



National Library
of Canada

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Canadian Theses Service

Service des thèses canadiennes

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

NOTICE

The quality of this microform is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Reproduction in full or in part of this microform is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30, and subsequent amendments.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microforme dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

La reproduction, même partielle, de cette microforme est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30, et ses amendements subséquents.

English Language Teaching Methodology and the Constraints of the
Teaching Environment in Developing Countries

Heather Westrup

A Thesis
in
The Department
of
Applied Linguistics

Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts at
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

March 1992

© Heather Westrup

ABSTRACT

English Language Teaching Methodology and the Constraints of the Teaching Environment in Developing Countries

Heather Westrup

Proponents of Communicative Language Teaching advocate an emphasis on meaning through use, realised by particular classroom interaction patterns such as pair and group work and a focus on real language, prompted by authentic materials and activities. The methods they propose entail a considerable change in the responsibilities of teachers and in their relationship with learners, in order to achieve the objective of communicative competence.

In the West, this is the second decade of the Communicative Approach to English language teaching, but for many developing countries it is the first. Language classrooms in the Third World may differ in detail, but the literature, reports from consultants and observers and discussions with teachers indicate some common features. Class numbers are high, resulting in considerable overcrowding, aids and textbooks are scarce and many teachers are unqualified and linguistically insecure. The complete change in their role, fundamental to the new approach, threatens their long-standing authority and status in both the classroom and the community.

This thesis sets out to question whether Communicative Teaching methods are workable in most Third World language learning environments in view of the classroom and cultural constraints.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all I would like to thank my thesis supervisor, Brian Smith, for his immense patience and support, particularly in the few weeks prior to the completion of this thesis. My thanks go also, to Alex Sharma, for teaching me the intricacies of writing a thesis and for his encouragement over many years. I am grateful too, to Ron Mackay, whose kind letters prevented me from giving up, and to Gwen Newsham who sowed the seed of this thesis in my mind and who constantly inspired me to achieve heights I never believed possible.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my many friends who teach English and who train other teachers in developing countries in Africa, Eastern Europe, South America and South East Asia. Whether we met in their country or mine, it was a joy to talk and to work with them. I admire their dedication and enthusiasm in face of all the constraints and I treasure their friendship.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures	x
1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	
1.1 Research and Terminology.....	1
1.1.1 Reason for Case Study Approach	
1.1.2. Terminology	
1.1.3 Definitions of a Communicative Approach	
1.1.4. Definitions of Communicative Methods	
1.2 Background to adoption of Communicative Approach in developing countries.....	11
1.2.1 Political and economic considerations	
1.2.2 Influence of the West and the inheritance of colonialism	
1.2.3 Students studying in the The West	
1.2.4 Adoption of Communicative Methods by developing countries	
1.3 Innovative projects in developing countries.....	15
1.3.1 General problems	
1.3.2 Problems of innovative English language programmes.	
1.4 Communicative Language Teaching and classroom constraints in developing countries	17
1.4.1. Constraints concerning teachers	
1.4.2. Physical and practical constraints	
1.4.3. Constraints concerning students	
1.4.4. Attitudinal and cultural constraints	
1.5 Constraints in the English teaching environment of the R.P. Congo.....	25

2.	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	
2.1	Education and development.....	29
2.1.1.	The legacy of colonialism in developing countries	
2.1.2	Principles of implementation of educational innovation in developing countries	
2.3.3	The realities of educational innovation in developing countries	
2.1.4	Constraints of the teaching environment	
2.1.5	English Language Teaching Projects in developing countries	
2.2	Communicative Language Teaching.....	46
2.3	Views of Communicative Language Teaching.....	50
3.	CASE STUDY	
3.1	Background to the R.P. Congo.....	56
3.1.1	Geography and topology	
3.1.2	History	
3.2	Education and English in the R.P. Congo.....	59
3.2.1	The Congolese Education system	
3.2.2	English in the R.P. Congo	
3.2.3	Languages in the R.P. Congo	
3.2.4	English in the Congolese Education system	
3.2.5	English in secondary education	
3.2.6	Teacher population	
3.2.7	Teacher Training	

3.3	The New Textbook Project.....	63
3.3.1	Rationale	
3.3.2	Objectives	
3.3.3	Materials development	
3.3.4	The new programme	
3.3.5	Teacher's Guides	
3.4	The 1988 National Seminar.....	72
3.4.1	Aim	
3.4.2	Participants	
3.4.3	Rational for the programme	
3.4.4	The programme	
4.	EVALUATION	
4.1	General evaluation of the project.....	76
4.2	Evaluation of the Teacher's Guides.....	78
4.3	Evaluation of the 1988 National Seminar.....	79
4.3.1	Evaluation of the Programme	
4.3.2	General remarks	
4.3.3	Evaluation of micro-teaching	
4.4	Summary.....	82
5.	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	
5.1	How Communicative is the Congo model?.....	84
5.1.1	Brumfit's list as criteria	
5.1.2	Summary	

5.2	Strengths and weakness of the Congo model.....	88
5.2.1	Of the techniques	
5.2.2	Of the Project	
5.3	General assessment of the Project.....	92
5.4	Comparison with innovative projects in other developing countries.....	93
5.5	Recommendations.....	99
5.5.1	General	
5.5.2	Teacher development	
5.5.3	Materials and resources	
5.5.4	The implementation of innovative English language projects	
5.5.5	Research	
5.6	Conclusion.....	105
REFERENCES.....		108
APPENDIXES.....		116

LIST OF FIGURES

1.	Comparison of Terms.....	5
2.	Communicative syllabuses.....	7

CHAPTER ONE

Statement of the Problem

1.1. Research Method and Terminology.

The purpose of this study is to examine whether the constraints of the English language teaching environment in many developing countries render the adoption of a communicative methodology unworkable. This will be done through an extensive look at the literature, by reports on information gained by personal correspondence and discussions with teachers and educators in developing countries and more especially, by a detailed case study of a project in which an attempt was made to upgrade the communicative competence of pupils learning English in the first and second years of secondary school, F.6 and F.7 of Collège d'Education Générale Publique (CEGP) in the République Populaire du Congo by the introduction of a new teaching methodology.

1.1.1. Reason for case study approach

Although the case study was conducted retrospectively, there were strong reasons for adopting this approach to research, the most obvious being the lack of qualitative evaluation of the project. Moreover, since this study concerns the ecological appropriateness of a given methodology, it seemed essential to ensure the ecological validity of the research. In other words its object is to produce a deeper understanding of the problem rather than a statistical base for generalisation. Apart from some recent work by Berns (1990) into social and cultural considerations in communicative language

teaching in India, Japan and Germany, very little research on the topic that this thesis examines has been done to date, so there is a need for a broad view rather than a restricted one. In spite of certain drawbacks, qualitative research is probably more suited to a topic concerning developing countries, since it exploits those skills already present and does not require the sophisticated skills of interpreting statistics (Vulliamy, Lewin & Stephens 1990). Finally, it is my belief that the transferability of quantitative research has geographical limitations, whereas a case study, because it can take account of more variables and can present the complex realities of the classroom, is more likely to have some degree of transferability to a wider range of contexts.

1.1.2. Terminology

1.1.2.1. The terms "Third World", "developing country", "developing nations" and "the developing world" seem, at present, not to be value-laden and are used in the literature synonymously as will be the case in this study. The West is taken to mean the developed countries of Europe and North America.

1.1.2.2. It is difficult to arrive at an acceptable umbrella term to describe common conditions in the classrooms of the developing world. Most terms, such as "resource-poor", "resource limited", "under-privileged", "inauspicious" reflect a Western view of a Third World environment, comparing it unfavourably with that of the developed world. As far back as 1960, Michael West wrote about "Teaching in Difficult Circumstances" only because he was aware of easier ones! The team at Ain Shams University, Cairo, being conscious of this problem, took a reverse position and adopted the term "privileged" to describe

Western classrooms, but we still find them using "inauspicious" and "constrained" to describe an environment which had been the norm to millions of teachers throughout the world until the last decade (Bowers 1987).

By adopting the term "constrained" as the least condemnatory, we shall include the whole gamut of conditions found in the Third World language learning environment, both material and non-material, which could be seen to restrict the adoption of methods used in privileged environments.

1.1.2.3. In this thesis we shall use Allen's term "curriculum", cited by Mawaka (1989:27), to mean "a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational program". According to Allen, "syllabus" refers to "that sub-part of curriculum which is concerned with the specification of what units will be taught".

A problem of any discussion of foreign language learning over the last two decades is the lack of commonality of code. A study of the literature has revealed that even such authorities as Canale and Swain, cited by Yalden (1983), and Finocchiaro and Brumfit, also cited by Yalden (1983), can be accused of using terms inconsistently even within their own research.

1.1.2.4. Judd (in Kennedy 1989) has recognised the need to categorize the English language teaching environments of the world. The four basic types he describes are useful to us: English as a Second Language (ESL - the immigrant situation), English as an Alternative Language (EAL - to facilitate communication in a multi-lingual context), English as a Language of World Communication (ELWC - the technological, political and business contexts

which will include English for Specific Purposes) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL - the context where English is rarely needed, and may be used only temporarily if at all.).

1.1.2.5. Figure 1. attempts to clarify some terms and relationships within the field of language learning as described by Anthony (1963, in Richards and Rogers 1986) and revised by Richards in 1986 (Richards and Rogers 1986). It can be seen that Richards' and Rogers' terms "design" and "procedure" are an extension of Anthony's "method" and "technique" with some added dimensions including the "role of the learner" and the "role of the teacher". Both commentators see the elements of the organisation as interdependent and hierarchical, Anthony stating that "The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach...." (p. 15), while Richards understands a method (his umbrella term for the whole hierarchy) as "theoretically related to an approach, organizationally determined by a design and practically realized in procedure" (p. 16). In this thesis, Anthony's terminology will be used except where otherwise stated. It will be noted that the word "methodology" does not appear, in spite of the frequent occurrence of the term "communicative methodology" in the literature. Most references to this phrase, and in particular, Brumfit's (1980), appear to be synonymous with Anthony's "Method," since they seem to imply all the elements of Column B at this level and to encompass all the techniques listed by him and Richards at Level 3. It will be used in this way in the present thesis.

Figure 1

COMPARISON OF TERMS

		ANTHONY (1963)		RICHARDS & ROGERS (1986)	
		A	B	C	
Level 1	Approach	Theories of language Theories of language learning		Approach	
Level 2	Method	Skills Content Order	Objectives Syllabuses Activities Learner's role Teacher's role Role of instructional materials	Design	
Level 3	Techniques	Classroom procedures	Resources Interactional patterns Tactics and strategies	Procedures	

1.1.2.6. Figure 2. represents Yalden's six main syllabus types (1983). This schematic is also intended to help isolate and relate some aspects of language and language learning and to name their chief proponents. It does not help that Yalden describes all six as "Communicative" since Candlin (in Yalden 1983) would deny that any but the last is truly communicative, being the only one that advocates learning solely through the practice of communication tasks. Brumfit (1980) suggests that his structural syllabus with its functional spiral is best taught through a communicative *methodology* and that we must resist the temptation to call a list of language functions a syllabus. Morrow (in Johnson and Morrow 1981) stresses the importance of distinguishing between a notional syllabus and communicative methodology, contending that the adoption of the former does not guarantee that students will learn to communicate except through application of the latter. Howatt (in Richards and Rogers 1986) would describe Yalden's spectrum as moving from a weak to a strong version of communicative language teaching. In this thesis, individual types of syllabus will be specified. In the next section we shall examine attempts to define a communicative approach and communicative methods.

1.1.3. Definitions of the "Communicative Approach"

This thesis is concerned with methods of teaching. Since we accept the interdependence of Anthony's hierarchy, we need to examine the approach on which the method under discussion is based.

Moves from one approach to another are usually brought about by social or economic events, which alter the objective of language learning, or by the development of a new theory of language or of language learning. Twenty

Figure 2.

COMMUNICATIVE SYLLABUSES

Structural-functional	1.	Wilkins
Structures and functions	2.	Brumfit Johnson
Variable focus: (Structural/situational communicative/topic: depending on level)	3.	Johnson Shaw Yalden Allen
Functional	4.	Jupp & Hodlin
Fully Notional	5.	Wilkins/Van Ek Munby Maley
Fully communicative	6.	Alexander Allwright Breen & Candlin

Based on Yalden (1983)

years ago, studies in socio-linguistics led by Hymes (1972) resulted in a new vision of language based on use. This was further developed in North America through the work of Savignon (1972) and Canale and Swain (1980). These developments, together with advances in Europe towards to a functional-notional view, resulting from research by Halliday (1975, 1978), and other British applied linguists, led to the development of communicative competence as an objective of language learning. This objective is achieved through "Communicative Language Teaching" (CLT) (Richards and Rogers 1986).

No adequate theory of language learning was developed at this time to match developments in linguistics. Krashen's (1981) theories on comprehensible input, the influence of the "monitor" and the relationship between acquisition and learning were of some interest, but did not come up with answers that other researchers in the field found wholly acceptable.

Two scholars who have made a special study of the communicative approach and its application in school are Brumfit and Mitchell. Mitchell (1988) describes a communicative approach as an umbrella term which covers a wide set of developments in second language learning concerning input, goals, processes and outcomes. Her list of principles includes:

1. The equation of foreign language proficiency with communicative competence objectives in behavioural terms.
2. An analysis of learner needs and the specification of learning objectives in behavioural terms.
3. A commitment to individualisation of syllabus, learner autonomy and democratization of the teacher-pupil relationship.

4. Co-operative learning and use of non whole-class organizational patterns.
5. The partial organization of a syllabus in notional-functional terms.
6. A commitment to target language as medium of classroom communication.

Brumfit (in Richards and Rogers 1986) does not concern himself with definitions or principles but provides a list of features of the approach which relate more directly to classroom practice. These are recorded here in detail since they provide the criteria by which the R.P. Congo project presented in this thesis, will be evaluated. (See Appendix A)

These can be summarised as:

1. An emphasis on meaning.
2. Language is to be contextualised.
3. Effective communication is a goal.
4. Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
5. Any device which helps the learner is accepted.
6. Fluency is the primary goal.
7. Translation is used according to need.
8. Reading and writing can start from the first day.
9. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
10. Dialogues are centred on communicative function and are NOT memorised.
11. Intrinsic motivation springs from what is being communicated.

1.1.4. Definitions of Communicative Methods

Concise definitions of communicative methods are hard to find. Richards and Rogers (1986:66) state that "Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is best considered an approach rather than a method". Mitchell notes that little attention has been paid to methods compared with syllabuses, materials development and assessment and Brumfit (in Johnson and Morrow 1981) suggests that with a facilitating subject like language, the processes of classroom methodology may usefully be considered part of content. Morrow (in Johnson and Morrow 1981) suggests that the method will be realised as the carrying out of a set of processes or activities.

We can, however, find specific descriptions of the elements of the communicative method that distinguish it clearly from other methods. The learner is expected to take an *active* role in the learning process, contributing as much as (s)he gains and learning in an interdependent way (Breen and Candlin, in Richards and Rogers 1986). According to Littlewood (1981), the teacher must avoid the dangers of obsessive teacher domination, must advise on and provide the language items, must monitor, must discourage use of mother tongue and be prepared to take no direct role except that of co-communicator. Teachers must be ready to "subordinate their own behaviour to the needs of their students, recognising that learning is not only a direct result of their own instruction" (p. 92). The communicative teaching method provides teachers with the scope to "step out of their didactic role in order to be human amongst humans" (p.94). Candlin and Breen (in Richards and Rogers 1986) list the functions of the communicative teacher as facilitator, organiser of resources, resource, guide, researcher, analyst, counsellor, group process manager. A crucial factor in CLT is the overall pedagogic atmosphere

reflecting the personal relations between teacher and pupils and between the pupils themselves.

Practitioners of CLT see materials as playing a primary role in the method since they are a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. They may be *text based* (preferably authentic texts) or *task based*, (preferably authentic tasks with non linguistic aims). *Realia* should be used to stimulate interaction. Candlin's (1981) guide to materials development is a typology of communicative exercises which is an attempt to give a methodological perspective to the ideas canvassed and distributed in the Council of Europe's "Threshold" and "Waystage" levels. A multi-media package of materials is recommended, using tapes, film, authentic texts in a theme-oriented approach or in project work. Exercises for developing communicative competence include matching, discourse networks, text restoration, re-tell, defective texts, substitution tables, cues, and listing causes and effects.

Classroom activities vary widely but those principally associated with CLT are pair and group work, an emphasis on oral work, problem solving, the use of games, simulations and role plays.

1.2. Background to the adoption of a Communicative Approach in developing countries

1.2.1 Political and economic considerations.

There is no doubt that English has become the international language of diplomacy, commerce, politics and world-wide information exchange. The

independence of many developing countries has meant an even greater need for English language users who can function confidently and well in the world arena where agreements are formulated and negotiated. Within many countries too, the ability to use English is seen as improving the chance of moving into an already overcrowded job market or as a foothold on the academic ladder that might lead eventually to study or acceptance in the West. Past methods of learning were not seen to be producing a sufficient number of sufficiently competent English users quickly enough. Kennedy (1989:25) reminds us that the socio-economic environment of a country has a direct impact on the "shape of ESOL instruction".

In discussing changes in the education systems of developing countries, Hurst (1981b), commenting on a World Bank Study, reports that there is a general lack of understanding of the nature of educational change and its relations with the socio-economic environment. In the last few decades there has been a vast population explosion; urbanization has led to expanded horizons and aspirations and a pressing demand from the populace for greater and more effective education. Such are the demands for resources, training, leadership and assistance in the implementation of change, that governments have been put in the embarrassing position of being unwilling to refuse aid. This is seen by some to be a new form of imperialism labelled neo-colonialism.

1.2.2. The influence of the West and the inheritance of colonialism in education in developing countries.

According to Watson (1982:183), neo-colonialism is a planned policy of advanced nations to maintain influence through aid programmes, publishing,

media, recognition of exams and diplomas and research links with universities in the Third World and the North. Many of these aspects will come under review in this thesis. Dumont (1988), contends that leaders of newly independent countries still think in a colonial framework and look to former colonisers to prop up failing educational projects and support their comfortable lifestyle. Foreignness seems to imply "better" and indigenous ideas are not recognised until they are stated by ex-patriats involved in a project or by external consultants. The legacy of colonisation has maintained "bookish" academic traditions in education and this is continued by books provided in the language of the ex-colonists. Thus, not only are those who cannot read excluded from the benefits of education, but also non-English or non-French speakers. Elitism and urban/rural differences are augmented.

Ninety per cent of all educational research is done in Western countries and is seen through Western eyes focused on the individual rather than Third World needs. Indigenous universities, left to atrophy during colonial times, are being re-modelled on Western lines in design, ethos and administration.

1.2.3. Students Studying in The West

The probability exists that those students who go to study in the West and return to play influential roles in their countries may also become instruments of neo-colonialism and, since seventy per cent of overseas students are effectively self-financed, they comprise a Third World elite. Welch (1988:390) reports that in the U.K. institutes of higher education in 1988, one student in seven came from abroad. The syllabuses, texts and exams all reflect the social and cultural norms of the host country and more importantly the conceptual and theoretical paradigms of the subject studied. On a similar topic, Williams

(1987) believes that such study abroad not only deprives institutes of higher education in the developing world of their best talent, but the skills and knowledge gained are not always appropriate to the needs of the developing country. The writer has confirmed this in conversations with many Third World students studying in Canada and the U.K. during 1990-1991 (Personal communications).

1.2.4. The Adoption of Communicative Language Teaching Methods by Developing Countries

Brumfit (1980) attributed the introduction of communicative language teaching in the West to an attack on the premises of earlier learning theories. He sees the dissemination of the communicative approach as emanating from the influential publishing houses as a reaction to a problem of *class organisation concerning teacher-pupil relations*, rather than as a reaction to a language learning problem. Whether or not we accept this view, we are immediately alerted to the difference in beliefs and needs about language learning between developed and developing countries. In a Third World environment, earlier theories have not yet been rejected and a problem of teacher-pupil relations is more likely to be generated than solved by the adoption of the communicative approach because of differing cultural norms concerning teacher-student relationships.

In the West, the communicative era is in its second decade (Rossner & Bolitho, 1990). In many developing countries, it is in its first. Brumfit (1980) and Swan (1985) have pointed out the appeal of the approach in and to the West. Considering the pressing need for educational solutions, the number of

channels open for the dissemination of knowledge from the West, and the existence of post-colonial attitudes in previous colonies, it is not surprising that the communicative approach is being adopted with undue haste in the language classroom of developing countries without too much investigation into its appropriateness.

1.3.1. General Problems of Innovative Projects in Developing Countries

Dove (1986), speaking generally about educational innovation in developing countries, suggests that it will only be successful if society is ready for it and can see its relevance. Innovation must be within the context of social reform (Obanya 1989). The independence of many former colonies and the promise of universal education have certainly emphasised society's need for educational reform but how the process should be implemented and what makes for successful implementation in a Third World environment is immensely complex. This complexity is alluded to by Straker-Cook (in Bowers 1987) when he lists three models of implementation which vary according to the division of responsibility and the degree of involvement of the participants. He suggests that whichever approach is taken, there is likely to be a need for modification to Third World conditions. The need for modification according to social contexts is apparent even in developed countries such as Japan and Germany (Berns 1991).

Page (1990), speaking in a Western environment to Western educators, contended that no innovation will be successful unless instigated by and with the participation of teachers. Dove (1986), however, points out that teachers in the Third World rarely have sufficient understanding of the principles of

innovation or broad enough knowledge of the possibilities open to them to take an initiating role. The persistence of an hierarchical social structure and attitudes within that structure militates against the inclusion of the "lower orders" in decision making.

Obanya (1989) questions the status and competence of those who instigate changes. He claims that too often they are technocrats removed from the realities of the classroom with insufficient training in the management of innovation. Most innovation is based on Western research and all too often it is intuitively initiated, relying on the creative energy and accumulated experience of an individual rather than on a set of principles. Should this individual leave the project, there is a danger of its collapsing and being abandoned.

In a study for the World Bank, Fuller (1986) examined the correlation between areas of funding and student achievement. Aid is most often directed towards material inputs, such as textbooks, libraries and new buildings, which, apart from libraries, have been found to have little impact on student achievement. Very few studies exist on the effect on achievement of non-material inputs, such as length of training, years of experience, the general educational level of teachers, and school management or of non school-related factors such as parenting practices and community beliefs regarding education.

Weak management of innovation creates many problems and failures. These can comprise poor or non-existent needs analysis, unrealistic targets and the adoption of international fashions without adequate consultation or research to discover if changes will be accepted. There is also evidence of many pilot projects which are made to work under favourable conditions, and

then accepted as workable under all conditions, with consequent problems in the transition from pilot to large-scale implementation (Dove 1986).

1.3.2. Problems of Innovative English Language Programmes in Developing Countries

In his examination of the fundamentals of innovation, particularly with regard to English language learning projects in developing countries, Bowers (1987) suggests that innovation is not simply a matter of changing the illustrations in a textbook. It requires a more profound understanding of the principles behind the revision of a syllabus or curriculum. Hurst (1981b) cited curriculum development as a prime element of change in the projects he examined. The term "curriculum design" appears to be misunderstood, being confused with the revision of a syllabus, for example, from a list of structures to a list of functions or with the updating of topics. There is insufficient recognition of the difficulties teachers experience both in their normal teaching and, in particular, in coping with innovative projects. Teachers are looking for quick solutions and are allergic to theory (Kouraogo 1987). White (1988) suggests that the re-definition of a teacher's role, which is inherent in pupil-centred communicative methods, is a powerful factor in inhibiting change.

1.4. Communicative Language Teaching and Classroom Constraints in Developing Countries

The constraints considered in this section, which are present in many language learning environments in the Third World, are both material and non-material. In the conclusion of this study, we shall evaluate how such

constraints could be seen to inhibit the successful use of communicative methods into English language teaching and learning.

1.4.1. Constraints concerning Teachers

Working conditions for teachers in many developing countries are very poor and salaries are low. Caillods and Postlethwaite (1989) report that payment may be irregular and this, together with inflation, forces many of them to take secondary jobs to obtain a basic living wage. Because of costly transport and poor infra-structure many English teachers have no contact with other English speakers from year to year. In Guatemala, 54% of schools are one-teacher schools and so the isolation is great. (1989:172). Teachers rarely have any say in the choice of the school to which they are assigned. Consequently, motivation and work effort is low, especially as regards innovation. Lewin and Xu Hui (1989) report that 70% of all junior secondary teachers in China are unqualified and a high percentage of unqualified teachers is reported in other countries (Caillods and Postlethwaite 1989, Cross 1987, Beeby in Verspoor 1989). Even those who qualify often lack training in pedagogy or, having qualified in another subject, are sometimes transferred to English teaching because they come from an English-speaking part of the country. The move to upgrade teacher training to university status has reinforced the study of language and literature at the expense of methodology and classroom practice. Lewin (1989) reports only 6 weeks of teaching practice in a four-year language teacher training course in China. Transport problems, time lost from the job or jobs and other expenses mean that many teachers cannot attend in-service programmes unless they are adequately compensated.

It has been noted that many so-called innovations are no more than a change of syllabus, often from a list of structures to a list of functions or notions. Teachers feel insecure about how to teach this list of language items and are discomforted by the recommended sole use of the target language. They suffer stress at trying to maintain English constantly in the classroom and guilt at not succeeding (Kouraogo 1987, Medgyes 1990 and Mitchell 1988). Problems with managing mixed ability classes, organising and controlling group and pair work, monitoring and assessment and the general ability to create "conditions for learning" have also been recorded. Constant reference is made (Medgyes 1990, Shamim 1990, White 1988,) to the problems caused by suggested changes in the teacher's role and the need for special personal qualities. According to Medgyes, the teacher needs to be erudite, versatile, sharing, modest, humanistic, with profound and avid interest in the opinions, ideas and dignity of others. This is a different concept of a teacher, who has previously seen himself and been seen by pupils and their parents as the unquestioned fount of all knowledge. The new role not only demands a completely new set of classroom management skills, but requires a new attitude from all concerned and can profoundly disturb student-teacher relationships.

1.4.2. Physical and Practical Constraints

The school classroom in many developing countries suffers from severely restricted physical resources (Caillods and Postlethwaite 1989, Cross 1987, Feng 1991, Hurst 1981). Class sizes from 40 to 200 have been reported (Nolesco 1986) with resultant shortages of sitting space, writing materials and textbooks. Furniture consists of immovable benches with desks attached and because of poor ventilation, windows and doors are often kept open, resulting

sometimes in a high noise level from outside and sometimes in the necessity for quiet inside. Some schools have inadequate or non-existent separation between classrooms such that teachers can overhear each other. Photoconiers are extremely rare, authentic texts are difficult to come by and visual aids are expensive. Through personal communication with returnees from Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) it was made obvious that there is rarely a safe storage place in which to keep resources and even teachers' home conditions are not suited to the keeping of carefully made aids and treasured materials (Personal communication).

Textbooks, when available, are often outdated both in terms of content and teaching methods, and in reality, teachers do not have the time nor the skills to modify or re-write them. When funds for new books do become available, they are chosen without proper consultation (Kennedy 1987) and training in their use. The urgent need to update materials has resulted in formulaic textbooks being produced, based on Richards' and Rogers' "procedures" with insufficient understanding of "approach" and "design" (Kennedy 1987). Shortage of paper, printing difficulties and distribution problems hinder the dissemination of published or specially written teacher's guides to accompany new textbooks. In any case, the ideas contained within such books, and the metalanguage used, are often beyond the linguistic competence and pedagogic experience of many teachers (Cripwell 1979), who then have the dilemma of whether to accept or reject them (White 1988). Lack of evaluation of projects involving the use of new books and teacher's guides, has meant that little evidence is available regarding their use. Textbooks and workbooks for school are normally bought by the family and, since there is rarely a tradition of books in life, parents normally cannot or will not invest in them.

1.4.3. Constraints concerning Students

The English language learning situation in developing countries ranges from Judd's categories of EAL, to ELWC and EFL. In countries in the last two categories, learners are rarely exposed to the target language, if at all, and language learning is always in a classroom with the teacher as the only model. The teacher is also the only motivator, as learners see their need only in terms of passing the end-of-year or end-of-course exams. Since most exams still reflect a structural syllabus, learners regard grammar as an important feature of language learning and cannot see the relevance of learning to communicate in English.

Because of previous poor teaching practices and low motivation, the level of student proficiency remains extremely low and is never adequate for the next level of learning. It is not difficult, in a large class, to conceal one's low proficiency and learners find strategies to keep up this deception, at least until exam time. In some countries, Indonesia, for example, constant re-starts in the learning of English take place as pupils move from junior secondary to secondary to university level (Personal communication with Voluntary Service Overseas volunteer, 1991). The tradition of the unsuccessful student repeating a year is still maintained, particularly in French Africa, where pupils can be kept down more than once. Thus, classes of wide variation in ability and age complicate any attempt to relate topics to learners' interests. These facts all lead to a high boredom factor (Caillods and Postlethwaite 1989).

Changes in the role and responsibilities of the teacher and the pupils, mean that there is uncertainty about "rules of classroom interaction" which are

so different from former teacher-fronted conventions. (Nolesco 1986). In spite of disillusion with past language teaching methods, there is evidence of a strong suspicion of the new communicative methods (Feng 1991).

1.4.4. Attitudinal and Cultural Constraints

The aftermath of colonisation has left many developing countries with educational systems unsuited to their socio-economic needs and at variance with the philosophical tenets of traditional values. Western education stresses "education for its own sake", is aimed at the development of the individual and prepares learners for a world in which they must compete with others. On the other hand, African traditional education, and that of many other non-Western societies, thrived through their integration of appropriate training for the social function of co-operation and service to the community. This aspect is not present in the system today (Kennedy 1989). The inheritance of a Western colonial system has resulted in an education system which re-inforces elitism and augments the differences between urban and rural environments. There remains an emphasis on the literary and the academic, since success in exams is seen as a key to upward mobility and to possible economic security. Consequently, "diploma disease" is endemic and teachers who do not help their pupils to succeed in passing their exams, through one means or another, are condemned by pupils and parents (Personal communication with volunteer from Voluntary Services Overseas).

Parent power has always been a strong factor in education in Third World countries and the resistance of parents to any change in the present system is understandable, since they see those in positions of power and economic

stability as having achieved their position through the very system which is now undergoing change (Dumont 1988).

Kennedy (1989) has noted the need of those advocating changes to have a clear understanding of the language learning circumstances since these can directly affect student motivation. Nevertheless, even in countries where, in fact, there is little need for most students to learn English, the language has been accorded a type of psychological superiority. This dual aspect of high status with low need causes considerable confusion amongst teachers, who are expected to achieve good exam results with poorly motivated students.

The teacher's present role in both the community and the classroom is in a state of flux. The traditional role, akin to that of guru, priest or monk, derived its status from religious beliefs. Teachers were models for the moral and religious mores and played a supportive role in their community. Most African leaders are former teachers, since it was possible to gain further education through training to be a teacher, quite apart from the promise of a good standing in the community. Accustomed to authority from above, both teachers and students have difficulties with new learner-centred methods. Faced with the need to adopt entirely new attitudes and acquire new pedagogical and linguistic skills, they have lost confidence in their traditional role and are struggling to come to terms with their new one (Dove 1986). This is not easy when many local authorities and head teachers question the new methods (Feng 1991).

In the classroom, new methods entail risk-taking and considerable extra work with low or only long term pay-off. It is less work and more comfortable to

stick to traditional methods where the pay-off may be less spectacular but where results, if limited, are certain and are what students demand. Dove (1986) puts the effect of an in-service seminar at approximately twice the length of the seminar, by which time many teachers, in spite of apparent enthusiasm during the seminar, have reverted to traditional methods.

Psychological studies are emerging about differences in cognitive styles and the effect of the mismatch between those of the learner and those of the teacher, materials writers and curriculum developers. Berry (1985) suspects that students' own cognitive perspectives are not being respected as regards materials and curriculum. Writing about the learning of maths through new methods, he quotes instances of linguistic practices which could invalidate language learning materials and curriculum provided by an "alien" culture, for example, differences in concepts concerning time and tense, hypotheticality, and classification. In Setswana, for example, objects are named according to their use rather than what they are, although this can change according to context. Taboos about counting beyond twenty result in speakers using a rich vocabulary for detailed description in place of enumerating. Clignet-Remi (1978), writing about Africa, considers that the necessity of the Africanisation of curriculum has been recognised, but that too little attention has been paid to problems of the Africanisation of teaching styles.

Bing (1963) has reported on the effect of the verbal interaction of mother and child in very early childhood on language ability, different types of verbal ability being dependent on early child-mother relationships. Her paper prompts the question of whether differences in adult-child relationships in different cultures result in differences in acquisition of mother tongue or foreign

languages. Children carried all day on their mothers' backs, as for example they are in Africa, are extremely secure but rarely addressed, resulting in a passivity not observed in Western children who are exposed to constant stimulation (Personal observation). The special respect for parents and adults by children may lead to children having little or no experience of initiating conversations, responding to elicitation or talking to each other while adults are present. Such inhibitions are likely to spill over into the classroom situation and will hinder the adoption of communicative methods in the classroom (Nolesco in Rossner and Bolitho 1990).

Fuller (1986) reports research that shows that parenting practices within different societies, also help shape the child's cognitive skills, i.e. a difference in school achievement has been observed between children whose parents frequently ask them questions, and allow them to solve problems with some degree of independence and those children whose parents rarely ask their children questions. Parental and community beliefs regarding literacy and education also influence later school achievement.

1.5. Constraints in the EFL Teaching/Learning Environment in the R.P. Congo

According to the British Council Profile of 1985 and reports and interviews with British Council Kelt (Key English Language Training) Officers, John Palfrey and Joseph Neil and with Anicet Mawaka, of INRAP (Institut National de Recherche et d'Action Pédagogique), the ELT situation in the Congo suffers from very many of the constraints discussed above.

The situation in the Congo certainly conforms with Judd's (in Kennedy 1989) category of EFL, since pupils, particularly at lower secondary level where English is first learnt, do not perceive any short- or long-term need for the language. French is the language imposed in a multi-language context (see Chapter 3). Topics that have been found to motivate young learners extrinsically in other countries, such as pop-music, the cinema, sport, even messages on clothing are all in French, and since there is no tourism, few English users are ever encountered by school children. Intrinsic motivation, too, is weak and repetition of a year's study by inadequate pupils, leads to classes where ability ranges from the illiterate to the proficient student and to discrepancies in age that can reach a spread of over five years, with the attendant problems of where to pitch the level and how to accommodate students' needs and interests.

Neil (Personal communication 1989) reported classes in Brazzaville, the capital, averaging 100 pupils at F.7. (first year junior secondary) and dropping to 70 at F.10 (final year of junior secondary). Numbers in rural classes average 30. Most of the constraints concerning teachers, pupils, attitudes and physical conditions are present in Congolese English teaching situations. Most pupils have pencils and notebooks to write in but only the teacher has a copy of the available coursebook.

In 1982, only 40% of English teachers at Collèges d'Education Générale Publique had any pedagogical training at all (see Appendix B). Most had passed the Baccalauréat but very few had a Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnel (CAP.). In personal discussions, Neil expressed his view that many felt insecure linguistically and pedagogically and that he had found them unable to

adapt to new methods or to find ways of exploiting their very limited resources, i.e. the blackboard.

In his analysis at the start of the EFL Project in In-Service Teacher Education, Kelt Officer, Palfrey (unpublished British Council ELT Profile 1985) found both the books in use at this time linguistically and pedagogically very inadequate, especially considering the proposed move away from grammar and the study of texts to the upgrading of pupils' communicative competence. In 1986, English for French Speaking Africa (EFSA) was introduced. There are three levels in the series, 6ème for level F.7. (the first year of English for secondary school pupils ranging from 11 years upwards), 5ème for level F.8. (second year of English with pupils from 12 years upwards) and 4ème for both F.9. (13 years upwards) and F.10. (14 years upwards).

In 1986, EFSA 6ème and 5ème was introduced only at the first two levels, F.7. and F.8. Each teacher was given one copy of the appropriate book and a programme, produced by INRAP, which listed the language functions to be taught and which provided a chart displaying those units to be taught each week throughout the year (see Appendix C). The aim of the 6ème was for pupils to achieve a basic functional use of English, although there was a "hidden" structural syllabus. Teaching points are not immediately recognisable and the sequencing and re-cycling of both structural and functional language items are intermittent and poorly controlled (see Appendix D). The 5ème relied on picture-stories, dialogues and texts for the presentation of language and for the inductive teaching of a structural item (see Appendix E). Neither coursebook had overt grammar teaching or explanation. Teachers used to a structural approach found it difficult to apply their accustomed methods using

the book and most were ignorant both of the new view of language presented and the methods by which to teach it. A published teacher's guide was available in some schools but it was written in a language, and prescribes methods, which few teachers could cope with (see Appendix F). Both the guide and the course books assumed the physical presence of the book on the pupil's desk and the availability of copying facilities, visual aids, files, folders and tape recorders, which were not available in Congo. An additional problem was that the books were too long and too full of information to fit into the Congolese school year even when teachers followed the INRAP programme guide.

At the end of the first year of this programme, only 11% of pupils passed a test that was specially written to assess the success of the programme (Personal communication from INRAP, 1987). Neil points out that this test (see Appendix G) included structures and vocabulary, as well as functions, which few children could have learnt even if they had completed the book. This poor result prompted the materials development and in-service teacher training programme (INRAP New Textbook Project) examined in this thesis. The project was an attempt to introduce teaching methods which would improve the communicative competence of the pupils at F.7 and F.8 while taking into consideration the many constraints of the teaching and learning environment in the R.P. Congo. A case study of the Project will be presented in Chapter Three, but first we must look more closely at the literature pertaining to educational innovation in developing countries, particularly developing African countries.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the literature

In this review we shall first examine literature which deals with issues of education and development. This will be followed by a review of innovation in education with particular reference to innovation in developing countries and to problems which arise in the training of English language teachers there. Finally, we shall look at some literature in which an attempt has been made to define a communicative approach to English Language learning and shall report on some questions and doubts that have been raised.

2.1. Education and Development

2.1.1. The legacy of colonialism in education in developing countries

Writing of the British Council-INRAP project in Congo, Neil (Personal communication 1989) describes some Western methodologists working on projects in developing countries as "purveyors of their pet theories". Behind this phrase lies the whole field of education for development in the Third World which, according to Watson (1982), is vast and controversial. In an attempt to highlight the positive aspects and identify the weaknesses, Watson suggests that the legacy of colonialism in terms of education is far from over and in its new form it is far more subtle since it is not overtly political. To Watson this new form of influence, i.e. neo-colonialism, is,

A planned policy of advanced nations to maintain influence and continuation of past practice of control through foreign aid programmes, publishing, the media, recognition of exams and diplomas, and research links with Universities in the Third World and the North (1982:183).

Neo-colonialism has come about partly as the result of pressures from the electorate of developing nations for educational expansion which are so great and urgent that governments cannot resist offers of foreign aid. Even countries like Thailand, Nepal and Liberia, which do not have a colonial history, share common problems with former colonies and are looking to the West for aid in adopting similar pragmatic solutions.

Watson contends that education under colonialist rule led to the training and education of an indigenous elite, most of whom were divorced from the real needs, feelings and aspirations of most of the population, especially those living in the rural hinterlands. This situation has changed little today. Many new leaders are more colonialist than their white predecessors, particularly in French West Africa where links with Europe are still strong. A new bureaucracy has grown up in which teachers have become higher echelon civil servants, their newfound power setting them apart from those they taught and from the realities of the rural classroom. Former systems of education were western and metropolitan in concept and linear in application and have been left largely untouched and uncriticized, the only critics being a radical indigenous minority or Western academics.

Watson observed that it is easier to increase enrolment and retain former systems than to initiate fundamental reform. Changes, therefore, have often

been marginal and unsystematic and schemes have been introduced hurriedly and without adequate forethought and planning.

Hurst (1981b) is similarly critical about the educational situation in developing countries, drawing attention to the gap between rhetoric and reality. He looks at the pretentious objectives of educational aid projects and examines reasons for their lack of success. He reports a World Bank Education Sector Policy Paper of 1980 which shows that there has been a lack of understanding of the relationship between educational change and socio-economic advancement. He reports excessive imbalance and cultural dependency and contends that the West has no real interest in encouraging indigenous innovation in the Third World. The need for adaptation of educational policies from Western to Third World conditions has never been stated. However, in spite of the widespread rhetoric of denunciation of imported models, Hurst contends that developing countries should not be blind to the usefulness of cultural borrowing. Hurst's paper is particularly useful for its analysis of the gap between the rhetoric of high-sounding policies and objectives, and the detailed realities of Third World educational systems. We shall refer to his paper in the section on innovation.

In his "False Start in Africa" Dumont (1988) confesses that he takes an unfashionable view and that he is acting as "agent provocateur". Although he sees Africa as a country of great expectations, he feels it has been betrayed by past colonisers and its own leaders. He highlights some of the main problems that have come about since many countries in Africa obtained independence.

The principal industry has become "administration", Dumont claims. Becoming one of the thousands of ministers or civil servants can lead to substantial advantages in living conditions and pay, greatly in excess of those tolerated by the rest of the population. A high level civil servant can earn in six weeks what it takes a peasant 36 years to earn. France, which gives 90% of all foreign aid to her former colonies, foots the bill for this elitist and luxurious lifestyle. Links with France produce other rewards. A student returning from studies in France may be made a director, even if he is only a mechanic in his field. Projects that appear to be floundering are propped up with French funds and this support prevents progress towards economic realism and maturity.

Africa, Dumont says, is living through the inevitable childhood disease of independence. Present educational policies perpetuate the status quo since the teaching offered is rigidly based on the French system with "no lowering of standards from the French norm" (p. 90). The result of this is an emphasis on bookishness, an antipathy towards manual labour (manual work is used as a punishment) and a resistance to change, since the "success" of many ministers is seen to be related to the way in which they were educated. Urban/rural differences are augmented. Dumont reports a Congolese peasant as saying "Independence is only for city people" (p.7).

Dumont suggests that all blame for the situation must not be thrown on colonialization and that there is a need to 'decolonize' African leaders. He feels that they have not yet understood independence and still think in a colonial framework which depends, in the long run, on outside support. Maseko (1989) mentions the unsure and untrained executives who save face by employing non-native consultants and advisors. The trend seems to be, the more foreign

the expert, the better. Ideas that may have originated locally, carry more weight if stated by external consultants as there is sometimes a negative attitude towards internal researchers and consultants.

It is refreshing to read Dumont's report of the post-colonial situation in Africa, so clearly evidenced by my own experience. As Timberlake observes in his introduction to Dumont's book, this author is better at problems than at solutions. Dumont's suggestions that each child be trained for a specific job, that salaries be equalised and that status be given to peasant leaders is unduly optimistic and smacks of the rhetoric he so deplores. His reminder that Europe was unable to provide free education for children until a certain level of economic development was reached, may be a closer indication of the way in which a fairer and more appropriate system of education in Africa will eventually be achieved.

Several publications point to why the heritage of colonialism still remains so powerful. Altbach (1978), in his paper on how global patterns of the dissemination of knowledge affect the distribution of knowledge in the Third World, begins with the statement: "No nation is truly independent in terms of its intellectual life and all depend to some extent on an exchange of knowledge" (p. 301).

But like other commentators in this field, he finds neo-colonialism more complex than traditional colonialism. He points out that Third World countries import far more books, journals and results of research than they export, so that there is less of an exchange than a one-way flow. He looks particularly at the roles of publishing, of universities and of research.

According to Altbach, imports of books comprise, in descending order of magnitude, textbooks, grammars and dictionaries and light fiction. Colonial authorities, who laid stress on textbooks focusing on the urban life, instilled the idea that the book is the pre-requisite of modern society. Today, Western concepts of the book still prevail by way of production standards, language use and content, and indigenous books are based on this foreign model. Eighty-one per cent of the world's books, however, are produced in industrialised nations. The ability to study in a foreign language is a mechanism by which people can enter higher professional strata. Thus, in Africa, as we have seen in Chapter One, the eighty to ninety five per cent of the population who do not know English or French are effectively excluded from higher levels of education and hence from becoming part of the new elite.

During colonial times, indigenous intellectual institutions atrophied. Today, most universities in developing countries, like books, are based on a Western model, but do not emphasise research or provide funds for creative intellectual endeavour. Ninety per cent of all research is done in the industrial world and most of this is seen through Western eyes not pre-occupied with Third world needs. Watson (1982) contends that, although they reflect the European model and academic practices, universities lack western standards of quality and function mainly for middle-level colonial bureaucracy.

Altbach's (1987) paper, written over a decade ago, reflects the situation at that time and may not be an entirely accurate description of the state of publications and university research in developing countries today. The number of exchange and collaborative projects between universities in the

Third World and industrialised nations has increased considerably, as has the number of students from developing countries attending higher level education in the West, but no research is available to establish whether this has increased dependency and one-way cultural borrowing or increased the autonomy of Third World institutions. Welch (1988:390) suggests that "host institutions are enmeshed in the culture, society and economy of the nation from which they receive funds" and contends that the conceptual and theoretical paradigms of these projects and programmes reflect this orientation. An examination of various projects linking Western and Third World universities has led us to a belief that neo-colonialism continues to exist but that sensitivity to these issues is growing.

Bray, Clarke and Stephens (1986) trace the differences between indigenous forms of education in developing countries and the educational system of the West to respective philosophies of education. Education in the West is bookish, not concerned with life and encourages competition at the expense of co-operation. It promotes individualization of thought and outlook, a characteristic valued in Western society.

2.1.2. Principles of implementing educational innovation in developing countries

Kennedy's (1987) paper, "Innovation for change: teacher development and innovation", begins by listing the hierarchies of those involved, ranging from aid agents to classrooms teachers. Although administrators decide on changes, teachers have to implement them. Kennedy points out that many programmes are initiated intuitively, and often depend on the accumulated

experience and energy of an individual for their success, rather than on related principles of innovation. His list of strategies for innovation gives a useful basis for further discussion. He describes them thus:

A power coercive strategy is enforced by those in power and is used primarily when there is inertia. Under these conditions, changes, are enforced like laws.

A rational empirical strategy assumes that people are already sympathetic to change and are intelligent enough to recognise that benefits will accrue. This principle is based on the *hope* that change will take place, but frequently people need more than simply information.

A normative-re-educative strategy is complex and assumes that people act in accordance with the values and attitudes of a given society and that a change is needed in their deep-seated beliefs and behaviour. (1987:163).

We shall look at Kennedy's paper further in the section on innovation and English Language teaching, but meanwhile we should note that he strongly favours a *normative re-educative strategy* in innovative programmes and projects, particularly if "outsiders" are involved. The process of innovation should primarily be one of negotiation and should take the form of problem-solving. Moreover, it should be collaborative and all decisions should be recorded. Outsiders should try to avoid decisions alone and there should be a respect for the degree of change which is acceptable to teachers, so that "lip service" effect is less likely (p. 169).

Kouraogo (1987), quotes Hurst (1981b), who finds *no* convincing evidence that participation reliably promotes adoption of change. On the contrary, participation may be used as an opportunity to alter or veto an innovation. Only in small scale innovation might teacher participation reduce errors and prevent imposition by power groups.

Quoting Nicholls (1983 in White 1988), White recognises that innovation involves changes in both teacher practices *and* attitudes. He refers to some useful warnings, for example, that too often an innovation is introduced as "the answer" rather than something good but not perfect (Miller 1967 in White 1988:119). Innovators should realise that their projects usually increase a teacher's load and he suggests that "there is little point in substituting a pedagogical magical mystery tour for a reasonably well defined educational destination". Bowers (1983 in White 1988:102) likens an educational system to a spider's web. Any touch will set the whole in motion. For example, the introduction of a new textbook affects teacher training, which affects resources, which affects the availability of trainers, assessment, etc.

2.1.3. The realities of educational innovation in the developing countries

In a paper in which he looks at some fundamental issues of change in education in Third World countries, Obanya (1989:335) records the memorable quote: "Africa is today littered with the bones of pilot educational projects."

He is scathing about the projects for innovation in Third World countries, in particular short in-service teacher training schemes, organised by top administrators and run by specialists. Some teachers may attend because they

wish to be selected for foreign courses, so there is mere attendance rather than deep-rooted participation. Teachers are superficially exposed to new syllabuses and materials which are misunderstood or inappropriate. In the face of this dilemma, teachers probably go on teaching in the same way they have always done. They are not, however, obstacles to change but they can only implement what they have internalised, not some vague notion. They are members of a wide society and often mirror the attitudes of that society. If reform is top-down, society feels safer with old practices.

The title of Obanya's paper, "Going beyond the educational reform document" indicates an attempt to reveal the facts beyond the rhetoric. Obanya has rightly revealed some realities not only of innovative programmes with their unconsidered objectives, precipitous actions and superficial solutions, but has recorded some truths about the results of these on classroom practice. His recommendation that there needs to be a build-up to a commitment to change, as well as a clearer identification of the kind of society countries wish to have, should attract the attention of those who wish to bring about change in both developed and developing countries.

In a World Bank Discussion Paper, Verspoor (1989) contends that successful implementation often depends on the strength of the infra-structure of a country. Success or failure can also be a matter of a balance between a country's need and its capacity to implement. In his opinion, detailed long-term planning seems futile, especially in the often volatile environment of developing countries. He advocates a step-by-step approach.

Hurst (1981b) points out that any innovative project is essentially experimental and that educational administrators are planners rather than experimenters. They need training in implementation, something quite different from allocating resources and planning. According to Hurst and Verspoor (1989), the main cause of failure is a failure to recognise the cause of a problem.

2.1.4. The constraints of the teaching environment and its effect on innovation

It is time now to move from general problems of innovative programmes to the literature concerning the particular constraints related to teachers and classroom conditions which weaken the chances of successful innovation in developing countries.

We have seen in Chapter One that there is a wide-ranging list of this type of constraint. Accordingly, we shall confine our examination to those constraints most relevant to the topic of this thesis, namely, curriculum development, socio-cultural constraints concerning the status of the teacher in his/her society and which reflect on the teacher's role in the classroom, the effects of the training of teachers and teaching materials.

In a World Bank Discussion Paper (1989), Verspoor reports on education projects in which changes have been made in four main areas. Of these, 90% included some form of curriculum change, 66% the training of teachers, 40% organizational change and 32% technical change.

In another World Bank Education Sector Policy Paper, Hurst (1981b) recognises that changes in curriculum are frequently confused with the simple revision of a syllabus and the updating of topics. This distinction is misunderstood by the "consumer" and therefore the related problems are ignored, resisted or misrepresented. Many changes in curriculum are applications or adaptations of experience in Europe and America, viz. syllabus modifications based on the work of the Council of Europe. Many fail because the transition from pilot scheme to adoption is made without reference to the necessary complementaries, i.e. the teachers, textbooks or other resources. On the whole, teachers do not have sufficient knowledge of the principles on which the curriculum is founded (Nitsaisook and Anderson 1989).

Page (1990) contended that teachers *must* be involved in the design of curriculum because only in this way do they have any real involvement in its implementation. But Dove (1986) reports that in many developing countries, curriculum development is usually a top-down process, involving experts who explore strategies, set aims and objectives, organise revision and trials and write new materials to disseminate to schools. The curriculum development team may include a few energetic and enthusiastic indigenous teachers, and pilot schemes are sometimes run in urban schools which welcome the publicity but which are largely unaffected by the teaching conditions in the rest of the country.

In Dove's review of the teacher's past and present role in society, she describes the teacher today as the "blunt instrument of change". (1986:27). Society today is ambiguous in its attitude to teachers, seeing them as agents of both tradition and change. Because school is highly valued and access to

higher education is limited, teachers command respect, because both parents and pupils recognise that teachers have a stake in the future of their students. At the same time, however, Dove reports, some societies see teachers today as agents of an alien culture, language or political group. In the past, the role and status of the teacher was clearly perceived by teachers themselves, and by administrators and parents, but their contemporary role is highly confused. Teachers are required to conform to government policy which sees education in terms of manpower and economic development, achieved by the development of an elite, and yet they must be sensitive to the real needs and aspirations of the community.

Ward Henewald (1987) suggests that teachers' knowledge of the locale could overcome their lack of experience in curriculum design and that they should be involved in the process. His paper confirms Caillods' and Postlethwaite's (1989) view that all too often teachers are left to adapt to a curriculum designed by specialists. Teacher development is more difficult than curriculum development, and one way of resolving this is to recognise that the two areas go hand in hand, that they should be decentralised and should be based on a realistic evaluation of the situation. Localised teacher development forums should *generate* curriculum change, promote the learning of new teaching skills, and create new and appropriate materials. This may result in a variation in the quality of materials produced, but, "What is produced will have improved one teacher's skill and self-esteem and will be proved useful by a local teacher" (p. 104). Henewald's analysis of why teachers do not want to be involved in post-certification training is very pertinent to this study. New ideas can be challenging and disruptive. Continued training takes up too much time. Teachers fear observation. Students pass through their hands

whichever methods are adopted. If innovation does lead to improved learning, who cares and what effect does it have on teachers' pay? Henewald's answer to this is that funds be made available to reward *involvement* rather than *achievement*.

Research carried out by the World Bank in twenty-three low income countries concerning school and teacher characteristics, and reported by Fuller (1986), reveals some useful, and sometimes, surprising findings. It is based on determining what aspects of education affect school quality, this being a strong determinant of student achievement. The research covers material (textbooks, existence of libraries, building programmes) and non-material (length of training, length of experience, etc.) variables.

It appears that the number of students in a class needs to be reduced considerably before a marked effect on achievement is noted, e.g. a one per cent rise in achievement would cost an additional \$50 per student if allocated to lower class size, whereas the same increment could be achieved at a third the cost if allocated to teacher training. Practical improvements such as the provision of sufficient desks and new textbooks have most effect in poorer environments and rural areas, the provision of desks being particularly related to reading achievement. Two thirds of World Bank Projects involve teacher training and yet there is no reliable evidence to show what kind of training is most effective. It was noted that a teacher's proficiency in English had an effect on language achievement. School management, active learning, preparation of lessons and marking and returning of homework and teachers' verbal skill were all seen to be conducive to greater achievement.

Fuller leaves us with a formidable list of areas needing further research. One comment is particularly applicable to this thesis. Speaking of teaching practice and classroom organisation, Fuller suggests that within the existing levels of material inputs, considerable progress could be made by sharpening classroom management and teacher skills. As an example, Fuller cites the way in which the usefulness of the textbook is limited by the skills of the teacher using it.

2.1.5. Innovative ELT projects in developing countries

A collection of papers edited by Bowers (1987) are all based on the ELT Project at Ain Shams University, Cairo developed between 1982 and 1984. Many features of this project bear a close resemblance to those of the Congo Project, to be reported in Chapter Three. All lay stress on the comparison between privileged and constrained environments. In his introduction, Bowers reminds us that educational change is not a matter of new techniques and resources but basically of shifts in balance between systems and people. He contends that such fundamentals are not changed by providing different pictures on a page or a new technological toy, although these may be part of the change. He expresses particular interest in the appropriateness of EFL methodology and teacher training methodology to its setting. Studies in comparative education and socio-linguistics, have shown that the aims of education as well as the norms of interaction differ in societies and from generation to generation within those societies. At a more practical level, modes of study and teaching can be affected by the vintage of the textbook used, the currency of exams in the job market, the extent and effectiveness of training, and the availability of resources. Bowers proposes a two-fold

methodology, the first covering a set of principles for classroom management and the second a set of principles for project management. To be successful, a methodology needs to be appropriate to the total context in which it is practised and promoted.

Bowers adopts Anthony's terminology of approach, method and technique and his interpretation of "approach" extends the normally accepted definition to: "a set of beliefs about education which is...*valid for the local context*"(p. 28. My emphasis).

A paper by Straker-Cook (In Bowers, 1987) outlines the roles and responsibilities of those involved and states the need for modification of the models of innovation to suit Third World circumstances. A useful list of elements of innovation is given, but it is Straker-Cook's list of strategies for implementation which is most relevant to the present study. They range from co-operative to inertial, in which new ideas and materials are presented in such a way that they are easily acceptable because, when they are adopted, teaching becomes easier and more efficient.

Straker-Cook notes that change is especially challenging for language teachers because it may involve changes in personal habits of language and patterns of communication. In such skills-based subjects, there are also far-reaching implications for changes in content.

In this same volume (Bowers, 1987), Doff looks at the use of training materials as instruments of change. Most training materials are developed in Europe and America for teachers in privileged conditions, and accordingly, two

assumptions are made, first about the universality of those conditions and second about the common conceptual ground between teaching and training. In the rest of the world these assumptions cannot be made and therefore materials for training must be re-assessed.

Because of the character of teaching in constrained circumstances, the range of methodological options is limited. For example, there is little possibility of group work or free interaction activities, while texts and dialogues and authentic listening tasks must be adapted or excluded. However, the need for a large class methodology can result in the introduction of other techniques, for example, for marking and correcting, use of pair work and questioning techniques. On the whole, teachers in developing countries have a low level of language competence and so Doff recommends that teacher training projects should include a strong language learning component. Doff is aware of the fast rate of "fall off" following intensive face-to-face training, since what is learnt is often in strong contrast to all previous training and to methods used by other teachers in the institution. New methods make greater linguistic and pedagogical demands. For this reason, materials must be structured with particular care so that they are fully accessible to newly trained teachers. In other words, an attempt should be made to produce and distribute materials which are in themselves a training device, having the possibility of being disseminated throughout the whole system. Although the "new" model of methodology for EFL has been evident for 20 years or so in Egypt, most teaching reflects traditional methods. Doff sees the dissemination of English teaching methodology as a possible means of opening up the way for new relationships and interaction patterns in the classroom which do not at present exist elsewhere in the school curriculum.

Many of the principles behind Doff's thinking are closely akin to those adopted by the team of material developers in the R.P. Congo. His paper should help in our evaluation of the Congo Project.

2.2. Communicative Language Teaching

As we noted in Chapter One, although communicative language teaching is a recent innovation for many English language environments in the developing world, it was introduced in the West over a decade ago. Consequently, there is considerable literature on the subject, some of which demonstrates the developments that have taken place since the initial concepts were formulated.

Maley's examination of the various elements of language learning which have come under discussion in the last decade (in Rossner and Bolitho 1990) enumerates many aspects of the approach which are at the heart of developments in C.L.T. He summarises the issues of acquisition v. learning, form and use, input and intake, the relationship of structures and functions to syllabus design and methodology, the question of authentic materials and the role of teachers in which is reflected, according to Maley, the power structure and ultimate politics of the classroom. He briefly illuminates issues of language-centred and task-centred approaches and the problem of catering for individual learning styles and language needs in the learner-centred classroom. Maley concludes that if we wish to take account of some of these issues when bringing in changes, then teachers must be prepared to take some risks in the way of trying out new methods, materials and classroom techniques. These must be introduced alongside the solid base of the present

teaching mode. In other words, one paradigm does not have to be rejected for another.

Early proponents of the approach, such as Brumfit, (1980) Johnson (in Johnson & Morrow 1981), Littlewood (1981) and Candlin and Breen (1979 in Yalden 1983) all cite the importance of methodology in CLT. This insistence on the methodology is perhaps rooted in an earlier notion of Widdowson (1978) that a structural syllabus can be taught through a communicative methodology.

Although Yalden (1983) concerns herself mainly with the evolution, design and implementation of syllabuses, she provides a useful review of the position taken by other commentators on various aspects of communicative language learning. Paulston, Valdman, and Brumfit (in Yalden, 1983), all demonstrate that attention to language analysis is not incompatible with the achievement of communicative competence at certain levels, i.e. the early stages. Johnson's model recommends a variable focus on functions, notions, structures and themes and suggests that considerations of methodology are vital.

As early as 1981, Littlewood wrote a general introduction to CLT in which he pointed out that the goal of a general communicative ability was not the prerogative of the communicative approach but was also present in the assumptions on which audio-lingual and situational methods were based. He points out that the combination of systematic attention to a functional view of language together with a traditional structural view can lead to a more complete communicative perspective. Learners must learn strategies for relating both structures and functions of language to their communicative functions in real time and real situations.

Littlewood's book is one of the first practical applications of the writings of Hymes (1972), whose theory of communicative competence forms the basis for many subsequent studies of communicative language learning. Littlewood describes two main areas of classroom activity, the "pre-communicative", in which language structures or functions are made explicit and are applied and practised in a "quasi-communicative" stage and the "fully communicative", where activities place the emphasis on meaning and the total skills of communication through the completion of a task (p.86). The teacher's knowledge of the class and their needs will dictate the order in which these categories are tackled, and the emphasis which they are accorded. In a similar way, Howatt, cited by Richards and Rogers (1986), distinguishes between a strong and a weak version of the approach.

It is particularly useful that Littlewood makes clear which learners and teachers he is addressing, viz. those whose needs are described in the Threshold Level of Language Competence developed for European learners by the Council of Europe.

A paper by Brumfit (in Johnson & Morrow 1981) discussing the teaching of the general student at secondary level, calls for the retention of a structural core, around which a functional or notional "spiral" can be added. Brumfit suggests that both non-authentic and semi-authentic materials can be treated in such a way as to produce classroom communication through group discussion and the creation of interactive activities. He recommends that students be made aware of the accuracy/fluency objectives of various activities.

Other papers in this collection by Johnson & Morrow (1981), are focused on the possibilities and problems of teaching communication in the classroom. Morrow emphasises the importance of not confusing a function-notional syllabus with communicative methodology. Although lists of structures may have been replaced by lists of functions, topics and notional language areas, this does not guarantee that students will be taught to communicate. Morrow, Brumfit and Hawkes (1981 in Johnson & Morrow, 1981) all tackle the problematic area of foreseeable communicative needs. This is particularly acute at secondary school level, particularly in West Africa (Hawkes) where the linguistic needs of pupils are almost unforeseeable. To sum up, all these commentators recommend a method where the emphases are on interaction, teacher as facilitator, some attention to accuracy and grammar, and where materials are designed for practising communication.

All the issues discussed by commentators so far presuppose that language learning can be divided into discrete elements. Yalden (1983) cites the views of Breen and Candlin, Allwright and Alexander that no such isolation of elements could occur. According to these commentators, communicative competence can only be achieved by the practice of communication, progress being made through a series of tasks focused on the needs of the learner. In Breen's and Candlin's model, input would be minimal, and teacher involvement in, and direction of, the process of language use would be drastically curtailed. Those who subscribe to this view show a pre-occupation with methods and materials, the preparation of tasks by the teacher and with learner autonomy.

As Yalden (1983) points out in her conclusion, basic changes in methods demand completely new techniques of teaching and a change in the teacher's role which must be founded on the teacher's understanding of the latest theories of the psychology of language learning and recent views of language. She records Allwright's and Alexander's view that teachers need considerable skills as managers in order to cope with their new role.

2.3. Views of communicative language learning

Because of the diversity of issues, their complex relationships, and the inconsistent terminology used to describe them, communicative language learning cannot be seen as a simple dichotomy between those who are for or against it. We shall now report some discussions whose topics range from principles to details of classroom practice.

In spite of being the co-author of one of the communicative era's top-selling coursebooks worldwide, Swan (1985) writes a persuasive indictment against the communicative approach, stating that those who embrace it are "overgeneralising valid but limited insights, characterised by intellectual confusion and choked with jargon" (p.217). Although he accepts the distinction between rules of use and rules of usage, he denies that these need to be taught, since foreigners know the difference between human communication and learning *about* languages through their own experience and common sense. Similarly, learners already possess a notion of "appropriateness" and only need to have their attention drawn to it in particular instances, where it differs or might differ from their own interpretation. To Swan, most problems of inappropriacy are caused by insufficient lexis. Again, learners possess

language sub-skills, such as predicting, guessing, inferring etc. They know how to negotiate meaning. They simply need the words in the new language with which to do it. Problems of comprehension are more likely to be due to anxiety, overload, lack of interest or poor methodology. Teaching conversational strategies and the related metalanguage to a learner is a misdiagnosis of his needs. On syllabus design, Swan disagrees that it is a choice between a functional, notional or structural approach. Each of these will deal with only part of the learner's needs, which include phonology, lexis, situations and topics. Moreover, different proportions are demanded at different levels.

One contribution of a communicative approach is the promotion of *real* language in the classroom. However, this is not always what is needed. The classroom is not the real world, and classroom tasks and language which are not authentic may promote better learning. Students recognise this fact. Swan deplores the impositions placed on teachers by those who extol the communicative approach; teachers' guilt when using non-authentic materials, their anguish in struggling to use only target language and their dilemma at being advised to "discard" all previous materials and methods. There *is* room for authentic and non-authentic materials and for use of mother tongue.

The communicative approach has promoted a methodology which is less teacher-centred and more related to real life and yet, after ten years, there is no proof that it has produced a single student who communicates better in a foreign language than one taught using any other method.

Widdowson (in Rossner and Bolitho 1990) recognises Swan's persuasiveness but takes strong issue with his unacademic approach and the lack of explicit theoretical assumptions behind his arguments. He quotes his own earlier work (1978) in which the communicative approach was presented as an enquiry and in which he repudiated the idea of dogma. Swan, he says, has presented the approach as a collection of dogmas, only in order to make his denunciation more effective.

The papers present a not unsurprising gulf between the views of a practitioner and that of a theoretician. Both are persuasive. The weight of academic thought behind Widdowson's protests is easily recognisable, but, at the same time, many classroom teachers would align themselves behind Swan. In fact, at the end of the first decade of the communicative era, many modifications and readjustments introduced in the West, were prompted by the types of dissatisfaction that Swan addresses in his paper.

These two papers by Swan and Widdowson were written in response to a paper by Li Xiaojun who takes a very purist view in his defense of the application of the communicative approach in China (in Rossner & Bolitho 1990). Li Xiaojun contends that an entirely new philosophy of education is needed in that country to change a view of education as discipline to a view of education as development. According to him, a communicative approach would be in line with this new vision. It is, unfortunately, clear that this author gives us a view of "*what should be*" rather than "*what is*". (My emphasis)

Brumfit (in Johnson and Morrow 1981) recognised one problem of the approach when he wrote: "A description of functions is no more an application

of functions than a description of grammatical items is an application of them to a language situation" (p.254).

In his assessment of the communicative approach, he suggests, with a certain degree of cynicism, that the time was ripe for change and that publishers saw its introduction as a radical solution to problems of *class organisation* concerning teacher/pupil relationships rather than a problem of language. Once the approach was heralded in the early seventies, consensus followed, masses of tried and untried material were produced, and notional approaches were adopted by anyone with pretensions to be "up-to-date" whether or not they were appropriate or workable. Brumfit recommends that a strong structural basis needs to be maintained because the functions of communication can only be predicted in very general terms. Learners need structures and lexis to become creative enough to deal with unpredictability. Stereotype functional exponents can be learned in a behaviourist way to cope with conventional situations.

Medgyes (1986) presents a detailed, if depressing, picture of the ELT situation in schools in Hungary and he lists the enormous difficulties for the communicative teacher in that country. Many of the details of his paper reflect the situation in the majority of developing countries.

An overriding difficulty is the unpredictability of the future needs of the learners. Consequently, need cannot act as a source of motivation so all motivation must come from the teacher. Teachers find it easier to teach language as a body of knowledge than to teach learners to use it and special skills and characteristics are needed to teach communicatively. For example,

teachers require an encyclopedic knowledge of the world and an avid interest in the knowledge, ideas and opinions of their learners. New methods entail a complete change in the teacher's role. No longer a source of all knowledge, the teacher is an organiser, a gentle prompter who knows how to keep a low profile and when and how to withdraw from the teaching situation. At the same time, a feeling of security and good group dynamics must be established. Earlier textbooks made decisions for teachers; now teachers must decide whether and what to accept or reject. In reality there is no time to supplement or modify the textbook.

According to Medgyes, theory-makers present ideas as challenges and assume that teachers are militant against older ideas. There is an implicit promise that present difficulties will be compensated by a rich harvest of good language users. The normal worries of teachers are increased. Methodologists and material writers work from an entirely different perspective. New ideas are tried out by an "elite" of local teachers, working in "privileged" circumstances, sometimes with smaller groups and better resources, and once materials are deemed workable by them they are considered acceptable by all. Teachers, because of fatigue, modesty, lack of confidence or a wish to hide their true feeling, accept this situation. What is needed is mediators to act as filters, people who are preferably not native-speakers and are aware of the complexities and the linguistic strain under which "communicative" teachers work.

Medgyes' paper has been reported in detail because it reiterates so many of the realities affecting teachers in the constrained circumstances of

developing countries, who are encouraged to exchange their present modes of teaching for communicative methods.

In the next chapter, we shall present a case study of a materials development and teacher training project developed in the R.P. Congo, so that, in our conclusion, we may see how some of the problems cited by Medgyes can be approached.

CHAPTER THREE

Case Study of the British Council-INRAP ELT Project 1986-1993 Brazzaville, R.P. Congo

3.1. Background to the Congo

3.1.1. Geography and topography

The R.P. Congo is bounded to the north by Gabon, Cameroon and the Central African Republic and to the south by Angola and Zaire. Sixty per cent of the country is covered by tropical forest. In the north the climate is equatorial and in the south tropical. Less than two per cent of cultivable land is in use.

The capital, Brazzaville, which is the diplomatic and business centre, stands on the Congo River some 500 miles north-east of Pointe Noire, Africa's biggest Atlantic deep-water port, but the river is non-navigable between these two towns because of rapids. The country, much of which is impassable during the rainy season, has only 600-700 kms of tarmac road around the capital. In the northern half of the country, towns and villages can only be reached by boat, resulting in some very isolated communities. So the main transport systems are the river, air links and a railway line some 510 kms long, which links Brazzaville and Pointe Noire. Fast modern trains run between the capital and the coast once a day.

3.1.2. History

The Kingdom of the Congo first became known in the fifteenth century to Portuguese caravans travelling in West Africa. At this time Le Kongo included present-day Zaire, Angola, Congo and Gabon. Contact with the Portuguese had a great impact, as the head of Le Kongo welcomed Europeanisation and adopted a Portuguese name both for himself and for his capital city.

Towards the end of the 19th century, Savorgnan de Brazza and his companions began to explore the region on behalf of the French and in 1884 this part of West Africa became a French protectorate. As a result of this Le Kongo fell into the hands of European concessionaires who had the right to exploit most of the raw materials. The Congo became known as the Cinderella of the French Colonies and in spite of investigations led by de Brazza and by André Gide and Albert Londres, who all showed a philanthropic interest in the welfare of the people in this area, only slight improvements in conditions took place. In 1910 the three territories of Gabon, Congo and Chad became official French colonies, named collectively French Equatorial Africa, and the Congolese became French citizens.

It was 1960 before the West African states were conceded complete independence from France with their own presidents and governments. In the Congo, Marien Ngouabi transformed the country into a People's Republic. Since Ngouabi's assassination in 1979, Colonel Denis Sassou-Nguesso has led the country. His single-party government set up a 5-year plan for development (1982-1986) which became possible because of the discovery of

oil just prior to this date. In 1985 a three-year structural adjustment programme was introduced to continue the development programme.

On the 30th September, 1990, following an economic crisis, brought about partly because of the world recession but also in keeping with the recent trend in Eastern Europe, the Congolese government announced their intention to abandon their adherence to marxist-leninism and "scientific socialism" in favour of greater democracy. In other words, the government of the Congo needs to make itself politically acceptable to those countries and institutions, be they national, public or private, who can offer aid or loans to underpin the future development of the Congo.

3.1.3. The Language Situation in the Congo

The languages in the Congo can be categorised into three groups: the vernaculars, the national languages and French (Mawaka 1989). The number of vernaculars is estimated at between eighty and one hundred and ten. This multiplicity could have made communication between different tribal groups almost impossible were it not for the two *linguae francae* - Lingala and Kitubu. Tribal languages are classified either under Lingala or Kitubu, and most people can communicate in one of these two national languages.

French is the language superimposed on existing Congolese languages. It is the language of commerce, officialdom, the mass media and education, from primary to post-graduate level. It is widely used in daily communication among people from different language backgrounds and is the adopted mother tongue of some 'educated' families.

3.2. Background to the education system in the Congo

3.2.1. Congolese education system

The Government of the R.P. Congo has provided primary education for approximately 95% of those of the age group and according to the Loi Scolaire (September, 1980) all Congolese children have the right to 10 years of free Fundamental Education - 6 years at first level, corresponding to primary education, and 4 years at second level in a Collège d'Education Générale (CEG). At Lycée level, which covers three years, there are Arts and Science branches and in Brazzaville, the Université Marien Ngouabi has faculties of medicine, agronomy, economics, law, letters and foreign languages. There are six constituent institutes of the University, of which one is the Institut Supérieur des Sciences de l'Education (INSSSED) where English-language teachers and inspectors are trained; another is the Institut de Recherches et d'Action Pédagogiques (INRAP) where educational research and development programmes are carried out.

In 1985 there were 191 CEGs spread across the 10 regions of the country. Twenty-two of these were in Brazzaville. Of the twenty Lycées, the six in Brazzaville accounted for 13,000 of the total enrolment of 22,000.

The education system in the Congo is closely tied to the French system. Apart from the subject of English, the same materials are used, and the Baccalaureat is the exam taken at the end of the Lycée level.

3.2.2. English in the People's Republic of the Congo

Following meetings of Ministers, senior educators and students in 1985 (unpublished British Council ELT Profile 1985) it became clear that, although French would continue to be the main official language of the Congo, English was considered of prime importance. It was seen to facilitate international co-operation, to improve public relations and to further economic links. Students saw it as being significant to individual studies in terms of access to publications in English, listening to the radio, enhancing cultural understanding and to possible further studies in English-speaking countries. The limited number of opportunities to speak English or to travel to anglophone countries during the process of studying was much regretted.

3.2.3. Languages in the Congolese Education System

Some of the tribal languages, as well as Lingala and Kitubu, have a written form and the latter two have an established literature but none is taught at school. French is the language of instruction at all levels.

By the time Congolese pupils start primary school they normally have a good spoken mastery of their mother tongue, of the lingua franca spoken in their environment and of French. This applies particularly if they come from an educated family.

Spanish, Chinese, Russian, Arabic, English, German and Italian are also taught as optional school subjects and at university.

3.2.4. English in the Congolese Education System

English is the only language which remains compulsory throughout the four years of CEG and the three years of Lycée, leading finally to the Baccalauréat. At tertiary level, it becomes the language of instruction for science and students of English and is taught principally in the Faculty of Arts and at INSSSED.

English for Academic Purposes is offered in the Science Faculty and in the medical, agronomy, and economic faculties as well as at some of the management institutes.

The American Cultural Centre in Brazzaville organises English courses for adults, but cannot cater to the increasing demand.

3.2.5. English in Secondary Education

In the CEG, English is taught for 5 hours a week and is a subject in the Brevet d'Etudes Moyennes Générales (BEMG), which is taken by pupils at the end of the fourth year. The English exam, set by CEG Inspectors of English in close collaboration with teachers of English, is basically a 200-word reading comprehension test, with multiple choice and grammar-oriented questions relating to parts of the text. Pupils also have to write an essay on a topic related to the subject of the text (See Appendix H). There is no oral component to the exam.

The National Baccalauréat is taken at the end of the last year of Lycée. Although it is a national exam, there are two English Language Inspectors who exert a particular influence on its composition. According to the 1985 British Council Report, it consisted, at that time, of a 300-word text with comprehension questions and a short section translating part of the text into French. Since then, there have been moves to reform the English language Baccalauréat, but specimens so far produced have maintained a bias towards a text with comprehension questions, the main difference being an emphasis on multiple-choice instead of open-ended questions.

3.2.6. Teacher Population

See Appendix B

3.2.7. Teacher Training

In 1989 there were 625 teachers of English in the Congo. They were of diverse educational backgrounds and had undergone different training procedures. Lycée teachers require a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree plus a one-year teacher training course at the Institut Supérieur des Sciences de l'Education (INSSED). They can enter this Institute simply by request. Also trained at INSSED are formally unqualified teachers who, at present, teach levels F.7.- F.10. at junior secondary school. They have to sit an entry examination and undergo a two-year teacher training programme. They must have at least 3 years teaching experience before they can apply to enter. At the end of the programme, both groups sit for the same final examination, the

Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique de l'Enseignement Littéraire (CAPEL) and are then considered to be qualified teachers.

The syllabus for English language teachers at this institute has two major components, the first theoretical, which includes literature, study skills, language skills, grammar and linguistics, and the second teaching skills, which include micro-teaching and teaching practice. The focus of the course in 1989 (Mawaka) was still on the structural-situational approach to language learning, in keeping with the textbooks and syllabus in use at the senior secondary school level (Lycée), but more recently an attempt has been made to introduce "communicative" language teaching methodology.

In schools, there are on-the-spot training schemes to help unqualified teachers by way of Groupes de Recherche Pédagogique led by a head or qualified teacher. This person assists in common preparation of lesson plans, organises classroom observation and advises new teachers. In Brazzaville, the American Cultural Centre also organises some seminars and workshops for teachers of English. These are led by American teachers and suitable visitors from the United States, and sometimes by British Council personnel.

3.3. The New Textbook Project (1986)

3.3.1. Rationale behind the Project

Following a decision by the Ministry of Education in 1979, the next six years saw the expansion of the English section at INSSSED. It was believed that

the development of pre-service training would lead to an improved curriculum and better education and training of teachers through a cascade effect.

However, in 1984 there was a general questioning of the objectives and orientation of English Language teaching in the Congo and in 1985 a national forum was held in Brazzaville to identify the problems and propose solutions. An ELT Profile, (Palfrey, unpublished British Council Document 1985) was drawn up by a British Council KELT (Key English Language Teaching) officer, John Palfrey. This acknowledged the need for workers at all levels to have a knowledge of English because of recent economic developments.

At the same time, this Profile reported an extremely low standard of student attainment and a very low degree of motivation, particularly at CEGs. It attributed this state to many of the constraints referred to in Chapter One.

Palfrey described the textbooks used both in CEGs and Lycée as "extremely poor both from a linguistic and a methodological point of view" (p. 2). The document concludes that in these two areas of education, teachers needed a great deal of support which they were not getting. It suggested an intensive scheme of in-service training for teachers already in the field, with an emphasis on out-reach work, together with the reform of the syllabus, examinations and methods. The profile reported that, through input from the KELT programme, linguistic and professional competence was rising at the tertiary level but that many of those who did qualify from this section were often promoted out of the classroom.

3.3.2. Objectives of the Project

Following the 1985 report, a project was undertaken by INRAP and the British Council whose overall goal was to improve English Language teaching at CEG and Lycée levels (Unpublished British Council-INRAP document). Two main objectives were established:

Objective 1 The development of a viable Inspectorate through

1. In-service training
2. Courses in the U.K.
3. Regional workshops

Objective 2 The re-design of the present syllabus and the development of more appropriate materials by:

1. Sending 3-12 teachers/trainers a year for professional training in the U.K.
2. Establishing liaison between a KELT officer and a counterpart from INSSED and INRAP
3. Analysing and exploiting existing materials through seminars at national and regional level
4. Developing new resources and materials for teachers
5. Supporting the reform of BEMG and Baccalauréat exams.

Through negotiation with the British Council, a second KELT officer, Joseph Neil, was appointed to the English Section of INRAP to work on what is known now as the British Council-INRAP New Textbook Project. He was to be

responsible for designing the syllabus, producing materials and organising in-service teacher training programmes. The project started in 1986 and covers the first four years at secondary school, namely from levels F.7 to F.10.

Much of the information in this chapter was provided by this KELT officer, Joseph Neil in a personal interview.

3.3.3. Materials development

The materials most widely used at the second level of Fundamental Education in 1985 were J. and S. Bouet's "L'Anglais en Afrique et à Madagascar" (Hatier 1972 edition), a detailed lexical, phonemic and syntactical syllabus for F7-10 (September 1983) and the Grammaire Anglaise (F7-F8) published in 1984. The syllabus and grammar both emanated from the English section of INRAP. According to Neil in his needs analysis, members of the English section at this time lacked up-to-date training in English language methodology and materials production, which accounted for the archaic approach evident in the manuals they had produced up to this time. A commission was set up to examine other textbooks with a view to selecting a different one and to developing the new syllabus for CEGs.

In 1985 the books chosen by the Ministry of Education for levels F.7-10, on Neil's recommendation, were the revised editions of "English for French Speaking Africa" (EFSA) 6ème, 5ème and 4ème. (1985) The edition for the 3ème was not available. The approach taken in this series depended on the level and was based on a mélange of communicative awareness and structural and functional-notional competence. The implied syllabus within the series

was seen to be in line with the one outlined by the Ministry, which in turn was based on the Council of Europe's "Waystage" level. A presentation of two thousand, five hundred copies of EFSA was made by the Overseas Development Agency (ODA) of the United Kingdom through the British Council. Three out of five teachers throughout the country received one copy of the relevant coursebook for each level they taught.

In the scholastic year 1986-87, EFSA 6ème was introduced at the first two levels - F.7 and F.8., with a recommendation that teachers work through one unit each week for three weeks and then revise these three units, leading to a more complete revision at the end of each of the three terms in the year (see Appendix C). As was seen in Chapter One, teachers had problems coping with the new book and these recommendations, so a modified programme for F.7. and F.8 was produced for use in 1986-87.

3.3.4 New Programme - March 1986 (Unpublished INRAP internal document).

The stated General Objectives of this modified programme were:

1. To speak simple and correct English adapted to the conditions of the situation in which the speaker finds himself.
2. To understand an anglophone speaker in the communicative situations of daily life.
3. To read and understand a simple text.
4. To write the language which has been taught correctly.

The new programme, to be used at F.7 and F.8., listed functional and notional areas of language, relating these to Units in EFSA and included an

accompanying chart which indicated when to use or revise the listed Units of the book.

As was indicated in Chapter One, several problems arose from the introduction of this new programme and the use of EFSA and test results proved very disappointing, only 45 pupils out of 380 tested (11.42%) achieving the pass mark of 50%. Neil and his team at INRAP therefore set out to try to remedy these problems. They planned to re-select and re-arrange the content of the EFSA and to write and distribute new Teacher's Guides which were to be couched in terms comprehensible to teachers with limited training and which took into consideration the limited resources of many Congolese classrooms. National seminars in Brazzaville and other seminars in provincial towns were to be organised in order to help practising teachers use the new Guides and textbooks and to begin to acquire an understanding of the new methods contained in both.

The remainder of this case-study will be based on the work done in the New Textbook Project and will focus on the materials and training provided for teachers of English at F.7 and F.8., the two lowest classes at secondary level.

3.3.5. Teachers Guides for F.7 and F.8

The first version of the Teachers Guide to EFSA 6ème, produced in 1987 by the Project team, began with a section setting out some general principles of language teaching. These aimed at moving teachers away from grammar explanation methods, from oral repetition with little reference to meaning, and from the copying by students of long texts from the board. It set out to help

teachers to plan their own lessons according to the level of their class and the context (rural or urban) in which they found themselves. It also introduced the idea of focusing on the four skills, adding variety to lessons, using the blackboard as a stimulus for interaction and selecting from the textbook rather than working through every section of it.

The team at INRAP re-organised the content of EFSA 6ème so that functional, notional or structural items could be taught systematically in a way which was considered to be more pedagogically sound (Neil). Detailed suggestions were provided for four, forty-minute lessons per week for the twenty-six weeks of the school year.

Each lesson was numbered and the main teaching point of each lesson was given. References were then given to the part or parts of the unit or units from EFSA which were to be used in the lesson. For example:

LESSON 2 EFSA 6ème Unit 7 Section C D E F I

Main Teaching Point: LIVES, WORKS + names of places

Brief instructions were then given as to how to proceed using simple techniques such as blackboard drawing, and examples were given of charts, grids and matrices to be used for listening activities and for prompting semi-communicative pair practice. Structural items were all taught inductively and grammatical "terminology" was kept to a minimum. Instructions for classroom management were written in short, direct sentences (see Appendix I).

It can be seen that the approach taken by INRAP was eclectic but aimed at communicative competence, albeit limited to those items contained within the textbook.

The Guide was piloted by teachers at rural schools at Kinkala and Maombe and, following discussions and feedback, was subject to re-writing. It was clear that teachers needed even more specific guidance.

The final version of the 6ème Guide (1988) began with a comprehensive explanation of some techniques of an interactive approach and an outline of "What to Avoid" (see Appendices J and K). The Guide maintained the basic format of the previous version, viz. division into lessons, specification of teaching points and reference to units or parts of units in EFSA to be taught, but prescribed classroom procedures in far greater detail. The first twenty lessons were fully structured, even as far as giving questions to be asked and expected responses, when and what to write on the board, and how to organise this information on the board. Classroom methods were very simply worded, and, in later lessons, reminders of good classroom practice and warnings of possible confusions were included. The writers assumed that only the teacher had a copy of the coursebook and that pupils had copybooks and pencils. By the end of the Guide, teachers would have been exposed to, and would have had a chance to practice, a wide range of techniques for communicative teaching covering all four skills. Advice on oral, written and peer correction was given. As in the first version, all grammar was taught inductively and the teacher was assumed to have a reasonable knowledge of grammatical labels and understanding of structures. However, no complex metalanguage was used in

the Guide, instead a mixture of example and simple grammatical description, was used, e.g. (pp. 72-73).

"Main Teaching Point: AGO + simple past. HOW LONG AGO?"

"Main Teaching Point: CAN, CAN'T plus verb."

Teachers were advised how to avoid confusing pupils when dealing with more difficult grammatical structures and were given simple explanations for their own background knowledge. EFSA was originally written to be used in Nigeria and the Guide suggests that teachers change any culturally inappropriate names or items.

(see Appendixes F and I for comparison with official published Teacher's Guide)

Summary of classroom practices contained in the Guide.

1. Overall progression of a lesson.
2. Oral presentation of lesson content (structure, lexis or function) using blackboard drawing, mime or simple classroom objects.
3. Elicitation techniques to avoid mechanical repetition, to check understanding and provide content for writing and reading exercises.
4. Development of blackboard techniques for use as prompts for teacher-student or pair practice, and for listening, reading and writing exercises.
5. Micro-dialogues and semi-communicative pair practice based on blackboard prompts.

6. Reconstruction of texts on to blackboard by using "Wh" and other question types to provide writing and reading practice; (see Appendix L for details of exercise types.)
7. Oral, written, peer and self correction.
8. Using picture stories and telling stories for listening.
9. Simplifying longer texts and producing picture stories from text.

3.4. National Seminar for teachers of English at secondary level

Since 1987, two-day seminars and workshops for English Language teachers have been organised throughout the country with the KELT officer and other members of the Project team. National Seminars for secondary school teachers were held in Brazzaville at the Université Marien Ngouabi once a year from 1986 through 1990. The following detailed report of the 1988 National Seminar for English Teachers provides additional information about the circumstances affecting English language teaching in the R.F. Congo.

This seminar, which took place at INRAP, Brazzaville from 11th-25th July, 1988 was organised in conjunction with the Overseas Development Agency and with the co-operation of The British Council. All preliminary in-country work had been carried out by the Project team. Two British Council consultants, who arrived 5 days before the seminar began for briefing and general orientation, joined the team for the duration of the seminar.

3.4.1 The aim of the Seminar

The title of the seminar was "English in the CEGP: The new textbook." and its aim was, "To give participants some insights into communicative

methodology with special reference to the coursebook English for French-Speaking Africa which had been in use in all F.7 (Form I) classes since the beginning of the school year (September 1987)". (ODA Document requesting British co-operation 1987, p. 2). This reflected the recommendation made in the report on the 1987 National seminar which called for more consistent reference to be made to EFSA in designing the programme for 1988. (Unpublished British Council report 1987).

3.4.2. Participants

Besides Joseph Neil, and the two U.K. consultants, two Congolese members of INRAP took an active part in the seminar. Anicet Mawaka, (a recent TESOL diploma (U.K.) graduate) took complete charge of the language awareness component; Samuel Vandounou, observed and assisted the two U.K. consultants.

The 72 participants, comprised CEG teachers and inspectors from Brazzaville and other regions. Teachers were selected because they had not previously attended a seminar or because they came from remote schools and had little or no contact with English speaking colleagues. Very few had attended National seminars in previous years. All 12 inspectors were present for all or part of the seminar.

The age and teaching experience of the teachers covered a wide range. None were graduates. The language level of the participants ranged from pre-intermediate to advanced. About eight were very fluent and showed an

excellent command of the use of English as well as a good understanding of structures and a functional-notional approach. Not all inspectors were amongst this group.

3.4.3. Rationale for the programme

The linguistic approach adopted at each level of the textbook (EFSA) was different (and consequently the techniques promoted in the equivalent Teacher's Guide produced by INRAP), so it was decided that each tutor would focus on one level for the duration of the Seminar. The author of this thesis focused on F.7. using EFSA 6ème. This coursebook followed a strongly functional approach with an emphasis on basic oral skills. EFSA 5ème contained more texts as well as dialogues and greater emphasis was put on grammatical structures. At this level teachers needed to be able to teach through picture stories since they formed a major component of the book. The coursebook for F.9. and F.10 (EFSA 4ème) contained mostly page-long texts and comprehension questions. At this level, teachers needed to know how to edit texts, get them on to the blackboard and get them transferred into the pupils' books without a laborious copying process

It was decided to emphasize the skilful use of the blackboard as it was the only written resource available to pupils, none of whom had a copy of the coursebook. The tutors identified with the constraints experienced by Congolese teachers, by using the blackboard extensively and not using any photocopies.

3.4.4. Programme

The first day of the National Seminar was devoted primarily to a discussion between teachers and tutors, since only 24 participants were present. It was basically an informal needs analysis and an airing of the expectations of the participants. This gave the visiting consultants a chance to get a deeper understanding of the real situation vis-à-vis teachers and to reconsider the programme content. The next five days focused on those specific classroom techniques which were considered useful at all four levels. Teachers attended four, one-hour sessions per day, one devoted to language development and three to methodology. The areas covered through demonstration and discussion are given in Appendix M

The second week provided an opportunity for the practical application of these techniques in micro-teaching situations. Teachers attended three, 90-minute sessions per day, each focusing on a different level. After a brief review by the tutor, teachers, in pairs, prepared to teach a 15-minute excerpt from a lesson from EFSA. This was taught individually, and then evaluated by the teachers themselves, tutors and inspectors

During this second week, each two-day block had a theme:

1. Oral skills and the blackboard
2. Reading and listening skills and the blackboard
3. Writing skills and the blackboard.

During these sessions, special attention was given to the identification of the language items to be taught and to the integration of skills.

CHAPTER FOUR

Evaluation of the British Council/INRAP Project 1986-1993

Brazzaville - R.P. Congo.

According to British Council, INRAP and Overseas Development Agency (ODA) sources, no summative evaluation of the Project was done by an external expert or group of experts. A representative of ODA discussed the Project with the writer of this thesis, in December 1991, basing her remarks on an ODA review of the Project in 1990. The figures she gave and some of her remarks are included in the sections below. Mawaka (1989) reports that each stage of the project was subject to formative evaluation through discussions with inspectors, lecturers from the Higher Institute of Education (INSSSED), classroom teachers, pupils, parents and the INRAP team. No recorded version of these discussions was available to the writer.

4.1. General evaluation of the Project

The ODA representative reminded us that in addition to the upgrading of teachers' skills, three main objectives of the Project were interlinked and were:

- The promotion of collaboration between institutes;
- The updating of methods of assessment;
- The dissemination of more appropriate materials.

It was considered that the first objective had been achieved fairly well, since INRAP, INSSSED, the Université Marien Ngouabi, The British Council and the ODA are now collaborating in all aspects of the advancement of English language learning in the Congo (Personal communication with ODA representative: December 1991). There had been some institutional rivalry

over the responsibility for the distribution of the Teachers' Guides and it was not clear if all teachers had received their copies. With regard to the upgrading of skills, 229 teachers out of 625 had taken part in national and regional seminars and 125 teachers had been visited by advisors and inspectors in four out of the ten regions. The Inspectorate now numbered twenty, all of whom had been on courses in the U.K. Nearly fifty per cent of all teachers, inspectors and administrators had visited the U.K. for language courses, specialised or post-graduate courses. Doubt was expressed about the utilization of those studying at the doctoral level in the U.K., since time spent on these courses had always exceeded what had been foreseen in awarding funds for such study. The ODA felt that the skills and experience gained by Inspectors from study abroad was not being fully utilised. This group could be a strong catalyst for change.

The up-dating of forms of assessment was left till later in the Project and was started in early 1992. This will continue until the Project ends in 1993. The BEMG and Baccalauréat examinations remain unchanged at present, but English has become a compulsory subject at Baccalauréat level and at tertiary levels for technical, legal and medical students. As many members of INRAP are now involved in the Project, they are not only learning about assessment and testing principles and techniques, but are being exposed to the whole process of Project development and its evaluation.

Regarding new materials, the production of the Teachers' Guides was well behind schedule which has meant a lack of synchronisation in their distribution and that of EFSA.

4.2. Evaluation of the Teachers' Guides for EFSA 6ème and 5ème (1987, 1988 and 1990)

Mawaka stresses that no unit of new material in the Teacher's Guides has ever been printed without being tried out in real classroom situations in both rural and urban contexts, that is in Kinkala and Matombe. The first version of the Teacher's Guides to EFSA 6ème was based on the assumption that teachers plan their own lesson according to the level and context (rural or urban) of their class. Oral work was stressed, copying was de-emphasized and simple methods of encouraging reading and writing were demonstrated, while an emphasis on understanding and meaningful communication was encouraged. Self and peer correction was explained. However, following discussions of the kind described above, the Guides were re-written taking account of the criticisms and suggestions voiced. An even more highly structured step-by-step guide was found to be needed and these suggestions were built into the final versions. However, a criticism in the ODA review (1990 reported through personal communication) of the Guide to EFSA 6ème (1988) and of the revised version of the Guide to EFSA 5ème (1990) was that they were aimed at too low a common denominator and should be revised to meet the needs of a wider range of teachers. The first version of the Pupil's Workbook to accompany the 6ème Guide was prepared but was found to use too much paper and was too bulky and expensive to produce so it was considerably reduced in size (see Appendix N).

4.3. Evaluation of the 1988 National Seminar

Following post-seminar discussions between Neil, Mawaka and the visiting consultants, a general but positive evaluation appeared in a report sent to the British Council (Westrup and Ewington 1988, unpublished report to the British Council). In spite of a slow start due to administrative and travelling difficulties, a great deal of ground had been covered. The main points of this evaluation are given below.

4.3.1. Evaluation of the programme of the National Seminar

On the first day of the Seminar only 30 teachers out of the 72 invited were present and it was Day 4 before the full complement was present. This was because some participants had not received information about the Seminar and many had had long and difficult journeys from remote parts of Congo. Although the content of the programme was considered appropriate, the sequencing was not successful since many participants missed some vital components presented at the beginning of the Seminar which had to be re-presented before the workshops of the second week could start. Tutors recommended that practical constraints such as this should be considered when designing a programme.

4.3.2. General remarks

A marked improvement was noted in the general ability to:

1. Recognise language items to be taught (from EFSA at all levels)

2. Elicit "known language" and create interaction by skilful questioning
- 3.. Organise blackboard work and use the blackboard as a "Process screen" and as a means of developing a lesson (Westrup and Ewington 1988 Unpublished report to the British Council p.4)

Many teachers became aware of their "teacher talk" and learnt to give simple, clear instructions to pupils. But generally there still appeared to be a need to concentrate on the control of the language input, especially when teachers needed to compose and execute written and oral practice. Some understood well the need to limit the language of examples and exercises to what had been taught previously, but others needed further practice to avoid confusing their pupils by an overload of untaught vocabulary or a mixture of taught and untaught structures, especially in the area of aspects of tense and modals.

About six teachers were considered to be outstanding in their understanding and handling of language in the classroom and this ability seemed to be linked to an understanding of all the elements of a well-structured lesson. As a result, their confidence and other classroom management skills improved. Some of these had been at previous regional or national seminars and the effect of this previous exposure to new methods, plus the interim time in the classroom to try out new methods, was immediately obvious.

The tutors recognised the immense enthusiasm of most of the participants and acknowledged their requests for more occasions in which to up-grade their language skills and teaching methods.

In discussion with participants after the seminar, there was, on the whole, reservation about the application of the new methods in a Congolese teaching environment, but the those who had attended previous seminars confirmed enthusiastically that it was possible to introduce them even in large classes and that, as a consequence, the motivation and participation of pupils was greatly enhanced. Participants were very keen to obtain their copy of the Teacher's Guide, which was to be circulated the week following the seminar, problems of obtaining paper and manpower restrictions having prevented their distribution at the Seminar.

4.3.3. Evaluation of micro-teaching

Tutors recognised that micro-teaching can be very threatening to some teachers whose English language proficiency was not of a high level and whose concept of the role of a teacher was contradicted by the new methods. Younger teachers, who appeared to be more receptive to the innovative techniques being practised, were openly critical and vocal about the shortcomings of their less able and often older colleagues during feedback sessions. Tutors recommended that great care should be taken in the organisation of feedback after micro-teaching and that other techniques which produce less overt criticism, such as written peer comment or the completion of an observation sheet, should be used.

4.4. Summary

The ODA review in 1990 stated that overall, the Project had made a big impact on English language teaching in the Congo. Collaboration between Institutes had markedly improved and there had been an attempt to upgrade the skills of almost fifty per cent of teachers. No systematic evaluation of the effect of the new textbook nor of the Teacher's Guide had been carried out but feedback from previous participants at seminars, who had already had some training in using the guide and trying out the new methods, was very positive.

In December 1991 funds were still available for the continuation of the Project to its closing, but cutbacks were quite possible. This, together with problems of communication exacerbated by the difficult infra-structure of the country, means that the hoped-for regional documentation centres will probably not be set up in the near future (Personal communication with ODA representative, December 1991).

This evaluation has been confined to official reports and documents and discussions with those authorities responsible for the Project, but in the conclusion to this study which follows, we shall present a personal evaluation of the project in the light of the whole background of the educational and language learning situation in the Congo.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusions

In Chapter One, after clarifying questions of overlapping and often confusing terminology, we outlined some definitions of Communicative Language Teaching and concluded that, in order to discuss communicative *methods*, we needed to consider the related aspects of *approach* in one direction and *techniques* in the other. We also needed to examine the roles of teachers and pupils, the nature of materials used and the exact type of classroom activity and interaction, since these are components of Richards' and Rogers' concept of "design" which we decided to subsume under Anthony's label of "method". (Richards and Rogers 1986). Because the term "method" covers such a wide spectrum of components, it is not easy to say whether all or some of the features of communicative language teaching methods promote improved communicative competence. Fortunately, this is not under question in this thesis and we are able to start from the premise that such teaching methods do foster communicative competence.

In this conclusion, we shall, therefore, first assess whether the features of the method introduced in the ELT In-Service Teacher Development Project in the Congo can be considered "communicative" according to Finocchiaro and Brumfit's definition (see Appendix A). We shall also assess the role of the teacher, the pupil and the materials (EFSA and the Teacher's Guide) in the Congo model to see if they can be considered "communicative" in the sense specified by Littlewood (1981). Richards and Rogers, (1986) and Breen and Candlin (in Richards and Rogers 1986). We shall then look at the strengths and weakness of the Project as a whole, in the light of the many constraints of

the language teaching environment in the Congo and discuss to what extent communicative methods are workable there. It will be useful at this stage to compare the Congo model with other projects in developing countries that have attempted to solve similar problems in a similar teaching environment. This thesis will end with some recommendations based on the observations recorded in this chapter and on comments within the literature.

5.1. How communicative are the methods promoted by the Congo ELT Project?

5.1.1. Finocchiaro and Brumfit's list of features as criteria

The features listed below of the method adopted in the Congo Project should be equated with those set out by Brumfit (see Appendix A).

1. Meaning is promoted through demonstration and blackboard drawing techniques. Understanding is checked by elicitation and exercises during the lesson.
2. Dialogues are presented and occasionally practised by choral and group drilling.
3. All language is contextualised.
4. All learning leads to either oral or written communication, which is usually fairly controlled and sometimes personalised.
5. The prescriptive nature of the activities means that communication is effective *within the goals set*.
6. Written and oral drilling is "communicative", i.e. there is a small choice or unpredictability.

7. Pronunciation is treated within the lesson as the need occurs.
8. Learners are motivated by involvement and through the variety of activities and interaction patterns.
9. Lesson One of the F.7. Guide contains gap-filling written exercises and very simple controlled role play.
10. No guidance is provided in the Guide as to the use of mother tongue.
11. Translation is not an activity included in the Guides, nor is it mentioned as an additional activity.
12. Lesson One of the Guide to EFSA 6ème includes reading and writing.
13. Pupils are *not* given the chance to "struggle to communicate". Free language practice is limited to revision of recently taught items elicited at the start of the lesson or to a "guided" activity at the end.
14. The goal of the Project is communicative competence through linguistic competence.
15. Linguistic variation is NOT a central concept in the method nor in the materials.
16. The sequence of structures and functional exponents presented is NOT specifically arranged to maintain interest. It roughly follows the scheme of the coursebooks, but was an adaptation by the materials development team of the original sequence in EFSA to facilitate easier teaching and learning.
17. The method uses a wide variety of activities and exercise types which are easily completed by most pupils giving a high success rate. Both factors help boost motivation.
18. There is little opportunity for pupils to create language except in response to teacher elicitation.

19. The focus of the method and materials is on accuracy but fluency is considered the final goal.
20. Pupils interact with the teacher and with one other student. There is NO indication in the guide that pupils should work in groups.
21. Most language used by pupils is pre-determined by the teacher or the book.
22. FSA originated in Nigeria but the Guide recommends teachers to make changes to reflect the life and culture of the Congo. Topics are mundane and generally "schoolish" and do not include topics generally expected to interest pupils at these levels.

5.1.2. Summary

According to Brumfit's list (see Appendix A), the method proposed in the Project can be considered as having most of the features of a communicative approach, but because of certain omissions it could not be considered fully communicative in the sense of Candlin and Breen's definition (in Yalden 1983). Language is NOT learned purely through tasks and though the lessons are activity-based, the goals are linguistic and the language output can usually be predicted. The learner does NOT contribute as much as he gains and the method is certainly NOT learner-centred.

Brumfit's list does not specify details about the syllabus nor about the specific nature of the role of the teacher, except by a passing reference to motivation. The question of the teacher's role is crucial to most interpretations of a communicative method and White (1988) and Shamim (1991) state that it is often the factor that creates most problems in the introduction of communicative

methods in language learning in developing countries. We need therefore to determine how the Congo model stands with regard to the characteristics and responsibilities of a communicative language teacher as seen by Littlewood (1981), Richards and Rogers (1986) and Candlin and Breen (in Yalden 1983). (see Chapter 1)

Although interaction between teacher and pupils is far greater in the new model than in former models of teaching in the Congo, it is still very teacher-centred, the pupils being almost always in a responding position, and given very limited opportunities to engage in free language, to experiment or to "struggle to negotiate with a partner". A Congolese teacher is required to encourage lively interaction and to organise and engage the attention of a very large number of pupils. (S)he should be able to use the board effectively so as to provide visual and aural stimuli and to create activities and exercises for pupils who have no access to the course- or work-book. (S)he needs to be a skilled questioner, first to engender response to elicitation and check understanding of meaning and linguistic concepts and, second, so that texts and exercises can be reconstructed on the board. The linguistic competence required in English is bounded by what is contained in the course book, plus sufficient language to organise the class and activities. The teacher is not expected to cope with an unpredictable language situation, nor to have an avid interest in the needs and learning strategies of each individual pupil, nor to have a wide knowledge of the world. In other words, the teacher's role has changed, but so little that, once (s)he has mastered the "interactive" techniques and sharpened up her/his classroom management practices, (s)he should not be particularly discomforted by the new methods. In no way can the teacher's or learner's roles in the Congo model be described as "communicative".

The syllabus (Programme d'Anglais 1987) for F.6 and F.7. lists functions to be learnt during the two years and so, according to some commentators, could be termed "communicative". (Yalden 1983) Although EFSA 6ème is function-based, it is possible to detect structural elements within the content. In EFSA 5ème, this structural bias becomes stronger and the functional elements are less evident, since there is a story-line, presented through texts and dialogues. Some revision units are topic-based. The writers of the Guides have converted this mélange of approaches into one with an almost entirely structural basis, since the long-term objective of the course is to pass a mainly structural exam. However, they have succeeded in doing this through using communicative techniques, most of which are closely allied to Candlin's typology of activities and exercise types. In the next section we assess whether the techniques advocated and project as a whole can be considered workable in view of the constraints of the language teaching environment in the Congo.

5.2. Strengths and weakness of the Congo model.

5.2.1.1. Strengths of the techniques used in the Guides

On the whole the techniques promoted by the Guides can be described as communicative, even though the communication is restricted both by the confines of EFSA and the classroom conditions. It is evident that the techniques used are effective for the following reasons:

1. Boredom is alleviated since all children are involved and active most of the time even in large classes.

2. Some familiar techniques (drilling) are used; i.e. aspects of the audio-lingual methods are maintained where appropriate.
3. All four language skills are practised.
4. Presentation and practice methods are visual and varied and therefore motivating.
5. Correction techniques suitable to large classes are learned.
6. Language is used in situations which are close to normal conversation use i.e. with the emphasis on meaning.
7. No sophisticated resources are required.

5.2.1.2. Weaknesses of the techniques

1. The methods include only limited pair work as the noise level is difficult to control in large classes. No small group work is advocated.
2. Pupils are always in a "responding" situation with regard to the teacher.
3. Pupils have very limited opportunity for creating "free" language.
4. Pupils have little opportunity to exercise the sub-skills of e.g. prediction, inference. The programme, as it stands, includes no extended reading or listening activities.
5. At some points, teachers are recommended to "create" activities based on earlier examples. Those who had not yet attended workshops or seminars might find this creativity difficult.

5.2. Strengths and weakness of the Project

5.2.2.1. Strengths of the Project

No statistics have so far been produced to confirm whether the Project has had a marked effect on achievement. However, in the opinion of the writer, it had many favourable characteristics.

1. A communicative learning style was being introduced to teachers and used by pupils, i.e. language learning is based on use through co-operative, interactional activities and not primarily as an individual, competitive academic subject.

2. The Project exploited all resources at present available both in the classroom and throughout the country.

3. The Guides were cheap to produce as they used local materials and services. They were pitched to the appropriate meta-language and teaching proficiency of most teachers. They can be used as a step-by-step guide for teachers who have had no previous training in communicative methods and who have not yet attended seminars.

4. Regional workshops and national seminars re-motivate teachers, particularly those from remote areas, and give them further language practice in English.

5. Both Guides imposed a structural framework on to a functional textbook so that even though the methods advocated were new to Congolese teachers, they could find security in recognising the structural items to be taught. The methods lead to linguistic as well as communicative competence and pupils know that this will help them pass the end of year exams. Realistic and achievable linguistic targets were set.

6. Teachers are introduced to a repertoire of communicative activities which, it is hoped, will lead to an underlying understanding of the principles of the approach.

7. There is no immediate change of role for the teacher who learns to relinquish control gradually. Students learn to be autonomous gradually.

8. Linguistic demands on the teachers are limited to what has been taught plus some simple organisation phrases. No instructions restricting the use of the mother tongue are included.

9. The Project is based on a book that is available and that is culturally fairly appropriate.

10. The method introduced satisfied the Ministry since it had many of the features of a communicative method which is said to promote communicative competence, a prime object of the Project.

11. The distribution of responsibility within the Project improved co-operation between all Institutes dealing with English Language learning throughout the Congo.

5.2.2.2. Weaknesses of the Project

1. The very prescriptive nature of the Guides limits teacher creativity and makes no allowance for more experienced teachers.

2. The techniques demand interactional, creative, organisational and linguistic skills which, even though they are not necessarily *more* demanding, are different from those previously required of teachers.

3. Teachers were only involved in the innovation after its conception. Those teachers who had experience of the methods from courses in the U.K. or were naturally more creative were conscious that the Project was imposed from

above and were slightly resentful that they had not been consulted from the start.

5.3. General assessment of the Project

According to the writer of this thesis, the Congo Project has the characteristics of a successful innovation mainly because it was implemented with a very realistic view of the constraints of the whole language teaching environment in mind.

The whole Project focuses finally on the Teacher's Guides and the teacher development programme was designed to help teachers learn the skills needed for the techniques contained within the Guides to be put into practice. These techniques are clearly and simply explained and specially designed to work in constrained conditions. They are acceptable both from the point of view of teachers and pupils. Many of the activities are adaptations of an audio-lingual method which has been the foundation of language teaching in the Congo for many years and the communicative activities introduced are not very strongly innovative. The teacher remains the central figure in the classroom. The change of role from "fount of all knowledge" to that of communicative teacher takes place over a long period in imperceptible steps. As well as giving lesson-by-lesson instructions as to how to teach through EFSA, the Teacher's Guides steer the teacher towards communicative teaching, techniques which are clearly spelled out in the earlier stages, recycled, then reduced until the teacher can use the book with very little support.

The level of student proficiency in English attained through working with the INRAP Guides seems extremely low compared with that expected from the published guide. However, this, too, is based on a realistic view of what can be achieved by pupils who have no exposure to the language except in the classroom, little motivation and who are required to sit an almost entirely structural exam.

Motivation seems to have played an important part in the attempt to improve pupils' communicative competence. This was done by stimulating greater pupil involvement through elicitation techniques involving the whole class and by pairwork, by varying activity types and including all four skills and by careful grading so that success is experienced by most pupils. The context is based on simple life experiences with which Congolese pupils can identify.

Now that we have assessed the Congo Project, it is interesting to compare it to other projects in developing countries where objectives and constraints are very similar.

5.4. Comparison with innovative projects in other developing countries

In two projects in which the aim has been to improve the communicative competence of pupils in secondary schools, the word "communicative" has deliberately been omitted from the project title precisely because its exact meaning is so ill-defined and therefore often misunderstood.

In the "Bookless" project in Guinea Conakry, (Personal communication) loose-leaf teachers' notes are distributed at regular intervals so that an

"instruction" book can be assembled and pages can be replaced as re-development of the project occurs. Recommended methods are based on Total Physical Response (TPR), while topics arise from the students themselves and their immediate classroom environment. No specific vocabulary or grammar is taught and oral communication is expected to develop naturally after a period of approximately one full term's exposure. Observers from the ODA comment that from a classroom management perspective there were problems, since most pupils were inactive until halfway through most lessons. However, motivation did improve, initially because of the novelty of the method. This project was seen as a supplement to more traditional methods.

The "PKG" (Permantapan Kerja Guru) approach is a communicative approach developed to meet the needs and fit the circumstances of students in Indonesian high schools (Tomlinson 1990). It is prescriptive in that it insists that teachers speak only English in the classroom, vocabulary is taught through inductive means and the context of the language taught is restricted to students themselves and the classroom. This model, too, is based on TPR techniques but is seen as an extension of the current curriculum and textbook, the additional materials being adaptations by teachers themselves, developed at workshops and seminars both in-country and in the United Kingdom. It was felt that teachers would understand communicative methods better if allowed to develop materials and apply them in their classrooms.

In Sri Lanka, two years of preparation took place before a materials project was started. This was to allow for a nation-wide teacher and pupil orientation to the communicative principles on which the course was to be

based, to carry out a consensus on which types of activities were preferred and feasible and to give time for teachers to be trained, both in-country and overseas, in the skills of materials development. Some materials developed by teachers were incorporated into the final book, English Every Day and performance objectives were linked to the results of the consensus (Mosback 1990).

Although the programme developed for the Canada-China Language Centre (CCLC) was aimed at tertiary level, modifications requested by Chinese teachers early in the project confirm teachers' anxiety about the introduction of new methods. A wholly communicative, task-based method was proposed by the Canadian team but Chinese teachers requested that a linguistic analysis component be included for two reasons. First, because new methods were too far removed from their usual way of teaching and, secondly, because students would demand some attention to grammar. The result was a two-stage method in which a task with a non-linguistic focus was followed by an analysis of the linguistic means by which that task had been fulfilled. This would seem a highly appropriate system *at this level*, since it introduced new methods (which were in fact more closely related to the real needs of students) whilst maintaining the stability of traditional methods (Personal communication with Gatbonton 1990).

In another project in China (Feng 1991), students and administrators expressed doubts about the "trivial" and "game-like" nature of communicative tasks. They were not seen as *real* learning. The nature of the approach is clearly not fully understood by many teachers in China, since Feng reports that

often, anything whatsoever uttered in English is considered "communicative" , and as in the Congo model, teachers filter out any unpredictability.

However, White (1989) reports the successful incorporation of communicative elements into a course for adult students in the People's Republic of China. These students, who were of varying backgrounds and proficiency, were used to a traditional approach to language learning. By readily acknowledging their needs and being aware of the usual expectations of Chinese language learners, the course designers were able to accustom these students to new ways of learning and engage them in meaningful tasks. The focus of the course was on vocabulary and reading skills. Passive vocabulary was activated by activities which were familiar, i.e.; cloze procedures, albeit in a new form, that is to say, aural cloze and dictogloss. Students subsequently worked in groups to develop a poster on various aspects of a general topic. Posters occupy a central role in Chinese life and students are called upon to prepare them in other classes. Teams presented their posters to another group to promote questions and discussion. At first, a format for the development of the ideas for the poster was given. Later students were able to develop these themselves. Following the exchange of information, they went on to complete further writing, editing, reading and discussion activities. The successful implementation of this course rested on a very clear overall design, which was initially displayed in the classroom.

Sano, Takahashi and Yoneyama (1984) recognised that the term "communicative approach" needed to be re-defined, when it was suggested that the approach should be adopted in certain Japanese high schools. In that context, communicative competence was not seen as an "instrumental"

requirement, i.e. there was no foreseeable use for the language. However, linguistic competence (one aspect of communicative competence according to Sano et al.'s description) was considered "developmental", leading to language creativity and personal growth and was, therefore, an important goal of language learning. Sano et al. acknowledged the insights provided by the work of the Council of Europe in its "Threshold Level" programme but, like the designers of the Congo Project, they saw a notional/functional syllabus as an extension of a structural one rather than a replacement for it. They pointed out that communicative language learning methods presume a high level of linguistic ability which, on the whole, renders them inappropriate in Japanese schools, but they do advocate the use of a humanistic, non-threatening approach usually associated with CLT. This paper warns against the adoption of fashionable methods without due attention to real needs and cultural constraints.

Nolesco (1986) reports a project in Morocco in which students in classes of over forty were introduced to communicative techniques and activities over a ten-week period, through systematic learner training, which included the gradual introduction of pair work, response to elicitation and student autonomy. Indigenous teachers modelled the techniques and set up tasks such as ranking and answering questionnaires which led to discussion. Nolesco concluded that students need to be presented with a new set of expectations and that teachers must recognise students' current needs and prior expectations when devising such a programme. This innovation was successfully implemented.

In a paper which is part of the Leeds-Lancaster Research Project, Coleman (1989) categorizes the styles of management of large language-learning classes. He describes three main fields of activity which attempt to overcome some problems created by large classes and overcrowded classrooms. He mentions first, that, in the view of some teachers, the non-interactive, lecture mode is inevitable. Many contend that this form of teaching can be effective if the lecturer maintains the interest of his students. This can be done by presenting the subject in a stimulating way, using an interesting tone of voice, by introducing humour or by speaking from parts of the class not normally used, i.e. from the back of the room. In English language teaching a whole-class methods of chanting and rapid repetition is seen to be a useful and sometimes enjoyable way of practising the language.

Coleman's second category of management is on a continuum of interaction, ranging from a style which is still largely teacher-centred, (giving only occasional opportunities for students to interact with each other or the teacher), to a style in which the dominance of the teacher has almost completely disappeared. There are reports that even in large lecture halls, groups can be organised for discussions, problem solving, simulations and project work.

The third category reported by Coleman includes some compromise approaches, mostly concerning tertiary institutions. Generally speaking in the various models, the whole-class session were devoted to administration, organisation of learning and motivating activities, as well as to occasional traditional presentations. Much real learning went on outside the plenary sessions through groupwork and individual self-access programmes. One

teacher re-organised the teaching periods to allow time for individual and group consultancy sessions. Written questions were invited to be dealt with at plenary sessions. These ways of "re-packaging" (p.20) were deemed successful, but Coleman makes the comment that they also give the impression that large classes are manageable and therefore acceptable, so that administration will do little to change the situation.

Unfortunately, detailed evaluations of the above projects are not available, but even these cursory reports can shed light on some issues which should be considered in addition to those revealed by the Congo case study.

5.5. Recommendations

Chris Kennedy (1989) has remarked that the socio-political environment of a country has direct impact on the shape of ESOL instruction and it is in accord with this observation that a broad perspective has been adopted in this thesis. Our recommendations, too, will apply to some specific details of classroom practice as well as to the wider issues of implementing innovative language learning projects in developing countries.

5.5.1. General

Where teachers are obliged to use set texts or textbooks, to adhere to a given syllabus, be it structural or a "list of functions", and are required to help students towards a structural exam, the introduction of communicative techniques appear to be an effective way of reducing both teacher and student apathy, without damaging the student's chance of passing that exam. The

propagation of new methods throughout the teacher population should be "organic" and flexible as in the "Bookless" project, so that it is a process rather than a product. Similarly, a step-by-step approach, by which new and established methods are integrated, as in both the Congo and CCLC Projects, improves the chances of successful implementation of innovation because teachers are more willing to co-operate and feel less threatened by the prospect of un-co-operative students. Students, too, need to be taught about new methods through a learner-awareness programme which demonstrates the enjoyment, effectiveness and acceptability of the method even in large classes (Nolesco 1986).

A "weak" form of the approach, having most of the features listed by Brumfit, appears to be workable even in constrained circumstances. Pairwork and groupwork are possible, but better ways of facilitating these in large classes where movement is difficult and excess noise is not seen as positive still need to be investigated. Interaction between teacher and student, and between students whilst retaining a teacher-centred mode, as proposed in the Congo model and reported by Coleman (1989), appears to be a compromise which is both workable in a practical sense and acceptable to both teachers and students, because it takes into account cultural norms of classroom interaction as they are at present in many developing countries. On the practical side, using the blackboard effectively can compensate considerably for the lack of books and other aids.

5.5.2. Teacher development

All teachers need training in the appropriate pedagogy. In- and on-service training have been found to be the most effective. This can be done through workshops, seminars or through well thought out guides to materials already in use, preferably written by a local team who are fully aware of local conditions. Guides can provide clear lesson plans alongside teacher training components, which should attempt to relate practice to the underlying theories of the approach. Guides should cater to a wide range of teacher experience. Teachers can and should be involved in materials development after appropriate training and should be taught specifically how to modify the textbooks they normally use.. They should also be given a chance to pilot these modifications in their own classrooms, to exchange them with colleagues or to introduce them within a teachers' group. All efforts should be made to combat teacher isolation.

The ability to execute the different classroom management skills associated with communicative teaching is paramount, skillful use of the blackboard being essential where textbooks and other visual aids are scarce. Teachers should be made aware that using only target language is NOT an essential feature of the method. Good interactional skills and questioning techniques are vital and these may sometimes best be achieved by judicious use of mother tongue or the usual language of instruction.

5.5.3. Materials and resources

Rossner & Bolitho, (Eds., 1990) have called for an end to "global" coursebooks and suggested that Western publishers co-operate with writers in

developing countries to produce low-cost materials which are appropriate both in content, method and linguistic goals. Teachers and educators attending courses in materials design in the West have to be made aware that the materials they produce and the methods they intend to introduce in their home countries must be environmentally valid, since it is easy to be seduced by the attractiveness of books produced and ideas promoted in the West. Present research indicates that teacher's guides to new methods are *not* being widely used by teachers in developing countries (Dove 1986) and that methods, although being described by teachers as communicative, more often resemble traditional classroom patterns of interaction rather than genuine interaction (Nunan 1987:136). If contents, goals and methods were more environmentally suitable, this state of affairs might change.

5.5.4. The implementation of innovative English Language Projects

Those setting up English language projects in developing countries, be they indigenous administrators, or Western advisors, consultants, media experts or university professors, need to be fully aware of the prevailing cultural norms which affect language teaching in non-Western countries, must acknowledge and take into account all the constraints and must take care to proceed at a realistic pace.

Cross's (1987) recommendations that institutions should team up within and outside a country and that the provision of English language teaching should be restricted to higher secondary and tertiary sectors in countries where resources are limited, seem obvious and acceptable but his notion of limiting the provision of English to the better resourced and staffed sector contravenes

Western philosophies of equal educational opportunities for all, although it may be a realistic and pragmatic solution in other situations.

When English language projects are proposed, agencies, consultants and indigenous educational administrators need to have a very clear concept of the English language situation in the country concerned. Where projects concern the improvement of the communicative competence of learners, it is also necessary to have a clear understanding of the terminology particularly with regard to curriculum development and methodology. Innovators should not be so far removed from the classroom that they have little recognition of the problems teachers face in normal everyday teaching situations in developing countries and little appreciation of the difficulties experienced by teachers when faced with innovation. Generally speaking, much more training is required in the management of innovative projects.

Both Dove (1986) and Chilcott (1987) have suggested that many innovations in developing countries are utopic and over ambitious and that prospective problems and limitations should be recognised. Dove contends that the social climate must be ripe for innovation and that the right questions need to be asked before its inception. The Sri Lankan materials development project provides an excellent example of this. However, on the whole, there is a pressing need for better situational analysis prior to innovation, for improved formative and summative evaluation, which at present is too often "vindictory", and for piloting in realistic conditions so that the transition to a larger scale is less problematical

5.5.5. Research

Not only is there a need for considerably more research to be carried out on Third World educational issues but also for research to be done within educational institutions of Third World countries. This should avoid the acceptance of sometimes inappropriate and irrelevant solutions resulting from a poor adaptation based on Western research. Areas that need investigation include:

1. What are the most effective teaching methods where specific constraints exist?
2. Are innovative methods being sustained and if not, how can sustainability be assured?
3. Do material (books, buildings, technical aids) or non-material (teacher training, experience, verbal fluency, child rearing practises and parent attitude, etc.) factors have a greater effect on communicative competence?
4. What are the effects of teacher fluency in English on the improved communicative competence of students?
5. What degree of innovation is successful and what factors should govern its pace?
6. How can methodologists capitalize on the oral traditions involving story telling and repetition which prevail in many developing countries?
7. Do existing relationships in the classroom hinder the improvement of communicative competence?

8. Should we look to the ethnography of communication for leads in how to promote better language learning?

5. Conclusion

It can be seen that ways can be found of introducing a weak form of communicative teaching of English language at both secondary and tertiary levels in developing countries, in spite of the constraints of the teaching environment. The degree of "communicativeness" which is workable is dependent on the characteristics of that environment. We have seen that communicative methods are not a single package of teaching reforms and that there is a multiplicity of elements within the method. The resultant flexibility means that many or few elements can be combined either with more traditional methods or with even more innovative ones. The successful implementation of a project having communicative competence as its objective, depends completely on an in-depth and realistic recognition of all related issues ranging from the socio-political situation of the country, which governs the need for English, right down to practical issues such as the availability of chalk! Therefore, the co-operation of all indigenous educational institutions and individuals which affect the teaching of English is vital. The Congo project rightly stated that this kind of co-operation was one of its prime objectives. In the West this is difficult to achieve, in developing countries possibly even more so, because of the inherent cultural dimension of the power structure in most African, Asian and South American cultures which dictates that those in a higher social position must be deferred to. This situation still exists in spite of a widespread adoption of other Western cultural influences. It is this same problem that discomforts Third World teachers and students in fully

communicative classrooms and which hinders the introduction of learner-centred methods, where the role of the teacher runs completely contrary to present social norms.

It must be said that, in spite of an apparent diminution of status and the shifting of part of the responsibility for learning to the student, even the most communicative teacher *still* makes the most important decisions about learning, since the very fact of deciding what tasks shall be attempted, sets the boundaries of the language being produced if not the precise output. Communicative teachers are responsible for setting up an environment that promotes learning. If that environment happens to include some features of traditional methods and maintains the present role of the teacher yet still promotes interaction and communication then communicative objectives can be said to have been achieved.

To what degree communicative methods improve communicative competence is still under discussion. That communicative methods improve motivation is certain and if we can motivate pupils to "stay with English" until real-life needs are within sight we shall have attained a truly educational objective. Those whose needs will never include using English in their daily life or occupation, will have been exposed to a motivating and developmental learning experience. Both kinds of learner will have been introduced to a style of learning that is both more enjoyable and more relevant to possible long-term needs than that left by the heritage of colonialism.

We have witnessed, in this thesis, strong indictments against the imposition of Western-style education in developing countries. It is "mortally

flawed" (Johnson 1987:281). Bray, Clarke and Stevens (1986) have found it too academic and removed from life. They maintain that it encourages competition at the expense of co-operation and promotes individualization of thought.

In 1978 Clignet-Remi acknowledged that cultural relativeness had been accepted as far as content was concerned, but not concerning method, and called for the "Africanisation" of teaching styles. What exactly an "African teaching style" is, he does not say; we can only assume it does not have any of the characteristics listed above. Nor, indeed, do communicative methods in language teaching! Could it be that, having once introduced a wholly alien system of learning, far removed from the real needs and educational philosophy of many Third World countries, in our approach to language learning at least, we in the West, are now advocating methods which are much more in tune with the philosophical, psychological, social and cultural norms of these societies? Doff (in Bowers ed. 1987) hypothesises that the introduction of communicative methods could open up the way for new relationships and patterns of interaction in other areas of the curriculum. Provided educators within developing countries accept that traditional or communicative methods are still the most appropriate form of education, then the dawn of the communicative era may herald the renewal of a style of teaching in other disciplines that reflects much more closely non-Western attitudes to society in general and the individual's place within that society.

REFERENCES

- Adams, R.S., & Chen, D. (1989). The Process of Educational Innovation: An International Perspective. London: Kogan Page.
- Alexander, L.F. (1975). Some methodological implications of Waystage and Threshold Level. Appendix to both Threshold Level and Waystage (van Ek, 19975 and 1977).
- Allwright, R. (1979). Language learning through communication practice. In C. Brumfit and K. Johnson. The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching. London: Oxford University Press.
- Altbach, P.G. (1987). The distribution of knowledge in the Third World: A case study in neo-colonialism. In P. G. Altbach & G. P. Kelly, (Eds.). Education and Colonialism. New York: Longman.
- Anthony, E.M. (1963) Approach, method and techniques. English Language Teaching, 17, 63-67
- Bagunywa, A. K. M. K. (1975). The changing role of the teacher in African renewal. Prospects, 5, 220-226.
- Berns, M. (1990). Contexts of Competence. New York: Plenum Press.
- Berry, J.W. (1985). Learning mathematics in a second language: some cross-cultural issues. Learning Mathematics, 5, 18-23.
- Bing, E. (1963). The effects of child rearing practices on the development of different cognitive abilities. Child Development, 34, 631-648.
- Bouet, J. & S. (1972). L'Anglais en Afrique et a Madagascar. Paris: Hatier.
- Bowers, R. (Ed.). (1987) Language Teacher Education: an Integrated Programme for ELT Teacher Training. ELT Document 125. Modern English Publication / The British Council.
- Bray, M., Clarke, P., & Stephens, D. (1986). Education and Society in Africa. London: Edward Arnold.
- Brock, C. (1989). Education and national scale: the world of small states. Prospects, 18 (3).

- Brumfit, C. (1980). Problems and Principles in English Language Teaching. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Brumfit C , & Johnson, K. (Eds.). (1979) The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Caillods, F., & Postlethwaite, T. N. (1989). Teaching and learning conditions in Developing Countries. Prospects, 19 (2), 169-190.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second-language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1, 1-47.
- Candlin, C.N. (1981). The Communicative Teaching of English. Harlow: Longman.
- Candlin, C.N., & Breen, M.P. (1979). Evaluating and designing language-teaching materials. Practical Papers in English Language Education, University of Lancaster, 2, pp.172-216.
- Chilcott, J. H. (1987). Critique of recent models for improvement of education in developing countries. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 18, 241-245.
- Clignet-Remi (1978) Damned if you do, damned if you don't: The dilemma of colonizer-colonized relations. In P.G. Altbach and C.P. Kelly. Education and Colonialism. New York: Longman.
- Coleman, H. (1989). Approaches to the Management of Large Classes. Report No. II. Lancaster-Leeds Language Learning in Large Classes Research Project. Overseas Education Unit, School of Education, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, U.K.
- Cripwell, K. (1979). Mass Media and Teacher Education. In R. Gardner, (Ed.). Teacher Education in Developing Countries. London: University of London.
- Cross, D. (1987). A language policy for EFL. System, 15 (1), 43-45.
- Crossley, M. (1984) Relevant education strategies for curriculum change and pilot projects: a cautionary note. Education and Development, 4 (3), 225-245.
- Désésquelles, G. (1991 Janvier-Février). Congo: Délicate transition démocratique. Le Courrier, 125. Brazzaville.

- Doff, A. (1987). Training materials as an Instrument of Methodological Change. In R. Bowers, (Ed.). Language Teacher Education: ELT Document 115. Oxford. Modern English Publications/The British Council.
- Dove, L. A. (1986). Teachers and teacher education in Developing Countries. London: Croom Helm.
- Dumont, R. (1988). False Art in Africa. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.
- Feng, Y. (1991, April). Problems in the way of the communicative approach and solutions. Unpublished paper given at the 12th IATEFL Conference, Exeter. U.K., April 3-6.
- Finocchiaro, M., and Brumfit, C. (1983). The Functional-notional Approach: From Theory to Practice. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fuller, B. (1986). Raising school quality in developing countries. World Bank Discussion Paper. 2. Washington, D.C.
- Goodings, R. et al. (1982). Changing Priorities in Teacher Education. New York: Nichols Publishing Co. (Croom Helm).
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1975). Learning How to Mean: Explorations in the Development of Language. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). Language as a Social Semiotic: The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning. London: Edward Arnold.
- Hawes, C. (1989). TESL in the developing English world. Canada TESL Journal, 6 (2). 99-104.
- Hawkes, N. (1981). Primary children. In K. Johnson, & K. Morrow (Eds.). Communication in the Classroom. Harlow: Longman.
- Henewald, W. (1987). Integrating curriculum development and teacher development in schools. Prospects, 17(1), 99-105.
- Hurst, P. (1981a). Aid and educational development: rhetoric and reality. Comparative Education, 17 (2), 117-125
- Hurst, P. (1981b). Some issues in improving the quality of education. Comparative Education, 17(2) , 185-193.

- Hymes, D.H. (1972). On communicative competence. In Pride and Holmes (Eds.). Sociolinguistics. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- INRAP (1986). New English Programme. Unpublished document.
- INRAP (1987) Pupil's Workbook. Brazzaville: Service des Editions.
- INRAP (1987) Teacher Guide for F.7, 1st edition. Brazzaville: Service des Editions.
- INRAP (1990) Teacher Guide for F.8. Brazzaville: Service des Editions.
- INRAP (1988) Teacher Guide for F.7. Brazzaville: Service des Editions.
- INRAP-British Council (1986) ELT Project in In-Service Teacher Education. Unpublished document.
- Johnson, K., & Morrow, K. (1981). Communication in the Classroom. Harlow: Longman.
- Judd, E. L. (1989). Language policy, curriculum development and TESOL instruction: A search for compatibility. In C. Kennedy, Language planning and English Language teaching. London: Prentice Hall.
- Kennedy, C. (1987). Innovation for change: teacher development and innovation. English Language Teaching Journal, 41(3), 163-167.
- Kennedy, C. (1989). Language planning and English language teaching. London: Prentice Hall.
- Klotchkoff, J-C. (1987). Le Congo aujourd'hui. Paris: Les éditions du Jaguar/Les Editions j.a.
- Kouraogo, P. (1987) EFL renewal and INSET in difficult circumstances. English Language Teaching Journal, 41 (3), 171-178.
- Krashen, S.D. (1981). Second-language Acquisition and Second-language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Lewin, K. & Little, A. (1984). Exam reform and educational change. In K. Watson. (Ed.). Dependence and Interdependence in Education. London: Croom Helm.

- Lewin, K., & Xu Hui. (1989). Rethinking revolution: Reflections of China's educational reforms. Comparative Education, 25(1).
- Li Xiaojun (1990). In defense of the communicative approach. In R. Rossner & R. Bolitho (Eds.). Currents of change in English language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lockheed, K., & Hanushek. A. (1988). Improving educational efficiency in developing countries: What do we know? Compare, 18 (1).
- Maley, A. (1990). New lamps for old: realism and surrealism in foreign language teaching. In R. Rossner, & R. Bolitho (Eds.). Currents of change in English language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Maseko, J. M. (1989). International review: post colonial perspectives in Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. Educational Management and Administration. 17(4) , 233-235.
- Mawaka, A. (1989). Designing an ELT curriculum for secondary schools in the Congo. Unpublished master's thesis, Department of Applied Linguistics, Ealing College of Education, London.
- Medgyes, P. (1986). Queries from a communicative teacher. English Language Teaching Journal, 40(2) 107-112.
- Mills, D., Doust, T., Zedeougan, B., Tomalin, B., & Willis, P. (1986). English for French-speaking Africa 6ème and 5ème. Paris: Armand Colin-Longman.
- Mills, D., Doust, T., Zedeougan, B., Tomalin, B., & Willis, P. (1987). Teacher's Book 2 for English for French-speaking Africa 5ème, Paris: Armand Colin-Longman.
- Mitchell, R. (1988). Communicative Language Teaching in Practice. London: CILT.
- Mosback, G. (1990). National syllabus and textbook design on communicative principles: "English Every Day". English Language Teaching Journal, 44(1).

- Nitsaisook, M., & Anderson, L.W. (1989). An experimental investigation of the effectiveness of in-service teacher education in Thailand. Teaching and teacher Education, 5,(4), 287-302.
- Nolesco, R. (1986). You try doing it with a class of forty! English Language Teaching Journal, 40(2).
- Nunan, D. (1987). Communicative language teaching: Making it work. English Language Teaching Journal, 41 (2), 136-145.
- Obanya, P. (1989). Going beyond the educational reform document. Prospects, 19(3) , 333-347.
- Page, B. (1990, June). Unpublished Keynote speech at SPEAQ Conference, Quebec, June 12th-15th.
- Palfrey, J. (1985). English Language Teaching Profile for the R.P. Congo. Unpublished document. British Council, 10 Spring Gardens, London, U.K.
- Richards, J. C., & Rogers, T. S. (1986). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rossner, R., & Bolitho, R. (1990). Currents of Change in English Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sano, M., Takahashi, M., & Yoneyama, A. (1984). Communicative language teaching and local needs. English Language Teaching Journal, 38, 170-177.
- Savignon, S. (1972). Teaching for communicative competence. Audio Visual Language Journal, 3, 153-162.
- Saville-Troike, M. (1982). The Ethnography of Communication. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Shamim, F. (1991). Problem of numbers in introducing innovative methodology: touching only the tip of the iceberg. Paper presented at 12th IATEFL Conference, Exeter, U.K., April 3-6.
- Singh, B.R. (1988). Cognitive styles, cultural pluralism and effective learning and teaching. International Review of Education, 34 (3).
- Straker-Cook, R. H. (1987). Introducing ELT curriculum change. In R. Bowers, & R. Bolitho (Eds.). Language Teacher Education: an Integrated Programme

- for ELT Teacher Training. ELT Document 125. Oxford: Modern English Publications/The British Council.
- Swan, M. (1985). A critical look at the communicative approach. English Language Teaching Journal, 39 (1 & 2).
- Tomlinson, B. (1990). Managing change in Indonesian high schools. English Language Teaching Journal, 44 (1), 25-37.
- van Ek, J. A. & Alexander, L. J. (1977). Waystage. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- van Ek, J. A. (1975). The Threshold level in a European unit credit system for modern language learning by Adults. Systems Development in Adult Language Learning. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Verspoor, A. (1989). Pathways to change. World Bank Discussion Paper 5. Washington, D.C.
- Vulliamy A., Lewin, K., & Stephens, D. (1990). Doing Educational Research in Developing Countries. Brighton: Fulmer Press.
- Watson, K. (1982). Neo-colonialism: the continuing colonial legacy. In K. Watson, (Ed.) Education in the Third World. London: Croom Helm. 181-200.
- Watson, K. (1985). Current and recent educational research with and in developing countries by U.K. researchers. International Journal of Education and Development, 5(3), 155-165.
- Watson, K., & Oxenham, J. (Eds.). (1985). Research, co-operation and evaluation of educational programmes in the Third World. International Journal of Education and Development, 5 (3), 155-193.
- Welch, A.R. (1988). For sale, by degrees: Overseas students and the commodification of higher degrees in Australia and the U.K. International Review of Education, 34(3), p. 387.
- West, M. (1960). Teaching in difficult circumstances. London: Longman.
- Westrup, H., & Ewington, N. (1988). Report on the 1988 National Seminar for Secondary English Language Teachers in the R.P. Congo. Unpublished document. British Council, 10 Spring Gardens, London, U.K.

- White, C. J. (1989). Negotiating communicative language learning in a traditional setting. English Language Teaching Journal, 43, 213-220.
- White, R. V. (1988). The ELT Curriculum: Design, Innovation and Management. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1978). Teaching Language as Communication. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Williams, G. (1987). The international market for overseas students in the English speaking world. European Journal of Education, 22 (1), p. 15.
- Yalden, J. (1983). The Communicative Syllabus: Evolution, Design and Implementation. London: Pergamon.

APPENDIXES

Appendix A: Distinctive features of the Communicative Approach.....	117
Appendix B: Details of teacher-pupil population in the R.P. Congo.....	119
Appendix C: The new Programme for F.7 and F.8 for 1986-87.....	120
Appendix D: Sample page from EFSA <u>6ème</u>	123
Appendix E: Sample page from EFSA <u>5ème</u>	124
Appendix F: Extract from published Guide to EFSA <u>5ème</u>	126
Appendix G: 1987 test following first INRAP pilot project.....	127
Appendix H: <u>Brèvet d'Etudes Moyennes Générale</u>	129
Appendix I: Extracts from INRAP Teacher's Guides to EFSA <u>6ème</u> and <u>5ème</u>	130
Appendix J: "What to Avoid" from Teacher's Guide to EFSA <u>6ème</u>	133
Appendix K: "Simple Techniques" from Teacher's Guide to EFSA <u>6ème</u>	135
Appendix L: Reconstruction and conversion exercises	137
Appendix M: Components of the 1988 National Seminar	138
Appendix N: Extracts from original and revised pupil's workbook.....	140

APPENDIX A

Distinctive features of the Communicative Approach

1. Meaning is paramount.
2. Dialogues, if used centre around communicative functions and are not normally memorised.
3. Contextualization is a basic premise.
4. Language learning is learning to communicate.
5. Effective communication is sought.
6. Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8. Any device which helps the learners is accepted - varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
10. Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
11. Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e. the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
15. Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
16. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.

APPENDIX A continued

17. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18. Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
19. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
20. Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
21. The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
22. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(From Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983, in Richards and Rogers 1986: 91-93)

APPENDIX B

Details of teacher-pupils population in the R.P. Congo

	1982	1986	1989
Number of CEGs in R.P. Congo	191	206	215
Number of English teachers	520	562	625
Percentage of qualified English teachers	40%	44%	60%
Average number of pupils per class in CEGs in Brazzaville	82.3	89.	Not known
Average number of pupils per class in CEGs outside Brazzaville	57	62	71

(Extracted from INRAP Documents.)

APPENDIX C

The New Programme for F.7 and F.8 for 1986-87

PROGRAMMES ET REPARTITIONS

Introduction:

Après consultation des utilisateurs du manuel introduit en 1979-80 (L'Anglais en Afrique) et compte tenu des critiques et suggestions formulées il a été décidé de retenir l'édition révisée de la collection "English for French Speaking Africa".

L'intention des responsables est de mettre l'ouvrage de sixième au programme de F7, pour ce qui est de la première partie, dès la rentrée 1986-87 et de F8, pour ce qui est de la deuxième partie, à la rentrée 1987-88. Dans les autres classes, l'introduction devrait se faire de façon progressive. Il résulte de ces décisions qu'à la rentrée scolaire 1986-87:

- les classes de F7 devraient respecter le nouveau programme
- les classes de F8, F9, F10 continueraient à travailler à partir des anciens programmes.

C'est la raison pour laquelle la présentation adoptée ci-après a été retenue:

1. Nouveaux programmes

1.1 Contenus notionnels

1.1.1 F7 (1986-1987)

1.1.2 F8 (1987-1988)

1.2 Répartition F7 et F8

2. Anciens programmes

2.1 F7 (en l'absence du nouveau livre)

Textes et grammaire

2.2 F8 (1986-1987)

Textes et grammaire

2.3 F9

Textes et grammaire

2.4 F10

Textes et grammaire

APPENDIX C continued

1. Nouveaux programmes

1.1 Contenus notionnels

1.1.1 F7

Unités

- Social expressions

Greetings	1. 2
Introductions	1
Farewells	1. 2
Apologies	6
Other social expressions	6

Giving and receiving instructions

Carrying out activities	1. 6
Giving instructions	2. 6

- Seeking and giving information

Personal details, interests, relationships, location, description	1. 5. 16
Familiar occupations and place of work	7
Location of people	2. 7
Number and description of people, nationalities	4. 12
Family relationships	7
Comparing people	2. 9

- Expressing dislikes and likes, possessions, wants

Find out what one likes	9
State, refute and	9
State, refute, find out what one possesses	10. 11
State, refute and find out wants	9

- Animals, plants and objects

To state, refute and ask names of objects in class	1 2. 3. 6
Any object outside the class, animals, plants	9. 15. 17. 18
Describe and compare colours	15

APPENDIX C continued

1.2 Répartitions F7 F8

Trimestre	Mois	Semaine	F7	F8
1er	Octobre	1	Unit 1	Unit 18
		2	unit 2	unit 19
		3	unit 3	unit 20
		4	Révision 1,2,3	Révision 18,19,20
	Novembre	1	unit 4	unit 21
		2	unit 5	unit 22
		3	unit 6	unit 23
		4	Révision 4,5,6	Révision 21,22,23
	Décembre	1	unit 7	unit 24
		2	Révision 1 à 7	Révision 18 à 23
2ème	Janvier	1	unit 8	unit 25
		2	unit 9	unit 26
		3	unit 10	unit 27
		4	Révision 8,9,10	Révision 25,26,27
	Février	1	unit 11	unit 28
		2	unit 12	unit 29
		3	unit 13	unit 30
		4	Révision 11,12,13	Révision 28,29,30
	Mars	1	Révision 8 à 13	Révision 25 à 30
3ème	Mars	4	unit 14	unit 31
	Avril	1	unit 15	unit 32
		2	unit 16	unit 33
		3	Révision 14,15,16	Révision 31,32,33
		4	unit 17	unit 34
	Mai	1	unit 18	unit 35
		2	unit 19	unit 36
		3	Révision 17,18,19	Révision 34,35,36
		4	unit 20	unit
	Juin	1	unit 21	Révision
		2	unit 22	générale
		3	Révision 20,21,22	du programme

APPENDIX D

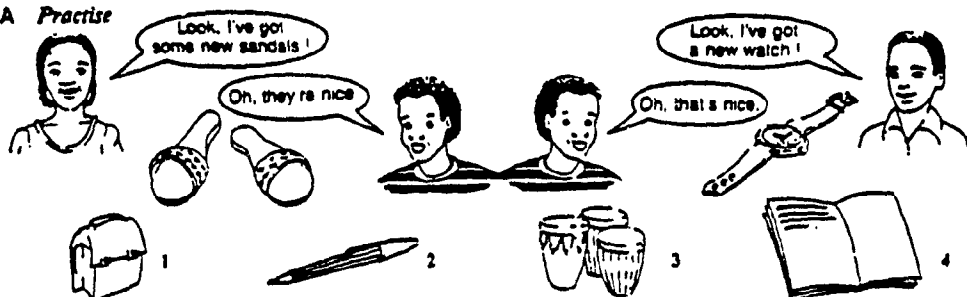
Sample page from EFSA 6ème

UNIT 11

Some new
sandals



A Practise



B Practise

look at the
pictures in A

Ali : Look at Yemi. She's got some new *sandals*.
Fauma : Oh, they're nice.

C Practise

Ali hasn't got his things.

Ali : Mum, have you got my *sandals*?

Mother : Yes, here they are.

Ali : Have you got my *watch*?

Mother : No, I haven't.

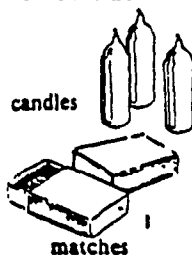
look at the
pictures in A

D Practise

Mr Latoundji has got a shop, but it is not a very good shop!

Ali : Good evening, Mr Latoundji. I want some *candles*, please.

Mr Latoundji : I'm sorry, I haven't got any *candles*.



E Practise

look at the
pictures in D

Ali : Where are you going?

Yemi : I'm going to Latoundji's. I want some *candles*.

Ali : Oh, don't go there. He hasn't got any *candles*!

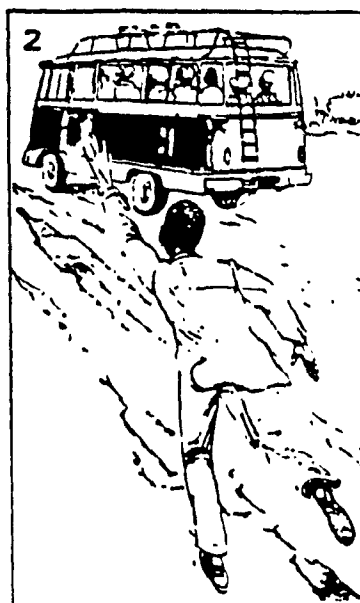
APPENDIX E

Sample pages from EFSA 5ème

UNIT ONE



1 — Wake up Bola. It's time to get up.



2 — Stop! Stop! Wait for me.



3 — AAAh! Look at my clothes! Now what am I going to do?



4 — Can you give me a lift?
— Of course. Get on.

APPENDIX E continued

UNIT 1

Going to work

- A Bola is a nurse in a big hospital in Lagos, Nigeria. Every day he gets up at six o'clock and goes to work by bus. Last Sunday Bola went to a party and went to bed very late. On Monday morning he didn't wake up at six o'clock.
When Bola's mother woke up, she looked at the clock and went into his bedroom.

#

- B *Mother* : Wake up Bola! It's half past six. It's time to get up.
Bola : Urrrh! What? Oh no, Monday morning again.
Mother : Come on! You're going to be late for work.
Bola : Oh, my head!
Mother : Hurry up and get dressed. You haven't got much time.
Bola : Oh, why did I drink all that beer last night?
Mother : Quick! I can see the bus.
Bola : Oh no, I'm going to miss it. I must hurry. Where are my trousers?
Mother : Here they are. Now, be careful. It's raining this morning. Don't slip.

#

- C Bola got dressed quickly and left the house. He could see the bus at the bus-stop. He ran down the road, but there weren't many people at the bus-stop, and the bus started moving. He shouted, but the driver couldn't hear him. He ran after the bus, slipped in a puddle and fell down. His friend, Maboudi, came up on his scooter.

#

- D *Bola* : Aaaah! Look at my clothes! Now what am I going to do? I'm going to be late for work again.
Maboudi: Hey, Bola! What are you doing there? Why are your clothes wet?
Bola : Oh, stop asking silly questions. Can you give me a lift to the hospital?
Maboudi: Of course, get on.
Bola : No, wait a minute. I must go and change my clothes first.
Maboudi: All right, but hurry up. I don't want to be late for work.

APPENDIX F

Extract from published Teacher's Guide to EFSA 5ème

UNIT 1

Going to work

VISUAL AIDS

a clock, soap, bread, flour, and items from exercise F

FIRST SESSION

Introduce the story Bola lives with his mother and family in Lagos. He is a nurse and works in a hospital.

Picture 1

(T1 1)

Tell your students to look at picture 1. They should cover up the text on the opposite page so that they won't try to read while you are talking, but will concentrate on the picture and on what you are saying. Ask questions: "Where is Bola? (teach *bedroom* if necessary) Where is his mother? Is Bola asleep? What can you see on the chair?"

Text A

(T1 2)

Pre-questions: Why is Bola asleep?

How does Bola go to work?

Put these questions on the blackboard. Explain that the students must look for the answers while they are reading the text. Then tell them to uncover the text and read section A silently. When they have finished, ask them for the answers to the two pre-questions. There may be different answers to the first question: "He is tired. It is early. He went to a party. He went to bed late."

Comprehension questions

Ask these with the text covered: "Where does Bola work? Where does he live? Who lives in the house with Bola? When does he get up? How does he go to work? Where did he go on Sunday night? Why didn't he wake up on Monday morning? What did Bola's mother do in the morning?"

These are easy questions, but your aim is to see if your students can understand easy questions in English, as well as understand the text, and of course to see if they can formulate the right answers in simple correct English. At this early stage of the year you want to help your students remember the English they learnt last year — you don't want to start the year by making them think that English is difficult! Encourage them to see that they do in fact know quite a lot (we hope!)

Structure

(T1 11)

much, many Revise a lot of: "I look, I've got a lot of pens/books/etc." Then put them away and pick up just a few. "Oh, now I haven't got many books." Then give out to some of the students either a lot of books or just a few books, and get them to practise the two phrases. Then do the same with some uncountables: chalk, money, bread, soap or other items that you can bring to class. Make the students practise: "I've got a lot of soap/He hasn't got much soap." Finally practise the question: "Have you got much/many?" The students can ask each other round the class.

Homework

(T1 17)

Do Exercise E. Prepare it first in class. Check that the students understand and can say correctly the words suggested in the boxes. Obviously you will want them to use words appropriate to your own country. Some students might like to try to make sentences about neighbouring countries. Try to revise some of the items mentioned in Unit 28 of the 6th book. You can decide how many sentences they should write out.

SECOND SESSION

Homework Check Exercise E. Some of the students should read some of their sentences aloud.

Text B

Pre-teach: get dressed — "In the morning I get up. I put my clothes on — I get dressed (mime putting your clothes on). What am I doing? (You're getting dressed). When do you get dressed?"
to miss — use picture 2: "Look, can you see the bus? Did Bola get on the bus? No, he missed the bus. Why did he miss the bus? (Because he got up late)."

APPENDIX G

1987 Test following first INRAP Pilot Project

IRCEGP / B. V.

ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

11 / 2 / 87

ENGLISH TEST N° 1 (F7)

SCHOOL : _____

Name : _____

Class : _____

Date : _____

A) - ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS (Make complete sentences) 5 pts.

1 - What 's your name ? _____

2 - How old are you ? _____

3 - What's your father's name ? _____

4 - Who is your friend in the classroom ? _____

5 - When does school begin in the morning ? _____

6 - How many doors are there in your classroom ? _____

7 - Whose parents are Mr. and Mrs. Kumba ? _____

8 - Where are you now ? _____

9 - What is a cat ? _____

10 - Write the date of the day : _____

B) TURN INTO

a) Interrogative form 3 pts.

1 - Mary is at the door : _____

2 - The pupils are in the classroom : _____

3 - I have got a blue pen : _____

b) Negative form 3 pts.

1 - Mary is an animal : _____

2 - Mr. Kumba has got three children : _____

3 - We are teachers : _____

... / ...

APPENDIX G continued

C) WRITE CORRECT SENTENCES 4 pts.

father / Mr. Kumba / Mary's / is : _____

2 - brother / my / Kofi / is : _____

3 - is / the / where / teacher's : _____

4 - car / black / Mr. Baker's / is : _____

D) COMPLETE WITH THE CORRECT WORD : 5 pts.

Glass, glasses ; too , two ; child , children ; man , men ; leaf , leaves . -

1 - I'm fifteen years old, my friend ~~he~~ is fifteen-years old _____

2 - Mr and Mrs Kumba have got one son and one daughter; they've got two _____

3 - Look at that tree, there are many yellow _____ on it.

4 - ~~Most of~~ our teachers in our schools are _____

5 - We often drink water out of _____

Often = many times (souvent)

Most of = the greatest number (la plupart)

APPENDIX H

Brévet d'Etudes Moyennes Générale

N. E. M. G. - CONCOURS
SESSION DU 14 JUIN 1988
EPREUVE D' ANGLAIS
DUREE : 2 H 00

TEXT : Dear friend TITA ,

I have got a few time to write you a small letter as usual, to make the point about some international situations.

About health, all is on top form; but I am sorry that all through the world is not right. The world is budding here and there and I don't know how will be the future for the schooling people that we are. Try to see how developed countries create weapons and new systems to exterminate human beings.

Out of this, we have examples in our continent Africa, the land of black people; where white people aim to create a white country in a black people land because in the mind of white skinned people, Blacks are not civilized, they are inferior and then considered, not as human beings, but as savages.

Beside all the evils, human race has full of enemies, even the nature is hostile to human life. For instance on Saturday, December 16th 1987, the wind had got away the roof of our school building and compelled us to stay home until our parents repaired it. I then notice that human life is just a fight for survival. We have now to make efforts at school to be of some use to our country, which is in despering situation.

Good bye. See you soon.

Yours, BERD

A.- COMPREHENSION (Choose the best answer)

- 1- What are the evils caused by developed countries ?
 - a) - They refuse to help poor countries .
 - b) - They dislike black people .
 - c) - They produce arms to kill human beings.
- 2- Bera is sorry because :
 - a) - He is not healthy
 - b) - The world is not quiet
 - c) - He sent a letter to Rita
- 3- The wind got away the roof of our school because :
 - a) - Our parents didn't want to repair it
 - b) - The nature is always hostile to human life
 - c) - The weather was rainy
- 4- After all, human life is :
 - a) - A fight against nature
 - b) - A despairing situation
 - c) - A happiness

B.- Answer the following questions

- 1) - What are the main informations sent by Béro ?
- 2) - What is, according to the text the white people argument to segregate black people in Africa ?
- 3) - Why is our country in a despairing situation ?
- 4) - Why is Béro urging his friend to work hard to school ?

C.- Ask a question on each underlined word or group of words

I have got a few time to write you a small letter as usual,
 1 2 3
 to make the point about some international situations .

4

D.- Essay : The peacefull work is the only hope to develop our countries.
Argue in 10 lines this point of view .

APPENDIX I

Extract from Teacher's Guide to EFSA 6ème

TEACHER GUIDE P7 ENGLISH : Page N°. 38

LESSON 19

Unit 7 sections C D E F G I H

Main Teaching Point

WORKS

WHERE DOES WORK ?

Part 1

REVISION.

Note some names on the board with some of the places from lesson 21 and repeat the question and answer session from lesson 21 for a few minutes

ORAL WORK USING BLACKBOARD DRAWING.

Now teach some place names. Use places that the pupils know and/or that are easy for them to learn, e.g. MARKET GARAGE BANK SCHOOL HOSPITAL. Use simple line drawings to represent the places and drill orally. e.g. point to the correct picture.

day :	THIS IS THE HOSPITAL
ask :	WHAT'S THIS ?
elicit :	THE HOSPITAL

You can now drill WORKS. Write the word at the top of the board and write the place names in a list down the board
DON'T FORGET TO ADD THE PREPOSITION. Try to keep the same preposition for each place if possible, (e.g. IN Jean works in the school, Lise works in the market, etcetera.)

ORAL DRILL / READING / WRITING / LISTENING / CORRECTION

You can follow the same procedure as for Lesson 21 but substitute WORKS for LIVES.

Part 2

Use an information matrix chart drawn similar to this one:

	Jean	Felix	Ange	Oboué	Paul
Lives	Loubomo				
Works	school				

Build up a chart like this BIT BY BIT on the blackboard and use it first as a listening exercise, then as an oral exercise with teacher-pupil dialogue or pupil-pupil dialogue, and then finally as a visual support for a writing exercise.

You can change all the names of the towns in EFSA to Congolese towns, for example; Owando, Loubomo, Brazzaville, Impfondo, Pointe Noire, Ouesso. Change the names of the people in the book to names that are used in the Congo. When you teach places of work, don't try to copy the pictures given in the book. Draw VERY simple line drawings, easy to see and drawn quickly.

APPENDIX I continued

Extracts from Teacher's Guide to EFSA 5ème

4

LESSON No: 2 EFSA 6e UNITS 8 - 15
 MAIN TEACHING POINT : REVISION
 TEACHER GUIDE F7 PAGES: 40 - 56

 LESSON No: 3 EFSA 6e UNITS 16 - 23
 MAIN TEACHING POINT : REVISION
 TEACHER GUIDE F7 PAGES: 57 - 73

 LESSON No: 4 EFSA 6e UNITS 24 - 35
 MAIN TEACHING POINT : REVISION
 TEACHER GUIDE F7 PAGES: 73 - 90

----- WEEK 2 -----

LESSON 5 EFSA 5e Unit 1 Section A -D
 Main Teaching Point : COULD COULDN'T

- 1 Divide the blackboard into half, and then divide the left hand half into four.
- 2 The left hand side will be used for the pictures that you draw to tell the story.
- 3 In the space on the left hand side of the blackboard you write the sentences that make up the story.
- 4 Don't try to copy the picture in the book exactly, it is too difficult. A simple line drawing is good enough.
- 5 Draw the picture BIT BY BIT. Don't turn your back on the class and spend a long time drawing the whole picture. Draw a little bit of the picture and then ask the class questions about the drawing as you draw the picture.
- 6 For example:, first you draw the picture of someone in bed
- 7 Ask a simple question to ELICIT a short answer by PROMPTING the class.

REMEMBER TO ASK EACH OF THE QUESTIONS GIVEN BELOW TEN TIMES.

YOU SAY	ELICIT FROM THE PUPILS
THIS IS JEAN. WHO IS IT?	IT'S JEAN
IS IT A GIRL?	NO (or NO, IT'S A BOY)
GOOD. IT'S JEAN	
WHO IS IT?	IT'S JEAN
HE'S SLEEPING.	
WHAT'S HE DOING? HE'S.?	SLEEPING
YES HE'S	SLEEPING
GOOD WHAT'S HE DOING?	HE'S SLEEPING
GOOD. WHO'S SLEEPING ?	JEAN
GOOD WHAT'S THE TIME?	
IT'S 7 WHAT'S THE TIME?	IT'S.....SEVEN
YES. GOOD.	

- 8 As you ask the questions and elicit the answers you keep drawing the picture until you have something like the picture given in the example below. This is picture 1. DON'T FORGET to draw the clock showing the time and to ask the pupils what time it is in the picture.

APPENDIX I continued

9 You have already begun to tell the class the story as you have been drawing the picture. Now you ELICIT the story again from the pupils, prompting them to tell it to you.

10 The suggested text for picture 1 is:

YESTERDAY MORNING JEAN COULDN'T GET UP ON TIME.
IT WAS 7 O'CLOCK. HE WAS LATE.

11 Go over this simple text several times with the class.

12 Use the question words WHAT, WHO, WHEN to ELICIT the story from your pupils by asking simple questions. Eg
WHO COULDN'T GET UP? JEAN.
WHEN COULDN'T HE GET UP? YESTERDAY MORNING.
WHAT TIME WAS IT? 7 O'CLOCK.
WHAT COULDN'T JEAN DO? HE COULDN'T GET UP.

REMEMBER TO ASK EACH OF THESE QUESTIONS ABOUT TEN TIMES.

13 When most of the pupils understand the story, write the text on the left hand side of the board.

14 Write the first sentence in the middle of the board.
Write the second sentence above the first, and write the third sentence at the bottom of the board, like this:

IT WAS 7 O'CLOCK.
-YESTERDAY MORNING JEAN COULDN'T GET UP ON TIME.
HE WAS LATE.

15 Go over the story again very quickly. Point to the text on the blackboard and tell the pupils to read with you or you begin a sentence and they have to finish it.

PICTURE 2 Now go on to the second picture. Use exactly the same method as for picture 1.

1 Draw a clock in one corner showing the time - e.g. 7h30.

2 Ask the class what time it is, and elicit the reply. Ask if it is late or early. Elicit 'LATE'.

3 Draw a simple stick man running. Ask who it is. If the pupils hesitate, point to Jean in the first picture. Ask what he is doing, and elicit "HE'S RUNNING." Ask "WHY?" and elicit "BECAUSE HE'S LATE".

TEACHER	PUPILS
WHAT'S HE DOING?	HE'S RUNNING
WHAT'S HE DOING?	HE'S...
YES, GOOD.	RUNNING.
WHY IS HE RUNNING?	BECAUSE HE'S LATE
WHY IS HE RUNNING?	
BECAUSE.....	HE'S LATE

4 Now teach the text for this picture:

TEACHER GUIDE FB ENGLISH : INRAP 1989

APPENDIX J

"What to Avoid" from Teacher's Guide to EFSA 6ème

TEACHER GUIDE F7 ENGLISH : Page n°. 5

3 IMPORTANT NOTE : WHAT TO AVOID.

3.1 NO GRAMMAR RULES

There is no direct teaching of grammatical categories. You must NOT teach the pupils grammar rules or write grammar rules on the board to be copied in the exercise book and learnt by heart. You CAN use substitution tables for your oral drills and to prepare writing exercises, and these are useful for illustrating grammatical structure, but you should not try to explain complex rules to the pupils. Always present new material in a simple context.

3.2 REPETITION

Repetition in its own is not a good teaching method. Anyone can repeat words or even sentences in another language without understanding what these words mean. You must SHOW the pupils what the new word or phrase means by using simple drawings, or mime, by asking them simple questions, and using a clear and easily understood context to present the new material. This information can be written on the blackboard, or you can use a simple information transfer grids. You must not ask the pupils just to repeat what you say, you ELICIT the new word or new phrase from them.

3.3 COPYING

Copying of sentences from the board is not a good teaching method. Pupils must always have some kind of exercise to do, e.g. blank filling exercises, jumbled sentences, joining words and pictures, putting sentences in the correct order, etc.

3.4 READING

Reading means the PUPILS reading not the teacher reading. You will have to put short texts on the board for pupils to read because they will not have the textbook. You do not make the pupils read from the blackboard without going over the sentences orally first.

3.5 WRITING ON THE BOARD

You MUST NOT take a long time writing long texts on the blackboard and then simply tell the pupils to copy. Always write the text, story or dialogue on the blackboard BIT BY BIT with lots of oral drills.

APPENDIX J continued

TEACHER GUIDE F7 ENGLISH • Page 11 • 6

3.6 DICTATION

Do not give dictation.

3.7 CORRECTION AND TESTING

Your objective is not to test the pupils' memory, but to help them to speak and understand simple English correctly. You should always make your exercises simple enough for the pupils to get them correct most of the time.

Often pupils cannot do our exercises because we have not taught them correctly, or because the exercise is too difficult, or because we ask questions that cover points that we have not yet taught.

We must always ensure that our exercises only test the items we have taught, and that the questions are simple enough for the pupils.

Pupils gain in confidence if they often get their exercises right, and if they can correct their own work. You should encourage this. You have to control the marking, first to make sure that they have understood the exercise and have done it correctly, and secondly to ensure that the marking is correct.

3.8 PRONUNCIATION

There is no need for a long pronunciation exercise or a separate pronunciation lesson. The pupils learn to pronounce by practicing the dialogues and reading from the blackboard. You make them pronounce correctly when you are doing the oral drills.

3.9 VOCABULARY

Learning long lists of vocabulary without any context is not very interesting for either the teacher or the pupil. You must ALWAYS present new vocabulary in a simple clear context, like a short story, or description. Try to link several sentences into one story rather than have lots of sentences with no obvious link between them.

Do not try to teach your pupils the distinction between vocabulary and grammatical structure.

APPENDIX K

"Simple Techniques" from Teacher's Guide to EFSA 6ème

TEACHER GUIDE P7 ENGLISH : Page N°. 3

2 SOME SIMPLE TECHNIQUES YOU CAN USE.

2.1 ORAL WORK

Oral work should take the following form. The teacher presents the new item orally in a simple context. There should be NO explicit explanation of the grammar, for example you must not write a grammar rule on the blackboard. Present short sentences, using a simple context and if possible using a simple drawing on the blackboard.

The new teaching point can be part of a story or in a short dialogue, or part of a simple description.

During oral work the teacher elicits the new item from the pupils :

You elicit by using the following techniques. .

- by making pupils repeat the new item in context.
- by asking a question and helping the students answer correctly.
- by using drawings, gestures, and mime.

Use a repetition and question/answer method to elicit new items from the pupils.

First make the pupils repeat the new item after you, in context.

Then illustrate your new word or words by a simple drawing on the blackboard asking pupils to repeat the new word or words.

Ask a simple question which requires use of the new word or words in the answer, and give the answer.

Repeat the question and encourage the pupils to give the correct answer using the new item (a new structure, or new vocabulary).

2.2 ORAL DRILLING

In oral drilling the teacher must first elicit the answer from the whole class, then from each half of the class (boys and girls, for example), then from groups of pupils (eg. rows), then from several individual pupils or pupils in pairs if using a dialogue, and finally from the whole class again.

2.3 SHORT ANSWERS

You should encourage short answers when introducing a new structure or word. (YES or YES I HAVE instead of YES I HAVE GOT A CAR for example).

2.4 DRAWING

If the new word would be more easily understood by giving the pupils a simple drawing on the blackboard then the teacher should do this while he is doing the oral drill.

The drawing must be simple, it must be very quick to do and easy to understand.

The teacher must draw the line drawing on the board BIT BY BIT, asking the pupils questions about the drawing as he does it.

EVERY time you write a word or a phrase on the board or add to your drawing you do some oral drilling with the pupils.

2.5 WRITING ON THE BLACKBOARD : PREPARING THE WRITING EXERCISE

When the new word or sentence has been understood then the teacher can begin to develop the blackboard text :

- by labelling the drawing, or writing the new words on one side of the board.

APPENDIX K continued

TEACHER GUIDE F7 ENGLISH : Page 3 4

by writing prepared sentences on one side of the blackboard with the new words or some letters missing to prepare for a blank filling exercise

by writing half the sentence on one side of the board and the other half on the other side of the board. The second half is written in the wrong order so that the pupils have to do a joining exercise

by writing sentences in the wrong order, to prepare a listening or writing exercise for later in the lesson. The pupils will have to learn the correct order to write the story correctly

- by listing new words either on the other side of the board, or above or below the text so that the pupils can see the new words, recognise them and use them to write their exercises.

2.6 READING EXERCISE

The teacher goes through the text, reading from the blackboard and pointing at the new words, the pupils repeat after the teacher

- the class reads the text, with the teacher pointing at the text and without the teacher reading first.

- the boys read while the teacher points to the sentences or words

the girls read while the teacher points to the sentences or words

- groups of pupils read from the blackboard.

- some pupils read the text individually, or pairs read if it is a dialogue

Finally the whole class reads again, without the teacher reading

2.8 LISTENING EXERCISE

Listening exercises always involve the pupils DOING something when the teacher reads short sentences, or words.

The pupils must be listening to find some information, e.g. how old someone is, or where the person lives. The teacher must give this information slowly and carefully and use simple techniques to make the pupils listen, like information transfer grids. Some examples of these techniques are given in the first 26 lessons which are planned for you. If you wish to do a listening exercise using jumbled sentences you can read the correct sentence to the pupils, who have to find the correct version on the blackboard and write it in their books. You don't point to the correct version, or, you read the sentences or words in order and ask the pupils to number the sentences in their books. You make sure that you don't read them in the same order as that given on the blackboard. For this exercise you must be careful to write the sentences in the wrong order on the board.

2.7 WRITING EXERCISE

The next step is for the pupils to write the text in their exercise books, (or to complete an exercise in the Pupil Work Book P7 if they have this book).

APPENDIX L

Reconstruction of content and conversion into reading and writing exercises

Following the presentation of the new language item, through blackboard drawing and picture stories, the content is reconstructed one sentence at a time, by the teacher eliciting from the students what has just been taught and writing it on the board in such a way as to constitute a ready-made reading or writing exercise. Several exercise types are possible.

1. Leaving blank spaces in the text This can focus on a recently taught language point.
2. "Jumbling" the sentences as they are put on the board. Pupils have to re-sequence these sentences.
3. Combining 1. and 2.
4. Writing the first half of each sentence on one side of the board in provide a matching exercise.
5. Ordering a text or key words on a grid so as to constitute an "information transfer" exercise.

APPENDIX M

Components of the 1988 National Seminar

Teacher talk:

- Eliciting.

- Using "Wh" questions and other forms of questioning.

- Using simple "key" instruction in target language.

- Controlling the level of teacher talk.

- Whether and when to use French.

Lesson planning:

- The phases of a lesson.

- The blackboard as lesson plan.

Blackboard drawing:

- Drawing people, places, emotions, matrices, flow charts, etc.

- Eliciting on to the blackboard.

Organising the blackboard:

- Using the blackboard as a "progressive screen" for the development of a lesson.

- Creating writing and reading exercises on the board.

- Using areas of the board for specific functions.

Presentation and exploitation of texts using the blackboard:

- Simplifying pictures from EFSA.

- Devising picture stories from short texts as a preliminary to reconstruction of text on board.

- Reconstructing text on blackboard as reading or writing activity.

- Editing longer texts so they can be put on the blackboard.

APPENDIX M continued

Presentation and exploitation of dialogues using the blackboard:

Creating blackboard pictures stories from dialogues as a preliminary to reconstruction of text on board as reading or writing activity.

Group and pair work:

Presentation of various classroom interaction patterns.

Activities for controlled, semi-communicative and communicative pair drills (information gap activities).

Errors - definition and correction of spoken and written errors

Accuracy /fluency issues.

Techniques for correcting oral work

Techniques for correcting written work e.g. on board, self and peer correction.

Techniques for a writing lesson using only the blackboard:

Exercise types that can be set up through reconstruction of text.

Techniques for a reading lesson using only the blackboard:

Reading activities that can be set up through reconstruction of texts.

Techniques for listening:

Active listening through use of grids, information charts, etc.

Games:

Grammar games, gap fillers, warm ups etc.

APPENDIX N

Extracts from original pupil's workbook

WEEK ONE PAGE NUMBER : 2

LESSON 2

- 1 Draw the picture and write the word.

T _ _ _ _ P _ _ B _ _

G _ _ _ B _ _ _ B _ _

- 2 Draw the objects in the spaces.

P E N	B A G	B O O K	C H A I R

BOY	GIRL	TABLE

APPENDIX N continued

Extracts from revised pupil's workbook

WEEK 5 PAGE NUMBER : 19

LESSONS 3 & 4

Listen to the teacher and note where the people live and work.

	lives	works
Paul	1	1
Benjamin	1	1
Livette	1	1
Michel	1	1
Angèle	1	1
Joseph	1	1

2 Answer the questions as in the example.

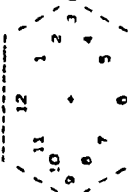
eg Who lives in Loubozo?	Joseph.
1 Who lives in Loubozo?	-----
2 Who lives in Ouando?	-----
3 Who lives in Brazzaville?	-----
4 Who lives in Imfendo?	-----
5 Who lives in Ouesso?	-----
6 Who lives in Pointe Noire?	-----
7	-----
8	-----
9	-----
10	-----
11	-----
12	-----
13	-----
14	-----
15	-----
16	-----
17	-----
18	-----
19	-----
20	-----

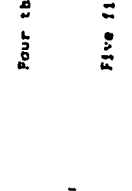
9 For complete the questions and find the answers.

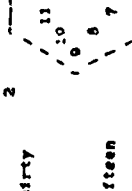
1 Who lives in Brazzaville?	-----
2 Who lives in Loubozo?	-----
3 Who lives in Ouando?	-----
4 Who lives in Imfendo?	-----
5 Who lives in Ouesso?	-----
6 Who lives in Pointe Noire?	-----
7	-----
8	-----
9	-----
10	-----
11	-----
12	-----
13	-----
14	-----
15	-----
16	-----
17	-----
18	-----
19	-----
20	-----

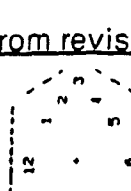
LESSON 1

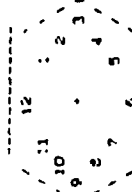
5 Find the correct time in the list and link it to the picture as the example given by the teacher.

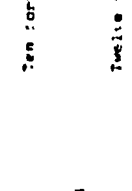
1  Four thirty

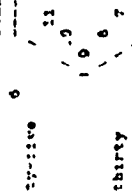
2  Five fifteen

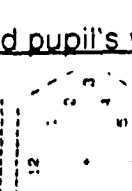
3  Ten forty-five


4  Twelve thirty

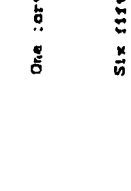
5  One forty-five


6  Six fifteen


7  Four forty

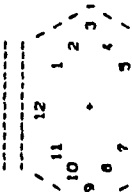
8  Five fifty

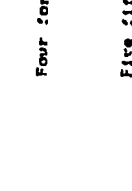
9  Seven ten

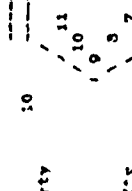
10  Eight twenty


11  Nine

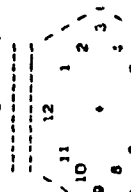
12  Ten ten

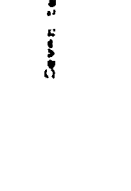
13  Eleven

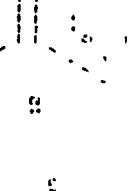
14  Twelve

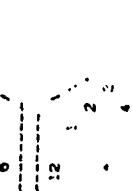
15  One ten

16  Two ten

17  Three ten

18  Four ten

19  Five ten

20  Six ten

APPENDIX N continued

WEEK FIVE PAGE NUMBER

LESSON 2

Read the texts and then answer the questions.

1 My aunt Lucy is thirty five.
She lives in Daconggo.
She works in an office.

How old is my aunt Lucy? She is -----
Where does she live? She lives in -----
Where does she work? She works in an -----

2 My uncle Ange is thirty two.
He lives in Mpilaa.
He works in a factory

How old is my uncle Ange? He is -----
Where does he live? He lives in -----
Where does he work? He works in an -----

3 My mother is forty six.
She lives in Mpila.
She works in a bank.

How old is my mother? She is -----
Where does she live? She lives in -----
Where does she work? She works in an -----

4 My father is fifty.
He lives in Mpila.
He works in a school

How old is my father? He is -----
Where does he live? He lives in -----
Where does he work? He works in an -----

5 Now answer these questions.

How old is your father? He is -----
Where does he live? He lives in -----
Where does he work? He works in -----

WEEK 5 PAGE NUMBER

LESSON 1

Look at this family tree.

my grandfather ----- my grandmother
my mother my father ----- my uncle my aunt
my big brother ----- my boy cousin
my big sister ----- my girl cousin

ME -----
my little brother my little sister

Answer the following questions.

1 Who is my grandfather? His name is -----
2 Who is my boy cousin? His name is -----
3 Who is my mother? Her name is -----
4 Who is my big sister? -----
5 Who is my girl cousin? -----
6 Who is my big brother? -----
7 Who is my father? -----
8 Who is my little sister? -----
9 Who is my uncle? -----
10 Who is my grandmother? -----
11 Who is my little brother? -----
12 Who is my little brother? -----

BE CAREFUL WITH THIS QUESTION ATTENTION A LITTLE DIFFICULT

What is my name? My name is -----