science or be used in education. The situations being similar, it is not surprising to see that the Zaireans think poorly of their own languages. However, using the 'Mean argument' already referred to above (4.2.10.2 (c)), the results in Table 4.13(c) can be looked at in a more positive way. Indeed the means of the items testing the Zaireans' attitudes towards their languages in education are above the code for 'No opinion' (i.e. 3.000) in both samples (cf Table 4.13(c)). It follows that the undecided respondents (Code 3) are in effect positive cases.

Table 4.13(d) Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations
(Maximum = 5 ; Minimum = 1) of "Knowledge and
Use of National Languages" in both Samples

ITEMS and SAMPLES SCORES	ITEM 16		ITEM 38		
	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	
PERCENTAGES	CA	35.4	36.7	56.6	56.4
	PA	29.3	29.5	20.5	23.6
	NO	20.7	13.5	10.8	7.2
	PD	11.0	11.6	3.6	4.8
	CD	3.7	8.8	8.4	8.0
	Mean	2.183	2.263	1.867	1.844
SD	1.145	1.3	1.257	1.237	
N	82	251	83	250	

Legend : CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinions
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of Valid Cases

Item 16 = It is essential that every Zairean knows at least three National Languages.

Item 38 = It is extremely important that every Zairean knows at least one national language besides the national language of one's Region.

But this positive outlook of the results should not drive us away from the main point that Zairean society perceives French and English highly favourably, even though they value their own languages (cf 4.2.10.2(a)). As far as education is concerned, French is, thus, like Latin, and the local languages like the modern languages centuries ago.

(e) Knowledge and use of National Languages

The point that Zairean society values its own languages comes up again here. The majority of the population surveyed in both Samples (77.1% in Sample 1, 80% in Sample 2) (cf Table 4.13(d)) feel that every Zairean must know and use at least two national languages: his own and one of the other three national languages (item 38). Fewer people (64.7% in Sample 1, and 66.2% in Sample 2) support the idea of having Zaireans with a minimum of three national languages (item 16). However, the total percentage of positive attitudes is above 60% and in the region of 65%. This positive attitude towards the use of national languages in Zairean society is very constructive. It is notably an indication of Zaireans' tolerance of other local/national languages and cultures. It goes without saying that this is the nucleus of Zaireans' tolerance and/or acceptance of languages and cultures other than Zairean. This natural positive disposition towards other languages can be usefully exploited in the elaboration of language policy, in curriculum planning and materials design. The way it is exploited will account for the learners' subsequent Motivation and Perseverance. We have argued earlier in this chapter that as long as their culture and their beliefs are not jeopardised, Zaireans are open to other languages and cultures. Language policy which takes account of this point and exploits the learners'

Table 4.13(e) Percentages of the Factor "Attitudes towards Anglophone Africans (ITEM 31) in both Samples and Table of Means and Standard Deviations : Minimum = 1 : Maximum = 5

SCORES SAMPLE and N	PERCENTAGES					M	SD
	CA	PA	NO	PD	CD		
SAMPLE 1 (N = 80)	28.7	38.7	23.7	7.5	1.2	2.137	.964
SAMPLE 2 (N = 245)	26.9	33.5	29.8	6.9	2.9	2.253	1.021

Legend : CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 \bar{M} = Mean
 N = Number of Valid Cases
 SD = Standard Deviation
 Item 31 = My attitude towards Anglophone Africans is favourable

predisposition to learn and use other languages will certainly lead to the production of teaching/learning materials which will sustain the learners' intrinsic motivation, even if perseverance does not follow automatically, as it depends upon many other factors.

(f) Attitudes towards anglophone Africans

It is good to notice that the Zaireans are not only open to the Western languages and peoples. Table 4.13(e) shows that more than 60% of the population surveyed in both samples (67.4% in Sample 1 and a total of 60.4% in Sample 2) express favourable feelings towards fellow Africans speaking English. This attitude, just like the Zaireans' predisposition to welcome other peoples' culture and languages (provided they do not endanger their own) is a pre-requisite for Motivation and Perseverance. The discussion which follows (4.2.10.3) tends to demonstrate this.

4.2.10.3 Motivation and Perseverance, Activity-Enjoyment along with Other Language Anxiety, Language Experience and Learning Strategy, and Learning Purpose

So far we have discussed in isolation the two conceptual scales of the 'Motivation Conditioning Index' which proved internally consistent in isolation rather than together within the index. The information revealed by the analysis of these two scales can be summarised as follows: the Zaireans are interested in learning other languages especially English, and welcome other peoples' culture as long as it is not perceived as a threat for their own. This state of affairs is in itself a favourable condition for learning other languages. It has been assumed that this state of affairs will condition the learners' Motivation and Perseverance one way or the other, depending

Table 4.14 OL Anxiety, Learning Experience, Learning Purpose, Motivation and Perseverance, Activity Enjoyment, Rotated Factor Matrix with 10 Factors. Sample 2. Threshold = .30

Items*	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10
	Learning Purpose 1									
32	.67									
44	.68									
14	.46									
27	.45									
58	.41		.33							
54	.34									
	Activity-Enjoyment 1									
83	.61									
73	.45									
81	.37									
76	.36									
74								.33		
	Motives for Learning									
17			.76							
9			.66							
	Learning Purpose 2									
22				.69						
39				.51						
36				.36						
80				-						
	Anxiety									
50					.62					.33
41					.53					
23					.43					
37					.35					
	Activity-Enjoyment 2									
65						.47	.40			
72						.42				
62						.41				
55						.37				
12						-				
	LELS									
10							.46			
56							.42			
63							.37			
52							.32			
	RW(Survival)									
77								.62		
75								.46		
71								.38	.34	
	Perseverance									
29									.55	
78									.47	
	Incentive									
49	.33									.44
82		.36								.40

Legend:

- F1, 2, etc. = Factor 1, 2, etc
- LELS = Language Experience and Learning Strategy
- RW = Readiness and/or willingness
- * Note: See Appendix I(i) for content of items.

upon how it is tackled. The other 'scales' to condition the learners' Motivation and Perseverance are the ones we referred to as (a) Other Language Anxiety (AOL), (b) Language Experience and Learning Strategy (LELS), and (c) Learning Purpose (LP). In this paragraph we are looking at these conditions of Motivation and Perseverance in connection with the items designed to assess Motivation, Perseverance and Activity-Enjoyment. The factor analysis run on Sample 2 provided ten factors and the network shown in Table 4.14. The network in itself supports many of the points and liaisons suggested in the conceptual framework (Fig 2.4). The ten factors have been labelled as follows:

- Factor 1 (F1) = Learning Purpose 1 (LP1)
- Factor 2 (F2) = Activity-Enjoyment 1 (AE1)
- Factor 3 (F3) = Motives for Learning (ML)
- Factor 4 (F4) = Learning Purpose 2 (LP2)
- Factor 5 (F5) = Other Language Anxiety (AOL)
- Factor 6 (F6) = Activity-Enjoyment 2 (AE2)
- Factor 7 (F7) = Language Experience and Learning Strategy (LELS)
- Factor 8 (F8) = Readiness and/or Willingness (RW)
- Factor 9 (F9) = Perseverance
- Factor 10 (F10) = Incentive

With reference to the conceptual framework, Motivation Conditioning appears to belong to the psychological variable component. The factors under discussion are mainly affective. Starting from 'Learning Purpose 1' (Table 4.14) we observe that one of the six items (namely: item 58) establishes a link between LP1 and the motives for learning (ML) supporting the hypothesis that there is a link between the learning purpose and the motive for which learning takes

place; in that order rather than the other way round. LP1 also happens to have a link with the factor labelled 'incentive' through the loading from item 49 into the factor, thus supporting the suggestion that the link is from the Incentive towards the Learning Purpose rather than the other way round. These links support a good deal of the Dynamic of Motivated Behaviour (cf 2.3.3.1). The link between Activity-Enjoyment and Perseverance (Fig. 2.4) is confirmed by the existing liaison between AE1 and Perseverance through Readiness and/or Willingness also referred to as the 'survival strategy'. The liaison from Incentive to AE1 completes an aspect of the cycle referred to as "the Dynamic of Perseverance", thus supporting the existence of such a dynamic. The other link of interest is the connection between 'Anxiety' and 'Incentive' which seems to work from AOL to Incentive rather than the other way round, thus suggesting the possibility of a double arrow between the Psychological factors and Incentive (Fig. 2.4). The connection between AE2 and LELS suggests a direct link between Activity-Enjoyment and the Psychological factors represented here by Motivation conditioning, a link which is only assumed but not spelled out in the model (cf 2.3.3.1). Having said this, let us get into the details of our analysis, factor by factor.

(a) Learning Purposes 1 and 2, and Motives for Learning

The two types of purpose revealed here are different in their nature. LP1 is essentially utilitarian, whereas LP2 is geared to some personal satisfaction and/or self esteem. Apparently Learning Purpose 2 is not as influential as LP1 in language learning since it is the only isolated factor of the network. In other words, while LP1 can stimulate and sustain Motivation LP2 does not seem to have this attribute among the Zaireans concerned here. The strongest

Table 4.14(a) Percentages and Means and Standard Deviations (Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5) of "Learning Purposes 1 and 2" in Both Samples

Item & Sample	LEARNING PURPOSE 1												LEARNING PURPOSE 2					
	Item 32		Item 44		Item 14		Item 27		Item 58		Item 54		Item 22		Item 39		Item 36	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
CA	68.7	64.0	41.0	39.6	54.2	54.4	32.5	36.3	24.7	27.8	50.6	50.6	40.2	36.1	34.9	34.9	30.7	47.6
PA	21.7	26.4	37.3	33.6	32.5	31.6	32.5	31.1	38.3	33.9	30.9	28.5	28.0	30.1	32.5	27.1	25.6	29.2
NO	4.8	4.0	10.8	12.8	6.0	8.0	16.9	13.1	17.3	15.7	8.6	12.9	9.8	9.6	18.1	17.9	8.5	9.2
PD	3.6	4.8	4.8	10.8	3.6	2.8	8.4	10.0	12.3	13.7	6.2	5.2	14.6	15.7	6.0	9.6	11.0	9.2
CD	1.2	.8	6.0	3.2	3.6	3.2	9.6	9.6	7.4	8.9	3.7	2.8	7.3	8.4	8.4	14.7	2.4	4.8
Mean	1.47	1.52	1.976	2.044	1.699	1.688	2.301	2.255	2.395	2.419	1.815	1.811	2.207	2.301	2.205	2.506	1.854	1.944
SD	.846	.846	1.126	1.117	.997	.965	1.276	1.302	1.201	1.27	1.074	1.032	1.312	1.327	1.227	1.395	1.124	1.171
N	83	250	83	250	83	250	83	251	81	248	81	249	82	249	83	251	82	250

Legend: S1 = Sample 1 S2 = Sample 2
 CA = Complete Agreement PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation N = Number of valid cases

- Item 14 = Knowledge of English is important for me because I need English in my future career.
- Item 22 = Learning English is important for me because I will be admired and respected more if I happened to know English on top of French.
- Item 27 = Knowledge of English may be important for me because I will be able to understand and appreciate the anglophones in general, and the Americans and the Britons in particular.
- Item 32 = It is important for me to know English because it will enable me to meet and be comfortable with Anglophones.
- Item 36 = I am learning English because with French and the National Languages I can travel almost everywhere in Africa and in the world.
- Item 39 = Learning English may be important for me because English will make^{me} feel different from the other citizens.
- Item 44 = Learning English may be important for me because with English I can make anglophone friends.
- Item 54 = I am learning English to be able to read ESP.
- Item 58 = Knowledge of English may be important for me because it will help me to better understand and appreciate the Americans and the Britons, and their technology.

purpose, or the purpose for which most respondents learn English appears to be utilitarian (as opposed to aesthetic) and stresses the now traditional orientations of Motivation, namely instrumental and integrative. To judge from the standard deviation of the items of both LP's (Table 4.14(a)) items 32 and 14 have the closest distribution to the mean, followed by items 54, 36 and 44. In Lambert and Gardner's terms, item 32 (English will enable me to meet and be comfortable or at ease with anglophones) has an integrative orientation, and item 14 (... I need English in my future career) has an instrumental orientation. Similarly items 54 (Learning English to be able to read ESP) and 36 (Learning English for travelling purposes) have an instrumental orientation whereas item 44 (Learning English for making anglophone friends) has an integrative orientation. For the Zaireans, at least, these two orientations are perceived as components of the same thing referred to here as 'utilitarian purpose'. It amounts to saying that even LP2 geared towards personal satisfaction and self-esteem is as utilitarian as LP1. It follows that the distinction between instrumental and integrative as being important either as pre-requisites to Motivation or as motivational orientations is irrelevant in the present circumstances. To refer to Gardner (1982:143-4), what matters is "the individual's perception of the motivational properties of the language learning process", not the orientations of Motivation. Thus, Gardner (1982:144) concludes:

... arguments about whether an instrumental or integrative orientation is more important to language acquisition or whether this attitude or that attitude is dominant become relatively meaningless. The more important question is which is more related to the individual's level of motivation because it will be this orientation which will relate more consistently with the individual's success in learning the language.

Table 4.14(b) Percentages of the "Notive for learning English" in SAMPLES 1 and 2 and Table of Means and Standard Deviations (Minimum = 1 : Maximum = 5)

ITEM and SAMPLE SCORE	ITEM 17		ITEM 9	
	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2	SAMPLE 1	SAMPLE 2
CA	26.5	16.4	34.1	23.7
PA	16.9	24.4	31.7	33.7
NO	15.7	14.8	6.1	8.0
PD	22.9	18.8	18.3	19.3
CD	18.1	25.6	9.8	15.3
Mean	2.892	3.128	2.378	2.687
SD	1.482	1.451	1.376	1.414
N	83	250	82	249

Legend : CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of Valid Cases

Item 9 = I learn English to know and understand better the Anglophones and their mode of life.

Item 17 = I learn English to know and understand the Anglophone Africans and their ways of life.

This conclusion is in tune with the utilitarian versus aesthetic view of Motivation in language acquisition, where orientations are rather exploited to help sustain and increase Motivation and secure Perseverance. In the case we are concerned with, both orientations are represented with relatively the same force. Table 4.14(a) speaks for itself. As far as LP2 is concerned self-satisfaction related to travelling seems to be the most favoured orientation since it has the greatest total positive answers of the factor (cf Table 4.14(a)). The percentage of 'self-esteem' orientation of LP2 (represented by items 22 and 39), beside the information that knowledge of English is something of a pride, is a further indication of the prestige that English enjoys in Zairean society. So that talking about lack of interest on the part of the learners (cf 2.3.1) is simply ignoring the feelings of the learners and, therefore, the learners themselves.

The factor analysis (Table 4.14) shows that factor 1 (i.e. LP1) is related to the 'Motive for Learning' factor through the loading of .33 from item 58 on the Motives for Learning factor (F3). It also shows the existing relationship between Incentive and LP1 in particular and Learning Purposes in general (cf Fig. 2.4). Item 49 (it is important for me to learn English because I think it will someday help me to get a good job or a job which pays well) is shown to load at .33 on LP1 which, as already mentioned, is both instrumental and integrative in Lambert and Gardner's terms, and utilitarian in ours. This link between item 49 and LP1 demonstrates that the desire for social recognition and the need for survival are essential as incentives and that Incentive is probably the pivot of the Motivation process or the Dynamic of Motivated Behaviour, if not the starting point (cf Fig. 2.3), the suggestion being that 'Motivation' is 'challenge'

in the sense of defying something (in our case the goal) or in the sense of keeping to the purpose for which a goal is sought thus bringing in the notion of personal dignity. In the present case, the Incentive seems to be mainly related to social recognition and survival. LP1 goes along the same line (which is not surprising if we take the view that Incentive is the pivot and the starting point of the Motivation process). A look at the 'Motive for Learning' factor (Table 4.14(b)) shows that the motives for which the Zaireans learn English are integrative (in Lambert and Gardner's sense) and, therefore, related to social recognition. In view of the Incentive and the Learning Purposes, it is obvious that these motives are only a springboard for achieving their goals contained or, indeed, reflected in the learning purposes, and the Incentive. Thus this complex relationship between Incentive, Learning Purposes and Motives for Learning supports the first Dynamic of the model proposed in Chapter Two (cf Fig 2.4). The second dynamic linking Incentive, Activity-Enjoyment and Perseverance, is the one we are turning to now in our discussion of the relevant factors, i.e. Activity-Enjoyment, Readiness and/or Willingness, Perseverance and Incentive.

(b) Activity-Enjoyment 1 and 2, and Perseverance

Activity-Enjoyment 1 consists of four multiple choice statements among which two are conceptually meant to test Readiness and/or Willingness (items 76 and 81), one is meant to assess Language Experience and Learning Strategy (item 73), and another to assess Activity-Enjoyment proper (item 83) (cf 3.1.1.6). Because of the high loading (.61) of the last item on the factor (cf Table 4.14), we decided to refer to the factor as the 'Activity-Enjoyment Factor'. To distinguish it from the other factor where the other activity-

enjoyment items (cf 3.1.1.6) have loaded, we further decided to refer to this one as 'Activity-Enjoyment 1' (AE1), and to the other one as 'Activity-Enjoyment 2' (AE2). The latter consists equally of four items among which two (items 62 and 65) conceptually assess Activity-Enjoyment, one (item 55) assesses Perseverance and the other one (item 72) assesses readiness and/or willingness. Thus we have two types of activity-enjoyment: AE1 and AE2. The first type (AE1) is blended with aspects of 'Readiness and/or Willingness' (RW) and aspects of 'Language Experience and/or Learning Strategy' (LELS). The second type is rather blended with aspects of Perseverance on top of the RW ones. It amounts to saying that there is an amount of Readiness and/or Willingness in the notion of Activity-Enjoyment. This is, maybe, what is referred to as the 'learners' expectation', which, when it is met, brings about satisfaction. In any event, the learners have to be willing and ready to organise and be involved in their work to be able to enjoy the activity they are engaged in. It is in this sense that RW (which conceptually are attributes of Motivation) are to be understood as components of AE.

Judging from the loading (.45; cf Table 4.14), AE1 has the Learners' Language Experience and/or Learning Strategy (referred to as LELS) as an important component. This is apparently what distinguishes AE1 from AE2. Indeed, while AE1 contains the LELS element, AE2 rather contains aspects of Perseverance. It links up with the factor mainly concerned with LELS (i.e. factor 7) by the important loading of .40, thus suggesting the generalisation that LELS is an important feature of AE, that it contributes to the feeling of satisfaction, or to the enjoyment of Language Learning activities. On the other hand, both AE1 and AE2 suggest that 'Perseverance' stems

Table 4.14(c) Percentages of Activity - Enjoyment 1 and 2 and Tables of Means and Standard Deviations* in both samples.

Item and Sample	ACTIVITY - ENJOYMENT 1								Activity - Enjoyment 2							
	Item 83		Item 73		Item 81		Item 76		Item 65		Item 72		Item 62		Item 55	
Scores	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
CA (DK) or (a)	51.8	.4 48.6	36.1	39.6	44.6	49.4	56.6	67.6	25.6	30.3	56.6	56.8	39.8	38.8	42.2	41.6
PA									39.0	35.5			26.5	34.4	32.5	33.2
NO or (b)	26.5	32.5	6.0	2.4	7.2	3.6	36.1	24.8	23.2	17.9	38.6	40.8	25.3	16.8	16.9	14.8
PD or (c)	21.7	18.3	57.8	58.0	48.2	47.0	7.2	7.6	9.8	11.6	4.8	2.4	6.0	6.0	8.4	6.8
CD									2.4	4.8			2.4	4.0	-	3.6
Mean	1.699	1.689	2.217	2.184	2.036	1.976	1.506	1.4	2.244	2.251	1.482	1.456	2.048	2.02	1.916	1.976
SD	.808	.769	.951	.973	.968	.983	.632	.627	1.025	1.147	.592	.545	1.058	1.077	.965	1.079
N	83	251	83	250	83	249	83	250	82	251	83	250	83	250	83	250

- Legend:
- (a), (b) or (c) = one of the three options of the multiple choice items.
 - (DK) = Do not know (applicable to the multiple choice items)
 - CA = Complete AGREement.
 - PA = Partial AGREement
 - NO = No Opinion
 - PD = Partial Disagreement
 - CD = Complete Disagreement
 - SD = Standard Deviation
 - N = Number of valid cases.
 - Item 55 = The less I understand English, the more I strain and persevere in learning English.
 - Item 62 = The more English I understand, the more I want English to learn.
 - Item 65 = The more I can resolve learning problems the more English I want to learn.
 - Item 72 = If I had the opportunity to speak English outside of school I would:
 - (a) speak English most of the time, using French only if really necessary.
 - (b) speak it occasionally, using French or the local languages whenever possible.
 - (c) never speak it.
 - Item 73 = During English class, I would like:
 - (a) to have only English spoken
 - (b) to have as much French as possible spoken
 - (c) to have a combination of English and French spoken
 - Item 76 = When it comes to my English homework I:
 - (a) Work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.
 - (b) Put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
 - (c) just skim over it.
 - Item 81 = If there were anglophones in my neighbourhood I would:
 - (a) Speak English with them as much as possible.
 - (b) Never speak English with them.
 - (c) Speak English with them sometimes.
 - Item 83 = The more problems or obstacles I succeed in overcoming
 - (a) the more I like my English lessons
 - (b) the more I want to face and solve complex problems
 - (c) the less I am interested in the course.
 - *Minimum = 1 except for Item 83 where it is 0;
 - Maximum = 5 for Items 55, 62 and 65, and 3 for the others.

from both AE and Motivation, or at least from aspects of Motivation, such as Readiness and Willingness to learn, and that the Readiness-Willingness aspects of Motivation start off from some activity-enjoyment.

Table 4.14(c) gives the percentages, and the Means and Standard Deviations of the different items of AE1 and AE2 in both samples. It should be remembered that AE1 consists of multiple choice items and, therefore, that the percentages refer to the respondents opting for one of the three alternatives in brackets (i.e. (a) to (c)). The meanings of the alternatives are available from the legend. AE2 consists of four items of which three (items 55, 62 and 65) are straight forward statements and one (item 72) is a multiple choice item with three alternatives ((a) to (c)). The scores a, b, and c in the table (Table 4.14 (c)), therefore apply to the latter whereas CA, PA, NO, PD and CD apply to the other three items.

(b1) AE1 and AE2

As far as AE1 is concerned, Table 4.14 (c) shows that 51.8% in Sample 1, and 48.6% in Sample 2, of the population surveyed claim that they like their English lessons more if they succeed in overcoming their learning problems or obstacles (item 83,a); 26.5% in Sample 1, and 32% in Sample 2, claim that the more problems or obstacles they succeed in overcoming, the more they want to face and solve complex problems (item 83,b); 21.7% in Sample 1, and 18.3% in Sample 2, say that they get less interested in the English course, the more problems and obstacles they succeed in overcoming (item 83,c). Obviously fewer people are in the last category. The results thus show that about an average of 30% of the total population of both samples together are 'problem-solving' oriented, and that the great majority of the population just enjoy the lessons if they manage to solve learning

problems. For them it is not the nature of the problem that matters but the solution of the problem. It is not the process leading to the solution of the problem which matters, but the output. Such an attitude does not lead to the development of learning strategies through problem-solving. Unlike them, the 'problem-solving oriented' respondents (let us refer to them as 'inquirers') are more inclined to develop strategies for solving problems.

The suggestion above that the learners who are concerned with the results or output in order to enjoy their lessons make no effort to develop further strategies, and that the inquirers will develop more and more strategies is, to some extent, supported by the results of item 73. 36.1% of the population in Sample 1 and 39.6% in Sample 2 maintain that they would like to have only English spoken during English classes (item 73,a). These are presumably the inquirers. They want to face difficulties in order to look for ways of solving them. The great majority of the population in both Samples (57.8% in Sample 1, and 58% in Sample 2) go for an intermediate degree of difficulty where French and English are used during the English classes. These are mainly the 'Solution/result lovers'. The low percentage (6% in Sample 1 and 2.4% in Sample 2) of those who want a lot more French than English during the English classes (item 73,b) is perhaps an indication that there are only very few learners who are not prepared to make the necessary effort to overcome their learning problems, given the opportunity to do so. The results for items 81 and 76 support this opinion in that only a maximum of 7.6% is unwilling or not prepared to work hard or use English for communication, given the opportunity to do so:

- (a) 7.2% in Sample 1, and only 3.6% in Sample 2 say that they would never speak English with their neighbours if they were anglophones (item 81,b);
- (b) 7.2% in Sample 1, and 7.6% in Sample 2 would just skim over their English homework, rather than working carefully making sure that everything is understood (item 76,c).

This analysis suggests that lack of readiness and/or willingness to act hinders the development of learning and/or communication strategies and activity-enjoyment. The analysis of AE2 takes us to a similar conclusion. Here, a total of 64.6% in Sample 1, and of 65.8% in Sample 2 maintain that the more learning problems they can resolve, the more they enjoy their English course, and the more English they want to learn (item 65); 23.2% in Sample 1, and 17.9% in Sample 2 remain undecided; and a total of 12.2% in Sample 1, and of 16.4% in Sample 2, disagree with the opinion. Item 62 (The more English I understand, the more English I want to learn) on its side has a total of 66.3% in Sample 1, and 73.2% in Sample 2, of agreements; 25.3% (Sample 1) and 16.8% (Sample 2) of no opinions, and a total of 8.4% (Sample 1) and 10% (Sample 2) of disagreements. Item 55, related to Perseverance, scores 74.7% (Sample 1) and 74.8% (Sample 2) of agreements; 16.9% (Sample 1) and 14.8% (Sample 2) of indecisions; 8.4% of partial disagreement in Sample 1 where there is no complete disagreement; and a total of 10.4% of disagreements in Sample 2. When it comes to item 72, related to RW, we notice that 56.6% in Sample 1 and 56.8% in Sample 2 are ready and willing to speak English outside school, given the opportunity (items 72,a); 38.6% (Sample 1) and 40.8% (Sample 2) would speak it occasionally (item 72,b), and only 4.8% in Sample 1, and 2.4% in Sample 2, are not at all prepared or willing to speak it. The suggestion

Table 4.14(d) Percentages of the Factor : "Readiness and Willingness" in both Samples, and Table of the Means and Standard Deviations :
Minimum = 1 : Maximum = 3

ITEM and SAMPLE SCORE	ITEM 77		ITEM 75		ITEM 71	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
(a)	56.6	62.8	3.6	2.0	12.0	14.0
(b)	31.3	30.4	89.2	92.4	21.7	19.6
(c)	12.0	6.8	7.2	5.6	66.3	66.4
Mean	1.554	1.44	2.036	2.036	2.542	2.524
SD	.703	.62	.329	.274	.704	.729
N	83	250	83	249	83	250

Legend :

S1 = Sample 1

S2 = Sample 2

(a), (b) or (c) = one of the alternatives of the multiple choice questions

SD = Standard Deviation

N = Number of Valid Cases

ITEM 71 = I study my English lessons
(a) from time to time (once or twice a month)
(b) hardly ever
(c) very frequently (54)*

ITEM 75 = When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I
(a) only seek help just before the exam
(b) immediately ask the teacher for help
(c) just forget about it (58)

ITEM 77 = When an obstacle crops up in my English course or when I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I
(a) change approaches until it works
(b) pause to deal with the problem again afresh
(c) just forget about it

*The figures in brackets refer to Gardner et al's items from which the present items derived.

being that lack of Readiness and/or Willingness to act entails lack of Activity-Enjoyment and very little chance of Perseverance, which is the same conclusion as the one reached in our analysis of AE1.

So far we have seen that Activity-Enjoyment works hand in hand with LELS and RW (cf AE1); and with RW and Perseverance (cf AE2), no matter what the direction of the influences. If we look at the connection between AE1 and Incentive (Table 4.14), it appears that the great majority of the population (77.1% in Sample 1, and 85.7% in Sample 2) are inclined to rewrite their assignments correcting their mistakes. Which suggests that it is those who take their time to correct their mistakes while rewriting their assignments who enjoy their lessons and develop strategies to cope with further problems. This point is further suggested and supported by the connection between AE1 and RW.

(b2) AE1 and RW

AE1 is connected to RW through item 76. We have observed (cf b1) that only a very small minority is unwilling to work hard. With reference to item 76, Table 4.14(c) shows that the majority of the respondents (56.6% in Sample 1 and 67.6% in Sample 2) do their homework with care and concern. We have also observed that even more respondents (77.1% in Sample 1, and 85.7% in Sample 2) correct their mistakes and rewrite the homework (item 82,b). These are two types of readiness and willingness and lead to a third type of Readiness and/or Willingness (RW) referred to here as 'Survival Strategy' (cf Table 4.14, factor 8). Table 4.14(d) gives the details of the third type of RW. It shows that 56.6% in Sample 1, and 62.8% in Sample 2 change their problem-solving approach whenever an obstacle

crops up in their learning (item 77,a); 31.3% of the population in Sample 1, and 30.4% in Sample 2, use a different strategy: they pause and deal with the problem afresh, after a while probably, after reflecting over it or its nature and the difficulties involved; 12% of the population in Sample 1, and only 6.8% in Sample 2 forget about the problem and subsequently fail to learn or understand the point being learned (item 77,c). 89.2% of the total population in Sample 1, and 92.4% in Sample 2, immediately ask the teacher for help when they have a problem understanding what is being learned in class; 7.2% (Sample 1) and 5.6% (Sample 2), just forget about the problem and the thing being learned, and 3.6% in Sample 1, and 2% in Sample 2 seek help just before the examination (cf item 75). For item 71, the majority of the population (66.3%/66.4%) claim to study their English lessons very frequently (71,c); 21.7% in Sample 1, and 19.6% in Sample 2, confess that they almost never study their English lessons; and 12% in Sample 1, and 14% in Sample 2 say that they study their lessons from time to time only! We are here confronted with a few strategies used by Zairean learners to survive their English course. The approaches most used or used by the greatest number of respondents in decreasing order of percentages are:

1. Asking teacher for help immediately after a problem arises (89.2% and 92.4% respectively in Sample 1 and 2)
2. Frequent or regular study of lessons 66.3% and 66.4% respectively in Samples 1 and 2)
3. Intermittent problem tackling (31.3% and 30.4% respectively).

The approaches used by the fewest number of people in increasing order of percentages are:

1. Seeking help before the exam over a problem (3.6% and 2% respectively in Sample 1 and 2)

2. Ignoring the problem (items 75c and 77c, Table 4.14(d))
3. Sporadic study of lessons (12% and 14% respectively)
4. Indifference towards the course (21.7% and 19.6% respectively)

Obviously these strategies depend upon the learners' readiness or willingness to work and learn English. This is what justifies the RW labelling of this factor. Table 4.14 suggests that RW depends upon the underlying RW of the AE1. This suggestion further suggests that AE and Motivation (RW) work together to stimulate problem-solving strategies and maintain Perseverance in language learning. If it is agreed that the survival strategies spring out of the learners' readiness and/or willingness to learn, and that Motivation is, among other things (cf 2.3.2.3) an energiser of activity, then we should relate RW to Motivation as in Fig. 2.4. That is, survival strategies stem from the learners' motivation, are activated by their enjoyment of activity and are manifested through their perseverance as suggested by the link between RW and Perseverance.

(b3) RW and Perseverance

The link between RW and Perseverance is established through item 71. With reference to the results in Table 4.14(d) discussed above the negative sign of the loading on RW and the positive loading on the 'Perseverance' factor indicate that the less frequently one studies one's lessons the more perseverant one will have to be in order to succeed. This is only commonsense: either one works regularly on one's problems and thus minimises the degree of difficulty, or one does not and thus accumulates the difficulties to be faced eventually. The latter will have to be perseverant enough and certainly more perseverant than the former (or at least as perseverant as

Table 4.14(e) Table of the Means and Standard Deviations of Items 29, 49, 78 and 82, Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5 (for Items 29 and 49), and 3 (for Items 78 and 82)

Item and Sample Score	PERSEVERANCE				INCENTIVE			
	Item 29		Item 78		Item 49		Item 82	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
Mean	2.634	2.496	1.892	2.016	1.988	2.171	2.229	2.096
SD	1.462	1.369	.897	.940	1.099	1.248	.423	.367
Number of Valid Cases	82	246	83	252	83	251	83	251

Legend :

S1 = Sample 1
S2 = Sample 2
SD = Standard Deviation

ITEM 29 = The more I learn English, the less English I understand.

ITEM 49 = It is important for me to learn English because I think it will some day help me to get a good job (with good money). (16)*

ITEM 78 = Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I:
(a) do just enough work to get along
(b) will pass on the basis of sheer luck or by chance for I do very little work
(c) really work hard. (66)*

ITEM 82 = After I get my English assignments back, I:
(a) just throw them in my desk and forget them
(b) always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes
(c) just look them over, but don't bother correcting mistakes. (72)*

*Note : The number in brackets at the end of an item refers to Gardner et al's item from which the current item is derived, or adapted. (Gardner et al 1979).

the former) to solve the same problem. The results obtained from the questionnaires, show the mean of 2.634 and the standard deviation of 1.462 in Sample 1 for item 29 (The more English I learn, the less English I understand) (cf Table 4.14(e)). In Sample 2 Table 4.14(e) shows the mean of 2.496 and the Standard Deviation of 1.248 for item 29. Thus the middle point of the responses received in both samples is in the region of positive answers, thus suggesting that it is accepted that the more English is learned the less of it is understood. As a matter of fact a total of 52.5% of the population in Sample 1 and of 58.1% in Sample 2 agree with the statement, a total of 29.3% in Sample 1, and of 24.8% in Sample 2 disagree, and 18.3% in Sample 1, and 17.1% Sample 2 remain undecided. An alternative interpretation is that for most Zaireans, no matter how regularly they study their English lessons, they have to struggle to get it right, since the more they learn the less they understand. This alternative in effect reinforces the first interpretation that the less frequently one studies one's lessons, the more perseverant one will have to prove to succeed. The other component of the 'Perseverance' factor is an item of willingness confirming the suggestion made all through the discussion that something of a will is essential for Perseverance as well as for Activity-Enjoyment, and that Perseverance results from a long process or, indeed, from a series of processes one of which is the Dynamic of Motivated Behaviour discussed earlier in (b) above. It is believed that this dynamic leads to the Dynamic of Perseverance. The link between RW (as a component of Motivation proper) and Perseverance comes as a support to the belief. Another activator of Perseverance is to be found in Language Experience and/or Learning and Communication Strategies - strategies that, it is believed, are generated through Perseverance. The link between AE2 and LELS tends to support the point.

Table 4.14(f) Percentages of the Factor : "Language Experience and learning strategy" in both Samples, and Table of the Means and Standard Deviations: Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5

ITEM AND SAMPLE SCORE	ITEM 10		ITEM 56		ITEM 63		ITEM 52	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
CA	38.0	37.9	15.9	26.9	19.3	21.5	17.1	19.3
PA	31.6	31.3	32.9	29.3	22.9	21.1	24.4	30.1
NO	8.9	6.6	28.0	18.9	10.8	10.0	43.9	36.1
PD	11.4	13.6	12.2	15.3	14.5	14.7	11.0	10.0
CD	10.1	10.7	11.0	9.6	32.5	32.7	3.7	4.4
Mean	2.241	2.28	2.695	2.514	3.181	3.159	2.598	2.502
SD	1.342	1.371	1.204	1.295	1.563	1.584	1.017	1.052
N	79	243	82	249	83	251	82	249

Legend :

S1 = Sample 1
 S2 = Sample 2
 CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of Valid Cases

ITEM 10 = To better assimilate English I often refer to my knowledge of French.

ITEM 52 = The more I succeed to solve my learning problems, the more problems I want to solve.

ITEM 56 = When I learn a foreign language, namely English, I use the same techniques (strategies) as for French.

ITEM 63 = To master French I often refer to my mother tongue and/or to the other languages that I speak well.

(b4) Activity-Enjoyment 2 and Language Experience and Learning Strategies

AE2 links up with LELS through item 65 (The more learning problems I can resolve, the more English I want to learn) at the loading of .40 (cf Table 4.14). As will be remembered, item 65 is the first item of the factor labelled Activity-Enjoyment 2 (AE2), and has the majority of agreement of 64.6% (Sample 1) and 65.8% (Sample 2) (cf Table 4.14(c)) with the mean of 2.244 and the standard deviation of 1.025 in Sample 1 and the mean of 2.251 and the standard deviation of 1.147 in Sample 2 (cf Table 4.14(c)). It is probably surprising and perhaps difficult to notice that item 52, equivalent in formulation to item 65, does not get equivalent positive agreement (41.5% vs 64.6% in Sample 1 and 49.3% vs 65.8% in Sample 2). This may mean or indeed can be explained by the fact that there are more 'solution-lovers' than 'inquirers' among Zairean learners, to judge from the standard deviation of both samples (1.017 in Sample 1 with a mean of 2.598 and 1.052 in Sample 2 with the mean of 2.502) (cf Table 4.14(f)). The suggestion then is that there is more enjoyment or feeling of satisfaction mingled in the concept of LELS rather than Perseverance proper, which would justify failure in achievement on the part of Zairean learners, as a result of improper use of learning strategies. Furthermore, it might be argued that item 52 is rather a statement of activity-enjoyment. This argument further supports the point that Zairean learners enjoy finding solutions to problems (i.e. the end of the activity) more than the actual problem-solving activity. Which comes to the same conclusion as above. Whatever the case is, past language experience proves to be an important associate of AE and essential for the type of learning strategy

illustrated here, namely: reference to already known or mastered languages. The three statements about past language experience (items 10, 56 and 63) show a gliding variation from positive scopes towards negative ones. Consider, for instance, the means and standard deviations of all three items (Table 4.14(f)). We notice that the mean for item 10 is much lower and, therefore, more positive than the means of the other two items in both samples, and that the lowest SD is the SD for item 56. It means that the respondents agree more with the opinion in item 10 and that they are more clustered together around the mean in their opinions when it comes to item 56. In everyday language that is: (a) many people (69.6% in Sample 1 and 69.2% in Sample 2) agree that they often refer to their knowledge of French to better assimilate English (item 10) but the gap between the 'agreements', the 'disagreements' and the 'no opinions' is wide, i.e. wider than in item 56; (b) fewer people (48.8% in Sample 1 and 56.2% Sample 2) agree that they use the same techniques or strategies as for French when they learn English, but the gap between the 'agreements', the 'disagreements' and the neutrals is closer.

Item 63, as its mean indicates, turns out to have more disagreements (47% S1, and 47.2% S2) than agreements (42.2% S1 and 46.6% S2). On top of that the spread around the mean is bigger than for the other two items. What does this tell us? That Zairean learners of English do refer to their past learning experience of other languages (i.e. French) to cope with English. When it comes to the learning of French (their first European language) we get nearly the same percentage of agreement and disagreement that they refer to their mother tongue, with the balance leaning towards the disagreement. Does this mean that those who do not refer to their mother tongue

are so confident with their French that they end up thinking in French, or does it mean that they only have the illusion of thinking in French? The answer to this question is beyond the scope of the present thesis. However, elements of responses can be found in our analysis of the self-evaluation on language competence (cf 4.2.9) where the percentages of those who claim to be excellent in French are below the percentages of the mother tongue in all four skills (cf Table 4.11). What is obvious from the present results is that as far as English is concerned, the learners refer to their learning experience of languages other than their mother tongue. This learning strategy provides them with a sense of satisfaction in learning English. Or, to put it differently, their need for satisfaction stimulates this particular strategy, and the potential underlying Perseverance.

(b5) The Dynamics of Perseverance

The current discussion has led us to twelve observations:

- (i) Activity-Enjoyment consists of, or contains features of, RW, LELS and Perseverance. Apparently Activity-Enjoyment consists of, and results from, the exploitation of these features (cf 4.2.10.3,b);
- (ii) the suggestion that Perseverance stems from both Motivation and Activity-Enjoyment, and that the Readiness-Willingness aspect/component of Motivation starts off from AE (cf 4.2.10.3,b). The implication being that Motivation draws from AE and, therefore, is partly generated by AE (a point suggested in the model, Fig. 2.4);
- (iii) the observation that there are at least two types of 'Activity-Enjoyers': (a) 'solution-oriented' and

(b) 'activity-oriented' (cf 4.2.10.3,b1). Those who manifest the former are referred to as 'solution lovers'. They do not take advantage of the activities from which the solutions that they enjoy derive, and, therefore, do not systematically develop learning strategies.

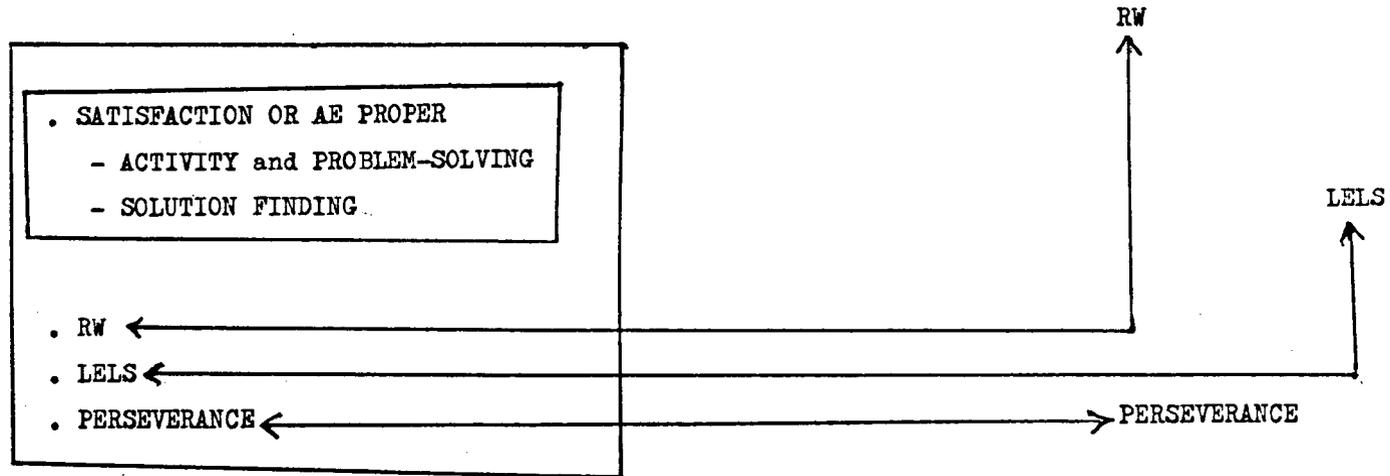
The 'activity-oriented' enjoyers or learners are referred to as 'enquirers'. They reflect over the problem and build-up strategies that they can use for further problems (cf McMullan 85.5);

- (iv) the observation that only very few respondents are unwilling or not prepared to overcome obstacles and use English for communication, given the opportunity to do so (cf b1);
- (v) the suggestion that lack of readiness and/or willingness to act hinders the development of learning and/or communication strategies (and abilities), and entails lack of AE and very little chance of perseverance (cf b1)
- (vi) the suggestion that it is the learners who are willing and ready to work hard and/or on their own who enjoy their lessons and develop strategies to cope with further problems (cf b1 and b2);
- (vii) The suggestion that AE and RW (i.e. some aspect of Motivation) work together to stimulate problem-solving strategies and maintain Perseverance in language learning (cf b2);
- (viii) the suggestion that survival strategies stemming from the learners' Motivation, are activated by their feeling of satisfaction (AE), and manifested through their Perseverance (b2 and b3);

- (ix) the suggestion that at least willingness is essential for Perseverance and Activity-Enjoyment, and that Perseverance results from a long process, a series of processes among which is the Motivation Process (b3);
- (x) the suggestion that Perseverance is equally activated by (or at least is dormant in) language experience and/or in learning strategies that Perseverance generates one way or the other, or which are generated through perseverance (b3 and b4);
- (xi) the suggestion that Zaireans' failure in achievement can be explained as a result of improper or inadequate use of their learning strategies caused by lack of, or little, Perseverance and low AE (b4). This suggestion supports as well as being supported by observation (iii). It further corrects the assumption implied in observation iii that 'solution-lovers' employ no learning strategy;
- (xii) the observation that Zairean learners of English refer to their past learning experience of other languages to cope with learning English (cf b4). We have postulated that the need for satisfaction (AE) stimulates this particular strategy and its implicit Perseverance.

Put together these observations produce the simplified diagram of Fig. 4.3 that, for the convenience of presentation, we present in three steps. The first step is the representation of the composite elements of the Activity-Enjoyment component as suggested in the analysis of the empirical data (Fig. 4.1). The second step consists of the representation of the different components revealed or suggested

FIG. 4.1 Activity - ENJOYMENT : ITS
COMPONENTS as suggested in observation (i)



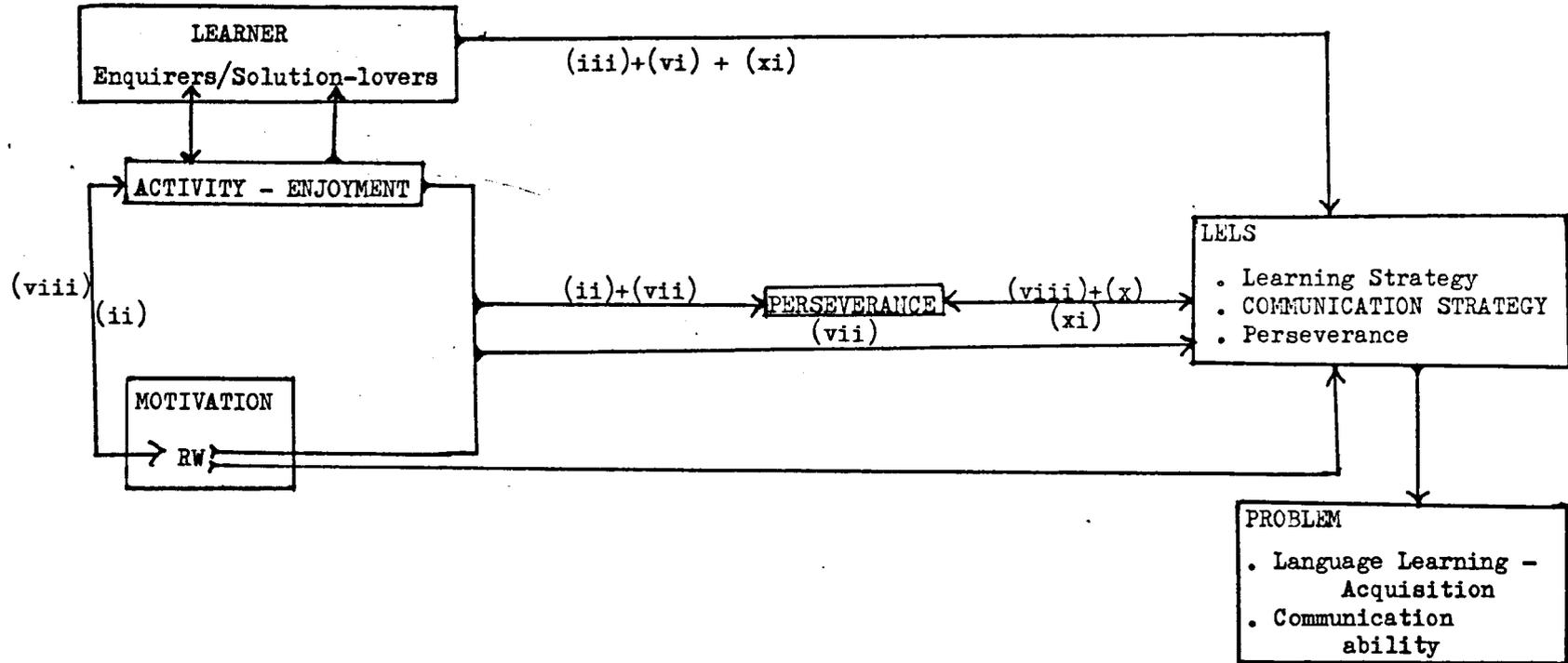
Legend :

AE = ACTIVITY - ENJOYMENT

RW = READINESS - WILLINGNESS

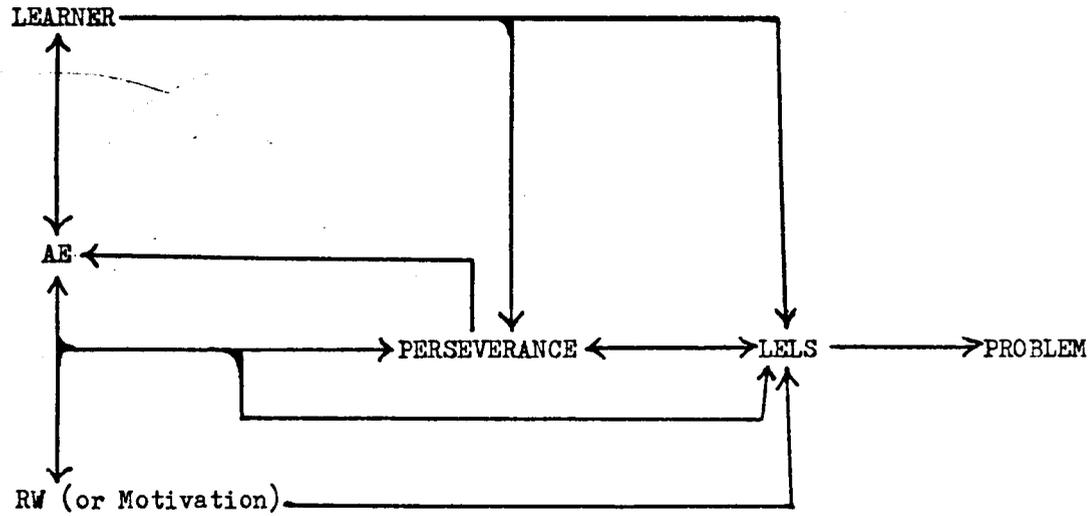
LELS = Language Experience and/or Learning Strategy

FIG. 4.2 Activity - Enjoyment and Language learning - acquisition : observations 2 to 12



Legend : RW = Readiness - Willingness
 LELS = Language Experience and/or Learning Strategy
 (x) = Observation number the arrows derive from

FIG. 4.3 The Dynamic of Perseverance



by the analysis, in the chain of the learning-acquisition processes (Fig. 4.2). The final step represents the Dynamic of Perseverance as suggested by the empirical data (Fig. 4.3). It shows the Dynamic as a complex of processes (not just one) operating within the learner. Four such complexes can be traced in Fig. 4.3:

- (a) the complex AE-RW, Perseverance and AE;
- (b) the complex AE-RW, LELS, Perseverance and AE;
- (c) RW, LELS, Perseverance and AE;
- (d) Learners' Individual Characteristics, LELS, Perseverance and AE.

AE is thus shown as the key concept in the Dynamic of Perseverance, since the four complexes singled out above involve AE in the processes. RW appears to be the second important concept. It relates Motivation directly to Perseverance, whereas the concept of Incentive does so indirectly (see also Table 4.14) through AE. The negative loading of item 82 (related to RW) in Table 4.14 suggests that the learners who are the least prepared to work hard and/or on their own are precisely the ones who enjoy their lessons, to judge from the moderately significant correlation of .23 between item 82 and item 83. This finding calls for further thinking which further suggests at least two types of Perseverance just as there are two types of AE. The first type is where one can persevere because one is willing and ready to do what is required to survive. This is where readiness or willingness to work hard and/or on one's own does matter. It involves AE1 and RW (Table 4.14) and is represented by the complex AE-RW, Perseverance and AE (Fig. 4.3). The second type is where one perseveres because one has specific motives and/or purposes for learning, and actually enjoys the activities meant to meet the purposes. It involves AE2 and LELS (Table 4.14) and develops together with LELS. It is

Table 4.14(g) Percentages of the Factor : "Anxiety" in both Samples, and Table of the Means and Standard Deviations (Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5)

ITEM AND SAMPLE SCORE	ITEM 50		ITEM 41		ITEM 23		ITEM 37	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
CA	8.4	4.8	15.9	19.0	8.5	8.5	27.7	26.8
PA	13.3	10.1	22.0	17.8	14.6	13.8	30.1	28.4
NO	16.9	13.3	15.9	15.3	9.8	8.9	19.3	18.0
PD	19.3	22.2	20.7	17.8	24.4	22.8	7.2	12.8
CD	42.2	49.6	25.6	30.2	42.7	45.9	15.7	14.0
Mean	3.735	4.016	3.183	3.223	3.78	3.837	2.53	2.588
SD	1.353	1.214	1.441	1.511	1.361	1.361	1.382	1.372
N	83	248	82	242	82	246	83	250

Legend :

S1 = Sample 1
 S2 = Sample 2
 CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of Valid Cases

ITEM 23 = I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English. (18)*

ITEM 37 = The less I understand English, the less I strain and persevere to learn English.

ITEM 41 = It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class. (40)*

ITEM 50 = I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class. (45)*

*Note : The figures in brackets at the end of the line refer to the item from Gardner et al (1979), from which the present item has been adapted.

represented by the other processes suggested in Fig. 4.3. While the second type can be referred to as the 'Specific Purpose' type of perseverance, the first type is rather related to, and would account for learners who have no particular reasons or motives for learning English, no specific purposes, but who, nevertheless, do well, because they have to, in order to maintain themselves in the system. If they have a purpose indeed, it is not for learning, but rather for maintaining themselves in the system, not to drop out. Reconsidering the items under perseverance in the light of this distinction we can say without fearing to be contradicted that there are as many learners in both cases (cf b3). The distinction between the SP-type of Perseverance and the non-SP-type (say, the system-type) is further suggested in the link between Other Language Anxiety (AOL) and Incentive.

(b6) Other Language Anxiety and Incentive

The factor referred to as 'Anxiety' (AOL) consists of four straightforward statements, one of which (item 37) is conceptually a Perseverance statement. Table 4.14(g) shows that the AOL statements all have their greatest percentages in the region of negative responses and that the results are quite wide spread. They also show that the Perseverance statement has rather positive responses though the opinions are equally wide spread around the mean. With reference to the items of this factor, we notice that the AOL statements are positively worded. Negative responses to them mean disagreement. It follows that Table 4.14(g) reveals that many Zairean learners of English are completely or partially free from AOL. An average of 27.5% (Sample 1) and of 24.6% in Sample 2 are bound to AOL. Considering the individual items we notice that the greatest percentage

of disagreements is with item 50 (71.8%) followed by item 23(68.7%) in Sample 2. In Sample 1, the greatest percentage of disagreement is rather with item 23 (67.1%) followed by item 50(61.5%). Whatever this difference between samples may mean, it is obvious that the majority of the population concerned is not afraid of other students nor are they nervous or confused when they speak English in class.

But some of them confess to be quite embarrassed when invited to volunteer answers in their English classes (cf Table 4.14(g) item 41). This is explained by the fact that most respondents (a total of 57.8% in Sample 1 and 55.2% in Sample 2) are discouraged or persevere less, the less English they understand (item 37). In other words, they are embarrassed to volunteer answers because they are not confident, they are not sure of what they know. This is particularly the case if we remember that most of them (52.5% in Sample 1 and 58.1% in Sample 2) agreed that the more English they learn, the less of it they understand (cf b3). Referring back to our two categories of Activity-enjoyers (the solution and the problem lovers) it seems appropriate to assume that problem lovers would not offer an answer which is not the result of relevant thinking and use of their language experience and/or learning experience. This assumption implies that such learners would persevere more if they are confident with their LELS and the knowledge that follows. And the more they persevere, the more they will enjoy their lessons, provided they are still confident with their learning and/or communication strategies. We have referred to this type of Perseverance as the 'Specific Purpose' type of Perseverance (cf b5). Indeed the link between AOL and the Incentive statement (item 49) suggests that one of the reasons there are fewer people experiencing AOL is that most people (cf Table 4.14(a)) have one or more purposes for which they are striving to learn English.

Their Perseverance can then be said to be 'Motive Specific' whereas the solution-lovers' perseverance is rather 'Survival', as Table 4.14 suggests.

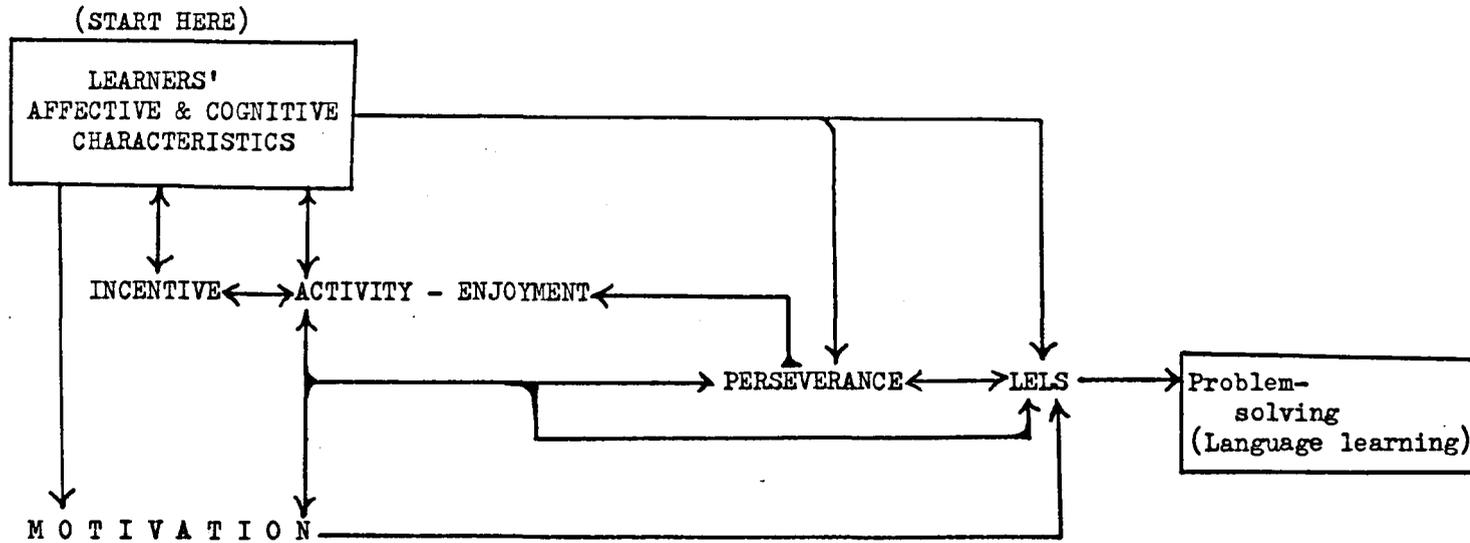
(c) Observations

The analysis of Activity-Enjoyment, Motivation and Perseverance alongside AOL,LELS and LP has revealed:

- (i) that LP and AE are the leading concepts of Motivation and Perseverance, and that the Incentive is at the crossroads, i.e. it backs up the learners' LP and AE in the process of learning other languages (cf Fig.2.4)
- (ii) a minimum of two types of LP underlying the learners' Motivation which proves to be utilitarian;
- (iii) that Motivation is some type of challenge accounted for by the learners' dignity as members of a social group, their desire for social recognition, and their need for survival;
- (iv) that there is a touch of perseverance in AE, and LELS. That is, 'Perseverance' is influenced and influences AE and LELS, or is a function of AE, RW and LELS and leads to AE and LELS which, in turn, leads the way to problem-solving.

The analysis ultimately supports and provides additional information for the Model in Chapter Two (Fig. 2.4). It notably supports the Dynamics of Motivated Behaviour and Perseverance. It happens that the data and subsequently the results do not take us beyond the Dynamic of Perseverance to investigate the Dynamic of Problem-Solving or Learning-Acquisition. Nevertheless, they suggest the Perseverance-LELS-Problem-Solving links which are part of the dynamic. In this

FIG. 4.4 The Dynamics of Motivated behaviour and Perseverance,
or the Model of OL learning amended



respect reference can be made to other researches in the field of Interlanguage which support the relevance of such Dynamics as the 'Dynamic of Problem-solving'. Ellis (1984) is an example. The analysis then suggests the following emendation to the conceptual framework:

- (i) the existence of a direct influence of the individual difference variables on the incentives;
- (ii) the impact of the incentives on AE turning the one way arrow into a double arrow.

Subsequent to the emendation we get a model in which the relations shown in Fig. 4.4 (that is, the Dynamic of Motivated Behaviour and of Perseverance) are confirmed. Fig. 4.4 thus shows that the key to language learning is LELS revitalised by the learners' Perseverance, or the Dynamic of Perseverance where AE appears to be indispensable, and central. It further shows the complexities of both dynamics and the centrality of AE in the processes. It thus makes sense to analyse some of the elements of the context and/or setting in which AE is bound to occur. This is society at large in the case of informal language acquisition. It is the classroom in the case of formal language acquisition, or formal instruction. This research being rather classroom oriented, the focus is on what language acquirers expect the classroom to offer in order to be satisfied and therefore enjoy their lessons. This is the substance of the next section.

4.2.11 Desired abilities and activities, and the ideal teacher of English

4.2.11.0 Introduction

This section is concerned with a few elements of the classroom seen as a social setting. These are: the teacher, the classroom

Table 4.15 Desired Abilities and Activities Rotated
Factor Matrix : SAMPLE 2. (Eight Factors)

ITEM*/FACTOR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
GeCOCO								
86	.71							
87	.66	CREATIVE WRITING + Poetry Reading						
94	.63	—	.38					
88	.63	—	.37					
85	.54							
92	.52	—	.41					
95	.43	—	.41					
91								
90		.77						
89		.68						
93		.67						
		.54						
Group and Project Work								
99			.63					
103			.62					
98			.49					
101			.47					
100			.42					
109								
			(VARIETY of ACTIVITIES) Assistance or help					
105				.67				
104			.38	—	.50			
102			.37	—	.50			
97					.46			
106					.38			
TRANSLATION + TECHNICAL EL (TTE)								
112					.50			
107					.46			
DISCUSSION GROUPS + CLASS SIZE								
110						.51		
108						.50		
SESSION FREQUENCY + INTENSITY								
111							.49	
113							.47	
114								
96								<u>-.53</u>

Legend : GeCOCO = General Communicative competence.

*See Item content in Appendix I(i).

interaction and the learning objectives from the learners' point of view. The discussion here follows the factors extracted from 'Section Four' of the learners' Questionnaire (cf 3.1.1.4). Since the results of this section come as support to the discussion above, the results will not receive the detailed analysis given to the preceding section.

4.2.11.1 Desired Abilities and Activities

The Varimax rotated factor Matrix of Sample 2 (Table 4.15) shows eight factors of which:

- (a) the first factor is heavily loaded from items related to the use of English for Specific Purposes (items 86 and 87) followed by the items of everyday use of English and one related to the educational use of English (for cultural and literary purposes), i.e. item 88;
- (b) the second factor is heavily loaded from items 91, 90 and 89 (in that order) related to the educational use of English, and from one item (item 93) related to the use of English for Specific Purposes, thus linking up factor 2 with the first factor;
- (c) the third factor is heavily loaded from two items related to the study of language as a system (items 99 and 98), two items related to the study of language through use or interaction (item 103 and 100), and an item related to the development of learning-strategy and free individual and group work (item 101);
- (d) the fourth factor has some heavy loadings from items 105, 104 and 102 related to the development of learning-

strategy and/or free individual and group work, followed by items 97 and 106 related to the study of language through use or interaction. The factor is clearly connected with the preceding one, namely the third factor;

- (e) the next three factors are loaded from a set of two items each related to one of the conceptual categories shown under point 4.2 in the outline of the questionnaire (cf 3.1.1.6);
- (f) the last factor is negatively loaded from the open item 114.

In view of the loadings of the factors and with reference to what we perceive as being common to the items of every factor, we labelled the factors as follows:

- Factor 1 : General Communicative Competence (GeCoCo);
- Factor 2 : Creative Writing and Poetry Reading (CWPR)
- Factor 3 : Group and Project Work (GPW)
- Factor 4 : (A variety of activities for)Assistance or help
- Factor 5 : Translation and Technical English (TTE)
- Factor 6 : Discussion Groups and Class Size;
- Factor 7 : Session Frequency and Intensity
- Factor 8 : ----- (No labelling)

Since the majority of the population (78.4%) had no further comment or additions to make on the abilities or skills they would have liked to develop and the means of implementation (item 114), we find it difficult to label this last factor (Factor 8) of the factor analysis. In addition it is worth noting that the analysis of this section is limited to Sample 2 because Sample 1 failed to extract factors due to the high proportion of missing values in the section.

The analysis of the factors extracted from Sample 2 thus indicates that the Zairean learners concerned with here wish to develop general communicative competence and, secondly, creative writing and skills to read poetry. They expect these skills or abilities to be developed through a variety of approaches ranging from communicative teaching approaches to grammar-translation and their implications (class size, session frequency and intensity etc).

The factor named 'General Communicative Competence' reveals the importance of specific purposes in learning other languages, here: English. Indeed, Zairean learners of English associate communicative competence (general or otherwise) with, first, the ability to read the literature related to their own field of interest. This can be anything from Business and Commerce or Science and Technology to Literature, or, indeed, from serious to trivial matters. The factor further suggests the hierarchy of the desired skills where reading comes first and oral communication comes last. It tends to show that reading and writing are what most Zaireans go for, without neglecting or dismissing the listening and speaking side of language. The point is supported or reinforced by the second factor referred to as 'Creative Writing and Poetry Reading' (CWPR), and the links between both factors. Indeed the four heavy loadings of this second factor are from items concerned with reading (item 90), and writing (items 91, 89, and 93). The link between both factors suggests a preliminary general communicative competence in the four traditional skills. This argument in itself supports the point that Zairean learners perceive communicative competence in English as being the ability to read and write well and eventually being orally fluent.

Factors three to seven are some of the approaches suggested to meet the learners' desire or, indeed, their needs. The first approach (factor 3) suggests an integration of the study of language as a system (usage) with language use and the development of learning strategies. It is essentially geared towards the integration of individual and group work. Its constituent elements appear to be:

- (a) good diction and oral fluency (items 99 and 103);
- (b) a working knowledge of grammar rules and their use (item 98); and
- (c) project-work and reading.

The second approach (factor 4) which suggests itself is related to the first and emphasises the assistance side of teaching-learning. The learners express the view that they need the help of the teacher or anybody else in listening comprehension (item 105), in speaking or oral fluency (item 104), in reading (item 102), and in creative writing (item 97). This assistance appears to be readily available from audio-visual materials, or (to generalise) from any learning-teaching materials, and activity intrinsically or genuinely aiming at the development of the ability for which help is needed, from individual (and certainly from group) work and projects of all sorts, from out-of-school activities (trips, English clubs, theatre, party etc). Clearly the learners want more help than simply being told what to do and how to do it (except if or when telling what to do and how to do it is meant as assistance to the learner). It is worth noticing here that the development of talking and reading abilities go hand in hand, and constitute the link between both strategies or approaches. It looks as if the learners perceive talking and reading as essential means or instruments for achieving their objectives (cf Kiese's testimony, Appendix III). The suggestion is that

Table 4.15(a)

Percentages and Means and Standard Deviations
(Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5) of the Learners'
desired abilities, Sample 2

ITEM SCORE	GECOCO							CWPR			
	ITEM 86	ITEM 87	ITEM 94	ITEM 88	ITEM 85	ITEM 92	ITEM 95	ITEM 91	ITEM 90	ITEM 89	ITEM 93
CA	44.1	52.2	44.2	44.4	39.2	45	33.5	24.6	32.8	25.2	18.9
PA	34.8	30.7	30.9	34.4	27.6	32.5	33.1	23.4	33.2	29.2	29.3
NO	8.9	7.2	9.6	10	14	6.8	13.9	22.6	13.6	20	20.5
PD	5.7	4.4	8.8	5.6	9.2	10	10	12.9	12	10.8	14.5
CD	6.5	5.6	6.4	5.6	10	5.6	9.6	16.5	8.4	14.8	16.9
Mean	1.955	1.805	2.024	1.936	2.232	1.988	2.291	2.734	2.3	2.608	2.811
SD	1.159	1.113	1.215	1.128	1.324	1.196	1.286	1.395	1.271	1.362	1.356
N	247	251	249	250	250	249		248	250	250	249

Legend:

GECOCO = General Communicative Competence
 CWPR = Creative Writing and Poetry Reading
 CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of Valid Cases

ITEM 85 = Skill to engage in ordinary conversation.
 86 = Skill to read ESP.
 87 = Skill to write letters of all types.
 88 = Skill to read stories and novels written in English.
 89 = Skill to write stories or novels in English.
 90 = Skill to read and understand English poetry.
 91 = Skill to write poems in English.
 92 = Skill to read English magazines and papers.
 93 = Skill to write ESP and Professional articles.
 94 = Skill to listen to, and understand English broadcasting.
 95 = Skill to understand English films.

Table 4.15(b) Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations
(Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5) of the Learners'
Activities : Factors 3 and 4. (Sample 2)

ITEM SCORE	GROUP and PROJECT WORK						VARIETY OF ACTIVITIES FOR ASSISTANCE				
	ITEM 99	ITEM 103	ITEM 98	ITEM 101	ITEM 100	ITEM 109	ITEM 105	ITEM 104	ITEM 102	ITEM 97	ITEM 106
CA	60	54.7	46	40.8	51.6	39.3	35.9	47.8	40.5	38.1	33.1
PA	27.3	31.7	36.3	34	34.3	35.5	36.3	29.7	34.4	36	31.4
NO	9	7.4	13.3	17	10.1	14.5	17.3	10.8	18.2	15.8	23.6
PD	2.9	5.3	3.6	4.8	1.6	6.6	6.5	8	2.4	7.3	6.6
CD	.8	.8	.8	2.8	2.4	4.1	4	3.6	4.5	2.8	5.4
Mean	1.571	1.658	1.77	1.948	1.69	2.008	2.065	1.9	1.96	2.008	2.198
SD	.835	.892	.872	1.015	.898	1.086	1.074	1.108	1.043	1.044	1.131
N	245	243	248	250	248	242	248	249	247	247	242

Legend :

CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of Valid Cases

ITEM 97 = Composition writing exercises.
 98 = Grammar rules and exercises.
 99 = Pronunciation Practice.
 100 = Reading Practice/Exercises.
 101 = Initiation into Research and Projects.
 102 = Reading and Varied Individual Projects.
 103 = CONVERSATION ACTIVITIES.
 104 = OUTSIDE ACTIVITIES for Language Use.
 105 = Listening Activities.
 106 = Use of Tapes and Audiovisuals.
 109 = GROUP WORK AT HOME and AT SCHOOL.

Table 4.15(c)

Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations (Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5) of the learners' desired activities : Factors 5 to 7. (SAMPLE 2)

ITEM SCORE	TTE (Factor 5)		DISCUSSION + CLASS SIZE		SESSION Frequency + Intensity	
	ITEM 112	ITEM 107	ITEM 110	ITEM 108	ITEM 111	ITEM 113
CA	14.6	24.8	15.1	10.4	18	10.6
PA	18.3	27.6	24.1	19.3	31.6	22.9
NO	39	21.5	24.9	26.9	25.4	38.3
PD	17.5	14.6	17.1	12	11.5	14.7
CD	10.6	11.4	18.8	31.3	13.5	13.5
Mean	2.911	2.602	3.004	3.345	2.709	2.963
Standard Dev.	1.992	1.311	1.332	1.368	1.271	1.175
N	246	246	245	249	244	245

Legend : TTE = Translation and Technical English
 CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 N = Number of Valid Cases

- ITEM 107 = Translation for Explanation purposes.
- 108 = Reduction of class size to 15 pupils.
- 110 = No Exams or Exams in Pools of Discussion.
- 111 = More English sessions a week.
- 112 = More importance to technical English than literature.
- 113 = English through Other Subjects.

preliminary competence or development of these two capacities will help the approaches or the strategies to work, as the learner can then talk and ask questions to learn, or read and look up what he needs in the appropriate literature to learn.

The fifth factor contains an element of assistance and stresses the explanation side of teaching and learning technical language. The association of translation with the explanation of difficult items of the target language is an indication that the learners need help in comprehension for further learning purposes. Under this factor interaction or language use, and usage or language as a system come together again, thus substantiating the opinion that a balance is needed between language use and usage, a point as old as language teaching (cf Chapter One). Factor 6 brings together interaction or language use (item 110) and course organisation (item 108) while Factor 7 brings together session frequency and course intensity. A quick look through Tables 4.15(a) to 4.15(c) reveals that the majority of the population is positive towards the objectives (or skills and abilities), and the strategies or activities singled out by the factor analysis. However, the results tend to be less clearly positive with the last two factors (cf Table 4.15(c)). The suggestion is that the learners are not very hot about the opinions of the items involved in these two factors. When it comes to the concept of the ideal teacher we get the same impression from Table 4.16(a), where the majority of the respondents agree with most of the opinions except the opinions under the factor labelled 'liberal atmosphere'.

Table 4.16 The ideal teacher of English Rotated Factor Matrix with 5 Factors. SAMPLE 2

ITEM*/FACTORS	1	2	3	4	5
ADDT 134	.81				
133	.80				
136	.68				
135	.66				
132	.58				
		Learner + Learning centredness + knowledge of lge			
Item 120		.61			
115		.52			
117		.49			
116		.44			
122		.42			
119		.34			
			CONTENT RELEVANCE		
126		.32	-----	.63	
125				.55	
127			.47	-----	.39
121			.32		
123			-----		
124			-----		
					LIBERAL ATMOSPHERE
128				.55	
118				.46	
131				.31	
					TL + LL Interaction
130					.64
129					.32

Legend : Addt = addition

TL + LL Interaction = Teacher-Learner and Learner-Learner interaction

*See Item content in Appendix I(i).

4.2.11.2 The ideal teacher of English

Table 4.16 shows the five factors extracted from the Varimax rotated Factor Matrix of Sample 2 and how they are connected. The first factor is entirely constituted by the five open-ended questions (132 to 136) requesting the learners to add in the characteristics of the ideal teacher that they think are important but have been missed out in the list of characteristics of the ideal teacher provided. It so happened that most learners found the list complete enough and did not add any particular characteristic. Those who happened to write something presented a variety of aspects of the characteristics in the list provided. Therefore, Factor 1 was difficult to label. In addition we decided not to discuss it as the information it conveys is contained in a succinct way in the selection made by the students of the essential characteristics of the ideal teacher of English.

The four factors under consideration here have been labelled according to the same principle as before, i.e. according to what is perceived as being common to the items involved in the factors. As a result, the first of the four factors is referred to as 'Learner and Learning Centredness, and Teachers' Knowledge of the Language' (LLC-TKL). It consists of six items (items 115, 116, 117, 119, 120 and 122) among which two are concerned with the teacher's linguistic competence (items 115 and 116), two others with the 'teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships' (items 117 and 119), and another two with methodology and/or class or course management (items 120 and 122). The next factor is referred to as 'Content Relevance'. It consists of six items among which two have a loading below .30, thus suggesting that they are not particularly informative. These are items 123 and 124 related to the study of the spoken language.

The ideal teacher of English

Table 4.16(a) Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations (Minimum = 1, Maximum = 5) of Factors 2 to 5, SAMPLE 2

SCORE \ ITEM	Learner-learning centredness and Language Knowledge						CONTENT RELEVANCE						LIBERAL ATMOSPHERE			Teacher-Learner +Learner-Learner	
	120*	115	117	116	122	119	126	125	127	121	123	124	128	118	131	130	129
CA	73.9	65.5	36	35.6	59.7	59.6	55.9	43	19.4	29.6	32.5	12.2	11.6	14.6	20.6	45	15.9
PA	20.4	21.3	26.4	29.1	20.6	27.3	28.7	33.3	24.4	30.5	28.9	15.5	21.7	17.8	19	23.3	22
NO	4.5	9.2	18	22.7	8.5	6.5	6.9	15.3	26.9	23	21.5	11	29.3	16.6	17.5	18.9	21.6
PD	1.2	2.8	15.2	7.7	4.4	4.5	6.1	7.2	14.9	11.5	7.7	17.6	20.9	19	17.5	5.6	20
CD	—	1.2	4.4	4.9	6.9	2	2.4	1.2	14.5	5.3	9.3	43.7	16.5	32	24.2	7.2	20.4
Mean	1.331	1.53	2.256	2.17	1.782	1.62	1.704	1.904	2.806	2.325	2.325	3.649	3.088	3.36	3.056	2.068	3.069
SD	.621	.866	1.218	1.142	1.198	.94	1.003	.987	1.31	1.17	1.262	1.468	1.244	1.452	1.48	1.231	1.37
N	245	249	250	247	248	245	247	249	242	243	246	245	249	247	249	249	245

*The numbers in the top square of each column are item numbers.

Legend : CA = Complete Agreement
 PA = Partial Agreement
 NO = No Opinion
 PD = Partial Disagreement
 CD = Complete Disagreement
 SD = Standard Deviation
 N = Number of Valid Cases

- ITEM 115 = The ideal teacher knows and speaks English perfectly.
 116 = He knows and understands ESP.
 117 = He knows and helps the students to know themselves.
 118 = He is Liberal.
 119 = He initiates the students into personal work and thinking.
 120 = He explains well and clearly.
 121 = He plans his course with the students and is free from the textbook.
 122 = He liberates the students from the fear of speaking English.
 123 = He teaches more spoken than written language.
 124 = He does not bother about (correctness of) pronunciation, rhythm and stress.
 125 = He makes the students do a lot of grammar work.
 126 = He makes the students learn a lot of practical vocabulary.
 127 = He teaches English songs.
 128 = He teaches aspects of the target culture i.e. Teaching English through other subjects.
 129 = He speaks English with the students.
 130 = Speaks less, and lets the students speak a lot.
 131 = Makes the students do games in class.

The ideal teacher of English

Table 4.16(b)

The first and the last five qualities of the ideal teacher of English. (Sample 2) : Percentages of respondents

% BY ITEM SCORE	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131
1st Important	<u>45.9</u>	2.4	4.3	.5	7.7	11.1	—	2.4	1	—	1.9	4.3	2.9	—	1.4	1	1
2nd	8.8	6.9	8.3	2	12.7	<u>23.5</u>	2	5.9	3.9	—	4.4	4.9	1	1	3	1.5	1
3rd	2	3.4	2	1.5	11.8	19.1	2.9	<u>12.3</u>	9.8	1	6.4	6.4	1	1.5	2.5	4.4	1.5
Fourth	2.9	1	3.4	2.5	7.8	13.2	3.4	12.7	4.9	3.4	7.4	<u>9.8</u>	2.9	2.5	2.9	6.9	.5
Fifth	1.5	2	3.9	2.9	3.9	4.9	2	8.3	4.4	2.9	7.4	11.8	2.9	2.5	7.8	<u>13.2</u>	7.4
=====																	
Fifth less Important	1.5	4.6	5.1	7.2	1	1.5	5.1	1	4.6	4.1	5.6	4.1	4.6	9.7	5.6	6.7	<u>14.9</u>
Fourth less	2.5	3	5.6	6.6	3	1.5	4.6	3	4.6	7.6	1.5	3	9.1	<u>10.2</u>	<u>10.2</u>	6.1	5.6
3rd	1	5	2	9.5	2.5	1	5.5	2.5	6	8	3	3.5	<u>11.1</u>	10.6	7	5.5	3.5
2nd	—	2.5	6.1	9.1	2.5	1	4.1	3	7.1	<u>12.2</u>	4.6	2.5	9.1	10.2	8.6	2.5	4.6
1st less Important	1.5	9	2.5	<u>12.9</u>	2	.5	2.5	.5	3.5	12.9	1.5	2	5	2.5	8.5	2.5	<u>16.9</u>

Note : The numbers in the top square of each Column are item numbers. See meaning of items in Legend to Table 4.16(a).

Two of the remaining four items (items 125 and 126) are concerned with the explicit content of the course (Grammar and Practical Vocabulary) and the other two with the way course content is arrived at or, indeed, is exploited. These are item 121, related to course management and methodology, and item 127 especially, related to methodology. The third factor is labelled 'Liberal Atmosphere', as it contains items inducing flexibility in methodology (items 128 and 131) and in 'teacher-learner-teacher' rapport (item 118). The last factor is concerned with methodology and stresses the interaction of the teacher with the learners (item 129) and of the learners among themselves and with the teacher (item 130). This justifies its name: 'Teacher-learner and Learner-learner Interactions'. It thus appears that the ideal teacher is a caring, knowledgeable person who helps learning to take place without pressure, even though 'Liberal atmosphere' appears to have negative scores (cf Table 4.16(a)). This factor can be seen positively using the mean argument developed in the preceding section. Indeed, since the means of the items in this factor are above the code for 'No opinion' we can consider the 'no opinions' as positive responses. When added to the percentages of the agreements, they give the factor a positive outlook. The negative attitude towards 'Liberal atmosphere' is further confirmed by the selection of the teachers' characteristics perceived as the most important and the least important (cf Table 4.16(b)). The sum of the percentages reveals that the items under 'Liberal atmosphere' are perceived as the least important of all, together with items 124, 127 and 129.

Conversely, Factor 1, i.e. 'Learner-learning Centredness and Teacher's Language Knowledge' gets the highest percentage especially items 115, 119, 120 and 122). 45.9% of the population rank item

115 as the most important characteristics of a teacher, 23.5% rank item 120 as the second while 12.7% see 119 as worth being the second in the scale, and 12.3% perceive item 122 as being the third in the scale. The sum of the percentages reveals that the learners perceive items 120 (71.8%), 115 (61.6%), 119(43.9%), and 122 (41.6%) as the most important characteristics of a teacher, followed by items 126 (37.2%) and 130 (27%). What do these figures tell us? That the teacher is above all a 'helper', an 'assistant', a 'Disciplined Helper'. This point links up with two points made earlier:

- (a) that the teachers' task in language learning is to help the learners with the 'travel' to their objective, when, and the way, the help is needed; i.e. the teachers should help the learners to use their freedom to discover and learn the other language in their own way or ways using their own speed (cf 1.3);
- (b) that the learners want help from the teacher more than being told what to do and how to do it (cf 4.3.11.1), except when being told what to do and how to do it is used as an approach or strategy to help the learners to learn or engage in learning activities (cf 2.2.2, and item 120). Item 120 (the ideal teacher explains well and clearly) implicitly says that the learners need to be clear about the teacher's intentions or about what is to be done or going on in order to learn. This point is supported by the association of translation with explanation in 'Factor 5' (Translation and Technical English) of the desired abilities and activities (cf Table 4.15).

4.2.11.3 Observations

The analysis of this section has revealed two objectives that Zairean learners of English aim at:

- (a) what has been referred to as 'General Communicative Competence; and
- (b) the Educational use of English, where creative writing and reading literature are the main feature.

The learners reckon that the devices to help them achieve these objectives are:

- (a) the study of language as a system;
- (b) the study of the language through use or interaction; and
- (c) the development of learning-strategies and free individual and group work.

(a) and (b) account for language accuracy and fluency whereas (c) accounts for the actual act of language learning.

When it comes to the skills or abilities to be developed, we notice that the reading -writing abilities are more favoured than the listening speaking (or in Widdowson's terms, the Listening-Saying abilities (cf Widdowson 1978: Ch 3)). The hierarchy suggested here is: reading first, followed by writing and listening followed by 'saying'. In order to acquire these abilities, the learners reckon that the teacher should integrate individual work with group work focussing on oral fluency, accuracy both oral and written, and reading and writing. The point is that oral fluency and grammatical accuracy are seen to serve the reading and writing purposes. The second approach to the acquisition of these abilities is perceived to be the assistance in listening comprehension, saying, reading and writing from the teacher, the learning materials and the learning activities. The

means of implementation of the 'assistance' approach is seen as being through reading and project writing, talking and hearing in Widdowson's sense (cf Widdowson 1978: Ch 3), and through explanation (via translation if necessary). The other means of implementation is by increasing the number of English sessions and teaching English through other subjects. What has been referred to in Table 4.15 as 'Discussion Groups and Class Size' has been turned down as a way of assisting the learners in their learning, maybe by fear of failure, as group testing would be new to them, and by solidarity with their classmates as reduction of class size might imply that some class members could not come.

The points reported or observed here above are what the teacher and, indeed, the teaching or learning materials should accommodate to meet the learners' expectations. It is then not surprising to observe that the teacher's linguistic competence, and his explanation capacity and methodology are perceived as essential. The analysis of the results of the ideal teacher of English reveals that the learners expect the teacher to put his expertise at their service. This suggests a teacher-oriented classroom where the teacher is a learning-oriented helper, i.e. a carer who assists the learners in their learning when he is needed, and does what is required of him, not what he thinks is required. This is particularly so with reference to the learners' attitude towards the factor named 'Liberal atmosphere', as the learners, due to their background, are not very keen about whatever is not under the teacher's control. This discussion has, thus, elevated the teacher to an even more important place in the classroom and supports the point that the learners' Motivation and Perseverance depend upon him and the classroom (cf 4.3.10.3). This is the converse of our

main hypothesis (Hypothesis 1, cf 2.3.2.1) which by way of implication is supported ipso facto. Now what are the implications of these findings for the learning materials and, indeed, how are we going to exploit the information gathered throughout this study? This is what our final chapter attempts to explore.

CHAPTER FIVE: IMPLICATIONS
of the Results for Language-Learning
Materials and Generalisation

5.0 Introduction

We take the view that learning materials cannot possibly cater satisfactorily for "the whole business of the management of language learning", that they are nevertheless useful instruments to serve as a framework. In this particular chapter we look at learning materials as frameworks for the content, the method and 'Guidance' in the sense defined or suggested by Allwright (1981:7-9), and seek some practical ways of accounting for Motivation and Perseverance as part of the framework constituted by the learning material. For this purpose we need to consider the implications of the findings of the present study for the framework or learning materials.

We have stated in Chapter Two (cf 2.3.3) that our hypotheses would be falsified and, therefore, invalid if the model (Fig. 2.4) set to test them is falsified; and that the model would be falsified if one of the dynamics suggested in the model proved to be false. The analysis of the empirical data has supported the existence of such dynamics as the Dynamic of Motivated Behaviour and the one of Perseverance, and suggests the one of Problem-solving or Learning-Acquisition (cf 4.2.10.3,a and b5). In addition, it corrects some of the assumptions of the model, thus improving it (cf 4.2.10.3,c). The analysis has, at the same time:

- (a) revealed and, indeed, supported the Zairean learners' linguistic profile (cf 4.2.8 and 4.2.9);
- (b) revealed the learners' attitudes towards the different languages (cf 4.2.8 and 4.2.9) suggesting their statuses;

- (c) revealed by way of implications the learners' concept of, and attitudes towards learning other languages (cf 4.2.11).

In view of the factoring results of the 'Ideal Teacher' component of the empirical instrument, where 'Learner-learning' is perceived as an important, if not essential, element of the factor, it makes sense to understand what the learners understand by learning other languages before engaging ourselves in consideration of the implications of the findings of the study as a whole. Indeed, failure to grasp the learners' concept of learning other languages in their own environment would mislead any conclusions drawn from the findings for application in learning materials.

5.1 The Zairean learners' concept of learning other languages

For Zairean learners of English, learning other languages appears to be equated with developing general communicative competence in all four skills with a good dose of reading and writing, made possible by a lot of grammar and practical vocabulary, conversation practice and the development of learning-strategies through free individual and group work (cf 4.2.11.3). It just happens that Zairean learners do not read that much for lack of reading materials probably, but most of all because of their tendency to be 'solution-enjoyers' rather than 'enquirers' (cf 4.2.10.b1). This is what justifies learning by rote, a consequence of which is the learners' reproduction of the teacher's lessons in examinations, a feature much criticised in the Zairean school system.

Rote memorisation in Zairean society has its roots in the colonial strategy and ideology of education in which Zairean learners

were not allowed to think for themselves lest they discovered things the coloniser did not wish them to know. Thus the learners were bound to learn what they were told to learn, not more and certainly not less, as this would entail failure. Considering that the school system is not very different now from that of the colonial ideology of education, it follows that Zairean learners' concepts of learning other languages extracted from the empirical data are only an expression of what they do not have and would wish to see happening in their language classes. It is not surprising then that their Motivation dies as they progress and the years pass away (cf 4.2.10.3,b3). It follows that the teacher needs to meet the learners' concepts of learning other languages to keep or sustain their Motivation. This is one of the points the SP-Squared Approach described in Chapter Two is meant to tackle (cf 2.3.3.2). How so? This is what we are leading to.

5.2 The Zairean learners' linguistic profile and attitudes towards the different languages surveyed

We found in Section 4.2.8 that most Zairean learners are at least trilingual before they actually master French. Which means that by the time they start learning English they are quadrilingual with a varied degree of competence in the languages they use. Section 4.2.9 revealed that Zairean learners have a very high opinion of themselves in matters concerning their linguistic competence in other languages especially in English. This is an indication, we have suggested, of favourable attitudes towards the other languages concerned including English. The point is further supported by the results of the survey on their attitudes towards learning other languages (cf 4.2.10.1), and the results of the scale 'Zairean versus other

languages and peoples'. Here we found that Zaireans value English and, indeed, any other language provided it does not threaten their cultural background. We also found that they equally value their respective mother tongues at the expense of what is referred to as 'National languages'. To them their mother tongues are more important than the national languages, a point often ignored in Zairean official decisions (cf 0.1.1.3). The point about this finding is that the social and cultural or, indeed, psychological reality that the learners do not wish to be jeopardised is the one represented by their mother tongue, rather than the so-called national languages. This appears to be an important factor to consider in an attempt to incorporate motivational factors into learning materials as content rather than a by-product of methodology and the material's structure.

5.3 Motivation and Perseverance

The analysis related to Motivation and Perseverance (4.2.10.3) is an effort to falsify the model as best we can, and subsequently to modify our hypotheses to suit the resulting model, that is, in light of the latter. It so happens that the analysis substantiates the model in correcting some of its assumptions, and ipso facto supports the hypotheses. It suggests that learning purposes not only influence the motives for learning other languages but they actually lead to them (cf 4.2.10.3,a). We argued that learning purposes in the case of Zaire are rather utilitarian as opposed to aesthetic and include both the integrative and the instrumental orientations of Motivation; and that the integrative tendency of Zairean learners' motives are in effect an instrument for achieving their goal contained and reflected in Learning Purposes and Incentive. It just happens that the incentive element concerned here is concerned with job prospects, and the money

behind them. This is what justifies the argument that even Integrative Motivation is, in essence, instrumental and therefore utilitarian in the Zairean context. The argument is in line with Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) in his distinction between the motivation orientation of bilinguals belonging to the minority versus the majority language groups.

In this particular instance, incentive refers to the need for survival in society and/or the benefits of knowing English in society (cf McDonough 1981:143). The relationship between incentive, learning purposes and motivation thus comes in support of the dynamic we referred to as the 'Dynamic of Motivated Behaviour' (cf 2.3.3), in that it suggests that incentive appeals to the learners' individual characteristics to generate Motivation (cf 2.3.3.1 and 2.3.4.3).

The analysis of the various connections of Activity-Enjoyment with the Incentive factor, the Survival Readiness-Willingness and Language Experience and Learning Strategy suggests a back flow from the learners' individual characteristics to Incentive and from Incentive to Activity-Enjoyment, thus justifying the two-way arrows linking the learners' Affective and Cognitive characteristics component to the Incentive one, and the Incentive component to Activity-Enjoyment (cf Fig 4.4)* The analysis led to twelve observations (cf 4.2.10.3,b5) which support our second dynamic altogether (cf 2.3.3.1) referred to as the 'Dynamic of Perseverance'. The latter suggests a complex of processes operating within the learner among which four have been singled out (cf Fig 4.3).** These are:

- (a) the complex AE-RW, Perseverance, and AE;
- (b) the complex AE-RW, LELS, Perseverance, and AE;

* p 344

** p 338

(c) RW, LELS, Perseverance and AE; and

(d) the learners' individual characteristics, LELS, Perseverance, and AE,

thus consecrating the Activity-Enjoyment component as the key to Perseverance. The Readiness-Willingness component appears to come second in importance as it related Motivation directly to Perseverance. Incentive here appears to relate to Perseverance quite indirectly. This is an instance of the falsification of the model in its assumptions as the link between Motivation and Perseverance appears to go from Motivation straight to Perseverance rather than through the Incentives suggested in the model (Fig. 2.4).* A more serious instance of the falsification of our model is instance (c) where aspects of Motivation appear to relate quite directly to the learners' LELS, which, according to our hypotheses, result from the learners' perseverance. This is a very serious argument against our concept of perseverance as it supports the hypothesis that motivation can well lead the learner to develop learning strategies which are not the result of any type of perseverance in the sense of this study. A third equally disturbing finding is the direct link between the learners' individual difference characteristics and LELS equally questioning the relevance of the definition of perseverance.

To deal with these findings which, though they do not reject the existence of the dynamics suggested in the model, refute the key concept of the study, we need to consider other related findings. These are :

(a) the distinction between the solution-lovers and the enquirers, and the suggestion of at least two types of perseverance (cf 4.2.10.3,b5);

* p 160

- (b) the position of Activity-Enjoyment in the process, (cf 4.2.10.3.b5); and
- (c) the absence of the backward evidence from LELS to RW (cf Fig. 4.2 or 4.3).

The distinction between the solution-lovers and the enquirers derived from two types of Activity-Enjoyments. One is concerned with the results of the activity, the other is concerned with the activity itself and its nature. Those who ascribe to the former type of AE are the solution-lovers, the others are the enquirers. We have argued that the solution-lovers do not take advantage of the activities from which the solutions that they enjoy derive, and that, therefore, they do not systematically develop learning strategies. It may well be that they resort to fixed or well-established strategies such as rote memorisation referred to above (cf 5.1). The vast majority of the population of both samples, we have found, enjoy their English lessons more if they succeed in overcoming their learning problems or obstacles (51.8% in Sample 1 and 48.6% in Sample 2). 26.5% in Sample 1 and 32% in Sample 2 claim that the more problems or obstacles they succeed in overcoming, the more they want to face and solve complex problems (cf 4.2.10.3,b1). 21.7% in Sample 1 and 18.3% in Sample 2 simply lose interest as they fail to overcome their learning problems. Considering that Activity-Enjoyment is vital for Perseverance to occur, this minority, which is not so negligible, is already a lost lot. The majority of the population constituted by the other two groups will use their language experience and/or learning strategies to learn and their Perseverance resulting from their enjoyment to keep on learning (cf Fig. 4.3). But since the solution-lovers are result-oriented, they are more likely to drop out if an obstacle that their fixed strategies cannot tackle crops up. The enquirers

on the other hand, will pause and reflect over the problem and attempt to solve the problem, thus building up new strategies over the already existing ones. Hence two types of Perseverance: a type which is not far from Activity-Enjoyment and does not necessarily lead to the development of learning strategies and another type which is sustained by (as well as it sustains) the learners' language experience and/or learning strategies. The latter is the type we are concerned with in this thesis. This is the type which is educable and, therefore, can be exploited in learning material. The former is rather the type where one can persevere or keep on learning the other language, because one is willing and ready to do what is required to survive.

The position of AE in the dynamics involved here (this is our second consideration) and the absence of the reverse relation from LELS to Motivation (our third consideration) suggests that Motivation can only be sustained through Perseverance and Activity-Enjoyment. These three considerations together minimise the effect of the refutation of the concept of Perseverance in the sense of this study, as well as supporting the main hypothesis of the thesis (cf 2.3.2.1, Hypothesis 1).* In other words, these considerations suggest that learners can develop learning and communication strategies without necessarily being perseverant, but in order for these learning and communication strategies to sustain the learners' motivation to learn, they need Perseverance in the sense of this study, which supports our first hypothesis.

In the analysis of the results obtained with the factor 'Anxiety' we came to the conclusion that confidence with one's LELS helps one to persevere more. This is particularly the case for the 'problem-lovers' or the 'enquirers'.

* p 154

The study of the learners' desired abilities and activities and of their concept of the ideal teacher revealed, among other things, two essential points which have obvious implications for Motivation, Perseverance and Learning Materials. These are: the abilities to be developed (or the learners' learning objectives) and the manner of implementation, and the hierarchy of the desired abilities. The former suggest (mind you!) a teacher-oriented class where the teacher puts his expertise at the service of the learners learning. That is, a teacher and learning oriented class. The second point suggests the development of the learners' reading and talking abilities as preliminaries to further, or the actual, learning of reading and writing.

5.4 Implications for Learning Materials

The learners' concepts of learning other languages implies that the learning materials should be able to foster the development of general communicative competence in all four skills. However, we know from the analysis of the abilities the learners wish to acquire and the devices that they reckon will help to achieve their objectives (cf 4.2.11.1), that they mostly want the ability to read particularly specialist literature (commonly referred to as ESP (English for Specific Purposes)) and the ability for creative writing. To achieve this, the learners reckon that reading and project writing, and talking would be helpful. The implication for learning materials being that they should cater for talking practice and topics for reading and project work. If we take Widdowson's point (Widdowson 1978:68) that these abilities are essentially 'ways of creating or re-creating discourse in different modes', then the learning materials should develop the learners' awareness of the elements involved in the creation

and/or re-creation of discourse in the different modes. How can this be done? This is what the Sp-Squared Approach proposed in Chapter Two (cf 2.3.3.2) is concerned with (cf 5.5).

On the other hand, the learning habit of Zaireans implies that learning materials should cater for memory exercises to meet the needs of those who cannot learn otherwise than through that strategy. This point is to be taken seriously, for as long as the testing structure remains the same as it is now, with the state examinations' (Examens d'Etat.), it needs considerable attention. Not because we want to perpetuate rote memorisation. Rather because we need to comply with learners' habits in order to guide them towards new habits. Such is the rationale of the SP-Squared Approach (cf 2.3.3.2).

The Zairean learners' linguistic profile suggests that failure to master English among the Zairean learners is not a problem of language aptitude (see also 3.2.1.3.1), since by the time they take the English course they have already learned, in formal contexts, a foreign language (French), on top of their two or three local languages usually learned or acquired informally. Learning materials which take care of the aptitude factor of language learning should only have success for the matter.

We have noticed that Zairean learners value English more, or at least, as much as their own mother tongue and tolerate, not just English but any language other than the local ones or their mother tongue as long as they do not endanger their culture or their background. We have also noticed that it is their mother tongue

and its social psychological features that are associated with the culture and their background, more than anything else (cf 4.2.10.2,c). What does this information imply? That the learning materials should present topics that are culturally compatible with the learners' culture and processable by them within their own environment. It does not matter whether this is relevant or irrelevant in the target culture, as many of the learners will not need to use their English in the target context of situation. This means that what is relevant in the target environment should not be neglected especially if it is compatible with the learning environment and processable by the learners.

When it comes to Motivation and Perseverance we notice (cf Fig. 4.4) :

- (a) that Language Learning-Acquisition as a problem-solving activity follows the development of Learning and Communication Strategies, and a persevering nature in the learners (cf Fig. 4.2, and 4.2.10.3,b4), that is, making the learner into an enquirer;
- (b) that LELS depends upon either or all of the following:
 - (i) the learners' Affective and Cognitive characteristics, such as their attitudes and interest, their learning purposes and learning experience, and whether they are activity or solution enjoyers or whether they have confidence;
 - (ii) Activity-Enjoyment and Motivation together;
 - (iii) Motivation alone; and
 - (iv) Perseverance.

- (c) that LELS sustains and is sustained by Perseverance. That is, further use and development of LELS is secured by Perseverance, as this is the characteristics of the enquirers, as well as Perseverance is secured by further use and development of LELS, since confidence with one's LELS helps to persevere more (cf 5.3);
- (d) that Perseverance is consecutive to, and dependent upon the learners' Affective and Cognitive characteristics and Motivation and Activity-Enjoyment together, and that Motivation and Activity-Enjoyment influence each other mutually, just as AE and the learners' Affective and Cognitive characteristics influence each other.
- (e) that the learners' individual differences affect and influence, as well as being affected and influenced by incentives and that they lead to Motivation, and above all;
- (f) that Activity-Enjoyment is sustained by all the components of Fig. 4.4 discussed here including LELS via Perseverance. This is what makes Perseverance, in our sense, more crucial in the process of learning other languages, than any other concept. It sustains the AE which is proved to be essential in the learning-acquisition context and setting (be it formal or informal, see Fig. 2.4) as well as it sustains the learning strategies upon which learning as problem-solving depends. The implication for language teaching and learning materials being that they have to make the learners into persevering enquirers to be effective.

Finally, we have observed that the learners wish both 'Teacher and learning oriented classes' where reading and talking abilities are developed as preliminaries to further, or the actual learning of reading and writing (cf 5.3). The implication being that the learning materials should help the teacher to fully put his expertise to the service of the learners' learning. Obviously, no single piece of learning material i.e. textbook, can ever be good enough to cope with this latter implication in view of the former. Hence the SP-Squared Approach.

5.5 Some practical ways to account for Motivation and Perseverance

5.5.0 Introduction

The practical ways suggested here are not mutually exclusive. On the contrary they are complementary as they are different manifestations of the same phenomenon aiming at the same thing: learning or, from the teacher's point of view, teaching languages other than the learners' own language. On top of that they all derive one way or another from what teachers and their allies the applied linguists say and imply, and what learners expect from the teachers and the language classes (i.e. from the learners' attitude towards the learning context and learning languages other than their own).

5.5.1 The communicative approaches to language learning

Communicative approaches as we remarked in Chapter One (cf 1.2.1.3) are genuine and important developments in the history of language teaching; but the learning materials which go along with them are not always genuinely communicative. A look at those which are communicative one way or the other reveals that they all deal with the

learners' motivation indirectly as a product of classroom activity or of the design and lay-out of the materials.

The discussion in Chapter Two (cf 2.2.2) has particularly shown that for the communicativists Motivation is a consequence of purpose and perceived reasons for doing things, i.e. for reading, writing and talking (cf 2.2.2.2, 2.2.2.4, for instance). This is what justifies the use of activities focussing on the interactional aspects of language and involving information gaps and/or information transfer. Thus communicative learning materials operate from learning activities to Motivation. With reference to our Model in Fig. 4.4 we can see that this is one way of leading the way to LELS and subsequent learning; and that if the link between LELS and Perseverance is secured, effective learning will definitely follow, as the learners will not only persevere in engaging in the activities but will also develop the strategies that they require (depending on their individual differences) to engage in the subsequent process of interaction, in which (depending upon their purposes) they will select their intake. It happens that communicative learning materials leave the learners short of the process in that all they are concerned with is (or so it appears) limited to the relationship 'Activity-Enjoyment and Motivation' and vice versa. While this can help the enquirers to do the rest of the job by themselves, it is improbable that the solution-lovers will do the same, let alone the 'rote-memory' learners. Obviously the communicative approaches need more to be fully communicative. It is in this respect that the 'Specific Purpose and Social Psychological' (SP-Squared) Approach is being proposed.

5.5.2 The 'Specific Purpose and Social Psychological' Approach to Motivation and Perseverance

This is meant as an approach to help the learners use their freedom to select their intake while engaging in the process of interaction through the learning activities, whether communicative or not. It is thus a contribution to making communicative approaches to language learning/teaching more effective, in learning materials.

In this approach, Specific Purpose (SP1) refers to a process-oriented and learners' learning habit-based and oriented approach to language learning (cf 2.3.3.2). Social Psychological (SP2) alludes to the interdependent relationship existing between language and society where 'cognitive representations are seen to be important mediators' (Giles 1982:viii). With reference, again, to our model in Fig. 4.4, we assume that the cognitive representations and the learners' purposes (whether specific or not) are formed in the top left-hand square named 'Learners' affective and cognitive characteristics. A glance at the model shows how this component relates to Motivation, the Incentives and AE, and more importantly with Perseverance and Language Experience and/or Learning Strategies. These relations imply that the learning materials should cater for each and all of these components of the learning process to be fully effective and, therefore, communicative. How so? This thesis does not offer a definitive answer to the question. Its intention is not to offer one. Rather it is to raise the issue and to propose the following practical elements towards the answer to the question. The elements obviously derive from the findings of and the discussion in this thesis and, therefore, are specific to the context concerned in this study, namely, the Zairean learning context of Mbanza-Ngungu and Kinshasa.

5.5.3 The SP-Squared in practice

With reference to the analysis in Chapter Four and the implications of its findings the following elements should be considered in the implementation of the Sp-Squared Approach:

- (a) 'Language awareness' and talking;
- (b) Memory exercises or memorisation practice;
- (c) Learning difficulty or the accommodation of language aptitude;
- (d) Cultural compatibility and processability of the materials content;
- (e) Training the learners as persevering enquirers;
- (f) Training the teacher as a disciplined assistant or helper;
- (g) Other

5.5.3.1 Language awareness and talking

Since the abilities the learners aim at, and the means of achieving these abilities (cf 4.2.11) are essentially "ways of creating or recreating discourse in different modes" (cf 5.4), and, therefore, involve an understanding of the communicative value of linguistic elements in context and a recognition of the illocutionary value of the resulting propositions (cf Widdowson 1978:68-9), we need to make the learners aware of the clues to the appropriateness of the utterances. This can be done through the study of the "clues to propositional development" or the cohesive links of the utterances, and to illocutionary development, or the coherent links of the propositions (cf Widdowson 1978: 24-31 and 67-69). But since these clues are dependent upon, and derived from "a knowledge of communicative conventions acquired as a natural and necessary concomitant of language learning"

(cf Widdowson 1978:53) it makes sense, without rejecting the suggestion here above, that the learners should be made aware of the differences and, certainly, of the similarities between their new language and their own. Short-story telling and/or writing, and reading and story telling would be good practices as the students are then involved in telling a genuine story familiar to them. This is particularly so in the case of folktales told or written by the students for the class which, as we know, are multilingual and multicultural. The story thus told or written is a genuine communicative activity, not just a classroom one, though it can not cease to be a classroom activity from the very fact that it is done in the classroom. Story-telling is particularly important as it is a major educational feature of Zairean society and, indeed, of many traditional and modern African societies. The Sp-Squared Approach should, therefore, allow for story-telling. Other suggestions are:

- (a) what we refer to as 'Contrastive teaching';
- (b) 'Socialisation' where the learners talk about their experience and discuss among themselves the type of problems encountered in doing a task or in learning things, or in dealing with tensions between traditional and modern values as often explored in contemporary African literature;
- (c) listening production, where the learners listen to an authentic dialogue or discourse of any type and reproduce some passages for accuracy;
- (d) listening comprehension, where students listen to a text or a dialogue in order to answer one or more 'focus questions'.

A description of these practical techniques is available in the discussion paper entitled: 'Zairean motives for learning English: Problems

and solutions' (cf 3.2.1.3.) . As can be noticed these suggestions focus on talking and reading as these are the abilities perceived by the learners as essential to further their actual learning of the desired abilities concerned with reading ESP and creative writing, which in our sense, include the writing of professional papers and, therefore, ESP writing.

5.5.3.2 Memory and Memorisation practice

Since the rationale of the approach (or part of the rationale) is to base and to orient the learning activities towards the learners' learning-habits (cf 2.3.3.2 and 5.1) it cannot neglect memory training. Not because memorisation is the main strategy Zairean learners use, but because memorisation is the process, or consists of, the processes by which everything we know, including our language and other languages, is assimilated and kept available for use (cf McDonough 1981:59). diction (i.e. the speaking of memorised texts and/or poems) in class or as an artistic production (under the form of a play, a recital or theatrical show) is a practical communicative activity. Doing it outside the classroom context will remove its classroom connotation and, therefore, serve as an incentive, and the purposes of 'Activity-Enjoyment'.

5.5.3.3 Learning difficulty

In one of the discussion papers (cf 3.2.1.3.2) we argued that Perseverance can be dealt with in a direct manner in textbooks if no one could fail to solve the learning activities and problems they contain, provided the activities and the problems:

... are adapted to the learners' ability to solve problems within the norms accepted in their society and in accordance with the linguistic, or rather the sociolinguistic, requirements of the language at hand ...

This point links up with the point above on memory training and is related to the learners' language aptitude. Since Zairean learners are linguistically apt (cf 3.2.1.3.1, and 5.4), learning materials which accommodate their aptitude will bring about more and more 'Enjoyment' and involvement in the activities proposed. Subsequently, they will make the learners persevere in the search for ways and means of dealing with the activities, thus developing new learning strategies or stimulating old ones.

5.5.3.4 Cultural compatibility and processability of the content

This point is clearly related to 'learning difficulty' above (5.5.3.3), as the difficulties that the learners experience in the process of learning other languages are not only linguistic and propositional but also, if not mainly, cultural and, therefore, related to illocutionary development. In this sense, the present suggestion includes all the others discussed so far, and implies the other two which follow. The teaching materials available in Zaire are often criticised on these grounds (cf 1.2.1.1). Skutnabb-Kangas' pedagogical implications of attitudes for learning a language other than one's own are particularly relevant here. She writes:

Two pedagogical implications seem to follow from a number of studies. It should be clear that negative attitudes and racism cannot be informed away - They spring from economic and political causes, and these basic causes are reflected for instance in majority speakers' negative attitudes towards minority languages and speakers. If one wants, nevertheless, to try to do something at the individual level, contacts between majority and minority speakers should be organised so that both (but especially the one who has to function in an L2) can feel secure and self-confident in a natural way, i.e. be in a position where it is possible to do justice to the knowledge and skills that each brings with her.

Her second implication is that:

... forcing minority children into situations where they are made to feel incompetent, both linguistically, socially and in terms of content, in majority medium classes, does not seem to be conducive to fostering positive integrative attitudes in minority or majority children (loc cit).

These two implications speak for themselves and, therefore, need no further comment, except to say that clearly no one can be expected to learn other people's languages in a mutually despising situation. We have seen that Zaireans value and want English for various reasons (cf 4.2.8, 4.2.9, 4.2.10.1 and 4.2.10.2). We have also seen that they value and want English (or any other foreign language) as long as it does not interfere with their cultural background (cf 4.2.10.2). It follows that:

- (a) teaching or learning materials where both cultures are in conflict (or are perceived as being in conflict) run the risk of being rejected by the learners, i.e. have more chances of not being helpful;
- (b) teaching or learning materials where culture is neutral run the risk of keeping the learners unconcerned or at best neutral;
- (c) teaching or learning materials where the target culture relates to the learners, therefore, is more likely to keep the learners' interest and to involve the learners in whatever is offered.

In this sense, cultural compatibility and processability of the content are essential in the SP-Squared Approach, or any approach focussing on the learners' learning. With reference to the model in Fig. 4.4, their centrality is suggested by the fact that they stimulate, not only the learners' Motivation, but also the language experience and/or learning strategies, their Perseverance, and affect, as well as being

affected by the learners' incentives and Activity-Enjoyment (cf relationships of top square with the other components of the figure).

5.5.3.5 The training of the learners as persevering enquirers

The concept of 'learner-training' is certainly not new in education. For one thing, it is the basis of African traditional education, or (to be more accurate) for the education of children in many African societies before the European type of education invaded them and was preferred (cf Balandier 1968, Brown and Hiskett (eds) 1975 for instance). The initiation rites preparing the adolescent for adult life or turning adolescents into adults are the classical example.

With reference to learning materials, however, the idea comes to us from Allwright (1981), and was stimulated by Santerre's description of the conciliation of African traditional and Western modern pedagogy in Mathematics (Santerre 1974:473). With these ideas in mind and the stimulus from Santerre we wrote in a previous piece of work (Lubasa 1982) that:

.. the teaching materials prepared abroad for most of Africa may well be relevant to the teaching system and yet be irrelevant to the people within the system ... Teachers and most learners should therefore be trained to get the most they can from teaching materials ..., or the teaching materials should be adapted to, or drawn from a certain type of pedagogic approach probably still to be set up.

Lubasa 1982:129

The Sp-Squared is an attempt at the pedagogic approach referred to in this passage, where conciliation or cultural compatibility and processability (5.5.3.4) are extended to the processes as well.

One of the processes is derived from one of the courses taught at tertiary level in Zaire on an optional basis. This optional course is, for us, the pillar of the whole educational enterprise, not of Zaire only, but of all societies. Its optional status in the Zairean education system, and its absence at the levels below the tertiary level, if for us, an instance of negligence and lack of concern for learning. The course is referred to as 'Initiation à la recherche scientifique'. It is concerned with training the students to deal with term and research paper writing, and involves guidance in data collection and report writing or the writing of the final research report. Drawing from the insights of this course, and considering that this is not contrary to the learners' cultural background, we would like to suggest that language learners be trained to do research, not for writing theses and/or reports (though this can be part of the training) but for learning purposes. This is particularly the case since the purpose of research is to learn something new, not to write reports or theses.

Training the learners to become persevering enquirers entails guidance in ways of learning based on language experience and/or learning strategies, and in learning purposes. This guidance implies some degree of freedom on the part of the learners to select the learning strategy they think fit for their learning purpose or purposes. Hill (1984) is an example (cf 2.2.2.9). The guidance will make the learners persevere in trying new techniques and strategies or new combinations of strategies, which in turn will sustain their Perseverance and stimulate their ability to struggle with new tasks.

Guidance is not the only means of training persevering enquirers. However, whatever is aimed at training the learners as persevering

enquirers should allow for the learners' freedom. Lack of freedom will conflict with the learners' natural ability to "selectively take from a lesson only those things that they want, and only in the manner that they want to do it in" (Allwright 1984:8).

The analysis of the Mbanza data has shown that Zairean learners look at a liberal class (where the teacher and the learners operate on a friendly and more relaxed basis) with suspicion, as if they were afraid of feeling free to select their intake from the classroom interaction. The role of the learners' training in this particular instance is to break that feeling of fear and suspicion. One way of doing this is, as suggested above, training the learners for research for learning purposes (as opposed to report writing). Project and report writing are readily available instruments for the training. Another way of liberating the learners from the suspicion and fear of freedom in the classroom is talking to them, counselling them. This point takes us to the other element that should be considered for the implementation of the SP-Squared Approach: Teacher-training.

5.5.3.6 The training of teachers as disciplined assistants

It follows from the forgoing that teachers need to be trained to be helpful to learners, that is, not to get in learners' way in the process of selecting the intake. The first thing teachers need then is self-discipline, as this will restrain them from the desire of talking more than necessary thus ignoring learners' need for learning. How can this be done? By doing with student teachers what is expected of them as teachers. This is important because teachers are mainly the reflection of their own teachers or tutors and their teaching is only the reflection of their own learning. Although we cannot prove

this statistically here and now, our own experience as a learner of English, then as a teacher of English and finally as a teacher of teachers of English has largely formed us. The implication of this point for student teachers is that they should undergo the same training that they will have to give to their prospective students, i.e. they should be trained as persevering enquirers. And if the idea of a liberal class does not sound proper to their minds, they should similarly be liberated from their suspicions. If this is done, anything which helps them to organise their own learning or their own training as teachers will be fine. Again, Hill (1984), is the example. How then, can all this be the content of a single textbook or any single set of learning materials? We would like to suggest here, as we did at the outset of this chapter, that a course book is a frame of reference similar to the syllabus.

In an introductory course to Materials Design (cf Winter Reading Course in Materials and Methods for Language Teaching) the syllabus was said to be like an itinerary in a number of ways. It has:

- (a) a given destination: the aims;
- (b) intermediate points: way stages;
- (c) a given sequence;
- (d) specified means: the materials and the methodology; and
- (e) a given criterion measure (i.e. times/speeds for way stages.)

But, unlike the itinerary, syllabuses can allow for a return to way stages via revision, recycling. In this sense, the syllabus, just like the textbook, is a frame of reference (see also 1.2.2.3). The

Table 5.1 Bases for a Syllabus from the teacher and the learners' viewpoints compared
ADAPTED FROM RON WHITE (1983) *

TEACHERS' VIEW	LEARNERS' VIEW
1. Why am I teaching English?	1. Why am I learning English?
2. What should I teach?	2. What do I want or need to learn?
3. How do I tell my students what they are going to learn?	3. What does the teacher want me to do?
4. What should I teach first? and next?	4. What do I need to learn to survive, to start building up the language system?
5. What can I teach together?	5. What things belong together?
6. How much time should I give to any one item?	6. How useful is the effort of learning? Is the effort of learning worthwhile?
7. How fast or difficult is this item to teach?	7. How easy or difficult is this item to learn?
8. What standards should I expect students to reach?	8. How good do I have to be at this?
9. How do I teach what I have decided to teach?	9. How do I learn what I have to learn?
10. What materials or textbooks can I use?	10. What books and things can I use?

* NOTE: Introduction to Materials Design by Ron White

introduction to the course suggested the ten points summarised in Table 5.1 as the basis for a syllabus from both the teacher's and the learners' points of view. They are assumed questions that the teachers and learners ask or should ask themselves before engaging themselves in the business of learning or teaching another language. These questions and the subsequent responses are, in fact, conciliatory between the teachers and learners' view. Otherwise there is a breakdown already at the level of the learners' affective and cognitive characteristics (cf Fig. 4.4) with the effect of hindering the normal process of language learning as exemplified in the model. These questions should seek conciliatory responses because:

- (1) the reasons why teachers teach the other language may be different from the reasons why learners want to learn the language;
- (2) what teachers want to teach in the actual class session may be different from what learners want and need to learn. From the learners' view point already the wants may be different from the needs as the former spring from the inside whereas the latter are, as often happens, imposed from the outside. Hence the need for conciliation between teacher and learners;
- (3) Question Number 3 indicates that learners need some kind of guidance and supports the need for conciliation;
- (4) Again, Question 4 entails guidance, not just for learners but also for teachers. Whereas step three is a negotiation of appropriate techniques and procedures, step four is the negotiation of the organisation of the content i.e. grading of the content;
- (5) Here we are concerned with the organisation of

the content in units, in terms of functions, structures or whatever, which are compatible and processable together.

- (6) Question 6 is concerned with weighting and timing the content and activities designed to teach the content;
- (7) Question 7 concerns the degree of difficulty;
- (8) Here we are concerned with the degree of achievement for which the learners as well as the teachers need a guide;
- (9) Guidance is again needed here as well as in Question 10;
- (10) With reference to Question 10, the teachers, but more so, the learners, need not just books and dictionaries, but also magazines, people to talk to, opportunities. The learning materials, therefore, as well as the syllabus, have to make the learners and the teachers aware of the opportunities available and teach them or at least tell the teachers how to teach the learners how to use them. Thus, the coursebook is a frame of reference. It does not contain everything that has to be taught or done in the classroom, or for the management of learning, to use Alwright's expression. It suggests, in our view, where to get what, and how to use them. In this sense, the learning materials can incorporate the elements of the Sp-Squared discussed above (cf 5.5.3).

5.5.4 Generalisation

In a place like Zaire, where we have seen that learners want or wish to have a 'Teacher-oriented' classroom where teachers

are expected to put their expertise at the service of learners, we can look at the teachers as learning materials. This is, in fact, what teachers are, since, like the coursebook or any other learning source, they help the learners, to the limit of their capacity, to make their way towards their own learning.

Language Teaching history shows that the teacher has been central in the classroom or in the learners' process of learning, as the principal source of information. Before the nineteenth century (cf 1.1.2), teachers usually faced classes in which every pupil had a different textbook (cf Kelly 1969:260). The suggestion being that for the long period stretching from classical times until the nineteenth century, learners relied mainly on the teacher, supplemented by the textbook. With the Direct-Method by the end of the nineteenth century and the early twentieth, learning materials and the teacher began to have the same importance, as the latter could be substituted for by the former with the use of technology in language teaching/learning (cf 1.1.3,b). It amounts to saying that the teacher and the textbook or any of the other learning sources are sources of information with the only major difference being that the teacher is a talking human source with all that that implies, such as understanding the learners, picking the appropriate time to help and guide etc.

From the viewpoint of the approach we have just suggested, the teacher is, in our sense, the most valuable learning resource the learner can refer to, since this particular 'learning material' can talk, can advise and most importantly, can understand the learners' problems and difficulties. The class is similarly a powerful learning resource as it provides learners with learning opportunities from

which they select their intake. The motivational content of these two 'learning materials' resides in the negotiating potentialities of the class and the teachers, and in permanent guidance resulting from the negotiations or coming from the teacher. Guidance thus appears to be very important if learning materials are to be effective.

Here 'Guidance' is taken to refer to:

... all those things that can be expected to help people understand what they are doing and how well they are doing it.

Allwright 1981:9

These are anything from the provision of a full-scale grammatical explanation, to the mere nod from a teacher to signify acceptance of a learner's pronunciation, and covers guidance about appropriate standards of attainment (cf Allwright 1981:9). In this context the term Guidance covers all ten points in Table 5.1 and is, therefore, the thing most desired in the syllabus/coursebook, by teachers and learners alike.

In our study of the activities learners wish to see used to achieve the abilities they aim at, we found that one of the suggested approaches is concerned with a variety of activities for assistance. The activities in question cover listening activities, outside activities for language use, reading and a variety of individual project writing, composition writing, and use of modern technology. These activities entail guidance to foster assistance. In addition, these activities are equally appropriate for training the learners to become persevering enquirers (cf 5.5.3.5). It is probably because they entail guidance that they can be used appropriately to train learners to persevere in their search for learning and communication strategies.

With reference to the ideal teacher, criterion number one appears to be good and clear explanation. This is clearly an attribute of guidance, which should be incorporated into the course/sourcebook as a learning resource. This section particularly revealed that learners perceive as vitally important the relevance of the course content, the teacher's knowledge of the language under study and their concern for the students' learning, the implication being that the learning materials should guide the learners in, and towards, what is relevant for them to learn (cf Table 5.1 for this point). Thus this study has revealed that learning materials can accommodate Motivation and Perseverance in a rather direct way if they are seen as frames of reference which guide or assist the learners to use their freedom or their selective ability for the intake, in the process of learning other languages. Seen from the SP-Squared point of view the learning materials thus defined include the teachers, the class (or the learners and their interaction in the classroom), the coursebook, the dictionary or reference books etc. In short: people and anything that facilitates learning.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I : The questionnaires

Appendix I (i) : The Learners' Questionnaire

Appendix I (ii) : Parents' and Educators' Questionnaire

Appendix I (iii) : Textbook evaluation;

The Teachers' Questionnaire

Appendix II : Interviewees' personal details

Sample forms

Appendix III : Kiese's Report

Appendix IV : Motivation and Perseverance in ELF/ESOL learning
materials (from the OEU Newsletter)

A P P E N D I X I (1)

THE LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE DESTINE AUX ELEVES / ETUDIANTS

INTRODUCTION

Vous avez devant vous un questionnaire dont l'objectif est de recueillir vos opinions et/ou vos impressions sur des aspects divers de l'apprentissage de l'anglais au Zaïre en particulier, et dans les pays africains d'expression française en général. Pour que cet objectif soit atteint et que les résultats de l'enquête soient significatifs, il est EXTREMEMENT IMPORTANT que vos réponses et vos remarques soient aussi SINCERES et PRECISES que possible.

Un questionnaire n'est pas un examen ni une interrogation côtée. Il n'affecte donc en rien vos résultats scolaires ou académiques. Notez particulièrement que vos réponses et commentaires ne seront lus ni vus par aucun de vos professeurs. Vous n'avez donc rien à craindre pour vous exprimer LIBREMENT et CLAIREMENT. Vos réponses - pour autant qu'elles sont SPONTANÉES et SINCERES - sont une contribution inouïe pour l'avenir de l'enseignement de l'anglais au Zaïre en particulier, et pour des recherches futures en Afrique francophone - le Zaïre y compris.

S'il vous arrive de rencontrer des problèmes pour répondre ou si vous ne comprenez pas une question ou les instructions, n'hésitez pas de demander des éclaircissements auprès du responsable de votre salle.

LUBASA N'TINS

UNIVERSITE DE LONDRES
FACULTE DE PSYCHO-PEDAGOGIE
DEPARTEMENT D'ANGLAIS POUR
LES NATIFS D'AUTRES LANGUES

OCTOBRE

1 9 8 3

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

OCTOBER

CONNAISSANCE DES LANGUES

Indiquez dans le tableau ci-dessous, à l'aide des indices 1 à 4, votre niveau de connaissance des langues que le tableau contient. 1 = EXCELLENT; 2 = BON; 3 = ASSEZ BON ou PASSABLE; et 4 = MEDIOCRE. POUR REpondRE ECRIVEZ L'INDICE QUI VOUS CONVIENT DANS LE CARRE APPROPRIE.

	COMPRENDRE	PARLER	LIRE	ECRIRE
LANGUE(S) MATERNELLE(S)				
CILUBA				
KIKONGO				
KISWAHILI				
LINGALA				
FRANCAIS				
ANGLAIS				

31 - 4

35 - 8

39 - 42

43 - 6

47 - 50

51 - 4

55 - 8

FAMILLE : MONOGAMIQUE/POLYGAMIQUE *

 59

NIVEAU D'ETUDE DU PAPA

 60

NIVEAU D'ETUDE DE LA MAMAN

 61

RELIGION DES PARENTS

 62

INSTRUCTIONS

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT LES POINTS SUIVANTS ET REPONDEZ AUSSI CLAIREMENT POSSIBLE.

1. Indiquez dans le tableau ci-dessous LES LANGUES que vous pouvez comprendre, parler, lire et/ou écrire. Pour répondre écrivez l'un des indices 1 à 4 dans le carré approprié. 1 = EXCELLENT; 2 = BIEN; 3 = ASSEZ BIEN; et 4 = MÉDIOCRE.

Si vous pouvez comprendre, parler, lire et/ou écrire une ou plusieurs autres langues (Zairoises et/ou étrangères) qui ne figurent pas dans le tableau, prière de les mentionner dans l'espace prévu et de compléter le tableau selon votre cas à l'aide des indices 1 à 4 expliqués ci-haut.

LANGUE	HABILITE	CONVERSATION		MESSAGE	
		COMPRENDRE	PARLER	LIRE	ECRIRE
LANGUE(S) MATERNELLE(S)	(a)				
	(b)				
CILUBA					
KIKONGO					
KISWAHILI					
LINGALA					
ALLEMAND					
ANGLAIS					
ESPAGNOL					
FRANCAIS					
PORTUGAIS					
RUSSE					
AUTRES (ZAIROISES ET/OU ÉTRANGÈRES: SPECIFIEZ ET CODEZ SVP)					
.....					
.....					
.....					

63-6
 67-70
 71-4
 75-8
 79-80
 1-3 4
 5-6
 7-10
 11-4
 15-8
 19-22
 23-6
 27-30
 31-4
 35-8

2. Où habite votre famille restreinte (ENCERCLEZ SEULEMENT UN CHIFFRE SVP)

- Au village 1
- Dans un centre extra-coutumier 2
- Dans un centre urbain ou une ville 3

39

3. Quel est le travail (métier ou occupation) de votre père? (ÉCRIVEZ LISIBLEMENT SVP)

.....

40

4. Indiquez LA LANGUE ou LES LANGUES que vous (PERSONNELLEMENT) utilisez SOUVENT à la maison (en famille) pour parler et écrire par exemple à vos parents et autres membres de la famille, ou pour lire (par exemple la bible ou des histoires courtes et des contes), pour chanter, pour prier, et pour jouer. Pour répondre écrivez un des indices 1 - 4 dans le carré approprié. 1 = LE PLUS SOUVENT; 2 = EN SECOND LIEU; 3 = PARFOIS; et 4 = RAREMENT.

# ABILITE		CONVERSATION		MESSAGE ET/OU CORRESPONDANCE					
		COMPRENDRE	PARLER	L I R E		Ecrire	Chanter	Prier	Jouer
				COMPRENDRE	A HAUTE VOIX				
LANGUE(S) MATERNELLE(S)	(a) (b)								
ANGLAIS									
CILUBA									
FRANCAIS									
KIKONGO									
KISWAHILI									
LINGALA									
AUTRES (SPECIFIEZ SVP)									
.....									
.....									
.....									

N'ECRIVEZ RIEN DANS CET ESPACE S'IL VOUS PLAIT

41 - 8	49 - 56	57 - 64
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
65 - 72	73 - 80	1 - 3
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5 - 12	13 - 20	21 - 8
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		29 - 36
		<input type="checkbox"/>

6. De toutes les langues que vous connaissez, laquelle ou lesquelles utilisez-vous pour vous adresser à :

- (a) Quelqu'un de votre âge que vous ne connaissez pas: 41
- (b) Quelqu'un de votre âge que vous connaissez mais qui n'a pas de relations particulières avec vous: 42
- (c) Une personne plus âgée que vous et que vous ne connaissez pas: 43
- (d) Une personne plus âgée que vous que vous connaissez: 44
- (e) Une personne plus jeune que vous que vous ne connaissez pas: 45
- (f) Une personne plus jeune que vous que vous connaissez: 46

FIN DE LA SECTION II : TOURNEZ LA PAGE, LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT LES INSTRUCTIONS AVANT DE VOUS METTRE A REpondre, SVP.

SECTION III : MESURE DES FACTEURS AFFECTIFS DE LA MOTIVATION - PERSISTANCE

INSTRUCTIONS

Un certain nombre de gens acceptent ou rejettent toutes ou certaines des opinions suivantes. Ces opinions ne sont en fait ni correctes ni fausses étant donné que les gens sont libres d'avoir leurs opinions; et souvent leurs opinions sont différentes, parfois même contradictoires.

INDIQUEZ, en encerclant un des cinq indices expliqués ci-dessous, JUSQU'A QUEL POINT VOUS ACCEPTEZ OU REJETEZ CES OPINIONS.

Signification des indices

- 1 = COMPLETEMENT D'ACCORD avec l'opinion exprimée
- 2 = PARTIELLEMENT D'ACCORD (ie vous exprimez un DOUTE POSITIF à l'égard de l'opinion exprimée)
- 3 = NEUTRE, SANS AVIS (vous n'êtes NI POUR NI CONTRE l'opinion exprimée)
- 4 = PARTIELLEMENT CONTRE (Vous n'êtes pas d'accord mais vous n'êtes pas complètement contre. Vous exprimez donc un DOUTE NEGATIF à l'égard de l'opinion en question).
- 5 = TOUT A FAIT CONTRE l'opinion exprimée (Vous n'êtes pas du tout d'accord avec l'opinion en question)

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT CHAQUE ENONCE OU OPINION ET MARQUEZ VOTRE ACCORD OU DESACCORD EN ENCERCLANT L'INDICE QUI VOUS CONVIENT. PRIERE DE N'ENCERCLER QU'UN SEUL INDICE. TRAVAILLEZ VITE MAIS SANS NEGLIGEANCE: RAPPELLEZ-VOUS QUE NOUS AVONS BESOIN DE VOS PREMIERES REACTIONS OU IMPRESSIONS ENVERS LES OPINIONS EXPRIMEES CI-DESSOUS, CAR, DIT-ON, LES PREMIERES REACTIONS OU IMPRESSIONS SONT TOUJOURS LES PLUS NATURELLES ET LES PLUS SINCERES. IL N'Y A AUCUN RAPPORT LOGIQUE DANS LA SEQUENCE DES OPINIONS EXPRIMEES DANS CETTE SECTION. NE PERDEZ DONC PAS DE TEMPS A FAIRE REFERENCE A CE QUI PRECEDE OU QUI SUIT POUR REPONDRE.

IMPORTANT

REPONDEZ VITE ET BIEN - ET, NE SAUTEZ AUCUNE QUESTION - MERCI D'AVANCE POUR VOTRE COLLABORATION.

RAPPEL:

D'ACCORD			PAS D'ACCORD	
COMPLETEMENT	PARTIELLEMENT	NEUTRE	PARTIELLEMENT	COMPLETEMENT
1	2	3	4	5
<u>EXEMPLE,</u>				
1. Les européens et les américains sont des hypocrites		③		
2. J'aurais voulu parler l'anglais parfaitement	②			
3. Les Zairois sont malhonnêtes				⑤
4. Apprendre une langue étrangère est une expérience agréable			④	

L'exemple veut dire que (1) vous n'êtes ni pour ni contre la première opinion et implique que vous ne savez pas si les européens et les américains sont hypocrites ou pas; (2) que vous êtes relativement d'accord avec l'idée de parler l'anglais parfaitement; (3) que vous n'êtes pas du tout d'accord que les Zairois sont malhonnêtes; et (4) que vous rejetez partiellement l'idée que l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère constitue une expérience agréable.

MAINTENANT QUE VOUS AVEZ LU ET COMPRIS LES INSTRUCTIONS, TOURNEZ LA PAGE ET COMMENCEZ A REPONDRE.

20. Je voudrais parler l'anglais parfaitement.
 1 2 3 4 5 60
21. Les africains sont plus honnêtes que les européens et les américains.
 1 2 3 4 5 61
22. L'apprentissage de l'anglais est important pour moi parce que les gens vont m'admirer et me respecter davantage si je connais l'anglais en plus du français.
 1 2 3 4 5 62
23. J'ai peur que les autres élèves/étudiants se moquent de moi quand je parle l'anglais.
 1 2 3 4 5 63
24. J'aurais voulu être capable de lire des revues écrites en anglais et d'écouter des émissions en anglais.
 1 2 3 4 5 64
25. J'aimerais parler l'anglais mieux que le français.
 1 2 3 4 5 65
26. J'aime plus le Ciluba que les trois autres langues nationales.
 1 2 3 4 5 66
27. La connaissance de l'anglais peut être importante pour moi parce qu'elle va me permettre de mieux comprendre et d'apprécier les anglophones en général, et les américains et les anglais en particulier.
 1 2 3 4 5 67
28. J'adore les leçons d'anglais.
 1 2 3 4 5 68
29. Le plus d'anglais j'apprends, le moins d'anglais je comprends.
 1 2 3 4 5 69
30. J'aimerais vraiment apprendre plusieurs langues étrangères.
 1 2 3 4 5 70
31. Mon attitude envers les africains anglophones est favorable.
 1 2 3 4 5 71
32. C'est important pour moi de connaître l'anglais parce qu'il me permettra de rencontrer et de converser aisément avec les anglophones.
 1 2 3 4 5 72
33. J'aime plus le Kikongo que les trois autres langues nationales.
 1 2 3 4 5 73
34. J'apprends l'anglais simplement parce que je n'ai pas de choix; parce que l'anglais est une branche obligatoire du programme des cours.
 1 2 3 4 5 74
35. J'adore l'anglais comme langue.
 1 2 3 4 5 75
36. J'apprends l'anglais parce qu'avec ma connaissance du français et des langues nationales, l'anglais me permettra de voyager un peu partout en Afrique et dans le monde.
 1 2 3 4 5 76

37. Le moins d'anglais je comprends, le moins d'effort je fournis et le moins je persevere pour apprendre l'anglais.

1 2 3 4 5

77

38. Il est extrêmement important que chaque zairois connaisse au moins une langue nationale autre que celle de sa région d'origine.

1 2 3 4 5

78

39. L'apprentissage de l'anglais peut être important pour moi parce que la connaissance de l'anglais me permettra de me distinguer des autres citoyens.

1 2 3 4 5

79

40. L'anglais devrait être une branche facultative à l'école secondaire.

1 2 3 4 5

80 4

41. Je trouve embarrassant d'offrir une réponse pendant les leçons d'anglais.

1 2 3 4 5

1-3

42. L'anglais est plus facile que le français.

1 2 3 4 5

5

43. Je déteste les leçons d'anglais.

1 2 3 4 5

6

44. L'apprentissage de l'anglais peut être important pour moi parce que l'anglais me permettra de me faire des amis anglophones.

1 2 3 4 5

7

45. J'aime plus le Kiswahili que les trois autres langues nationales.

1 2 3 4 5

8

46. J'aime connaître l'anglais mais le cours d'anglais me décourage.

1 2 3 4 5

9

47. J'apprends l'anglais par curiosité, pour découvrir et explorer l'humour anglais par exemple.

1 2 3 4 5

10

48. Quoiqu'il y ait beaucoup de langues zairoises, il est important que les zairois apprennent des langues étrangères principalement européennes.

1 2 3 4 5

11

49. C'est important pour moi d'apprendre l'anglais parce que je pense qu'il m'aidera un jour pour obtenir un emploi qui paie bien.

1 2 3 4 5

12

50. Je me sens nerveux et embrouillé quand je parle l'anglais pendant les leçons d'anglais.

1 2 3 4 5

13

51. Je pense qu'il est plus facile d'apprendre l'anglais que le français.

1 2 3 4 5

14

52. Le plus je parviens à résoudre mes problèmes d'apprentissage, le plus de problèmes je voudrais résoudre.

1 2 3 4 5

15

16

53. J'aime plus le Lingala que les trois autres langues nationales.
1 2 3 4 5 17
54. J'apprends l'anglais pour être capable de lire des documents (livres, revues professionnelles, etc) relatifs à ma spécialité ou programme de cours écrits en anglais.
1 2 3 4 5 18
55. Le moins d'anglais je comprends, le plus d'effort je fournis et le plus je persévère pour apprendre l'anglais.
1 2 3 4 5 19
56. J'utilise les mêmes méthodes de travail (ou stratégies d'étude) que pour le français quand j'apprends une langue étrangère, à l'occurrence l'anglais.
1 2 3 4 5 20
57. L'apprentissage de l'anglais me donne le sentiment d'aliénation et de rejet de ma propre identité culturelle.
1 2 3 4 5 21
58. La connaissance de l'anglais peut être importante pour moi parce qu'elle me permettra de mieux comprendre et d'apprécier les américains et les anglais, et leur technologie.
1 2 3 4 5 22
59. J'aime plus le français que les quatre langues nationales (Ciluba, Kikongo, Kiswahili, et Lingala).
1 2 3 4 5 23
60. Je pense qu'il est temps que nos langues nationales soient particulièrement développées pour remplacer enfin le français dans l'administration publique comme langue officielle et dans l'enseignement, comme véhicule de l'enseignement.
1 2 3 4 5 24
61. L'apprentissage de l'anglais me donne un sentiment de plaisir car avec l'anglais je peux m'identifier aux anglophones, et plus spécialement aux américains et les anglais.
1 2 3 4 5 25
62. Le plus d'anglais je comprends, le plus d'anglais je voudrais apprendre.
1 2 3 4 5 26
63. Pour maîtriser le français je recours souvent à ma langue maternelle et/ou aux autres langues que je parle bien.
1 2 3 4 5 27
64. Apprendre l'anglais est une perte de temps et d'énergie.
1 2 3 4 5 28
65. Le plus je parviens à résoudre des problèmes relatifs à l'apprentissage de l'anglais, le plus d'anglais je voudrais apprendre.
1 2 3 4 5 29
66. Je serais bien content de faire mes études primaires et secondaires dans une langue nationale zairoise si on développe les langues nationales, et d'apprendre le français ou l'anglais, ou le français et l'anglais comme langues étrangères facultatives.
1 2 3 4 5 30

67. A dire vrai, je ne vois pas pourquoi moi je dois connaître l'anglais et surtout pourquoi on nous l'apprend à l'école dans ce pays.

1 2 3 4 5

31

68. Du point de vue technologique les pays anglophones (principalement la Grande Bretagne et les USA) sont de loin plus avancés que les pays francophones (par exemple la France)

1 2 3 4 5

32

69. Les américains sont plus chaleureux et cordiaux que la plus part d'européens.

1 2 3 4 5

33

70. Je déteste l'anglais comme langue.

1 2 3 4 5

34

CONTINUER DE REpondre CI-DESSOUS EN ENCERCLANT LA LETTRE DE L'ALTERNATIVE QUI CORRESPOND A VOTRE CAS.

71. J'étudie mes leçons d'anglais

- (a) de temps en temps (1 à 2 fois le mois)
- (b) presque jamais (juste avant les examens ou une interrogation)
- (c) très fréquemment (2 ou plus de 2 fois par semaine)

35

72. Si j'avais l'occasion de parler l'anglais en dehors des heures de cours

- (a) je le parlerais tout le temps et ne parlerais le français que si c'était nécessaire
- (b) je le parlerais occasionnellement, et parlerais le français ou les langues locales dès que c'est possible
- (c) je ne le parlerais jamais

36

73. Pendant les leçons d'anglais j'aimerais

- (a) que seul l'anglais soit parlé
- (b) qu'on parle autant de français que possible
- (c) qu'il y ait une combinaison de l'anglais et du français

37

74. Quand je suis au cours d'anglais

- (a) je ne dis jamais rien
- (b) j'offre de répondre autant de fois que c'est possible
- (c) je ne réponds qu'aux questions faciles

38

75. Si j'ai un problème de compréhension pendant la leçon d'anglais

- (a) j'attends l'examen pour demander des explications
- (b) je demande des explications au professeur immédiatement
- (c) je l'oublie carrément

39

76. Mon devoir d'anglais:

- (a) je le fais soigneusement et attentivement, et je m'organise pour comprendre tout ce que je fais
- (b) j'y met un peu d'effort mais pas autant que j'aurais dû
- (c) je ne m'y attarde pas trop; je le fais rapidement.

40

SECTION IV : VOS DESIRSI. APTITUDESINSTRUCTIONS

Beaucoup de gens aimeraient apprendre l'anglais pour développer une ou plusieurs des aptitudes suivantes. Indiquez le degré avec lequel cela s'applique à votre cas en utilisant l'indice

1 à 5. Notez que:

- 1 = COMPLETEMENT D'ACCORD (ou C'EST TOUT A FAIT MON CAS)
 2 = C'EST PARTIELLEMENT MON CAS
 3 = NEUTRE (ie, CECI N'EST NI VRAI NI FAUX POUR MOI)
 4 = C'EST PARTIELLEMENT "PAS MON CAS"
 5 = PAS DU TOUT LE CAS

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT CHAQUE POINT ET ENCERCLEZ L'INDICE QUI REPRESENTE LE MIEUX VOTRE CAS.

J'AIMERAIS APPRENDRE L'ANGLAIS POUR :

85. Etre capable d'engager une conversation naturelle ou normale (sur des sujets familiaux ou journaliers) avec des natifs de la langue anglaise (ie les anglais, les americains, etc)
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 60 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
86. Etre capable de lire des documents (livres, articles, etc) relatifs à ma spécialité ou mon programme de cours écrits en anglais.
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 61 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
87. Etre capable de correspondre en anglais (ie, écrire des lettres sociales - aux amis, ou des lettres d'affaires, etc)
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 62 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
88. Etre capable de lire des histoires ou des romans écrits en anglais
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 63 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
89. Etre capable d'écrire des histoires et/ou des romans en anglais
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 64 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
90. Etre capable de lire (et bien sûr comprendre) la poésie anglaise
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 65 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
91. Etre capable d'écrire des poèmes en anglais
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 66 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
92. Etre capable de lire des revues et des journaux écrits en anglais
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 67 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
93. Etre capable d'écrire des articles scientifiques et professionnels en anglais
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 68 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
94. Etre capable d'écouter (ou suivre) des émissions en anglais
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 69 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
95. Etre capable de suivre un film en anglais
- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 70 |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|

96. S'il y a une ou plusieurs autres aptitudes qui ne sont pas mentionnées sur la page précédente que vous aimeriez bien développer en anglais ou si vous avez une ou des raisons pour lesquelles vous apprenez ou aimeriez apprendre l'anglais qui ne sont pas reflétées sur la page précédente, écrivez-les dans l'espace ci-dessous:

.....

71-2

II. CONCERNANT LE COURS

INSTRUCTIONS

Quels sont les aspects du cours d'anglais mentionnés ci-dessous aimeriez-vous voir se développer ou se renforcer dans votre cours? Manifestez votre intérêt (ou le degré d'acceptation des aspects en question) en encerclant un seul des indices 1 à 5 où 1 signifie 'TRES FAVORABLE', 2 signifie 'ASSEZ FAVORABLE', 3 signifie 'NEUTRE' ou 'DESIR MOYEN', 4 signifie 'ASSEZ DEFAVORABLE' et 5 signifie 'TRES DEFAVORABLE'.

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT CHAQUE POINT ET REPONDEZ LE PLUS SINCEREMENT QUE VOUS POUVEZ.

J'AIMERAIS QUE LES ASPECTS SUIVANTS DU COURS D'ANGLAIS SOIENT DEVELOPPES OU RENFORCES

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------------------|
| 97. Pratique et exercices de composition et de dissertation anglaises | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 73 |
| 98. Enseignement ou plutot apprentissage des règles de grammaire et leur application | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 74 |
| 99. Exercices de prononciation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 75 |
| 100. Exercices de lecture (ie, lire, comprendre et interpreter une histoire ou le contenu d'un livre, d'un article, etc) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 76 |
| 101. Initiation à la recherche et à l'utilisation des livres ou manuels, et des dictionnaires d'anglais. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 77 |
| 102. Etre encouragé de lire des livres, des revues, des journaux, etc en anglais et de faire beaucoup de travaux personnels ou individuels sous forme de projets, devoirs, et exercices pratiques de differentes natures. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 78 |
| 103. Pratique et exercices de conversation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 79 |
| 104. Etre encouragé de pratiquer l'anglais et de converser en anglais en dehors des heures de cours grâce à des activités péri-scolaires comme le théâtre, les excursions, l'English-Club, rencontre avec les natifs de la langue anglaise, etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> 80 |

105. Etre encourage d'écouter ou de suivre des émissions en anglais

1 2 3 4 5

1-3 4

106. L'emploi d'un enregistreur ou de n'importe quel autre système sonore et/ou audio-visuel

1 2 3 4 5

5

107. L'emploi du français ou des langues locales pour l'explication du cours ou de certains aspects difficiles du cours.

1 2 3 4 5

6

108. Réduction du nombre d'élèves jusqu'à environ 15 élèves/étudiants par salle pendant les leçons d'anglais

1 2 3 4 5

7

109. Travail et devoirs en groupes (d'étude) en classe et pendant les heures libres.

1 2 3 4 5

8

110. Pas d'examens ou s'il y en a, que ce soit des examens en groupes de discussion.

1 2 3 4 5

9

111. Augmentation de nombre d'heures d'anglais par semaine.

1 2 3 4 5

10

112. Plus d'importance à la langue technique et professionnelle(ie, se rapportant à notre branche de spécialisation comme par exemple les sciences, la technologie, le commerce et l'administration, etc) qu'à la littérature.

1 2 3 4 5

11

113. Un cours varié ou l'on apprend la langue à l'aide ou à travers les autres branches étudiées à l'école, spécialement les branches de spécialité, la géographie et l'histoire de l'Angleterre et/ou des Etats-Unis.

1 2 3 4 5

12

114. S'il y a d'autres aspects du cours d'anglais qui ne sont pas repris ci-dessus que vous aimeriez bien voir se développer ou se renforcer (ou s'améliorer, mentionnez les dans l'espace ci-dessous:

.....
.....
.....

13

14-5

III. LE PROFESSEUR IDEAL D'ANGLAIS

Ci-dessous vous avez un certain nombre de particularités qui caractérisent un professeur de langue étrangère, notamment l'anglais. Prière d'indiquer l'importance de ces particularités, selon vous, pour définir le professeur d'anglais que vous pensez être "idéal", tel que vous l'imaginez. N'encerclez qu'un seul indice pour chaque qualité. NOTEZ QUE:

- 1 = TRES IMPORTANT
 2 = ASSEZ IMPORTANT
 3 = IMPORTANCE MOYENNE
 4 = MOINS IMPORTANT
 5 = PAS DU TOUT IMPORTANT (ou IMPORTANCE NULLE)

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT CHAQUE POINT AVANT DE REPENDRE

LE PROFESSEUR IDEAL D'ANGLAIS:

115. connaît et parle bien l'anglais. Il le connaît jusque dans ses moindres détails
 1 2 3 4 5 16
116. connaît et comprend le langage propre au domaine de spécialisation de ses élèves/étudiants (par exemple le langage propre aux sciences et à la technologie)
 1 2 3 4 5 17
117. connaît bien ses élèves/étudiants, les aide à (mieux) se connaître eux-mêmes et à connaître leurs condisciples.
 1 2 3 4 5 18
118. est libéral. Il laisse les élèves choisir leurs sujets de devoir ou de travail, répond volontiers aux questions et admet la contradiction (ou d'être contredit par ses élèves/étudiants)
 1 2 3 4 5 19
119. apprend aux élèves/étudiants à travailler (ie, à chercher et découvrir une méthode de travail personnelle efficace), à penser et à réfléchir.
 1 2 3 4 5 20
120. explique bien; clairement.
 1 2 3 4 5 21
121. se libère à l'occasion du manuel pour organiser son cours avec la collaboration de ses élèves et en accord avec les orientations et les intérêts de ses élèves/étudiants.
 1 2 3 4 5 22
122. enlève aux élèves/étudiants la peur de parler l'anglais (en classe ou à l'extérieur)
 1 2 3 4 5 23
123. insiste plus sur la langue parlée que sur la langue écrite.
 1 2 3 4 5 24
124. n'attache pas beaucoup d'importance à la prononciation, au rythme et à l'intonation.
 1 2 3 4 5 25
125. fait faire beaucoup de grammaire.
 1 2 3 4 5 26

126. fait apprendre beaucoup de vocabulaire pratique courant

1 2 3 4 5

27

127. fait apprendre des chants en anglais

1 2 3 4 5

28

128. enseigne beaucoup de choses sur la géographie, l'histoire, les mœurs ; bref, la culture des natifs de la langue anglaise.

1 2 3 4 5

29

129. ne parle que l'anglais avec ses élèves/étudiants (en classe comme à l'extérieur) et n'explique jamais en français ou autre langue, quel que soit le problème.

1 2 3 4 5

30

130. parle le moins possible pour laisser les élèves/étudiants parler le plus possible. Il fait parler tous ses élèves (non pas seulement quelques uns) et les aide à parler beaucoup pendant les leçons.

1 2 3 4 5

31

131. fait faire des jeux en classe.

1 2 3 4 5

32

ii. Ajoutez à cette liste de qualités celles que vous pensez être très importantes mais qui ne figurent pas sur la liste:

- 132.
- 133.
- 134.
- 135.
- 136.

33
 34
 35
 36
 37

iii. Sélectionnez parmi les qualités de la liste ci-dessus (Nos 115 - 136) les cinq qualités qui, selon vous, sont les plus importantes et les cinq qualités que vous trouvez les moins importantes. (suivant l'ordre d'importance). Pour répondre écrivez les numéros des qualités que vous avez sélectionnées dans les carrés numérotés ci-dessous:

137. Les cinq qualités les plus importantes (avec 1 la plus importante de toutes)

	1	2	3	4	5	
+						-
	(38-9)	(40-1)	(42-3)	(44-5)	(46-7)	

38-9
 40-1
 42-3
 44-5
 46-7

138. Les cinq qualités les moins importantes (avec 1 la moins importante de toutes)

	1	2	3	4	5	
-						+
	(48-9)	(50-1)	(52-3)	(54-5)	(56-7)	

48-9
 50-1
 52-3
 54-5
 56-7

SECTION V : MON COURS, MON LIVRE ET MON PROFESSEUR D'ANGLAIS

INTRODUCTION

Sur les pages suivantes il vous est demandé de donner votre opinion et/ou vos impressions sur votre cours, votre professeur et votre livre actuels d'anglais en encerclant l'indice qui représente le mieux possible vos sentiments. Les indices 0 à 2 sont interprétés de la manière suivante:

- 0 = NEUTRE ou INDIFFERENT (ie, NI L'UN NI L'AUTRE)
 1 = PARTIELLEMENT D'ACCORD
 2 = TOUT A FAIT ou COMPLETEMENT D'ACCORD

Les exemples ci-dessous illustrent cette codification.

Exemple 1 :

MON COURS D'ANGLAIS:

COMPLIQUE	2	1	0	1	2	SIMPLE
AGREABLE	2	1	0	1	2	DESAGREABLE
ENNUYEUX	2	1	0	1	2	FASCINAT
INSTRUCTIF	2	1	0	1	2	"NON-INSTRUCTIF"

Ceci est interprété comme suit:

'MON COURS D'ANGLAIS N'EST NI COMPLIQUE NI SIMPLE (0), IL EST ASSEZ AGREABLE (1), ASSEZ FASCINANT (1), ET TRES INSTRUCTIF (2).'

- (a) Vous avez donc encerclé '0' dans le premier cas parce que vous pensez que votre cours d'anglais est neutre (il n'est ni compliqué ni simple).
 (b) Vous avez encerclé '1' dans le second et le troisième cas parce que vous pensez que votre cours d'anglais est à la fois agréable et fascinant MAIS PAS AUSSI AGREABLE ET FASCINANT que vous auriez aimé.
 (c) Vous avez encerclé '2' dans le dernier cas parce que vous êtes convaincu(e) que votre cours d'anglais est instructif. Vous êtes donc parfaitement d'accord avec le qualificatif 'instructif' pour ce qui est de votre cours d'anglais.

Le principe est le même pour exprimer vos opinions sur votre professeur d'anglais. En guise d'exercice, ESSAYEZ DE CODIFIER LES OPINIONS EXPRIMEES DANS L'EXEMPLE SUIVANT:

EXEMPLE 2 :

'MON PROFESSEUR D'ANGLAIS EST (TRES) AMICAL, ASSEZ (ou UN PEU) ORGANISE, PAS INTELLIGENT MAIS PAS IMBECILE. IL ENSEIGNE BIEN.'

	MON PROFESSEUR D'ANGLAIS					
AMICAL	2	1	0	1	2	PAS AMICAL
DESORGANISE	2	1	0	1	2	ORGANISE
INTELLENT	2	1	0	1	2	IMBECILE
ENSEIGNE MAL	2	1	0	1	2	ENSEIGNE BIEN

VERIFIEZ VOTRE REPONSE AVANT DE COMMENCER A REPONDRE A CETTE SECTION (voir la réponse correcte au bas de la page). SI VOTRE REPONSE N'EST PAS CORRECTE, ETUDIEZ DE NOUVEAU LE CODE AVANT DE COMMENCER A REPONDRE OU DEMANDEZ DES ECLAIRCISSEMENTS.

REPONSE: EXEMPLE 2 - Encercler '2' pour (TRES) AMICAL, et ENSEIGNE BIEN; '1' pour ORGANISE; et '0' pour l'axe INTELLIGENT-IMBECILE.

R A P P E L :

TRAVAILLEZ VITE. CE SONT VOS PREMIERES IMPRESSIONS QUI COMPTENT. NE VOUS ATTARDEZ DONC PAS A REFLECHIR. VOUS N'AVEZ QUE DIX MINUTES POUR REpondRE A CETTE PARTIE.

139. Encerclez le chiffre qui représente le plus possible votre opinion et/ou vos impressions de votre cours d'anglais actuel. TRAVAILLEZ VITE SVP.

MON COURS D'ANGLAIS

ANIME	2	1	0	1	2	INANIME	<input type="checkbox"/>	58
AGREABLE	2	1	0	1	2	DESAGREABLE	<input type="checkbox"/>	59
MAL ENSEIGNE	2	1	0	1	2	BIEN ENSEIGNE	<input type="checkbox"/>	60
SIMPLE	2	1	0	1	2	COMPLIQUE	<input type="checkbox"/>	61
INUTILE	2	1	0	1	2	UTILE	<input type="checkbox"/>	62
FASCINANT	2	1	0	1	2	ENNUYEUX	<input type="checkbox"/>	63
DIFFICILE	2	1	0	1	2	FACILE	<input type="checkbox"/>	64
INTERESSANT	2	1	0	1	2	PAS INTERESSANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	65
DISTRAYANT	2	1	0	1	2	CAPTIVANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	66
CONVAINQUANT	2	1	0	1	2	PAS CONVAINQUANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	67
EMBROUILLE	2	1	0	1	2	CLAIR ET CONCIS	<input type="checkbox"/>	68
INSTRUCTIF	2	1	0	1	2	PAS INSTRUCTIF	<input type="checkbox"/>	69
DECEVANT	2	1	0	1	2	SATISFAISANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	70
VALABLE	2	1	0	1	2	NON-VALABLE	<input type="checkbox"/>	71
IMPORTANT	2	1	0	1	2	PAS IMPORTANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	72
NECESSAIRE	2	1	0	1	2	PAS NECESSAIRE	<input type="checkbox"/>	73
MONOTONE	2	1	0	1	2	VARIE	<input type="checkbox"/>	74
COHERENT	2	1	0	1	2	INCOHERENT	<input type="checkbox"/>	75

140. Comment auriez-vous voulu que votre cours d'anglais soit. Ecrivez les qualificatifs ou qualités par ordre d'importance avec 1 = le plus important et 5 = le moins important.

- | | | | |
|---|-------|--------------------------|----|
| 1 | | <input type="checkbox"/> | 76 |
| 2 | | <input type="checkbox"/> | 77 |
| 3 | | <input type="checkbox"/> | 78 |
| 4 | | <input type="checkbox"/> | 79 |
| 5 | | <input type="checkbox"/> | 80 |

141. Encercler le chiffre qui correspond le plus possible à votre opinion et/ou vos impressions de votre professeur d'anglais actuel. TRAVAILLEZ VITE SVP.

MON PROFESSEUR D'ANGLAIS

AMICAL	2	1	0	1	2	INAMICAL	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
DESORGANISE	2	1	0	1	2	ORGANISE	<input type="checkbox"/>	6
ACTIF	2	1	0	1	2	INACTIF	<input type="checkbox"/>	7
NEGLIGEANT	2	1	0	1	2	DEVOUE	<input type="checkbox"/>	8
IMAGINATIF	2	1	0	1	2	SANS IMAGINATION	<input type="checkbox"/>	9
IMPATIENT	2	1	0	1	2	PATIENT	<input type="checkbox"/>	10
CONSCIENCIEUX	2	1	0	1	2	INCONSCIENCIEUX	<input type="checkbox"/>	11
INJUSTE	2	1	0	1	2	JUSTE	<input type="checkbox"/>	12
PLAISANT	2	1	0	1	2	DEPLAISANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	13
PARESSEUX	2	1	0	1	2	LABORIEUX (TRAVAILLEUR)	<input type="checkbox"/>	14
EFFICACE	2	1	0	1	2	INEFFICACE	<input type="checkbox"/>	15
IRRESPECTUEUX	2	1	0	1	2	RESPECTUEUX	<input type="checkbox"/>	16
RESPECTE	2	1	0	1	2	IRRESPECTE	<input type="checkbox"/>	17
INCOMPETANT	2	1	0	1	2	COMPETANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	18
APPROCHABLE	2	1	0	1	2	INAPPROCHABLE	<input type="checkbox"/>	19
INSENSIBLE	2	1	0	1	2	SENSIBLE	<input type="checkbox"/>	20
DETENDU	2	1	0	1	2	TENDU	<input type="checkbox"/>	21
MECHANT	2	1	0	1	2	GENTIL(BON)	<input type="checkbox"/>	22
CONNAIT SA MATIERE	2	1	0	1	2	NE CONNAIT PAS SA MATIERE.	<input type="checkbox"/>	23

142. Ecrivez ci-dessous par ordre d'importance les qualités que vous auriez voulu que votre professeur, d'anglais possède.

- 1. 24
- 2. 25
- 3. 26
- 4. 27
- 5. 28

143. Encerclez le chiffre qui correspond le plus possible à votre opinion et/ou vos impressions de votre livre ou manuel actuel d'anglais. TRAVAILLEZ VITE SVP.

MON LIVRE ACTUEL D'ANGLAIS

STIMULANT	2	1	0	1	2	PAS STIMULANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	29
COMPLIQUE	2	1	0	1	2	SIMPLE	<input type="checkbox"/>	30
INTERESSANT	2	1	0	1	2	PAS INTERESSANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	31
DIFFICILE	2	1	0	1	2	FACILE	<input type="checkbox"/>	32
INSTRUCTIF	2	1	0	1	2	PAS INSTRUCTIF	<input type="checkbox"/>	33
INUTILE	2	1	0	1	2	UTILE	<input type="checkbox"/>	34
ATTRAYANT	2	1	0	1	2	REPOUSSANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	35
MONOTONE	2	1	0	1	2	VARIE	<input type="checkbox"/>	36
VALABLE	2	1	0	1	2	NON-VALABLE	<input type="checkbox"/>	37
INADAPTE	2	1	0	1	2	ADAPTE	<input type="checkbox"/>	38
PRATIQUE	2	1	0	1	2	THEORIQUE	<input type="checkbox"/>	39
EMEROUILLE	2	1	0	1	2	CLAIR ET CONCIS	<input type="checkbox"/>	40
CONSISTANT	2	1	0	1	2	INCONSISTANT	<input type="checkbox"/>	41
MAL PRESENTE	2	1	0	1	2	BIEN PRESENTE	<input type="checkbox"/>	42
ORDONNE	2	1	0	1	2	DESORDONNE	<input type="checkbox"/>	43

144. Comment auriez-vous voulu que votre manuel d'anglais se présente. Ecrivez les qualificatifs ou qualités par ordre d'importance avec le plus important au numéro 1 et le moins important au numéro 5.

- 1. 44
- 2. 45
- 3. 46
- 4. 47
- 5. 48

145. Pour terminer, donnez cinq adjectifs qui, selon vous, qualifient le mieux possible un élève idéal ou un bon élève d'anglais.

- 1. 49
- 2. 50
- 3. 51
- 4. 52
- 5. 53

A P P E N D I X I (1 1)

PARENTS' AND EDUCATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE DESTINE AUX EDUCATEURS

INTRODUCTION

Ce questionnaire fait partie d'un projet de recherche conduit à l'Université de Londres en Angleterre sur l'enseignement de l'anglais en Afrique francophone. L'objectif du questionnaire est de recueillir le plus d'opinions et d'impressions possibles sur des aspects divers de l'enseignement de l'anglais au Zaïre en particulier. Nous espérons que les résultats de notre enquête contribueront à aider toutes les personnes concernées dans l'éducation de la jeunesse (parents, maîtres/professeurs, administrateurs et même les enfants eux-mêmes) de mieux jouer leurs rôles respectifs. Pour atteindre ce but nous avons besoin d'une collaboration sincère de toutes les personnes concernées. Nous vous prions donc de répondre le plus SINCEREMENT que vous pouvez et de ne pas hésiter de commenter sur des questions ou problèmes que nous avons omis et qui vous semblent importants. Vos réponses et commentaires seront traités confidentiellement. En plus, vous n'êtes pas obligé de mentionner votre nom. Nous vous remercions d'avance pour votre collaboration.

LUBASA N'TINS

UNIVERSITE DE LONDRES
FACULTE DE PSYCHO-PEDAGOGIE
DEPARTEMENT D'ANGLAIS POUR
LES NATIFS D'AUTRES LANGUES

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

OCTOBRE

OCTOBER

SECTION I : DETAILS PERSONNELS (* = BIFFER LA MENTION INUTILE)

1. N O M P O S T I N O M (S)

1 - 3 4

2. C A T E G O R I E : (a) P A R E N T ; (b) A D M I N I S T R A T I F ; (c) E N S E I G N A N T *

 5

3. A G E

 6

4. S E X E : M A S C U L I N / F E M I N I N *

 7

5. L A N G U E (S) M A T E R N E L L E (S) (a)

 8 - 10

(b)

 11 - 3

6. L A N G U E (S) N A T I O N A L E (S) P A R L E E (S)

(a)

 14

(b)

 15

(c)

 16

(d)

 17

7. R E L I G I O N

 18

8. F O R M A T I O N :

A P P R E N T I S S A G E : O U I / N O N *

 19

P R I M A I R E : O U I / N O N *

 20

S E C O N D A I R E : O U I / N O N * ; S I O U I , L A Q U E L L E ?

 21

(R E P O N D E Z I C I)

 22

S U P E R I E U R E : O U I / N O N * ; S I O U I , R E P O N D E Z A U X Q U E S T I O N S (a) - (e) c i -

 23

d e s s o u s .

(a) I N S T I T U T I O N

 24

(b) S P E C I A L I T E

 25 - 6

(c) N O M B R E D ' A N N E E S D ' E T U D E

 27

(d) D A T E

 28

(e) D I P L O M E / T I T R E

 29

9. S T A G E S P R O F E S S I O N N E L S

N O M B R E D E S T A G E S

 30

LIEU(X) DE STAGE
 DATE
 SPECIALITE

31
 32
 33 - 4

10. FONCTION(S)

35 - 6

11. SECTEUR : PUBLIC/PRIVE *

37

12. E T A T C I V I L :

CELIBATAIRE; MONOGAME/POLYGAME; DIVORCE; VEUF/VEUVE *

38

13. NOMBRE D'ENFANTS : (a) DE MOINS DE 6 ANS

39

(b) ENTRE 6 ET 18 ANS

40

(c) AU DELA DE 18 ANS

41

14. RELIGION DES PARENTS

42

15. NIVEAU D'ETUDES DES PARENTS : PERE

43

MERE

44

16. MAITRISE DES LANGUES

Prière d'utiliser l'indice 1-4 pour évaluer votre maîtrise des langues

prises dans le tableau ci-dessous. 1 = EXCELLENT; 2 = BIEN;

3 = ASSEZ BIEN ou PASSABLE; et 4 = MEDIOCRE.

APTITUDE LANGUE	COMPRENDRE (CONVERSATION)	PARLER (CONVERSATION)	LIRE (MESSAGE)	ECRIRE (MESSAGE)
LANGUE(S) MATERNELLE(S)				
CILUBA				
KIKONGO				
KISWAHILI				
LINGALA				
FRANCAIS				
ANGLAIS				
AUTRE(S) (ZAIROISES ou ETRANGERES) SPECIFIE Z SVP				

45 - 8

49 - 5

53 - 6

57 - 60

61 - 4

65 - 8

69 - 7

73 - 6

SECTION II : L'ELEVE IDEAL

Ci-dessous vous avez un certain nombre de caractéristiques propres aux élèves. Prière d'indiquer l'importance de ces caractéristiques, selon vous, pour définir l'élève idéal de langue étrangère, à l'occurrence l'anglais, tel que vous le concevez. N'encerclez qu'un seul indice pour chaque caractéristique.

Notez la signification des indices SVP.

- 1 = TRES IMPORTANT
 2 = ASSEZ IMPORTANT
 3 = IMPORTANCE MOYENNE
 4 = MOINS IMPORTANT
 5 = PAS DU TOUT IMPORTANT

EXEMPLE

L'ELEVE IDEAL

(a) est poli ou respectueux	1	2	3	4	⑤
(b) pose des questions raisonnables	1	2	③	4	5
(c) est intelligent	1	②	3	4	5
(d) a l'oreille des langues	①	2	3	4	5
(e) est sociable et serviable	1	2	3	④	5

Selon cet exemple, l'élève idéal (a) n'a pas besoin d'être poli ou respectueux (5); (b) pose, tout comme il peut ne pas poser des questions raisonnables (3); (c) doit être relativement intelligent (2); (d) a ou doit avoir l'oreille des langues (1); (e) n'est pas nécessairement sociable et serviable.

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT CHAQUE POINT AVANT DE REPENDRE

(ii) Ajoutez à cette liste de qualités, celles que vous estimez être importantes mais qui ne figurent pas sur la liste. Indiquez la portée de leur importance en encerclant un des indices 1 - 5.

- 32.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---
- 33.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---
- 34.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---
- 35.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---
- 36.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- 16
- 17
- 18
- 19
- 20

(iii) Sélectionnez parmi les qualités de la liste ci-dessus les cinq qualités qui, selon vous, sont les plus importantes, et les cinq qualités que vous trouvez les moins importantes (suivant l'ordre d'importance). Pour répondre écrivez les numéros des qualités que vous avez sélectionnées dans les carrés numérotés ci-dessous:

37. Les cinq qualités les plus importantes (avec 1 la plus importante de toutes)

	1	2	3	4	5	
+						-
	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	

21	22			
23	24	25		

38. Les cinq qualités les moins importantes (avec 1 la moins importante de toutes)

	1	2	3	4	5	
-						+
	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	

26	27			
28	29	30		

SECTION III : CONCEPT DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT ET DE L'APPRENTISSAGE DE LANGUES

ETRANGERES

Dans cette partie du questionnaire, il vous est demandé de marquer votre accord ou désaccord avec certaines opinions que les gens ont de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage des langues étrangères. Ensuite nous aimerions connaître vos opinions sur l'enseignement en général et sur celui de l'anglais en particulier.

Pour répondre aux questions iv et v encerclez un des indices 1 à 5 dans chaque cas.

1 = COMPLETEMENT D'ACCORD, 2 = PARTIELLEMENT D'ACCORD, 3 = NEUTRE (ou SANS AVIS),

4 = PARTIELLEMENT PAS D'ACCORD, et 5 = COMPLETEMENT PAS D'ACCORD.

iv. Four moi, apprendre une langue étrangère c'est:

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|--------------------------|----|
| 39. étudier la grammaire et la littérature de la langue en question | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 31 |
| 40. apprendre et pratiquer le vocabulaire et la grammaire de la langue étrangère en question | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 32 |
| 41. apprendre à converser dans la langue étrangère | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 33 |
| 42. apprendre à lire des documents relatifs à mon domaine d'intérêt dans la langue en question | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 34 |
| 43. apprendre à écrire des lettres dans la langue en question | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 35 |
| 44. apprendre à dissenter dans cette langue | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 36 |
| 45. apprendre à comprendre et à interpréter la langue étrangère en question | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 37 |

46. apprendre à comprendre et à dire des phrases et des expressions de la langue en question

1 2 3 4 5

38

47. apprendre à lire et à interpréter la langue étrangère en question

1 2 3 4 5

39

48. tout autre chose (SPECIFIEZ SVP)

.....
.....
.....

40 - 1

V. Pour moi, enseigner une langue (étrangère) c'est:

49. donner aux élèves beaucoup de grammaire, beaucoup d'exercices de lecture, de composition et de conversation en classe

1 2 3 4 5

42

50. donner une connaissance de base en grammaire formelle et en stratégies de communication (orale et écrite) que les élèves devront transférer ou adapter et développer dans la vie pratique

1 2 3 4 5

43

51. enseigner beaucoup de vocabulaire pratique courant et un peu de grammaire de base

1 2 3 4 5

44

52. apprendre aux élèves à converser, lire et écrire dans la langue étrangère

1 2 3 4 5

45

53. développer chez les élèves une ou plusieurs stratégies d'apprentissage de langues étrangères

1 2 3 4 5

46

54. développer chez les élèves une ou plusieurs stratégies de communication en langues étrangères

1 2 3 4 5

47

55. tout autre chose (SPECIFIEZ SVP)

.....
.....
.....

48 - 9

56. considérant l'enseignement tel qu'il est aujourd'hui et l'éducation traditionnelle, quels sont les points faibles ou négatifs et les points forts ou positifs de l'un et de l'autre? (SOYEZ BREF DANS VOTRE REPONSE SVP)

.....
.....
.....
.....

50 - 1

57. Pensez-vous que l'enseignement de l'anglais est une bonne chose (c'est à dire que c'est important de l'enseigner aux enfants)? 1 = OUI; 2 = NON; 3 = NI UNE BONNE OU UNE MAUVAISE CHOSE; 4 = NE SAIT PAS

1 2 3 4

52

58. Justifiez votre réponse (SOYEZ BREF SVP)

.....
.....
.....

53 - 4

59. Pensez-vous que l'enseignement de l'anglais est un succès?

1 = OUI; 2 = NON; 3 = NI UN SUCCES NI UN ECHEC; 4 = NE SAIT PAS

1 2 3 4

55

60. Justifiez votre réponse (SOYEZ BREF SVP)

.....
.....
.....

56 - 7

SECTION IV : L'ENSEIGNEMENT ET L'APPRENTISSAGE DES LANGUES NATIONALES

Cette section concerne votre opinion des langues nationales et de leur apprentissage à l'école. Encerclez un des indices 1-5 (questions 45, 47, et 49) pour exprimer votre opinion que vous allez ensuite justifier (questions 46, 48, 50).

Signification des indices

- 1 = TRES FAVORABLE
- 2 = MODEREMENT FAVORABLE
- 3 = INDIFFERENT
- 4 = LEGEREMENT DEFAVORABLE
- 5 = PAS DU TOUT FAVORABLE

Exemple:

1. Etes-vous favorable à l'enseignement de votre langue maternelle à l'école secondaire?

1 2 3 (4) 5

2. Quelles sont vos raisons (SOYEZ BREF SVP)

Parceque etc
.....
.....

La réponse de l'exemple ci-dessus signifie que vous êtes légèrement défavorable à l'idée qu'on enseigne votre langue maternelle à l'école secondaire. Mais s'il y a des arguments solides en faveur de l'idée, vous pourriez changer d'avis et donc être favorable à l'idée qu'on enseigne votre langue maternelle à l'école secondaire.

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT CHAQUE ITEM AVANT DE REPENDRE.

61. Etes-vous favorable ou défavorable à l'introduction des langues nationales comme branches aux niveaux secondaire et supérieur de l'enseignement?

1 2 3 4 5

58

62. Quelles sont vos raisons (SOYEZ BREF SVP)

.....
.....
.....

59 - 60

63. Quelle serait votre opinion ou réaction si l'anglais devenait une branche facultative au secondaire et que l'on introduisait l'enseignement d'une des langues nationales, au choix, comme deuxième langue facultative (c'est à dire, les élèves choisissent soit l'anglais soit une langue nationale de leur choix, autre que celle qu'ils parlent)

1 2 3 4 5

61

64. Quelles sont vos raisons (SOYEZ BREF SVP)

.....
.....
.....

62 - 3

65. Quelle serait votre réaction à l'idée de rendre le français et l'anglais facultatifs à l'école en faveur des quatre langues nationales?

1 2 3 4 5

64

66. Et quelles sont vos raisons (SOYEZ BREF SVP)

.....
.....
.....

65 - 6

SECTION V : EVALUATION DES LANGUES NATIONALES ET DE QUELQUES LANGUES

ETRANGERES

Dans cette courte section il vous est en fait demandé d'évaluer ou de classier selon leur importance pour les Zairois, les langues nationales et certaines langues internationales. SOYEZ préparés à justifier votre évaluation.

67. Attribuez un indice de valeur (1 à 5) à chacune des langues suivantes d'après leur importance, selon vous, dans la société Zairoise moderne d'aujourd'hui et de demain.

Notez que 1 = TRES IMPORTANT; 2 = ASSEZ IMPORTANT; 3 = IMPORTANCE MOYENNE; 4 = MOINS IMPORTANT; et 5 = IMPORTANCE NULLE. Plusieurs langues de même importance prennent le même indice. Ecrivez l'indice de votre choix dans l'espace prévu SVP.

Allemand (67)	Kikongo (73)
Anglais (68)	Kiswahili (74)
Arabe (69)	Langue maternelle (75)
Ciluba (70)	Lingala (76)
Espagnol (71)	Portuguais (77)
Français (72)	Russe (78)

67
 68
 69
 70
 71
 72
 73
 74
 75
 76
 77
 78

68. Justifiez votre évaluation en quelques quatre lignes tout au plus (EXPRIMEZ clairement vos idées. Pas besoin d'écrire des phrases entières)

.....
.....

79 - 80

.....
.....

SECTION VI : L'IMAGE DU PROFESSEUR "IDEAL"

L'objectif de cette section est d'obtenir de toutes les personnes concernées ou impliquées dans l'éducation de la jeunesse l'idée qu'elles se font d'un bon professeur en général (1^e partie) et d'un bon professeur d'anglais ou de langues étrangères en particulier (2^e partie). Le "professeur idéal" est certes une illusion mais il est toujours bon et utile de savoir comment on se l'imagine.

1 - 3

4

La section consiste de deux parties. (a) Une courte description de votre conception d'un bon professeur ou professeur idéal en général, et (b) une sélection de qualités propres au bon professeur de langue étrangère, ou professeur idéal de langues étrangères et l'occurrence l'anglais.

(a) Description libre du professeur idéal.

69. Décrivez très brièvement (pas plus de cinq lignes) l'image que vous vous faites d'un bon enseignant ou bon professeur en termes physique, social, psychologique, pédagogique, et linguistique. ECRIVEZ LISIBLEMENT SVP.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

5 - 6

(b) Sélection de qualités propres au professeur idéal de langues étrangères.

Ci-dessous vous avez un certain nombre de particularités d'un professeur de langue étrangère, notamment l'anglais. Prière d'indiquer leur importance, selon vous, pour définir le professeur d'anglais que vous pensez être "idéal", tel que vous l'imaginez. Pour répondre encerclez un des indices 1-5 dont 1 = TRES IMPORTANT; 2 = ASSEZ IMPORTANT; 3 = IMPORTANCE MOYENNE; 4 = MOINS IMPORTANT; et 5 = PAS DU TOUT IMPORTANT ou IMPORTANCE NULLE.

LISEZ ATTENTIVEMENT CHAQUE POINT AVANT DE REpondre.

i. LE PROFESSEUR IDEAL D'ANGLAIS

70. Connait et comprend le langage propre au domaine de specialisation de ses eleves/etudiants (par exemple le langage propre aux sciences et a la technologie)

1 2 3 4 5

8

71. fait faire beaucoup de grammaire

1 2 3 4 5

9

72. connait bien ses eleves/etudiants, les aide a (mieux) se connaitre eux-memes et a connaitre leurs condisciples.

1 2 3 4 5

10

73. est liberal. Il laisse les eleves choisir leurs sujets de devoir ou de travail, repond volontiers aux questions et admet la contradiction (ou d'etre contredit par ses eleves/etudiants).

1 2 3 4 5

11

74. apprend aux eleves/etudiants a travailler (ie. a chercher et decouvrir une methode de travail personnelle efficace), a penser et a reflechir

1 2 3 4 5

12

75. fait apprendre beaucoup de vocabulaire pratique courant

1 2 3 4 5

13

76. explique bien, clairement

1 2 3 4 5

14

77. se libere a l'occasion du manuel pour organiser son cours avec la collaboration de ses eleves et en accord avec les orientations et les interets de ses eleves/etudiants

1 2 3 4 5

15

78. enleve aux eleves/etudiants la peur de parler l'anglais (en classe ou a l'exterieur)

1 2 3 4 5

16

79. insiste plus sur la langue parlée que sur la langue écrite

1 2 3 4 5

17

80. fait apprendre des chants en anglais

1 2 3 4 5

18

81. n'attache pas beaucoup d'importance a la prononciation, au rythme et a l'intonation

1 2 3 4 5

19

82. enseigne beaucoup de choses sur la geographie, l'histoire, les moeurs; bref, la culture des natifs de la langue anglaise.

1 2 3 4 5

20

83. ne parle que l'anglais avec ses eleves/etudiants (en classe comme a l'exterieur) et n'explique jamais en francais ou autre langue, quel que soit le probleme.

1 2 3 4 5

21

84. parle le moins possible pour laisser les eleves/etudiants parler le plus possible

1 2 3 4 5

22

85. fait faire des jeux en classe

1 2 3 4 5

23

ii. La liste ci-dessus n'est certainement pas exhaustive. Priere d'ajouter ci-dessous les qualites ou caracteristiques que vous pensez etre tres/assez importantes mais qui ne figurent pas sur la liste.

86.

- 87.
- 88.
- 89.
- 90.

24
 25
 26
 27

iii. Sélectionnez parmi les qualités de la liste ci-dessus et celles que vous venez d'ajouter, les cinq qualités qui, selon vous, sont les plus importantes et les cinq qualités que vous trouvez les moins importantes (suivant l'ordre d'importance). Pour répondre, écrivez les numéros des qualités que vous avez sélectionnées dans les carrés numérotés ci-dessous.

91. Les cinq qualités les plus importantes

	1	2	3	4	5	
+						-

(28 - 9) (30 - 1) (32 - 3) (34 - 5) (36 - 7)

92. Les cinq qualités les moins importantes

	1	2	3	4	5	
-						+

(38 - 9) (40 - 1) (42 - 3) (44 - 5) (46 - 7)

28 - 9 30 - 1

32 - 3 34 - 5

 36 - 7

38 - 9 40 - 1

42 - 3 44 - 5

 46 - 7

FIN DU QUESTIONNAIRE
MERCİ BEAUCOUP POUR VOTRE COLLABORATION

A P P E N D I X I (1 1 1)

TEXTBOOK EVALUATION
(THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE)

QUESTIONNAIRE

INTRODUCTION:

This questionnaire is part of a research project on teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language in Francophone Africa, especially in Zaire. The aim of the questionnaire is to collect teachers' evaluation of their main English textbook, that is the one they use most frequently to teach English. Please answer as honestly and accurately as you can to help the accuracy of the results of the project, as the accuracy of the results is essential for the validity of the conclusions that will follow.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

LUBASA N'TINS

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION.
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES.

OCTOBER 1983

SECTION I : PERSONAL DETAILS (* = DELETE AS APPROPRIATE)

NAME POST NAME(S)

AGE

SEX : MALE/FEMALE *

MOTHER TONGUE(S) (a)

(b)

NATIONAL LANGUAGES (SPOKEN) (a)

(b)

(c)

(d)

RELIGION

INITIAL TRAINING AND QUALIFICATIONS 16 - 31

SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY/COLLEGE	SUBJECT(S) STUDIED	DATE	TITLE / DEGREE ETC.

PROFESSIONAL (IN-SERVICE) TRAINING 32 - 43

SUBJECT	PLACE	DATE

ACTUAL JOB 44 - 63

SUBJECT TAUGHT	HOURS/WEEK	CLASS	OPTION	SECTION

SCHOOL(S)

RESEAU

FACULTY/DEPARTMENT

COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY

- 2
- 1 - 3 4 5
-
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9 - 10
- 11
- 12
- 13
- 14
- 15

- 16 17 18 19
-
- 20 21 22 23
-
- 24 25 26 27
-
- 28 29 30 31
-

- 32 33 34
- 35 36 37
- 38 39 40
- 41 42 43

- 44 45 46 47 48
-
- 49 50 51 52 53
-
- 54 55 56 57 58
-
- 59 60 61 62 63
-

- 64 - 5
- 66
- 67
- 68

LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE (APTITUDE)

Please enter 1 for EXCELLENT, 2 for GOOD, 3 for FAIR, and 4 for POOR in the table below to indicate your mastery of the languages it contains;

SKILLS LANGUAGES	CONVERSATION		MESSAGE	
	UNDERSTANDING	SPEAKING	READING	WRITING
MOTHER TONGUE(S)				
CILUBA				
KIKONGO				
KISWAHILI				
LINGALA				
ENGLISH				
FRENCH				
OTHER (ZAIREAN/ FOREIGN) (Please specify)				

69	70	71	72
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
73	74	75	76
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
77	78	79	80
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-3			4
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	6	7	8
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	10	11	12
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	14	15	16
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	18	19	20
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	22	23	24
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION II : TEXTBOOK EVALUATION

Please write the title, the year of publication and the publisher of the textbook

you use most to teach English: TITLE

YEAR

PUBLISHER

<input type="checkbox"/>	25
<input type="checkbox"/>	26
<input type="checkbox"/>	27

Indicate which of the following principles and/or criteria are applicable to your textbook (ie the textbook you have mentioned above) using the scale 1 - 5 as follows:

- 1 = VERY APPLICABLE
- 2 = FAIRLY APPLICABLE
- 3 = NEITHER APPLICABLE NOR INAPPLICABLE
- 4 = FAIRLY INAPPLICABLE
- 5 = VERY INAPPLICABLE

CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE INDEX TO ANSWER

CRITERIA: CONTENT

i. TOPICS

1. The topics are varied and logically arranged

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

<input type="checkbox"/>	28
--------------------------	----

2. The topics are relevant to the learning socio-cultural environment

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

<input type="checkbox"/>	29
--------------------------	----

3. The topics are relevant to the needs of the learner

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

<input type="checkbox"/>	30
--------------------------	----

- 4. The topics cater for the learner's expectations.
1 2 3 4 5 31
- 5. Guidance about the different possible ways of exploiting the topics is provided.
1 2 3 4 5 32
- 6. The topics consist of fiction.
1 2 3 4 5 33
- 7. The topics consist of facts and daily life.
1 2 3 4 5 34
- 8. The topics consist of institutions and the target culture.
1 2 3 4 5 35

ii. GRAMMAR

- 9. The textbook stresses communicative competence in teaching structural items.
1 2 3 4 5 36
- 10. The textbook distinguishes between use and usage in the teaching of grammar.
1 2 3 4 5 37
- 11. The textbook provides adequate models featuring the structures to be taught.
1 2 3 4 5 38
- 12. The textbook shows clearly the kind of responses required in drills (eg substitutions)
1 2 3 4 5 39
- 13. The textbook explains grammar in terms of use in discourse and text.
1 2 3 4 5 40
- 14. The textbook selects structures with regard to differences between L 1 and L 2.
1 2 3 4 5 41
- 15. The textbook provides stimulating grammatical structures relevant to the learning situation culture and to the learner's needs.
1 2 3 4 5 42
- 16. The textbook teaches and uses a lot of grammatical terminology.
1 2 3 4 5 43

iii. VOCABULARY

- 17. The textbook provides a lot of stimulating and practical vocabulary selected on the basis of frequency and functional load.
1 2 3 4 5 44
- 18. The textbook distinguishes between use and usage in the teaching of vocabulary.
1 2 3 4 5 45
- 19. The textbook presents vocabulary in appropriate contexts and situations.
1 2 3 4 5 46
- 20. The textbook focuses on problems of usage related to social background and learners' or speakers' attitude.
1 2 3 4 5 47

iv. S P E E C H

21. The textbook is based on a contrastive analysis of English and French or local sound systems.

1 2 3 4 5

48

22. The textbook suggests ways of demonstrating and practising speech items.

1 2 3 4 5

49

23. The textbook includes speech situations relevant to the learner's background.

1 2 3 4 5

50

24. The textbook takes account of variation in the accents of non-native speakers of English.

1 2 3 4 5

51

v. R E A D I N G

25. The textbook offers exercises for understanding of plain sense.

1 2 3 4 5

52

26. The textbook offers exercises for understanding of implied meaning.

1 2 3 4 5

53

27. The textbook offers learning and practice exercises focusing on communicative competence.

1 2 3 4 5

54

28. The textbook relates reading passages to the learner's background.

1 2 3 4 5

55

29. The textbook selects passages within the structure range of the learner.

1 2 3 4 5

56

30. The textbook selects passages reflecting a variety of styles of contemporary English.

1 2 3 4 5

57

vi. W R I T I N G

31. The textbook relates written work to structures and vocabulary practised orally as reinforcement.

1 2 3 4 5

58

32. The textbook gives practice in controlled and guided composition in the early stages.

1 2 3 4 5

59

33. The textbook relates written work to the pupils' age, interests, and environment.

1 2 3 4 5

60

34. The textbook demonstrates techniques for handling aspects of composition teaching.

1 2 3 4 5

61

35. The textbook secures transition from sentence writing to the writing of continuous prose (ie connected writing).

1 2 3 4 5

62

36. The textbook introduces and contains a variety of devices for linking ideas and sentences

1 2 3 4 5

63

37. The textbook offers strategies for the presentation of associated ideas.

1 2 3 4 5

64

38. The textbook makes use of translation as a device for teaching writing.

1 2 3 4 5

65

PART II METHODOLOGY

vii. The learning processes suggested in the textbook:

39. are repetitive (ie based on repetition and recycling)

1 2 3 4 5

66

40. are organisational and constructive (ie deductive, inductive, or both)

1 2 3 4 5

67

41. are clearly expressed

1 2 3 4 5

68

42. show gradation of content from the easier to the most difficult

1 2 3 4 5

69

43. are adapted to the learner in his/her environment

1 2 3 4 5

70

viii. Learning tasks or activities

44. The textbook offers a lot of talking and discussion practice.

1 2 3 4 5

71

45. The textbook offers exercises for group work such as role play, simulation and acting.

1 2 3 4 5

72

46. The textbook provides topics for controlled, guided and free composition.

1 2 3 4 5

73

47. The textbook provides exercises involving non-verbal activities such as drawing diagrams, pictures (or colouring them) and graphs or responding in a non-verbal way to a linguistic stimulus/stimuli.

1 2 3 4 5

74

48. The textbook provides learning games.

1 2 3 4 5

75

49. The textbook provides learning songs and poems.

1 2 3 4 5

76

ix. ACTIVITY MANAGEMENT

50. The textbook provides the teacher as well as the learner with guidance concerning the implementation of the activities.

1 2 3 4 5

77

51. The textbook makes use of translation to explain what should be done.
 1 2 3 4 5

78

x. FLEXIBILITY

52. The methods suggested in the textbook and the tasks involved are varied.
 1 2 3 4 5

79
 1 - 3 4

53. It is easy to make tasks shorter or longer.
 1 2 3 4 5

5

PART THREE : THE STRUCTURE OF THE TEXTBOOK

54. The textbook allows improvisation and adaptation.
 1 2 3 4 5

6

55. The textbook helps the learners to deal with the material according to their respective cognitive styles (ie activates learners' cognitive styles).
 1 2 3 4 5

7

56. The textbook takes into account learners' learning habits.
 1 2 3 4 5

8

57. The textbook is motivating.
 1 2 3 4 5

9

58. The textbook contains revisions.
 1 2 3 4 5

10

59. The textbook contains a list of vocabulary.
 1 2 3 4 5

11

60. The textbook contains a list of structures.
 1 2 3 4 5

12

61. The textbook contains a list of functions of language use.
 1 2 3 4 5

13

PART FOUR : YOUR PERSONAL VIEWS OF THE TEXTBOOK.

62. Please enter below any positive or negative comment on this textbook (your textbook).

14 - 5

A P P E N D I X I I

INTERVIEWEES' PERSONAL DETAILS

SAMPLE FORM

LEARNER'S PERSONAL DETAILS

NAME _____ POSTNAME/S _____

DAY/BOARDING LEARNER *.- AGE _____ SEX: *MALE/FEMALE _____

MOTHER TONGUE _____

RELIGION _____

SCHOOL/COLLEGE _____

RESEAU _____ GONG _____ TURN _____

SECTION _____ OPTION _____ CLASS _____

PERMANENT RESIDENCE _____

NUMBER OF YEARS SPENT ON LEARNING (a) FRENCH _____ (b) ENGLISH _____

LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

EXCELLENT GOOD FAIR POOR

MOTHER TONGUE _____

NATIONAL/REGIONAL LANGUAGES _____

FRENCH _____

ENGLISH _____

OTHER _____

TYPE OF FAMILY: *MONOGAMOUS/POLYGAMOUS

NUMBER OF CHILDREN _____

PARENTS' SCHOOLING LEVEL

FATHER'S _____ HIS RELIGION _____

MOTHER'S _____ HER RELIGION _____

OBSERVATIONS _____

PARENTS' PERSONAL DETAILS

AGE _____ SEX: MALE/FEMALE _____ MOTHER TONGUE _____

RELIGION _____

SCHOOLING AND/OR TRAINING

PRIMARY: *YES/NO _____ APPRENTICESHIP: *YES/NO _____
SECONDARY: *YES/NO _____ IF YES, WHAT SUBJECT/S _____

HIGHER EDUCATION: *YES/NO. IF YES, WHAT SUBJECT/S & DEGREE/S?

SUBJECT/S: _____

DEGREE/S: _____

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

SUBJECT/S	PLACE	DATE
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SOCIAL STATUS:

MARITAL STATUS: *SINGLE
MARRIED: (a) MONOGAMIST _____
(b) POLYGAMIST: NO. OF WIVES _____
SEPARATED - DIVORCED - WIDOWED.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN: UNDER 6 YEARS OLD _____
BETWEEN 6 & 18 _____ STUDYING _____
ABOVE 18 YEARS _____ STUDYING _____ WORKING _____

RELIGION & SCHOOLING LEVEL OF RESPONDENT'S PARENTS

RELIGION _____ SCHOOLING _____

OBSERVATIONS

TEACHER AND ADMINISTRATOR RESPONDENTS PERSONAL DETAILS

NAME _____ POSTNAME/S _____

AGE _____ SEX: MALE/FEMALE _____ MOTHER TONGUE (MT): _____

RELIGION: _____

TRAINING AND QUALIFICATIONS:

SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY/ COLLEGE	SUBJECT/S STUDIED	NO. OF YEARS STUDIED	TITLE/DEGREE, ETC.
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PROFESSIONAL TRAINING:

SUBJECT:	PLACE:	DATE:
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ACTUAL JOB: _____

TEACHERS ONLY

ORGANISATION OR SCHOOL/S:

SUBJECT/S _____
HOURS/WEEK _____

CLASS/ES _____

OPTION/S _____

SECTION/S _____

SCHOOL/S _____

RESEAU _____

DEPARTMENT/S _____

COLLEGE/S _____

UNIVERSITY/IES _____

LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE:

EXCELLENT GOOD FAIR POOR

MOTHER TONGUE

NATIONAL LANGUAGES

FRENCH

ENGLISH

OTHER

A P P E N D I X I I I

KIESSE'S REPORT

NOM: Kiese Siluanginda
CLASSE: V^{ème} Littéraire
ECOLE: Institut Nsona-Nkulu

Témoignage

Je suis un jeune Zairois né en 1966. Jamais je n'avais pensé qu'un jour je parlerai Anglais.

Je débutais le cours d'anglais en 2^{ème} secondaire. Trouvant que c'était une drôle de langue, je la détestais; mais tout changea en troisième année. Avec le nouveau professeur d'anglais, je commençais à m'intéresser à cela. J'ai demandé à un ami de m'apprendre l'anglais, il accepta, mais, il était occupé pendant les moments là. Alors, je m'étais décidé de l'étudier seul. J'ai débuté avec un livre élémentaire: "Anglais I^{ère} année" avec l'éditeur Didier Marcel, j'ai continué avec l'anglais II^e du même éditeur. A la fin de le dernier, je me débrouillais déjà bien à parler anglais.

Je commençais à lire des romans anglais pour enrichir mon vocabulaire. Je me suis senti capable d'affronter un Anglais quand j'ai terminé le livre intitulé: "L'Anglais sans peine" ASSIMIL. Enfin j'ai pu attraper quelques cassettes pour les cours d'anglais; c'était juste pour améliorer ma prononciation. Pendant mon apprentissage je mettais tout ce que j'apprenais en pratique.

C'est ainsi que j'ai connu l'anglais.

"Je l'ai étudié juste pour satisfaire mon désir."

Le vôtre Kiese.

A P P E N D I X I V

MOTIVATION AND PERSEVERANCE IN ELF/ESOL LEARNING MATERIALS

(FROM THE OEU NEWSLETTER)

The University of Leeds School of Education



OEU

Newsletter No 15 JANUARY 1984

ARTICLE

Motivation and Perseverance in EFL/ESOL Learning Materials

by Lubasa N'ti Nseendi (DTEO 1977-78)

[The following is an extract from the draft of a project Mr Lubasa is engaged in at the Institute of Education in the University of London. He would welcome comments from any interested readers. Ed.]

It is often said that motivation is crucial for learning to take place, but paradoxically very few people talk about it, and certainly not many of them speak about it in connection with the content of teaching and/or learning materials. As far as I understand what is going on in the field of language teaching, what teachers and researchers do is to use or suggest methods and approaches which would serve as motivational factors.

This is, in my opinion, analogous to developing the learner's grammatical or linguistic competence and expecting communicative competence to follow or result from the development of linguistic competence.

The primary aim of the project is to consider ways in which motivation can be incorporated into a language syllabus and into learning materials in terms of socio-cultural, psychological, and linguistic content as well as a by-product of methodology and textbook structure through an ESP approach. That is, to specify a type of content easily processable by most, if not all, learners of a particular socio-cultural, psychological, and sociolinguistic background because it is based as far as possible and necessary on motivational factors. This is envisaged in relation to a specific area in Zaire — as my specific learning environment — and to specific purposes I hope to define from the results of some of the data I am collecting very soon.

Although motivation is said to be the most important factor affecting terminal behaviour or learning, I believe that it is not just motivation which does the whole job (as most informed people would agree). I am inclined to think that the crucial factor (or whatever it might be called) is *perseverance* to learn as opposed to *persistence* which, according to Gardner, and others, is subsequent to *motivation intensity*. The reason I think so (and this is my hypothesis) is that *no matter the intensity of motivation, learners learn if they can persevere*; and the more they learn, the more they persevere, and the more motivated they are likely to be. In other words, the more they learn, the more they are involved in the process of learning and persevere, and the more perseverant they are, the higher their motivation is likely to get.

My conception of *perseverance* can be described as *the learner's ability to deal with a crisis point*. In this sense perseverance is not only a permanent, continuous process but also, and *mainly*, a reaction to obstacles and critical points or situations.

I agree that the higher the intensity of motivation the more likely learners persevere (hence the correlation between *motivation intensity* and *persistence*), but this does not imply, nor does it follow from it, that learners with lower motivation cannot persevere. It is even possible that learners with lower motivation intensity persevere more than those with high motivation. Indeed, the higher the motivation the more likely one is to drop out if one cannot go past an obstacle; that is, if one cannot face and solve a crisis. This is to be tested, however.

I also agree that the lower the level of motivation the more readily one encounters an obstacle. However, if he can go past the obstacle then he will certainly learn, and a high motivational level is liable to follow.

Communicative approaches to language teaching/learning (among which are ESP and study skills) are, in my opinion, an indirect attempt to help the learner (no matter the level of motivation) to persevere in learning English or other languages. To deal with perseverance in a direct manner one has to design courses and produce textbooks containing activities which no one could fail to solve, provided they are adapted to the learner's ability to solve problems within the norms accepted in his/her society and in accordance with the linguistic, or rather the sociolinguistic, requirements of the language at hand, that is English, in our case.

Motivation and Perseverance in EFL/ESOL Learning Materials: Notes
from the Discussion Session at the Institut National Pédagogique (IPN),
Kinshasa-Mbinza.

1. Matuka started English when he discovered an English text in which many words looked like French words. By curiosity he wanted to know how the French-like words were pronounced. When he entered the third year of secondary education (this is when English officially started, now it is supposed to start from the first year of secondary school) he found the course rewarding. The teacher was so active that his motivation was always high; but towards the end of his secondary education he found the teachers did not meet his expectations. His motivation died. Nevertheless, he forced his way through the learning of English. At the moment Matuka is a lecturer in the Department of English at IPN, Kinshasa.
2. Following Matuka's report came up the question whether Perseverance could precede Motivation. It was agreed that it cannot!
3. In motivational matters, Kisala (another lecturer in the Department of English at IPN, Kinshasa) pointed out that the appearance or the outlook of the teacher is important. The point was supported by the audience.