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THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH BY  
BILINGUAL SPEAKERS OF CILUBA AND FRENCH  
IN ZAIRE: PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS

by  
Tshimankinda BISELELA

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Thesis submitted for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

School of Education  
University of Durham

February, 1990



25 JUN 1991

## A B S T R A C T

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### THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH BY BILINGUAL SPEAKERS OF CILUBA AND FRENCH IN ZAIRE: PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS

by

Tshimankinda BISELELA

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the teaching of English as a foreign language in Zaire in general and Eastern Kasai in particular. For it is evident from personal experience and evidence from examination results that this learning is in general not satisfactory, and particularly poor as far as learners' mastery of oral fluency is concerned.

The aim of the thesis is therefore to analyze the learning situation in order to clarify the factors which might be causing this unsatisfactory situation. We take two approaches to this analysis: a theoretical review of the situation and an empirical study of teaching and learning.

The thesis thus falls into four parts. In Part One, we describe the learners' historical and sociolinguistic background and the Zairean educational situation in general and the problems of teaching English in particular. In Part Two, we review the situation in Zaire -and in Eastern Kasai in particular- by an analysis of the literature on language learning and the insights it can give us into the Zairean problem. This review deals first with issues in foreign language teaching. It also focusses however on literature on bilingualism since Zairean learners are always bilingual in, at least, one local language and the French they learn on entry to the education system. Intuitively, we might assume that bilingual learners will be at an advantage in learning a foreign language, and Zairean learners should therefore be in a good position to learn English. Our review of the relevant literature examines the objective evidence for this intuitive assumption and suggests that, other things being equal, bilingual individuals should be good learners of foreign languages. We conclude therefore that other factors in the situation may be responsible for the unsatisfactory standards.

Part Three is an analysis of some of those factors, based on an empirical investigation. It is at this point that the thesis focusses more precisely on Eastern Kasai

where fieldwork was carried out. Pupils and students, teachers, and inspectors and administrators were given questionnaires and interviews, and lessons were observed in four secondary schools. Many factors were found to be causing problems in EFL learning.

Part Four deals with the most important of these factors and their implications, our recommendations for future practice and further research, and the conclusion. The following factors were identified as having a detrimental effect on this learning: learners' lack of *motivation to go on*/ perseverance, which is caused by the overemphasis teaching methods put on accuracy. This in turn means that every thing done or said in lessons is teacher-centred and teacher-dominated, and this contributes to a reduction in the already scarce opportunities and frequencies of use of English by the learners. We therefore recommend that, to increase learners' motivation to learn (to speak) English, teaching methods and teachers should allow them much more freedom of speech, thus stressing (oral) fluency. This will result in these learners opening up, and in methods becoming more learner-oriented, with the ultimate aim of having them learner-centred. In our conclusion, we give a summary of the thesis, namely its purpose, the way we followed to reach it, the results we got, and our recommendations for future practice and research.

## DEDICATION

---

To my  
- beloved wife, Ndaya Wa Mukendi,  
and  
- children, Mujinga Biselela, Kabongo Biselela,  
Meta Biselela, Biselela Tshimankinda,  
Mbayabu Biselela, Mukundi Biselela, and Batubenga Biselela,  
for the sufferings they endured during and because of  
my three years' absence from home,

I dedicate this work.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

---

For their contribution to the present work, I wish to express my deep gratitude to the following people:

Dr M.S. BYRAM, my supervisor, whose kindness, understanding and, above all, expertise helped me so invaluablely in the course of preparing this thesis;

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Mr A.E. BROOKES, who introduced me to the above-mentioned persons,  
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Finally, but not least, I wish to thank The BRITISH COUNCIL, without whose sponsorship I would not have been able to undertake this study.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

---

	pages
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	i.
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	ii.
INTRODUCTION .....	1.
References .....	5.
PART ONE: THE LEARNER BACKGROUND .....	6.
CHAPTER ONE: ZAIRE: HISTORICAL, SOCIOLINGUISTIC AND	
EDUCATION SYSTEM OVERVIEW .....	7.
1.1. Historical and Sociolinguistic Overview .....	7.
1.2. Education System Overview .....	9.
1.2.1. Pre-independence Period .....	9.
Primary Education.....	9.
Secondary Education .....	11.
Higher Education .....	13.
1.2.2. Post-independence Period .....	13.
Primary Education .....	13.
Secondary Education .....	14.
Higher Education .....	15.
1.3. Foreign Language Teaching .....	17.
1.3.1. Overview .....	17.
1884-1945 .....	18.
1945-1960 .....	19.
1960 onward .....	19.
1.3.2. The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language .....	20.
1.3.2.1. Overview .....	20.
1.3.2.2. TEFL and ISP English Departments .....	21.
References .....	24.



PART TWO: TOWARDS A THEORETICAL UNDERSTANDING OF FOREIGN	
LANGUAGE LEARNING IN ZAIRE AND EASTERN KASAI .....	27.
CHAPTER TWO: LIVING WITH MORE THAN ONE LANGUAGE:	
EFFECTS ON THE FL LEARNER .....	28.
References .....	37.
CHAPTER THREE: THE BILINGUAL LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE .....	40.
3.1. The Bilingual's Languages: Independence or	
Interdependence? .....	40.
3.2. Bilingual Language Processing, Development, and Learning ...	43.
3.2.1. Language Processing .....	43.
3.2.2. Language Development and Learning .....	45.
3.3. Strategies in FL Learning .....	51.
References .....	62.
CHAPTER FOUR: INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL DIMENSIONS OF	
FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING .....	71.
4.1. Biological Factors .....	71.
4.2. Cognitive Factors .....	76.
4.3. Environmental/ Contextual Factors .....	78.
4.4. Language-specific Factors .....	83.
4.5. Social Psychological Factors .....	86.
References .....	96.
CHAPTER FIVE: FL/ EFL TEACHING METHODS AND APPROACHES:	
OVERVIEW .....	103.
5.1. FL/ EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches: Overview .....	103.
5.1.1. Grammar Translation Method .....	104.
5.1.2. Direct Method .....	105.
5.1.3. Audiolingual Method .....	106.
5.1.4. Audiovisual Method .....	108.
5.1.5. Communicative Language Teaching .....	109.
5.1.6. Total Physical Response Method .....	112.

5.1.7. Silent Way Method .....	114.
5.1.8. Community Language Learning .....	117.
5.1.9. Suggestopedia .....	119.
5.2. EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches in Zaire .....	123.
Before Independence .....	123.
From Independence Onward .....	123.
References .....	127.

### PART THREE: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

LEARNING IN EASTERN KASAI .....	131.
CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH METHODS AND SAMPLES .....	132.
6.1. Population and Area .....	132.
6.2. Samples and Sampling Techniques .....	133.
6.2.1. Area .....	133.
6.2.2. Schools, Forms and Streams .....	134.
6.2.2.1. Secondary Schools .....	134.
6.2.2.1.1. Forms and Streams .....	134.
6.2.2.2. Universities and Colleges of Higher Education .....	135.
6.2.3. Population .....	135.
6.2.3.1. Learners .....	136.
6.2.3.1.1. Secondary School Students .....	136.
6.2.3.1.2. ISP Students .....	136.
6.2.3.2. Teachers .....	140.
6.2.3.3. Inspectors and Political Educational Authorities .....	141.
References .....	142.
CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA COLLECTION: INSTRUMENTS AND TECHNIQUES .....	143.
7.1. Questionnaires .....	143.
7.1.1. Construction .....	145.
7.1.2. Piloting the Questionnaires .....	146.
7.1.3. Administration of the Questionnaires: The Sessions .....	147.

7.2. Interviews/ Discussions .....	149.
7.2.1. Type and Construction .....	149.
7.2.2. Piloting the Interviews .....	150.
7.2.3. Administration of the Interviews .....	150.
7.2.3.1. Teachers .....	151.
7.2.3.1.1. Secondary School Teachers .....	151.
7.2.3.1.2. ISP Teachers .....	153.
7.2.3.2. Inspectors .....	154.
7.2.3.3. Political Educational Authorities .....	154.
7.3. Classroom Observations .....	155.
References .....	158.
CHAPTER EIGHT: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS .....	159.
8.1. Classroom Observations .....	161.
8.1.1. Outline .....	161.
8.1.2. Results .....	164.
8.2. Students: Perceptions and Behaviours .....	176.
8.2.1. Questionnaires: Outlines and Results .....	177.
8.2.1.1. 2nd, 3rd, and 4th-form Students .....	177.
8.2.1.1.1. Questionnaire 1 Outline .....	177.
8.2.1.1.2. Results .....	178.
8.2.1.1.3. Summary .....	183.
8.2.1.2. 5th and 6th-form Students .....	184.
8.2.1.2.1. Questionnaire 2 Outline .....	185.
8.2.1.2.2. Results .....	186.
8.2.1.2.3. Summary .....	190.
8.2.1.3. 1st-year ISP Students .....	191.
8.2.1.3.1. Questionnaire 3 Outline .....	191.
8.2.1.3.2. Results .....	192.
8.2.1.3.3. Summary .....	196.
8.2.1.4. 2nd and 3rd-year ISP Students .....	197.

8.2.1.4.1. Questionnaire 4 Outline .....	197.
8.2.1.4.2. Results .....	198.
8.2.1.4.3. Summary .....	202.
8.2.2. Classroom Observations: Results with Respect to Students .....	202.
8.2.3. Summary of Results from Student Data .....	204.
8.3. Teachers: Perceptions and Behaviours .....	206.
8.3.1. Interview: Outline and Results .....	207.
8.3.1.1. Outline .....	207.
8.3.1.2. Results .....	208.
8.3.2. Classroom Observations: Results with Respect to Teachers .....	220.
8.3.3. Summary of Results of Data from Teachers .....	221.
8.4. Inspectors: Perceptions .....	222.
8.4.1. Interview: Outline and Results .....	223.
8.4.1.1. Outline .....	223.
8.4.1.2. Results .....	224.
8.5. Political Educational Authorities: Perceptions .....	235.
8.5.1. Interview: Outline and Results .....	235.
8.5.1.1. Outline .....	235.
8.5.1.2. Results .....	236.
8.6. General Summary of Results .....	240.
References .....	246.

#### PART FOUR: MAJOR FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

AND CONCLUSION .....	247.
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#### CHAPTER NINE: MAJOR FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS .....	249.
-----------------------	------

9.1. Summary of Findings and Implications .....	249.
---	------

9.2. Recommendations .....	258.
----------------------------	------

References .....	268.
CHAPTER TEN: CONCLUSION .....	270.
References .....	281.
BIBLIOGRAPHY .....	282.
APPENDICES .....	309.

## LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

FIGURES	pages
Fig.1.: The 4 Zairean National Languages .....	528.
Fig.2.: The 4 Major Localities Where the Fieldwork was Conducted .....	529.
Fig.3: Zairean Education System .....	530.
Fig.4: Pictures of Two of the Schools We Worked With .....	539.
TABLES	
Table 1: How Teachers Worked with Students .....	
Table 2: Relative Number of Students who Responded to Teachers and to Each Other .....	
Table 3: Relative Quantity of Student Speech .....	
Table 4: Cognitive Processes Used by Students .....	
Table 5: Types of Languages Used in Classroom Interactions .....	
Table 6a: Relative Number (in %) of Students Who Talked to Teachers and to Each Other .....	
Table 6b: Relative Number (in %) of Students' Speech Quantity ...	
Table 7: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.1. Items with T/S/AS/Px/J response mode .....	329.
Table 8: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.1. Items with OUI/ NON response mode .....	333.
Table 9: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.1. Items H, I, & J ....	334.
Table 10: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.1. Items with E/TB/B/AB/M/CP response mode .....	335.
Table 11: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.1. Items 4, 9, 12, 13, 18, 35, 38, 43, 58 & 59 .....	336.
Table 12: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.2. Items with 1/2/3 response mode .....	349.

Table 13: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.2. Items with TI/I/AI/MI/Ne/PI response mode .....	350.
Table 14: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.2. Items with OUI/ NON response mode .....	351.
Table 15: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.3. Items with 1/2/3 response mode .....	363.
Table 16: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.3. Items with TI/I/AI/MI/Ne/PI response mode .....	364.
Table 17: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.3. Items with OUI/ NON response mode .....	365.
Table 18: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.4. Items with 1/2/3 response mode .....	378.
Table 19: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.4. Items with TI/I/AI/MI/Ne/PI response mode .....	379.
Table 20: Frequency & Percentage Counts: Q.4. Items with OUI/ NON response mode .....	380.
Table 21: Summary of Teachers' Personal Details .....	398.
Table 22: Summary of Inspectors' Personal Details .....	490.
Table 23: Summary of Political Educational Authorities' Personal Details .....	515.
Table 24: The Cycle d'Orientation Curriculum .....	531.
Table 25: Secondary Schools That Participated in the Investigation .....	532.
Table 26: All the Schools That Participated in the Investigation .....	533.
Table 27: Types and Number of Observed Lessons .....	534.
Table 28: Schools, Levels, Number and Types of Observed Lessons .....	536.
Table 29: Number (per School & Form) of Participants in Observed Lessons .....	536.

Table 30: Total Number (per Group & Lesson Type) of  
Participants in Observed Lessons ..... 537.

Table 31: Participants We Talked To After Observing Lessons ..... 537.

Table 32: Compared Summaries of Items 39 to 63 of  
Q.2, Q.3, and Q.4 ..... 538.



## INTRODUCTION

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After nearly sixteen years of firsthand experience in English in Teacher Training Colleges (*Instituts Supérieurs Pédagogiques: ISP*) as a learner (five years) and lecturer/ teacher trainer (eleven years), we came to the conclusion that TEFL in Zaire in general, and in Eastern Kasai in particular, has not produced the results it was expected to bear.

One obvious fact attracted our attention: the great majority of Ciluba-French speaking learners of English do not (dare) express themselves in this language. They seem afraid to use it and do not willingly participate in (English) lessons.

As we shall see in Part One, the Zairean learner of English lives in a multilingual society and knows, prior to learning this language, at least his own mother tongue and French. And in the case of the learner in Eastern Kasai, he knows Ciluba (either as his mother tongue or as the national lingua franca in this province) and French.

English is, in this area, practically unknown, for it is used only by those few people who learn and/ or know it. This has repercussions on both the frequency and extent to which the learner in Eastern Kasai uses it, and the opportunity he has to use it. Indeed, the only times he *might* use this language are during English lessons, and when, outside the classroom, he (if he has the courage) practises with his classmates, his teacher, and the other people who know and speak it.

Theoretically and practically therefore, English is, for him (as it is for all Zaireans), a *foreign* language, not a second as some have claimed (Dika, 1984:3)<sup>1</sup>. Because of this status, due in the main to (1) the place this language occupies in Zairean society as a whole, and in Eastern Kasai in particular, (2) the ways it is used (in terms of opportunity and frequency), and (3) the number of people who use it, the Ciluba-French speaking learner of English (like any other bilinguals learning a foreign language in similar conditions) is inevitably doomed to meet with difficulties when he learns this language. These are located at every level of learning, and will manifest themselves differently and at varying degrees, depending on the learner involved.

The chief objective in the teaching of living languages, hence of English, is to produce people who are able to function in the language, i.e. people capable of engaging successfully in conversation with native as well as nonnative speakers of the language. Related to this is the following (also important) objective: the ability to

use the language satisfactorily in writing, hence to read and understand it.

From our own English learning/ teaching experience and observation, we have noticed, as some others did before us (for instance Swekila, 1981, and Lubasa, 1985:152)<sup>2</sup>, that the percentage of Zairean learners who actually come successfully to use English in oral communication is very low, as compared to that of those who, though unable(?) to speak it, can somehow satisfactorily understand it when written. Besides, amongst these many are those who can grasp the message when they are orally addressed in this language, but who are unable (?) to use it and thus *prefer*(?) to reply partly or wholly in either French or any of the other languages they already know.

In the same proportions, the motivation of many to learn (to speak) English, which seems to be high before and upon starting the learning process, seems to fall some time after (and goes on decreasing) to the point that most become discouraged and ultimately lose any hope of succeeding. But at the same time, the few who manage seem to become more motivated and persevering in their initial intent to learn and speak this language.

We have also noticed that these few are mainly those who succeed in getting good marks and who, above all and in spite of their evident lack of command in English, rather unashamedly and fearlessly use the bits they already know and whatever else they think is likely to be of help to them in the various oral interactions they engage in with their teacher, fellow learners and other people with whom they happen to use English. Among the many who happen to become disheartened (but who unfortunately have to get good marks, as this is officially one of the conditions to be fulfilled to pass from one class to another), many are those who somehow come to succeed in their English tests and exams, which are basically written. Even though they succeed in getting good marks in English, they generally speaking no longer enjoy learning it. For them, success in it (i.e. getting good marks) has indeed become an external obligation they are willy-nilly to endure and satisfy if ever they are to pass from one class to another. It is in this sense that we have noticed that most of them go to English lessons just to attend, take notes, and sit tests and exams.

This study is fundamentally concerned with finding answers to problems encountered by teachers and particularly learners of English in Eastern Kasai, and especially solutions to the following basic question: *Why is it that most Zairean Ciluba-French speaking learners of English do not (dare) speak English?*

Although we sense which of the factors involved in TEFL (see Part Two) seem

well-indicated to be the culprits, we can unfortunately not put them forward as being *the* factors we are looking for, as no empirical evidence has yet been found to support such allegation. It is then in this perspective that we have judged it unwise to posit very specific hypotheses. Instead, we have decided to investigate most of the factors (*vide infra*) and expect the empirical study (Part Three) to disclose those likely to be the most responsible for the situation described above. It is therefore the aim of this study to find out those factors that cause the problem we have just described, deal with them, and suggest ways and means to solve the problem and improve the overall TEFL situation in Eastern Kasai, and possibly in Zaire as a whole.

We have set out to clarify and understand the problem at the centre of this thesis by (a) examining the specific situation of (Zaire and) Eastern Kasai, through an exploration of issues in language and FL/ EFL learning/ teaching as reflected in the literature, and (b) carrying out an empirical study on TEFL in Eastern Kasai.

The study is divided into four major parts:

Part One (The Learner Background) deals with the learners' historical, sociolinguistic as well as education system background. Hence it contains one chapter (Chapter One), which is subdivided into two main sections: (1) Historical and Sociolinguistic Overview, and (2) Education System Overview. In the former, we give brief accounts of the political and sociolinguistic history of Zaire and, in the latter the education system in place in this country. In this latter case, we focus particularly on the teaching of foreign languages (namely French and English).

Part Two (Towards a Theoretical Understanding of Foreign Language Learning in Zaire and Eastern Kasai) is an attempt to understand EFL learning and teaching, which we do by reviewing the relevant literature related to language and FL/ EFL learning and teaching, and also to other issues (we think are) also relevant to the topic of this thesis. We have subdivided it into four chapters:

Chapter Two (Living with More than One Language: Effects on the FL Learner) deals with the effects knowing more than one language has on the FL learner and the learning itself;

Chapter Three (The Bilingual Learning a Foreign Language) discusses (1) the relationships that exist between the languages involved in the FL learning process, (2) the way the FL learner processes this language, how it develops and how the learning process itself evolves, and (3) the strategies this learner is likely to use to learn the FL;

Chapter Four (Individual and Social Dimensions of Foreign Language Learning) is concerned with the importance and place in FL learning of biological, cognitive, environmental/ contextual, language-specific and social psychological factors, and Chapter Five (FL/ EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches) is a description and assessment of some methods and approaches generally known in foreign language learning and TEFL, and those used in (Zaire and) Eastern Kasai. Hence we have subdivided it into two sections: (1) FL/ EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches: Overview, and (2) EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches in Zaire.

Part Three (An Empirical Investigation Of English Language Learning In Eastern Kasai) is entirely devoted to the empirical study. It therefore consists of an account of the fieldwork, the analysis of the data collected and the presentation of the results they generated. We thus divided it into three chapters:

Chapter Six (Research Methods and Samples) deals with the methods we planned to use to conduct our fieldwork and to sample the population and area we were to investigate;

Chapter Seven (Data Collection: Instruments and Techniques) is mainly about the instruments and techniques we planned to use and those we actually used and how we used them to carry out our fieldwork, and

Chapter Eight (Data Analysis and Results) is devoted to the analysis of the data we gathered and the presentation of the results we got.

The fourth and last part (Major Findings, Implications, Recommendations and Conclusion) is subdivided into two sections: the first is concerned with but the most important findings of the analysis, and above all, with the one which, among them, contributes the most to the lack of oral fluency by learners of English in Eastern Kasai; the second is the conclusion of the whole thesis.

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## PART ONE

### THE LEARNER BACKGROUND

---

This part is about the Zairean learner background, a background shared by all Zairean learners. For, as the reader will notice, we have not found it important or relevant to specifically distinguish the Ciluba-speaking Zairean learner of English from other Zairean learners, as the sociohistorical and linguistic experience they underwent and still undergo is common to all of them.

## CHAPTER ONE

### ZAIRE: HISTORICAL, SOCIOLINGUISTIC AND EDUCATION SYSTEM OVERVIEW

---

#### 1.1. Historical and Sociolinguistic Overview

Spread over 2,400,000 square kms in Central Africa, Zaire is bordered by the Central African Republic and Sudan (to the North), Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, Tanzania and Zambia (to the East), Zambia and Angola (to the South), and Kabinda (Angolan territory), the People's Republic of Congo and the Central African Republic (to the West).

Discovered by the Portuguese Diego Cao in 1492, it became first a private property of King Leopold II of Belgium (1884) under the name of *L'Etat Indépendant du Congo* -The Free State of the Congo (FSC) (Lubasa, 1985:63-64)<sup>1</sup>. It was only in 1906 (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:66; Filip, 1967:15)<sup>2</sup> that it became internationally a Belgian colony under the name of The Congo. And it remained so until its independence on 30 June, 1960. It then changed into *La République Démocratique du Congo* (The Democratic Republic of the Congo). In 1967, for political and ideological reasons, this name was in turn dropped for *Zaire*.

Zaire is inhabited by many different peoples whose cultures and languages are, in the main, related. It is then well-advised to view it as a multilingual/ multicultural country. Languages in Zaire can be assigned to two main groups: Zairean and Non-Zairean. Each of these groups can further be subdivided into Major and Minor languages.

Zairean languages are the local languages spoken by the different Zairean peoples since time immemorial. Some researchers say that they total the staggering number of 250 (Challenger, 1984:4; Lubasa, 1985:27)<sup>3</sup>, while others put this number to around 212 (Acct-Cerdotola, 1983:9)<sup>4</sup>.

When considering the number of individuals who spoke each of these languages, the areas they covered, and the extent (in terms of frequency of use) to which they were used by the Congolese, the Belgians subdivided these languages into major and

minor ones.

Major (Congolese) languages included Ciluba [spoken in the two Kasai (Eastern and Western) and part of the Shaba provinces]; Kikongo [spoken in Bas-Zaire (Lower Zaire) and part of Bandundu provinces, and Kinshasa]; Kiswahili [spoken in Shaba, Kivu and part of Haut-Zaire (Upper-Zaire) provinces], and Lingala [spoken in Haut-Zaire, Equateur, part of Bandundu provinces, and Kinshasa] (see Fig.1.: Appendix 3.1.). This latter language was adopted by the colonizers as the language of the Army, which it still is nowadays. These languages were (and still are) also known as national languages. They were used on the radio and in some newspapers. They still occupy the same position nowadays, and are used on the radio, in some newspapers and T.V. broadcasts. It is worth mentioning however that, nowadays, apart from Kikongo, these languages are spreading in other areas where they are being used, besides the original local national language, as second or even third lingua franca (see Fig.1.: Appendix 3.1.).

Minor languages were all the remaining ones. Of these were Otetela and Kisonge (in Eastern Kasai), Cikuba (in Western Kasai), Cokwe (in Western Kasai, Shaba and Bandundu), Kiluba and Ruund (in Shaba), Mashi and Rega (in Kivu), Lokele and Longando (in Upper-Zaire), Lomongo and Libinza (in Equateur), Yanzi and Kiyaka (in Bandundu), and Kiyombe and Kindibu (in Lower-Zaire). This subdivision is still in place today.

Non-Zairean languages were mainly European languages introduced by the colonizers for political, economic and administrative reasons (see 1.2.: Education System Overview). They were French (promoted official and administration language of the colony in 1936), Flemish and English (intended to be spoken), and Latin, Greek and German (for writing purposes only). But nowadays, there remain only French and English, on the one hand, and Latin on the other hand.



## 1.2. Education System Overview

In the following lines, we intend to describe the Zairean education system before and after independence, insisting more on the place occupied by the teaching of languages, particularly of English as compared to that of French.

For practical reasons, we find it necessary to insist more on secondary and higher education, as TEFL, the topic of the present thesis, is introduced only on these two levels.

### 1.2.1. Pre-independence Period

This section is concerned with a description of the Zairean system of education as it was during colonization. For the sake of clarity and conciseness, we have decided to divide this period (as far as primary and secondary education are concerned) into three stages: from 1884 to 1906; from 1906 to 1954; and from 1954 to 1960. As the reader will notice (*vide infra*), we have selected these years for the simple reason that they mark the beginning and end of important periods in the political/ educational life of the Congolese. We have stuck to the same subdivision for higher education, even though some stages do not coincide with noticeable events in its development.

#### Primary Education

##### 1884-1906

In the Free State of the Congo, and long before that, schools were organized by catholic and protestant missionaries who were mostly interested in the teaching of the Bible and related moral matters. Though the first move by the colonizing power to officially set up a school system for Congolese took place in 1889, it was only with the creation, in 1890, of *Colonies d'Enfants Indigènes* (Kita, 1982:130)<sup>5</sup> - School Colonies (George, 1966:3)<sup>6</sup> - that the decision was implemented.

According to the government, these schools were created first to take care of Congolese homeless children. This has however been challenged by many who saw in them a cover for the FSC's unproclaimed desire to exploit the natural resources and

cheap labour of the colony (Van Hove, 1951:4)<sup>7</sup>. In fact, the objective put forward for the setting up of that school system was to train the Congolese so as to provide the colonizers with "auxiliaires de l'administration et des entreprises privées" (aids for administration and private businesses) (Van Hove, 1951:4)<sup>8</sup>. In other words, education was provided, not really to educate the colonized, but to train them so that they might be used by the colonizers in their exploitation of the colony.

This seems to be the reason why only basics were taught, and why attempts by private individuals to implement some better system and have Congolese educated in Belgium were bitterly opposed by the government (Kita, 1982:123-130)<sup>9</sup>. It is also in the same sense that should be understood the government's policy of providing education to the natives first only through the medium of local languages, to which job-related rudiments of French were added later (see 1.3.: Foreign Language Teaching).

All in all, primary schooling during this period was mainly in the hands of missionaries and, though occasionally provided, French was not the language of instruction. In fact, according to the areas where schools were located, the language of instruction was either one of the four local national languages, or any of the other local non-national languages. The four national languages soon became however the sole instructional languages officially acknowledged at this level.

#### 1906-1954

Although there was a slight improvement in the use of French (in quantitative as well as qualitative terms), primary education programmes in use in different schools were inadequate, i.e. low (as compared to international standards) and different from one school to another.

Inadequacy was to be seen on two levels: the content and the quality of what was taught. The latter knew some improvement whereas the former remained basically more utilitarian than educational. Indeed the main objective of education at this level was still to train the Congolese (1) to work hard, and (2) to become law-abiding and morally well-behaved beings (Congo Belge, 1929:1; Congo Belge, 1938:5)<sup>10</sup>. It is then evident why no provision was made or even any idea considered seriously as to the introduction of a programme for developing the natives' general education (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:65)<sup>11</sup>.

In 1938 however, a reform was proposed that aimed to restructure the education system so as to allow some 'bright' students to be trained for secondary school education. But because of the Second World War, it was not implemented until 1948 (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:65)<sup>12</sup>. That year also saw another change introduced in the school system: in an attempt to improve school curricula, the colonial power replaced part of Congolese primary school programmes by Belgian programmes (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:65)<sup>13</sup>.

Though in those early years education was chiefly in the hands of missionaries, some non-confessional schools have unofficially existed since 1946 (Filip, 1967:16)<sup>14</sup>. It was only in 1954 however that, through a decree, A. Buisseret the then Belgian *Ministre des Colonies* (Minister of Colonies) made official the creation of non-confessional state-sponsored schools. But the first of these *écoles officielles laïques* really started in 1956 (Filip, 1967:16)<sup>15</sup>.

As should be expected, this decision and its application were met by a strong block opposition from the churches, especially the Catholic Church.

#### 1954-1960

Due to and in the wake of the 1948-1954 reforms, Congolese primary education developed further, and the use of French went on increasing. From 1954, this language became the major medium of instruction: from the second position it used to occupy (taught and used alongside one of the local languages in the last two years of six-year primary schooling), it came to occupy the first (it came to be taught and used alongside the local languages during the first three to four years, and then alone during the last three or two years).

#### Secondary Education

##### 1906-1954

Practically speaking, secondary education was not organized until 1906. Even though some *petits séminaires* (lower seminaries) existed before 1906, it was not before this year that the first non-Bible oriented secondary schools were created. They were intended for *candidats commis* (clerks) and were soon followed in 1908 by

many others (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:66)<sup>16</sup>.

Studies in these schools were still utility-oriented because the aim was to "former des commis, des ouvriers semi-qualifiés, des moniteurs pour les classes élémentaires et des agents subalternes pour les cadres locaux de l'agriculture "(to train clerks, semi-qualified workers, lower primary school teachers and subordinates for local agricultural businessmen) (UNESCO, 1963:441)<sup>17</sup>. By 1929, there already unofficially existed some *écoles spéciales* (specialized schools) (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:67)<sup>18</sup> for clerks (*Section des candidats-commis*), lower primary school teachers (*Ecoles moyennes*) and craftsmen (*Section professionnelle*).

In 1938, the *école moyenne* type was officially implemented. Its revealed objective was twofold: (1) to train students to become efficient clerks, and (2) to prepare them for specialized higher education (but not the university) (Congo Belge, 1938:10;21)<sup>19</sup>. As is evident, the utilitarian orientation set at the beginning of the schooling system still prevailed. It was not before 1948 that the general education dimension was introduced, with the creation of *écoles secondaires* (secondary schools), especially the scientific (administration and commerce, architecture, and sciences) and literary (Latin) sections.

It was with these latter schools that appeared the idea (though not yet fully put into action) of training students for university-type education (Congo Belge, 1948:21)<sup>20</sup>.

#### 1954-1960

Following the creation of non-denominational state-sponsored primary schools, the *Athénées* (first non-confessional state-sponsored secondary schools) were created in 1955. Then came the turn of *Collèges* i.e. state-subsidized schools, but managed by private individuals or bodies, mainly catholic missionaries. The study programmes followed in these schools were the same as those used in Belgium. This change in secondary school programmes and management went on until independence.

Since most programmes in application during this period were on the whole similar to those used in Belgium, it is then true that the position of French both as an instruction language and a subject improved to the extent that it became *the* instruction language in secondary schools by the time independence was achieved.

## Higher Education

For a long time, only two types of higher education schools existed that allowed some few students to have access to higher education: (1) *les écoles pour assistants médicaux* (schools for training medical auxiliaries) and (2) *grands séminaires* (higher seminaries for training those who, after lower seminaries, intended to become priests and had then to take orders).

The two first universities, viz. the *Université Lovanium* (Kinshasa) and the *Université d'Etat* (State University, Lubumbashi) were created in 1956 (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:70)<sup>21</sup>. They were the two universities that existed then until the country got its independence. It is, therefore not surprising that, at independence, Zaire had not more than twenty university graduates, out of the 13,000,000 population it then counted (George, 1966)<sup>22</sup>.

### 1.2.2. Post-independence Period

Post-independence Zairean education system as a whole was (and still is) characterized by a seemingly endless cycle of reforms. This however must be understood in the overall attitude of a country that was trying to forget the colonial past and shape itself according to its new but-not-yet-found identity.

At independence, there was an urgent need (1) to create many more schools (as more and more people wanted to study, mainly in order to have access to better job and social positions), and (2) to improve education both qualitatively and quantitatively so as to match international standards set by UNESCO.

To realize these goals turned out to be more difficult than expected as the country could not yet afford the huge funding that was required. Therefore, most reforms were, for a long time, either kept in drawers or not implemented as they should be. Consequently, programmes and structures in application even today are, in the main, a reflection of those of the period just before independence.

## Primary Education

Though what we have just said about the objectives of the reforms generally speaking concerned all three levels of education, it was nonetheless believed that primary education reforms aimed chiefly at improving education quality rather than

increasing its quantity (UNESCO, 1961:31)<sup>23</sup>.

To fulfil this goal, the following decisions were taken: (1) to banish the multiplicity of programmes and structures by adopting only one national curriculum ( Ministère de l'Éduc. Nat. et des Beaux Arts, 1961a; 1962a:9; 1963b; Georis, 1962; Georis and Agbiano, 1965:108; Ekwa et al., 1965:73)<sup>24</sup>, (2) to make it compulsory that the primary school normal study cycle be six years and, (3) to improve teacher quality by means of refresher courses, pedagogical meetings, conferences and further training in the country and abroad. The most important element (as far as we are concerned) was the fact that more time (15 hours per week) was allocated to the teaching of French, this meaning that (1) this language was on its way to becoming *the* instruction language, and (2) apart from it, no other non-Zairean language was taught or used (Georis & Agbiano, 1965:85)<sup>25</sup>. As to the improvement of teacher quality, it was achieved on only a very low and limited scale because of budgetary constraints.

Though there has been recently a real move towards the proclaimed objectives, these reforms have not been so far fully executed, for several political and economic reasons.

### Secondary Education

As said in the introduction to this section, most of the reforms were, roughly speaking, intended for all three education levels. But when considered separately, they emphasized different aspects for each level. Thus, for secondary level, the government wanted (1) to raise the level of programmes to international standards so that secondary school leavers had guaranteed access to any higher education in the world, (2) that programmes be conceived in the light of Zairean economic, political and sociocultural realities, (3) that all those who successfully completed the secondary cycle have access to higher education, (4) that those who could not should be useful to the society, and (5) that those who completed the cycle in specialized branches (if they did not wish to go on to higher education) be adequately trained in jobs they were training for.

To achieve these objectives, the government set out to re-define all the structures and improve programmes. Thus, on completing primary education, students were guaranteed access to the *Cycle d'Orientation* (Orientation Cycle), the first two years of the six-year secondary education. The Cycle's main objectives were (1) to improve

students' knowledge of French both as a subject and the language of instruction, and (2) to provide students with basic knowledge in mathematics, technology and sciences, knowledge that was believed to be propaedeutical to successful instruction later on, during the remaining four years of secondary education.

At the end of the Cycle, students were (according to their results in the different courses provided) *oriented* to one of the four-year study sections/options which constituted the second and final stage of secondary education (see Fig. 3.: Appendix 3.3.).

As shown in Table 24 (see Appendix 3.4.), the study programme included most of the courses thought to be necessary for a better general preparation to the different sections/ options mentioned in Fig.3. (see Appendix 3.3.). The most striking fact for us as far as this thesis is concerned is the dropping of English in the Cycle d'Orientation, even though it was intended to be taught in the second year (O.N.R.D., 1970:132)<sup>26</sup>. Yet, although officially promulgated, this programme was not systematically applied by all schools: some organized TEFL during the two years, some others during the second year only, and still others did not. This indecisiveness still prevails nowadays, but with the balance of power shifting more in favour of the reinstating of TEFL in the whole Cycle (see 1.3.: Foreign Language Teaching).

As said above, successful students were directed to the sections/options mentioned in Table 3 where, apart from courses related to their different options, they had plenty of French (both as a subject and the only instruction language) and two to five hours a week of English. This is still in application, but with the five hours a week of English becoming the norm.

### Higher Education

Compared to primary and secondary education, higher education did not undergo many in-depth structure and programme reforms. The first reform to be carried out was the creation (funded by UNESCO) of other higher education institutions than the university: (1) *Institut Pédagogique National* (IPN) (Kinshasa, 1961) was the first Teacher Training College to be created in the country; (2) *Institut National du Bâtiment et des Travaux Publics* (INBTP) (Kinshasa, 1962); (3) *Ecole Nationale d'Administration* (ENDA) (Kinshasa, 1962), and (4) *Institut National des Mines* (INM) (Bukavu, 1962) (Filip, 1967:57)<sup>27</sup>.

In 1964, under the sponsorship of American protestant missionaries, was created, in Kisangani, the third local university, the *Université Libre du Congo* (Free University of the Congo) (O.N.R.D., 1970:161)<sup>28</sup>. And since 1965, nearly thirty-five colleges of higher education have been created, of which nineteen are *Instituts Supérieurs Pédagogiques* (ISP). As we shall see later, these Teacher Training Colleges played a major role in the teaching of English in Zaire.

As said in the preceding lines, reforms of higher education system were basically meant to increase the number of higher education institutions, hence increase the number of (higher education) graduates who could take most of the job positions occupied/ deserted by foreigners, especially in education.

Although the quality of teaching was not so much the concern as quantity, it was nevertheless also affected, chiefly in the suppression of some courses the authorities thought used to trigger student demonstrations. In their place, they introduced some political ideological teaching the basic aim of which was to keep students *on the leash* and *on track*. It is in the light of this political ideological orientation that should also be understood the series of (1) *denomination* reforms (reforms that were concerned primarily with changing the names of higher education institutions), and (2) the *specialization* of the *graduat* level (first cycle of higher education studies).

As regards the first, the following were amongst some of the changes that were brought about: in 1971, the three universities, together with all the colleges and polytechnics became part of a single national university, the *Université Nationale du Zaire* (UNAZA). The former universities became *Campus Universitaires* (University Campuses) (Rectorat, 1976:21; Rectorat, 1978a:10)<sup>29</sup>. In 1981, the UNAZA was in turn suppressed, and the different composing entities became: (1) (the three universities) *Université de Kinshasa, Université de Kisangani, Université de Lubumbashi* (Cabinet du Premier Commétat, 1981)<sup>30</sup>, and (2) the colleges and polytechnics continued to be called as they were before 1971.

The specialization reform was aimed at increasing the number of years of the first cycle in the universities (from two to three) in conformity with what was being done in ISPs. The reason behind this reform was that, after the first cycle, university students who decided not to go on with their studies up to the Licence (the second cycle) were of no immediate use to the society because what they were taught was said to be too theoretical. Hence the decision to increase their study duration to three years in order to teach them some practical skills (of their choice). This worry seems



to have been in line with UNAZA official general objective, namely:

“L’Université Zairoise doit être en état d’assurer l’ensemble des services nécessaires à la société moderne et de s’adapter constamment aux besoins de celle-ci”. (Zairean University should be able to provide services required by modern society and to adjust constantly to its changing needs.) (Rectorat, 1978a:10)<sup>31</sup>.

The number of years at the *Licence* level remained two in all institutions where this cycle was organized (see Fig.3: Appendix 3.3.).

Ph.D. courses/ researches were also organized, but on a very limited scale. Most Zairean *Licenciés* (holders of a Licence degree) who wished and were lucky enough to undertake Ph.D. studies had to go abroad, mainly to Belgium, France, the USA and, only recently, the U.K.

### 1.3. Foreign Language Teaching

#### 1.3.1. Overview

The teaching of foreign languages in Zaire (*foreign* in its largest sense, i.e. including *foreign second* and *foreign foreign* language teaching) can be traced back to the very time when the country came into contact with Europeans. But for reasons of conciseness, and also because FLT is associated with schooling, we shall concentrate on the period stretching from the time of the Free State of the Congo to the present day.

As said earlier, before 1906, schools did not exist to the extent of being considered an organized system. In the same way, Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) as such did not start before schooling was systematically organized. As one of the two official languages in Belgium, and particularly because it was spoken by the royal Belgian family, and second because already internationally established, French was the first foreign language to be introduced in the school system (Congo Belge, 1929:11-42; Van Hove, 1951:5-8)<sup>32</sup>. But later, due to criticisms by the Belgian Flemish-speaking

community, Flemish was also introduced, followed later by English (Congo Belge, 1948:22; Van Hove, 1951:20-21)<sup>33</sup>. But, on account of its lack of international coverage and competitiveness, Flemish was shortly after dropped. From then on until the end of the colonial period, the only foreign languages to be taught (for speaking purposes) were French and English.

Apart from these two languages, German, Greek, and Latin were also taught: Greek and Latin (this latter language is still taught today) as compulsory subjects in literary options, and German (for a shorter period) as an optional choice in both literary and scientific sections.

At higher education level, Latin (and Greek for a short period) was taught in university Latin Philology departments and in ISP departments of French (Latin option), where it still is. German was also taught (for a shorter period) in the then department of Germanic Philology (German option) (*vide infra*).

Our intention in the following lines however is to concentrate more on French and English as they were (and still are) the two foreign languages really in competition within the school system as well as within the society.

#### 1884 - 1945

The first steps in FLT were basically concerned with elementary French taught (through reading, writing and translation) for survival communication in very specific job fields where Congolese were trained (Sloan and Kitchen, 1962:11; George, 1966)<sup>34</sup>. In reading, the stress was laid on the acquisition of *accurate pronunciation*. Hence it consisted mostly in training the learners to read aloud as perfectly as French native speakers. Writing consisted of spelling and short sentence writing, with the emphasis laid on grammaticality. Exercises consisted largely of translation from and into the local language (of the area or the one used as *lingua franca*). Later on however, it was officially decreed (Congo Belge, 1929:12; Mackay, 1965:145)<sup>35</sup> that French be taught only in French. But translating from and into the local language(s) remained by far the most used method (Van Roey, 1961:11)<sup>36</sup>.

### 1945-1960

Like many other developing countries, Zaire also sent some of its sons to fight in the Second World War. It was during that stay abroad that they came into contact with many other different peoples, colonizers as well as colonized. As a consequence, they became restless and aware of the place and position they were meant to occupy as well as the role they were likely to play both at home and in the world.

From 1945 onward, many Congolese started travelling abroad, especially to Belgium and then France. In so doing, they felt a growing need to learn French in order to communicate with the new peoples they were getting into touch with. Boosting that need was also the change in colonial educational policy introduced in 1948 by the then Belgian liberal socialist coalition government, a change that officially made of French the medium of instruction in Congolese secondary schools.

As was the case in the preceding period, French teaching emphasized accuracy in use of grammatical rules and structures, and native-like pronunciation (Congo Belge, 1948:17-18)<sup>37</sup>.

### 1960 onward

With independence, the position of French was strengthened as this language was raised to the rank of (1) the official national and administration language, and (2) the language of instruction at all the levels of education. Knowledge of it thus became the key to better standards of living and better social status. And this is still the case today, though English is also claiming part of this repute (*vide infra*).

The methods used to teach French varied according to the competence and qualifications of the teachers. They included grammar-translation, direct, audiolingual and audiovisual methods. But it was this latter method that came to spread quickly and have deep roots thanks to French technical assistance and co-operation.

In fact, from 1965, diplomatic relations between France and Zaire became so strong that French influence permeated many Zairean fields of activities, especially education and the Army. Thus, ideas developed in French audiovisual method (by CREDIF in France) overwhelmed the teaching of French in Zaire. So pervasive was this influence that it culminated in the creation (among other things) of CELTA (*Centre de Linguistique Appliquée et Théorique: Centre for Applied and Theoretical*

Linguistics) whose chief objective it was to vulgarize AV principles as conceived by French audiovisual method. But due to technical and financial obstacles it raised, the method was simplified and adapted in different ways to Zairean conditions (cf. Chapter Five, point 5.2.).

Though nowadays AV influence is still felt in French teaching, most teachers have opted for a more eclectic approach, a mixture of elements from Grammar Translation (GT), Direct Method (DM), and mainly Audiolingual (AL)/ Audiovisual (AV) methods. No other methods than these seem to have been either used or even referred to. This situation has been perpetuated by ISP French departments where this particular AV-based eclectic approach is used to train future teachers of French.

The implementation and use of the methods cited above were not initiated by the Zairean educational authorities, but rather by individuals and private organizations. This is still the case nowadays, as there is still no precise government policy as far as teaching methods are concerned. What the government was preoccupied with was to lay down the general objectives of the teaching.

As implied above, teaching methods were mainly brought about by (foreign) textbook sellers, who astonishingly always came to convince the authorities as to their methods' validity and applicability. It was only then that the central education board recommended them to local educational authorities who, in turn, proposed/ passed them on to schools. This is still the case nowadays.

### 1.3.2. The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

#### 1.3.2.1. Overview

During the period stretching from 1884 to 1950 approximately, no systematic teaching of English was organized in the country, apart from some isolated cases where protestant missionaries used, during their leisure time, to introduce some pupils to this language.

It was mainly from fear that teaching another European language such as English (whose international reputation was growing faster) would hamper the spread of French, and also that its knowledge would open more doors to the natives, thus allowing them to raise questions about their condition, that the Belgians delayed the inclusion of English in Congolese secondary school FL curriculum. It is thus not

astonishing that it was only in the late 1950s that this language was finally officially decreed part of the curriculum, and still on an optional basis.

It was however with the creation of the *Université d'Etat* (Lubumbashi, 1956), particularly the opening within it of the Germanic Philology department (divided into German and English options), that English was, for the first time ever, introduced at higher education level.

Independence and the period after saw the position of English enhanced when (1) it became a compulsory secondary school subject, first during the whole six-year cycle, then from either second or third year up, and (2) when it was introduced, as a subject in all higher education colleges, and as both subject and medium of instruction in ISP departments of English.

These departments organize *Graduat* and *Licence* studies in TEFL. So far, only two of the 13 ISPs organize the Licence studies: the ISP of Bukavu and the IPN (in Kinshasa). No Ph.D. courses/ researches are organized in English as it is only recently (less than 10 years) that the first Zairean Ph.D. in English teaching came back from training abroad. And so far, there are not more than fifteen of them in the country.

#### 1.3.2.2. TEFL and ISP English departments

In line with the general objective assigned to all ISP departments, i.e. (1) to train teachers for the secondary school level and (2) to initiate research in applied pedagogy in order to devise teaching methods likely to improve educative practices in primary and secondary schools (E.S.U., 3 October 1981:69)<sup>38</sup>, English departments were created in order to train teachers in the art of teaching English as a second/ foreign language. Furthermore, they had to look for ways and means of improving English teaching/ learning in secondary schools.

Most of those who taught English before the advent of English departments in ISPs were, in the main, unqualified for the job: they were either university people who learnt English as a subject but who did not learn how to teach it, or just adventurers (mainly Belgians, French and Americans) who happened to know and speak English but had no TEFL qualification.

The creation of ISP departments of English marked a turning point in Zairean TEFL. Indeed, from then on, many of those who teach English in Zairean (urban)

secondary schools were (and are) holders of either the *Gradué en Pédagogie Appliquée: Option Anglais* degree or the *Licence* in the same field.

Now, although there are important differences between the status and position, and frequency and opportunity of use of English and French in Zaire, English is still chiefly taught with the same methods as those used to teach French, a fact depicting (we believe) the educational authorities' lack of perception between the positions, statuses, frequencies and opportunities of use of these two languages in the country. Indeed, even though it is undoubtedly evident that English is gaining ground as a foreign language in Zaire, it is nonetheless true that it still has a long way to go before it enjoys the same status and coverage as French.

Besides, although nowadays methodological eclecticism is the predominant approach in Zairean TEFL, most (if not all) Zairean TEFL teachers base it mainly on Direct and Audiolingual/ Audiovisual methods (see Chapter 5., especially point 5.2.).

What pushes us to say so is that, in our own experience with TEFL (see Introduction), as learner we have never been introduced or referred to, or as lecturer/teacher trainer, have never introduced our own students or even referred them to other methods (for instance Communicative Language Teaching, Community Language Learning, Silent Way) whose basic principles have had a massive impact on other parts of the world (see Chapter 5, point 5.2.).

By way of conclusion, we would say that in the teaching of English to Zaireans, the three following aspects should be taken into consideration:

- (1) the Zairean learner lives in a multilingual society and knows, prior to learning English, *at least two languages*: a local language and French;
- (2) in spite of its increasing importance in Zaire, and in Eastern Kasai in particular, English cannot be said (for the time being at least) to have already levelled with French as far as status, position, and frequency and opportunity of use are concerned;
- (3) in view of the above reasons, English should therefore not be taught practically with the same methods/ or approaches as those used in French teaching (see Chapter 5.).

It is therefore in relation with all this that we have devoted the next part (Part Two) to understanding theoretically English language learning/ teaching in Zaire and Eastern Kasai. And this we have done through a description and an analysis of (a) theories developed in foreign language learning/ teaching in general, and (b) some

findings of researches conducted in other parts of the world in both this general field and TEFL.

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## PART TWO

TOWARDS A THEORETICAL UNDERSTANDING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN ZAIRE AND EASTERN KASAI

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As we said when concluding Part One (Chapter One), we are trying, in this part, to understand theoretically English language teaching, in Eastern Kasai in particular, and in Zaire in general. Hence, the purpose of this part is to describe and analyse theories developed in foreign language learning/ teaching in general, and TEFL in particular, so as to understand how Ciluba-French speaking learners learn English, why they do so, and which teaching methods/ approaches are therefore more likely to allow them particularly to learn this language successfully, and so achieve the main objective pursued in TEFL in Eastern Kasai, and Zaire in general.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LIVING WITH MORE THAN ONE LANGUAGE: EFFECTS ON THE FL LEARNER

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In this chapter, we shall be concerned chiefly with cognitive, linguistic and psycholinguistic effects.

In today's world, many people use more than one language in their daily activities, and many more know more languages than their own mother tongue, even though they do not often use them in their day-to-day life. Thus, living with more languages has nowadays established itself as the norm, and has consequently driven the use of only one language into the state of exceptions.

The reasons why most people have come to learn and use more languages than their own mother tongue are to be found basically in history. In fact, to *survive* in today's world, people are compelled by circumstances to get into contact with one another. Loose or close, direct or indirect, these contacts are mainly through invasion, colonisation, diplomacy, trade, and technological and scientific exchanges.

In contact situations, the direction of the contact influence can be determined by the relative perceived social status or prestige of the language groups concerned. Generally speaking, it is the language perceived to be the most prestigious (thus the one suspected to be a potential source of some social or economic advantage) that is readily taken over by the group which feels it to be so (Gal, 1979:9; 13; 106-107; 162)<sup>1</sup>.

Two main types of foreign language adoption arise from contact situations: (1) individual, and (2) group language adoption. In the first instance, it is some individuals in the group who (for personal reasons, and without prior consultation with one another) decide to learn and use the alien language. In the second case, it is the institution (group, country...) which decides (for reasons believed to be of common interest) to adopt the new language. In the long run however, these two types of FL adoption may have the following consequences: individual adoption may or may not come to promote institution adoption. When it does, then the learning of the new tongue becomes an official business, and is therefore enforced by law (from above),

mainly via the school system. When it does not, it still has anyhow a great influence on other individuals of the group who will, through a search for personal advantages, learn and try to use the foreign language.

As said above, FL adoption may also be imposed by law from above on the individuals below. This is usually done by the introduction of the FL either as a school compulsory subject, or as a means of instruction, or first as a subject and then as a medium of instruction. In these circumstances, students are the only people likely to be the target. But to make it possible for non-students to be concerned, the group often enforces the law indirectly by decreeing that only the FL should be used in public and official places, and transactions. In this way, whoever wants to get services finds himself compelled to learn the new language. He will do so either by attending intensive (evening) language classes or by learning it on the street. This is the case with both French and English in Zaire: the former language has been more openly and directly enforced for over a century now, while for the latter it is just being done on a more limited basis, in a more subtle and indirect way, particularly in jobs and lucrative opportunities. Indeed, it is nowadays more frequent than ever before to find job adverts where the applicants are required to know both French and English, sometimes English only.

Nowadays, there are more people in the world for whom learning and using a FL is both a necessity and an obligation, if they are to survive. In many countries where there are many local languages, the FL is also adopted for national political reasons such as the will to create a nation, as the official adoption of any one of the local languages is likely to be interpreted by those for whom it is not the mother tongue as a sign of supremacy for its native speakers, and thus might result in political and social unrests. This is again the case with French in Zaire, and with English in India. In Zaire, French was adopted as the national official language to create and cement national unity, since, as a foreign language, its choice could not be interpreted as a sign of one local group trying to upstage the others (via the imposition of its language on the latter). We think the same argument could hold as for the adoption of English in India.

Foreign language learning has been and still is the subject of much controversy. This centres on its definition, the impacts it has on those people caught in its web (especially those who learn FLs in the formal context of the school institution) and the methods to adopt in order to allow these people to attain a good and acceptable

proficiency level.

To begin with, we think an introductory discussion of how this phenomenon is defined is likely to unveil a part of what its contents are, and this will be of great help in grasping what will be said later in this thesis. Whenever an attempt is made to define the learning and use of several languages, two main parameters are usually considered: (1) the number of languages involved in the process, and (2) the degree of mastery reached in each, particularly in the nonnative language(s).

Two conflicting stands are found whenever parameter number one is considered: (1) the minimalist, and (2) the maximalist views. In minimalists' opinion, the phenomenon is described either as bilingualism -the exclusive use of two languages- or multilingualism -the use of more than two languages. This restrictive view is shared by few people including Bloomfield (1935) and Weinreich (1953) (cited in Beardsmore, 1982:1)<sup>2</sup>, Haugen (1973, cited in Anderson, 1977:193)<sup>3</sup> and Serdyuchenko (1965:21)<sup>4</sup>. Although this view has come under intensive fire from many critics, it has nonetheless survived and is still heard of in discussions on FL teaching/ learning.

For maximalists, bilingualism is the use of more than one language, i.e. from the minimum of two upward. Amongst those who share this stand are Mackey (1957, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:1)<sup>5</sup>, Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (1964, cited in Stern, 1984:22)<sup>6</sup>, Taylor (1976, cited in Hornby, 1977:4)<sup>7</sup>, and Beardsmore (1982:3)<sup>8</sup>. Though this position is acknowledged by many today as being the most valid, there are still people for whom bilingualism and polyglotism (in minimalist view) are different phenomena.

In maximalist opinion then, bilingualism and multilingualism mean the same thing since (1) the former is included in the latter, and (2) findings on the use of two languages can easily be generalised to individuals using more than two languages (Weinreich, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:1; Albert & Opler, 1978:146-147; Beardsmore, 1982:3-4)<sup>9</sup>. It is this latter position that we subscribe to. Therefore, throughout this thesis, we shall use bilingualism as a condition of he/ she who, besides his/ her own mother tongue, *knows at least* another language. As implied in the next paragraphs (see Chapter 3, point 3.2.2.), knowing an additional language (as it is even in the case of the mother tongue) is a continuum of proficiency capabilities. Hence, knowing another language is being able to use bits of it to communicate. And in fact, one can achieve communication with limited means of the language involved (see Chapter 3, points 3.2.2. and 3.3., and Chapter 5). Therefore, we understand a bilingual to be

any of the following: either a monolingual in the process of learning at least one other language than his own, or a person who actually *knows* at least one language besides his mother tongue. It is in this sense that we have so far used, and shall be using the terms *bilingualism* and *bilingual* (as opposed to the monolingual: he who knows only his mother tongue).

As for the second defining parameter, we notice again the same conflict: for some, proficiency in the languages involved should be native-like, whereas for others, it should be satisfactory in the languages added after the mother tongue. Seen from this angle, target language mastery (as compared to that of the mother tongue) is considered to be a relative variable and, thus, the bilingual should be understood to be anyone who is able to communicate *satisfactorily* in a FL with other users of the same language, be they native or nonnative speakers. 'Satisfactorily' implies a continuum toward FL native speaker highest command, in both form and content, with the latter considered to outweigh the former (see Chapter 3., point 3.2.: Bilingual Language Processing, Development, and Learning).

As we indicated in the Introduction and Chapter One, the situation we are mainly concerned with here is the one in which the FL is learnt in the classroom context, consecutive to at least two languages. It has been observed that both monolinguals and bilinguals who learn FLs under such conditions never reach native speaker command, mainly in using these languages verbally. This has been taken by some as evidence to support the claim that bilingualism is definitely harmful to the bilingual. But, results from many other studies have suggested that on the whole, though the impression seems to support the negativists' claim, bilingualism is more beneficial to the bilingual.

Negativists have it that bilingualism is detrimental to the bilingual in that (they say) it has deleterious effects on his cognitive, linguistic, and above all affective development. Among the effects usually pointed at are the following:

- (a) Bilingualism negatively affects the bilingual's intelligence (Arsenian, 1932, cited in Ben-Zeev, 1977:29)<sup>10</sup>.
- (b) Absence of both mental and expressive precision (Bloch, 1961, cited in Lewis, 1977:23-24)<sup>11</sup>. This leads to "conceptual poverty and mercenary relativism" (Weinreich, 1953, cited in Segalowitz, 1977:119)<sup>12</sup>, *schizzoglossia* (Haugen, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:129)<sup>13</sup> or *lathophobic aphasia* (Stevick, 1976:78)<sup>14</sup> i.e. fear to use the FL in verbal communication because of perceived lack of mastery in it.

(c) The learning of FLs often results in a decrease of proficiency in the first language. This is what has come to be known as Macnamara's *Balance Effect Deficit Theory* (cited in Bowen, 1977:108)<sup>15</sup>, according to which, in the learning of FLs, any increase in FL proficiency is always accompanied by a relatively equivalent decrease in L1 command. This in the long run results in the lack of mastery in either of the languages involved (Whatmough, 1967, cited in Bowen, 1977:108)<sup>16</sup>. In the same way, referring to Bernstein's Deficit Theory, Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukoma (1975, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:10)<sup>17</sup> claim that bilingualism often results in semilingualism: the learner ends up not mastering either his L1 or the FL(s).

(d) Relying on the L1 interferences he observed in bilingual FL speech, which he believed were caused by the antagonism existing between the two languages, Epstein (1916, cited in Albert & Obler, 1978:3)<sup>18</sup> concluded that the former language has an inhibitory effect on the latter. The resulting side effect (he said) is to be seen chiefly in the difficulty the bilingual has to master foreign accents.

(e) In explaining his *Deficit Theory* in bilingualism, Taylor (1974, cited in Doyle et al., 1978:13)<sup>19</sup> -who also shares ideas developed in the *Container Theory*, a theory that sees human brain as a container in which knowledge is kept- says that, because his brain has to accommodate more than one language, the bilingual finds himself in a state of perpetual "conflict of concept labelling" as he has available to him more than one label for each concept he knows. As a result, he is permanently in a state of insecurity, language interference, retardation, confusion, mental fatigue and, thus, lack of concentration. That is the reason why he usually finds it easy to resort to learning by imitation and rote, hence becoming more and more incapable of creativity and initiative (Darcy, 1953; Jensen, 1962; Vildomec, 1963; Macnamara, 1966; Diebold, 1968: all cited in Cummins, 1984:101-102)<sup>20</sup>.

(f) Bilingualism usually results in the loss of self-esteem and confidence, which in turn might end up in introversion, shyness and aggressivity because, being astride L1 and FL(s), the bilingual finds himself pulled in opposite directions, with the probable fatal consequence of having his personality split (Christophersen, 1948; Collerman et al., 1966; Duran, 1970; Novack, 1973; Cochlo, 1976; Kaufman, 1979: all cited in Cummins, 1984:102)<sup>21</sup>.

Thus, because they could not explain why bilinguals' performances were bad, negativists accused bilingualism itself of being the cause, thus using the easy way out of "self-perpetuating pattern of 'blaming the victim'" (Ryan, 1972, cited in



Cummins, 1984:102)<sup>22</sup>. But, firstly, there has been no solid empirical evidence to substantiate these conclusions. Secondly, the methods used to conduct the studies from which these conclusions were drawn were not reliable as most variables normally involved in FL learning (see particularly Chapter 4) were either not included in the tests or, when they were, were not either well controlled or considered in the interpretation of the results. Thirdly and finally, bilinguals were most often tested in the FL, the language the command of which they still had a long way to go to acquire (Spoerl, 1944, and Balkan, 1970: cited in Beardsmore, 1982:92)<sup>23</sup>. According to these writers (amongst many), most so-called negative effects usually associated with bilingualism are caused by the interplay of many factors, such as social pressures, personal attitudes, motivations, and the different ways the FL is learnt, to mention only these.

*Positive* studies (most of which were realised after 1960) suggest that, far from being intrinsically adverse, bilingualism is advantageous for the bilingual. Most cited amongst the advantages the bilingual has over the monolingual are the following:

(a) Since they often easily and rightly shift from one language to another, bilinguals must have greater cognitive flexibility and superior ability in concept formation (Lambert, 1977:16; Segalowitz, 1977:137-140; Albert and Obler, 1978:39-40; Bain and Yu, 1978:114-115; Dodson, 1983a; Beardsmore, 1982:94-118; Cummins, 1984:105)<sup>24</sup>. This must be the reason why Leopold (1949, cited in Lambert, 1977:17)<sup>25</sup> speaks of the "liberated thought of bilinguals".

(b) Bilinguals are more sensitive to universals of phonetic symbolism. This makes them more capable of intuiting sound-meaning correspondences in languages unknown to them (Vygotsky, 1962, cited in Cummins, 1984:105; Slobin, 1968; Ianco-Worrall, 1972; Palmer, 1972: all cited in Albert and Obler, 1978:76-78; 93; 204)<sup>26</sup>.

(c) Higher development of auditory linguistic skills (Lambert & Rawlings, 1969, cited in Albert & Obler, 1978:204)<sup>27</sup>, and automatic processing abilities (Nation and McLaughlin, cited in McLaughlin, 1987:142)<sup>28</sup>.

(d) General intellectual development (Cummins, 1984:105; Bowen, 1977:117)<sup>29</sup>, greater divergent thinking ability, hence superior verbal flexibility (Stern, 1967:16; Segalowitz, 1977:139-140)<sup>30</sup>, and greater sensitivity to interpersonal communication (Cummins, 1984:105)<sup>31</sup>.

(e) Bilinguals become earlier aware of the arbitrary labelling relationship which exists between words and the concepts they stand for (Vygotsky, 1962, cited in Cummins,

1984:105; Leopold, 1953-1954; Ben-Zeev, 1972; Ianco-Worrall, 1972: all cited in Segalowitz, 1977:122)<sup>32</sup>.

(f) Bilingualism increases bilinguals' ability to perceive, analyse, compare and contrast, and enhances their creativity (Bowen, 1977:116)<sup>33</sup>. As a result, bilinguals have greater facility for learning new languages (Politzer, 1965, Cohen et al., 1967, and Jakobovits, 1969: all cited in Segalowitz, 1977:150)<sup>34</sup>.

In short, for positivists, bilingualism enhances psychological processes and abilities, memory perception, intelligence and creativity (Bain, 1973, cited in Segalowitz, 1977:121)<sup>35</sup>. This results in earlier metalinguistic awareness and analytic orientation to linguistic input (Cummins, 1978:137; Heller, 1983, cited in Cummins, 1984:128)<sup>36</sup>.

If ever bilingualism has adverse effects, they say, then these are a necessary and inevitable stage, and usually disappear relatively quickly as the bilingual gains control in the new language. Hence, they are not to be considered pathological.

Though most of the studies referred to in the preceding lines dealt with bilingualism before puberty, the findings can however, in the main, be generalized to post-pubescent monolinguals as well as bilinguals learning other languages, either formally or informally (Weinreich, 1955, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:1-2; Beardsmore, 1982:3-4)<sup>37</sup>.

Differences are observed between (1) different groups of monolingual children learning FLs (those who learn them in a home-like environment and those who learn them in a formal setting like the school institution), (2) post-pubescent monolinguals who learn them formally and those who learn them informally, and (3) people (children as well as adults) who learn them in an informal situation and those who learn them in a school context. Even though there is a difference in (1) the number of languages learners know before starting to learn another language, and (2) the age of the learners, the general trend indicates that they generally speaking follow the same basic path. Hence, observations made on monolinguals learning another language can also (even though with some amendments) be applied to people who actually already know more than their mother tongue when they embark on learning another language. In the same way, what is said about children learning another language can also, with some amendments, be applied to post-pubescents.

When we consider, on the one hand, the results of most of these studies and, on the other hand, the actual overall experience of people who know more than their mother tongue, we can conclude that bilinguals are not those unbalanced beings

negativists suggest they are. They are, on the contrary, quite sound and emotionally balanced persons, capable of logical and higher thinking. Besides, they seem to learn other languages more easily than monolinguals, to meet and understand easily other peoples, and do not necessarily score low in tasks requiring reasoning and thinking. Even though many seem to experience difficulties in mastering FL accent and fluency, thus sometimes in expressing accurately their thoughts (as do learners in Eastern Kasai), we think this is not sufficient evidence of their poor cognitive or psychological development. Put differently, allegations made by negativists do not, in our opinion, constitute firm and convincing evidence to support the suggestion that using more than one language is per se deleterious (See Positive studies).

If we consider the issue of FL learning by bilinguals, there are, of course, some facts (related mainly to their FL verbal performance) that seem to suggest that bilingualism is in itself the cause of the bilinguals' problems, especially for those who learn the new language in school conditions, after the age of ten to twelve. But studied closely, the poor (oral) command most people exhibit in their additional languages (as Zaireans do, not only with English, but also with French) seems not to be caused by the mere fact of knowing more than one language. To be convinced of this, it suffices to change the conditions of learning to notice the (positive) difference that will occur!

In fact, evidence gathered so far suggests that, rather than the fact of using more than one language itself, it must be other factors (inherent in FL learning conditions) that are to blame. Thus, we share the opinion held by positivists that bilingualism is not per se detrimental to bilinguals, and that the handicaps observed in their FL production particularly (and perception to some extent) are due to other factors usually external to this phenomenon, but embedded in the learning conditions. And it is these factors that should be investigated if we expect to bring about a change in bilingual FL performance.

As said earlier, because of colonization and also the needs of modern world, people in Zaire, and by extension in Eastern Kasai, know at least their mother tongue (Ciluba in Eastern Kasai) and French upon starting to learn English, which has been only recently introduced in the country.

Though their mother tongue is undoubtedly the best known of these three languages, it is nonetheless not as prestigious as French and English, as these two languages are associated with better living standards. And of them, English seems

nowadays to enjoy even greater status (see Introduction, Chapter 1., and Chapter 4.). Indeed, as we have observed, most our fellow countrymen nowadays consider knowledge of French as commonplace, and that of English (because of the newness and international importance of this language) as a sign of more intelligence, hence more prestige. Truly, English is believed to be likely to provide more and new privileges to those who know it. It therefore follows that this should push more people to want to learn it, and infuse some extra will power in those who are already learning it, and thus allow them to ultimately achieve better results. On the contrary, we have observed that this is not the case. In fact, only a small minority come to speak it satisfactorily.

The question that arises then is to know whether the majority who do not do not because their (prior) knowledge of Ciluba and French inhibits their learning of this language, or the reason is to be found somewhere else. If knowledge of Ciluba and French had an inhibitory effect on their learning of English, then this should also affect the minority whom we observed seem to manage quite well. Furthermore the literature suggests, as we have seen above, that knowing more than one language is in itself not an inhibiting factor. It appears therefore that the reason why there is so little success in English learning in Eastern Kasai lies somewhere else. We must therefore extend our review to other factors. And this is the subject in Chapters Three, Four and Five.

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## CHAPTER THREE

### THE BILINGUAL LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Following what we have just said when concluding Chapter Two, we intend to go on investigating the other factors we think play a role in FL learning. In the present chapter, we intend to present and discuss whether or not there is a relationship (independence/ interdependence) between the languages of the bilingual learner. It might appear that the type of relationship existing between the languages he knows plays a certain role in the way he learns and masters the FL he is learning, and hence, it is also a factor to be considered in this thesis.

#### 3.1. The bilingual's languages: Independence or Interdependence?

As said and implied above, the concern here is to know whether or not the bilingual's languages are independent or interdependent systems and, (if they are) to what extent, and what the effects upon each other and upon their receptive and productive modes are. Lateralization is also another issue tackled in discussions on the types of relationships existing between the bilingual's languages. But since this is more related to neuropsychology, we feel unable to deal with it properly in the frame of this thesis. However, we shall, from time to time, say a word or two about it.

Just like many others who have observed that bilinguals' FL perception abilities seem to be higher than their speaking abilities, i.e. that they seem to understand the FLs they learn long before they can even speak them, we too have observed that Ciluba-French learners of English seem to understand this language better and long before they can even utter a word in it. In more general terms, this has been interpreted as being the evidence that, although they manifest themselves as independent, separate or coordinate systems (at the output level), the bilingual's languages are interdependent, unified, or compound at the perception level (Kolers, 1968, Lopez et al., 1974, and Saelgert and Kazarian: all cited in Albert and Obler, 1978:60-70)<sup>1</sup>. This might explain, even partially, the relative ease the bilingual has in comprehending FLs than in speaking them. This ease is explained on grounds that perception is meaning-, concept-related and that speaking a language is language-specific tagged.



In other words, it is suggested that languages are stored in the long-term memory in a conceptual (symbolic/ meaning) form which Jacobovits and Lambert (1961) and Kolers (1966) (all cited in Albert and Obler, 1978:70;221)<sup>2</sup> respectively call *single deep cognitive level* and *deep semantic level*. As concepts are fundamentally the same for all cultures (hence for all languages), this storage of L1 and FL concepts tends to be only one system. Thus, having already known these concepts (through L1), the bilingual finds it easy to transfer them to FL. It seems that it is the production level that needs an incorporation of new sound and syntactic systems with which to label those already-known concepts. Hence the bilingual's difficulties in producing the FL.

Feuerstein (1979, cited in Cummins, 1984:123)<sup>3</sup> suggests that, since he already masters another language prior to learning the foreign language, the bilingual has already acquired potentials and established prerequisites for learning and mastering any other language (at relatively the same degree as L1). This can be understood to imply some common ground between mastering L1 and FL. At the same time, because L1 and FL are distinct systems, there must be some thing that keeps them apart. We understand this as meaning that the bilingual's languages are more compound at the meaning/ concept level, and more coordinate at the expression level.

Oksaar (1972 and 1979, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:119-120)<sup>4</sup> suggests that, though they are seen as separate systems, the bilingual's languages are, at a very deep level, a *unified language system*. This deep level at which the languages are one is located, as we understand it, at the conceptual level. She also suggests that language production usually lags behind perception not only because perception develops more directly out of that common background, but also because of the learner affective factors, which become more negative (thus impede FL learning) with age.

Cummins (1984:142-143, and *passim*)<sup>5</sup> suggests that, although language surface aspects (e.g. pronunciation, fluency) are relatively separate, there is an *underlying cognitive/ academic proficiency* that is common across languages. This proficiency principle implies that, because concepts are basically the same across languages, L1 conceptual knowledge the bilingual has already will be more or less transferred to and used in the learning of FL. The only major problem will be to learn how to label these already-known concepts using the FL phonological subsystem. The same principle is also explained as the *dual-iceberg phenomenon*, a theory which sees the bilingual's languages as being the visible tips of the language-iceberg. The (common) invisible part of this iceberg is believed to incorporate all the elements common to all

languages (the universals), of which concepts constitute the largest part.

The idea of a single deep unified conceptual level for all languages in general, and for those of the bilingual in particular is shared by many including Dodson (1963, 1983a)<sup>6</sup>, Hammers and Lambert (1972) and Hammers (1973) (all cited in Segalowitz, 1977:134-135)<sup>7</sup>, and Makkai (1978:50)<sup>8</sup>, and Evers (cited in Albert and Obler, 1978:62)<sup>9</sup>.

Though in general a bilingual's languages are independent systems, they are nonetheless interdependent subsystems of one single phenomenon. As such they show some degree of interdependence and independence. This independence/ interdependence also exists between and influences their perception and production. Even though production is the level at which independence between languages on the one hand, and between perception and production on the other hand seems to be the most optimal, it is also true that it can be high, medium, or low. This might depend on the degree of commonality existing between the phonological and syntactic subsystems of the languages involved: the more common elements there are, the less independent (or more interdependent) these subsystems will be. In this particular case, the production of the language under learning will be relatively facilitated (*vide infra*).

The independence-interdependence relationship that exists between the bilingual's languages can also be seen in the way the brain lateralizes them. It is believed that both left and right cerebral hemispheres participate in language management: the left for L1, and left to right and then back to left for the other language(s). In this, neuropsychological language organization seems to parallel what we said earlier in this chapter, and has more or less similar consequences at the (purely) linguistic level.

As we said earlier, Ciluba-French speaking learners of English seem to understand English better and earlier than they can speak it; even those who do not speak it seem to understand when addressed in it. Ease in understanding English and difficulty in speaking it can be explained in terms of the relationships of interdependence/ independence that exist between understanding and speaking a linguistic system. Indeed, as they belong to the same system, reception and production are related. But since they are different modes, they manifest themselves as independent subsystems.

One of the reasons why we believe learners in Eastern Kasai seem to comprehend English better and long before they can even venture to speak it (when they

come to do so) can also be found in the interdependence that exists between Ciluba, French and English, and mainly between the last two languages. This is so because French and English thought/ meaning, syntactic and phonological subsystems are more related, hence more interdependent (see also Chapter Four). But as we said earlier, the bilingual Eastern Kasai learner of English should find it easier to resort to French to learn English, not only because the use of French in school education has developed into a strong habit, and because French has chronologically been learnt before English, but also because, thanks to French learning, the learner has already solved some of the major linguistic as well as meaning and culture problems Ciluba is likely to pose (see also Chapter Four). As a consequence, whenever a problem arises in the course of learning English, he should logically apply the easy way out: the use of the system most related to English, hence the easiest to understand and deal with in school context. And this is French.

In short, facility in understanding English and difficulty in speaking it can be associated in Eastern Kasai TEFL with the learners' already developed knowledge of Ciluba and French mainly, knowledge they bring to bear in learning English. Being basically conceptual in nature, this knowledge is thus nearly the same as that of English. Producing English tends to be generally speaking less easy mainly because of the differences existing between English and (Ciluba and) French sound and syntactic systems (see also Chapter Four, point 4.3. particularly).

### 3.2. Bilingual Language Processing, Development, and Learning

Our intention in this section is to discuss some of the main ideas developed in relation to the way the bilingual person processes and learns foreign languages, and how these develop. In so doing, we shall also deal with another related subject, namely what and how the bilingual learns any additional language, how this learning develops, and why this is so.

#### 3.2.1. Language Processing

Upon starting the learning of the FL, the learner (who already knows one or more languages) has hardly any knowledge of the FL. This might be said to be relatively at zero proficiency level, but not as zero as the state in which the child

is when he starts to learn his L1. Indeed, compared to the child, the FL learner has already accumulated experience with language, and knows, to some considerable degree, what this phenomenon is, how to approach it, and what affective, cognitive and social consequences he is likely to meet. In short, he has already internalized and stored many concepts/ meanings he is likely to use to understand and learn the new tongue. Since, as it appears, his major problem is to acquire new labels to assign to already-known meanings, it then seems easier for him to approach the new language first through and for meaning before (maybe) resorting to forms. Such we believe is also the case with learners of English in Eastern Kasai.

This is how he proceeds, be it on word, sentence or discourse level. In their studies on bilingual's word processing, Segalowitz and Lambert (1969, cited in Albert and Opler, 1978:73)<sup>10</sup> have suggested that both young and adult bilingual learners process lexico-semantic elements via and for meaning. The same conclusion has also been suggested by results of studies on sentence processing. Doob (1957, cited in Albert and Opler, 1978:79-80)<sup>11</sup> noticed that bilinguals process sentences on meaning level, and that language tagging is not involved, i.e. they generally do not process isolated forms, words, or rules. MacKay and Bowman (1969, cited in Albert and Opler, 1978:82-83)<sup>12</sup> also observed the same thing, and said that this included even syntax processing. Macnamara (1970), and Heras and Nelson (1972) (all cited in Albert and Opler, 1978:84-85)<sup>13</sup>, and Albert and Opler (1978:85-93)<sup>14</sup> also concluded in the same way, but added that meaning is obtained through use of redundancies. Though Mackay and Bowman (1969)<sup>15</sup> also insist that syntactic form does play some role in language processing, the importance and extent to which this role can be utilized depend largely on the degree of proficiency achieved by the learner (Forster and Clyde, 1968, and Macnamara, 1970: all cited in Albert and Opler, 1978:86)<sup>16</sup>. It is therefore understood that language tagging might be resorted to only in the rare cases when semantic approach to processing does not succeed.

What happens on word and sentence levels also happens on discourse level (Kollers, 1966, cited in Albert and Opler, 1978:86)<sup>17</sup>, though much more effort is required when it comes to use syntax to help the semantic approach.

In conclusion, as is true for processing in all languages (Preston and Lambert, 1969, cited in Albert and Opler, 1978:78)<sup>18</sup>, bilingual language processing is basically through and for meaning, even though sometimes syntax and phonology are used when understanding seems difficult to reach directly through meaning. But even in

these fewer instances, the focus still remains on meaning (Ianco-Worrall, 1972, cited in Albert and Obler, 1978:71)<sup>19</sup>.

In the same line of thought as what precedes, we believe (as we said earlier) that the learner we are concerned with in this work is no exception: he should and will bring (mainly) his knowledge of (Ciluba and )French concepts to his English learning. In the rare cases where he will resort to formal knowledge, we think he will resort more to French forms than Ciluba ones, not only because of the close relatedness that exists between English and French (see also Chapter Four, points 4.3. and 4.4.), but also because of the strong habit he has already developed in the use of French in school context.

### 3.2.2. Language Development and Learning

As we said in (3.1.), the monolingual who starts to learn another language or a bilingual does not come to FL learning as empty-handed as the child who starts to learn his L1. He has already experienced language and all the subsequent phenomena related to it. Since all learning chiefly involves what Bruner (1978, cited in Smith, 1979:70)<sup>20</sup> calls the *Apostel principle* (meaning that new knowledge is acquired thanks to and via old knowledge), the bilingual must inevitably start by resorting to and relying on the potential he already has to try and overcome problems of language, communication, culture and affect he comes across in dealing with the new language. These problems seem to be more numerous and serious mainly during the early stages of learning. This is probably the reason why it has been noticed that, during these stages, learners have the pronounced tendency of viewing the FL under study in the light of their first/ most known and/ or most preferred language.

The importance of prior experience in learning, particularly in language learning, has been rightly emphasized in many studies. When investigating the psychological implications of FL learning, Dodson (1963:36; 1983a:passim, and 1983b:3ff)<sup>21</sup> finds that the learner cannot help referring to concepts thought in his L1 when he hears FL utterances for the first time. In his *Interlanguage (IL) Theory*, Selinker insists on the place that transfer of learning and learning strategies or experience play in FL learning. He says that the learner is doomed to approach FL learning through his L1: he transfers to this new learning event what he already knows and experiences of his L1. This might either help him or make the learning strenuous (see also

Chapter Four). Feuerstein (1979, cited in Cummins, 1984:123)<sup>22</sup>, Cummins (1984)<sup>23</sup>, Brown (1980:84-85)<sup>24</sup> and many others (see below) also stress the importance of past experience in FL learning. Brown and also Bever (1970), Maratsos (1972), Felix (1975), Hakuta (1975), Wode (1976; 1978), Kuno (1978) and Slobin (1978) (all cited in Keller-Cohen, 1981:96-100)<sup>25</sup> see in the use of old knowledge the learner's attempt to simplify and make easy and manageable the learning task. This might result (as we shall see later) in either facilitation or interference.

For Stern (1974, cited in Pickett, 1978:142)<sup>26</sup> previous *know-how* is a crucial predictor of successful FL learning. So is it for Albert and Obler (1978:29; 31; 36-37)<sup>27</sup>, Faerch and Kasper (1980:70)<sup>28</sup> and Walsh and Diller (1981:12, who consider it mainly in relation to pronunciation acquisition)<sup>29</sup>. For Carton (cited in Rubin 1987:20)<sup>30</sup> prior experience is the only crucial factor in language learning because inferencing, the process at the core of all learning, is dependent on it. As for Boulouffe (1986, cited in Gass, 1988:202)<sup>31</sup> past experience is a supportive FL learning factor, and plays, according to Gass (1988:202)<sup>32</sup> a very important role in determining what the learner is likely to hear and grasp amongst the ambient FL speech he is exposed to.

As we said earlier, because (1) of the knowledge he already has of language and the world around him, and (2) he has problems using the FL, the bilingual learner will inevitably start by wholly or partially relying on what he knows in order to tackle the challenges presented by the FL, and also to facilitate the learning process, and feel secure. But as his command of the new language increases, he will less and less resort to the language(s) he already knows: to learn the target language, he will then more and more resort to the bits he knows of it. And the more he internalizes, interiorizes and incorporates the FL in his knowledge, the more he will have recourse to it to learn it, and the less he will refer to his L1 and the more he will feel confident in his ability to handle the new language.

This shift of point of reference (as we might call it) starts only when the learner reaches a certain minimal level or threshold of proficiency in the FL (Van Ek, 1975, and Coste et al., 1976: all cited in Stern, 1984:349; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980, and Cummins, 1984)<sup>33</sup>. It is thus only when his proficiency reaches this *turning point* (Bratchfeld, 1936, cited in Stern, 1984:321)<sup>34</sup> that the learner can possibly accede to more FL knowledge (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980:27)<sup>35</sup>, and avoid or better reduce the so-called cognitive deficits (Cummins, 1979, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:143)<sup>36</sup>.

Contrary to other experts who hypothesize the existence of only one such threshold of competence, Cummins (1976), and Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977) (all cited in Cummins, 1984:107-108)<sup>37</sup> suggest two: a lower, and a higher threshold levels. The lower level is said to be the one from which the learner is more likely to avoid so-called negative effects resulting from dealing with more than one language. The higher is believed to lead to accelerated cognitive growth in the FL. This threshold of ability coincides with that of the learner's increase of confidence in his own potentials in FL, and how to overcome some of the disorientations and constraints the new language imposes on him. With increasing proficiency and confidence, the learner becomes more and more self-reliant, less and less needing and resorting to both L1 and the teacher. Like the child he really is linguistically in FL, he moves slowly but surely from dependence, satellization, infantilization or affiliation to independence, desatellization, adulthood or emancipation (Larson and Smalley, 1972; Schumann, 1975, 1978, and Ausubel et al., 1980: all cited in Stern, 1984:382-383; Stern, 1984:398-400)<sup>38</sup>. All this is achieved through an approach consisting mainly of trial and error and, restructuration and creative construction, of continual experimentation and approximation. This approach is more interlingual (L1 and FL) in the initial stages of learning, and more intralingual (FL) later on.

This learning process has been discussed and commented upon at length in many hypotheses and theories, of which the most acknowledged are the *Transitional Competence* (Corder, 1967, cited in Ellis, 1986:305)<sup>39</sup> and *Pidginization* (Schumann, 1975, cited in Stern, 1984)<sup>40</sup> hypotheses, and the *Progressive Approximation* (Nemser, 1971)<sup>41</sup> and *Interlanguage* (Selinker, 1972, cited in Corder, 1978:62)<sup>42</sup> theories.

It is suggested in these hypotheses and theories that the learner language develops in stages, each of which is but a step forward toward the ideal native speaker's mastery. Hence all the stages are but *transitional constructions* (Dulay et al., 1982, cited in Ellis, 1986:305)<sup>43</sup>, *approximations* (Nemser, 1971)<sup>44</sup>, *interlanguages* (Selinker, 1972, cited in Corder, 1978:62)<sup>45</sup>, *pidgins* (Schumann, 1975, cited in Stern, 1984)<sup>46</sup>, *idiosyncratic dialects* of the target language (Corder, 1967; 1971, cited in Corder, 1978:62)<sup>47</sup>. As such, they constitute only a series of *transitional competences* (Corder, 1967, cited in Ellis, 1986:305)<sup>48</sup>. In other terms, learner language is, at any single stage of learning, only an intermediate and transient step. It is also implied that FL learners never or very rarely attain FL native-like proficiency, however hard they try. For many various reasons (see Chapter Four) they sooner or later reach a plateau or level of

proficiency beyond which they seem unable to go: their abilities have, permanently or temporarily, frozen. When this freezing is permanent, it is technically known as *fossilization* (Selinker, 1972, cited in Corder, 1978:62ff)<sup>49</sup> or *secondary hybridization* (Schumann, 1978, cited in Harley, 1986:18)<sup>50</sup>.

Like the L1 learning process, FL learning is a dynamic, gradual, flexible and shifting process: dynamic because it reflects the learner's changing linguistic and environmental experiences; gradual because it reflects the progressive cognitive, psychological and sociolinguistic growth of the learner; flexible because this growth might be relatively fast, slow or neutral for the different components of the FL, and it might also slow down, stop, restart either entirely or in part; shifting because the whole process or its composing stages might slow down, *freeze*, *backslide* (Ellis, 1986:293)<sup>51</sup>, restart, go forward, up or down in an unpredictable way. Like L1 proficiency, FL command (that of English by learners in Eastern Kasai, for instance) should be understood to be a continuum capability the far left end of which represents the initial FL mastery, and the far right end the ideal full native speaker's competence the learner is aiming at. At this point, we think it is paramount to discuss this notion of competence in language, particularly in nonnative languages, like learners of English in Eastern Kasai.

Competence has been extensively discussed in relation to FL learning, and has proved difficult to handle exhaustively and satisfactorily. We think this is mostly due to the fact that language itself from which this notion is being applied is very complex and has been so far not satisfactorily understood.

As the reader will have already noticed, we have been so far using competence interchangeably with proficiency, ability and capacity. Opinions and views among experts are divided about whether or not these notions mean the same thing.

For some, they are different, even though they have some elements in common. For others, they refer to a same phenomenon. This confusion in understanding competence mainly arises from the fact that some regard it as a state, hence absolute, while some others consider it to be a process, hence relative (Taylor, 1988:148)<sup>52</sup>. We, like Campbell and Wales (1970), Greene (1972), White (1959) (all cited in Taylor, 1988:150; 151; 160)<sup>53</sup>, Stern (1984)<sup>54</sup> and many others, believe that competence is a process. Hence it is ability, capability and proficiency.

The other major problem in defining competence in language learning is about whether it is a single phenomenon or a composite of phenomena. Apart from very



few people, Oller (1976, cited in Stern, 1984:349)<sup>55</sup> for instance, for whom language proficiency is unitary, most experts consider it to be composed of many elements. And in their attempt to describe these elements, they have ended up associating them with one particular component, namely the communicative (sub)competence. As we share this view whereby, because language is first of all and ultimately for communication, linguistic competence has been equated with communicative competence, we shall then be more concerned with this aspect throughout the following paragraphs.

In his discussion of communicative competence, Hymes (1974)<sup>56</sup> defines it as the ability to speak a language i.e. the knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and phonology plus the knowledge of when and when not to speak, where and where not to speak, how and how not to speak, and with whom to speak and with whom not to speak. Thus, communicative competence includes linguistic competence (knowledge of the code) and sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of the use of linguistic competence in interactions). This runs basically on the same lines as Chomsky's revised version of competence (cited in Smith, 1979:35-37)<sup>57</sup> and many others' such as Carroll's (1968, cited in Stern, 1984:349)<sup>58</sup> in which language proficiency is said to involve two component abilities: grammatical competence (knowledge of all linguistic aspects of form and meaning) and pragmatic competence (ability to use grammatical competence functionally in interactions).

A major step forward in the description and understanding of communicative competence since Hymes coined and developed it in 1972 is to be found in the contribution by Canale and Swain (1980)<sup>59</sup>. Although they do not disagree with Hymes and the others who share his view, Canale and Swain nonetheless question their position because (they say) it does not incorporate all the components they think make communicative competence. Besides grammatical and sociolinguistic competences, they suggest that communicative competence should also include strategic competence: the ability the learner has to know and use a relatively wide range of strategies to communicate in spite of his imperfect command of the language (cited in Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980:3; and in Stern, 1984:95-96; 229-230; 347-352)<sup>60</sup>. *discourse*

As an important aspect of the ability to communicate, strategic competence also accounts for the lack of mastery, hence the gaps most (if not all) bilinguals exhibit between their ability to use the FL and what they intend to express in terms of actual communicative needs (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980:3)<sup>61</sup>. Its main role seems to be to allow the learner to counterbalance his lack of ability, thus understand and

make himself understand in a language the knowledge of which he has only partially (Ferguson and De Bose, 1977, cited in Keller-Cohen, 1981:151)<sup>62</sup>. It can also be associated with the ability the learner has to know and acknowledge that he possesses only a reduced set of FL items, and that therefore, he should use other devices to compensate for this weakness and function acceptably. It is in this sense that Faerch et al. (1984:168)<sup>63</sup> say that strategic competence is the "ability to solve communication problems by means of strategies" and that it is compensatory in that its use or activation "presupposes an inability to make use of parts of linguistic or pragmatic competence". In the same way, we think that learners of English in Eastern Kasai also use strategic competence (beginners more than advanced) because of their lack of English linguistic as well as sociolinguistic competences. Thus as we said earlier, like any other learner's competence in FLs, theirs too should be understood as stages on the capability scale the far end of which stands for the full competence of the ideal native speaker of English, competence he (we believe) is likely never to reach.

Difficult though it may be to envisage, this is nonetheless true because even monolinguals rarely achieve complete mastery in the one language they know (Williams, 1962, cited in Stern, 1967:12; Savignon, 1983, cited in Taylor, 1988:163-164; Stern, 1984:345)<sup>64</sup>. Indeed, as language encompasses many dimensions most of which are not yet even well understood, it seems acceptable that different people can succeed in achieving linguistic mastery only in some aspects, and at varying degrees. In other words, even amongst monoglots, proficiency in language varies according to people and to the different aspects of language. This presupposes (1) that linguistic competence is a continuum of abilities, (2) that there is such a thing as *differential competence* (Hymes, 1971, 1972, cited in Taylor, 1988:154-156)<sup>65</sup> among monolinguals, between monolinguals and bilinguals, among bilinguals and, within each individual, between the various linguistic aspects, and (3) that linguistic competence is a relative concept.

It has been noticed that increase in the other components of communicative competence usually correlates with a decrease in use of strategic competence. Thus, as people can hardly reach full competence either in their first or added language(s), it is then true to conclude that no one (monolingual or bilingual) is logically speaking capable of ever stopping using strategic competence. In fact, although monolinguals make less use of this competence than bilinguals (in their added language), both have gaps in their linguistic competence, and subsequently need and attempt to increase

their *interactional proficiency* (Mehan, 1972, cited in Paulston, 1978:237; Bennett and Slaughter, 1983:10-11)<sup>66</sup>, their communicative ability, by means of some specific strategies. So is also the case with the learners we are concerned with in this research.

Put broadly and differently, we believe that learners of English in Eastern Kasai follow the same learning process as the one discussed throughout this section. Really, as they already know (Ciluba and) French, they have already made this experience/knowledge easy, simple and manageable, they will inevitably transfer most of it to the task of learning English. And this will be more pronounced in the early stages of learning because they do not yet master enough English. Hence they will inevitably err in both their interlingual (French-English) and intralingual (English only) endeavours, as they will try and test out hypotheses about what this new language is made of, and how it functions. Also due to lack of proficiency in English, they will not only use (Ciluba and) French knowledge, but also (as said earlier) resort (sometimes consciously, some other times unintentionally) to other verbal strategies as well as nonverbal devices (i.e. strategic competence) to solve communication problems. But as their proficiency increases, they will tend to rely more on what of English they already know in order to learn what still remains to be known, looking for means more and more within the English language system itself to learn to communicate in it. As a consequence, they will more and more restrain from using (Ciluba and ) French mainly, and strategic competence.

### 3.3. Strategies in FL Learning

As implied in the preceding sections, first or foreign language learning is a perpetual expansion of stages towards the ideal native speaker's proficiency. In the course of this process, due to the fact that they usually find themselves in situations where they have to express and grasp meanings/ messages normally far beyond their actual knowledge of the language, all learners devise other means to achieve it despite that lack of proficiency. The only major difference existing between first and foreign language learners is the *knowing* by the latter of either another (other languages), or their mother tongues, or bits of the new language concerned. As we shall see in the following lines, it is this sole fact that really accounts for the difference in means and ways the learner of a FL resorts to, and the frequency and degree of use he makes of these during the learning task.

Again, as we said in the preceding section, learning is a matter of organizing the present event in the light of what is already known, a reformulation in new terms of what the learner already knows (Faerch et al., 1984:262)<sup>67</sup>. As we know, the language learner in general, and the foreign language learner in particular, usually tends to communicate meanings/ messages which his knowledge is unable to manage because still limited. But since the desire to communicate is paramount (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a:26)<sup>68</sup>, he will develop and use devices, techniques or strategies to that effect (cf. 3.2.2.). Indeed, all the learner does at any stage in FL learning can be said to be strategic (Kasper, 1984:73)<sup>69</sup>, as he is more or less aware of his gaps, and does and uses what he can to breach them.

The first strategy at his disposal, and the one he finds easy to use, is to compare and contrast what he already knows to what he is learning in order to guess meanings. Inferencing, as Carton (1971, cited in Bialystok, 1973:376)<sup>70</sup> calls this strategy is primary and aims to facilitate comprehension. It can be *interlingual* (i.e. it can use cues from the languages involved), *intralingual* (i.e. when cues from within the language under learning are used), or *extralingual/ contextual* (when the cues used are from outside the languages involved) (Carton, 1971, cited in Bialystok, 1973:376, and in Faerch et al., 1984:96)<sup>71</sup>.

The first two are based on the analogy existing or felt to exist between, on the one hand, the languages involved and, on the other hand, between the different parts within the language being learnt. Extralingual inference, on the contrary, is based on non-linguistic information found and extracted from the context/ environment. Because it makes use of what is familiar to understand what is not (Faerch and Kasper, 1980:70)<sup>72</sup>, inference thus helps the learner formulate hypotheses about the new language, hypotheses he will later test for confirmation (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980:3)<sup>73</sup>.

FL learning, as we said, presents the learner with massive problems on both communication and learning levels. Hence his use of strategies to try to solve them. Problematicity is therefore the first determining criterion for strategy and strategy use. The second is (the presence or absence of) intentionality.

Experts are agreed that problematicity is strategy criterion number one, as strategies are devised and used only when there is (a need to solve) a problem (Corder, 1978:68; Smith, 1979:68; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980:3; Faerch and Kasper, 1983b:214; Haastруп and Phillipson, 1983:143; Tarone et al., 1983:4-5; Varadi, 1983:83;

Bialystok, 1984:39)<sup>74</sup>.

As for intentionality, opinions are divided. For some, learners are aware of the problems, and use strategies in the same way (Jordens, 1977, cited in Smith, 1979:68; Kleinmann, 1977; Faerch and Kasper, 1980:59-60, 81; Rubin, 1987:26; Spolsky, 1988:103)<sup>75</sup>. For others, learners can be conscious at some times, and unconscious at some other times (Selinker, 1972, and Levelt, 1975, cited in Smith 1979; Smith, 1979)<sup>76</sup>. Among the first group, most speak rather of relative degrees of consciousness than of a state as such. For them, strategy and strategy use are then *potentially* conscious (Faerch and Kasper, 1980:81)<sup>77</sup>. For others, they are *more or less* conscious (Levelt, 1975, Selinker, and Jordens, all cited in Smith, 1979:68; Rubin, 1987:26)<sup>78</sup>. Since a problem is acknowledged to be the triggering element for strategy and strategy use, it then appears that the learner knows, relatively consciously or unconsciously, about the problem, and then relatively consciously or relatively unconsciously decides for the type of strategy to use and how to use it. Therefore, strategy selection and use are relatively conscious behaviours for they fluctuate between the conscious and the unconscious.

Defining strategy is another problem in this field. For some, it is a technique or a device, or even a process (Rubin, 1975, cited in Stern, 1984:406)<sup>79</sup>. For others it is different from process (Jordens, cited in Smith, 1979:68; Brown, 1976, and Klaus and Buhr, 1976, Selinker, 1972, Bialystok, 1978, and Frauenfeld and Porquier, 1979: all cited in Faerch and Kasper, 1983a:29-30)<sup>80</sup>. For the last group, it is difficult to say what a process is that is not in a strategy, for they find more similarities than differences between them (Faerch and Kasper, 1980:51, provide an account of researches to this effect)<sup>81</sup>. For these people and many others not mentioned here, strategy, process, technique and device can be used interchangeably. This is our position.

As said before, reference to learner's prior knowledge, namely the languages he knows prior to learning the FL, and all the related experiences, is very crucial as it is centrally involved in inferencing. What the learner does in learning the FL is to attempt to reduce the learning load by trying (1) to simplify FL knowledge in the light of what is already easy and simple for him, i.e. the language(s) he already knows, and (2) to simplify and make easy what of the target language is still left to be learnt. This time, however, he does it mainly in the light of what he already knows better of the language he is learning.

Therefore, simplification, the driving force behind most learners' strategies, is perhaps the universal learning strategy par excellence (Richards, 1974, cited in Corder, 1978:70)<sup>82</sup>. Since language is learnt first and foremost for and through communication, we agree with Widdowson (cited in Corder, 1978:71)<sup>83</sup> that simplification is made first of all to allow people to communicate as efficiently as possible. This strategy should be understood, not as a de-complexification of the system, but as the making of the code easy and simple enough for the learner to learn: it aims at generating *ground rules* (Slobin, 1973, cited in Corder, 1981:147)<sup>84</sup>, i.e. rules made simple for the learner to process, a kind of language *natural semantax* (Traugott, 1977, cited in Corder, 1981:150)<sup>85</sup>, the universal simple code. It cannot be de-complexification because the learner language is in fact a series of stages, each new stage being more complex than the preceding one. Indeed, due to the *recreation continuum process* (Ellis, 1986:303)<sup>86</sup> and the *restructuring continuum process* (Ellis, 1986:303)<sup>87</sup>, the learner language becomes complex at each stage, as (among other things) hypotheses and rules based on already-known languages gradually make room for ones based on the target language only.

Simplification can also be understood as generalization. In effect, only already-known notions, hence already made easy and simple, can be generalized (to cover those that are not yet). In linguistic terms, when simplification occurs between languages, it is called generalization. When it occurs within a language and is incorrectly applied, it is overgeneralization. As it appears, simplification and generalization strategies are at the root of nearly all human meaningful learning (Brown, 1980:86)<sup>88</sup>.

Language learners use these two strategies in a number of ways. One of them, transfer (Smith, 1979:66; Brown, 1980:84)<sup>89</sup>, is the carrying over of previous knowledge to subsequent learning tasks. It is usually made from a more prestigious language, or one in which the learner is more proficient, or one he prefers more to a less prestigious one, or one where he is not sufficiently proficient, or one he does not prefer or prefers less. Transferred elements are habitually re-arranged in the recipient language in accordance with its internal structure, evidence that transfer obeys some linguistic rules. It can either result in facilitation or hindrance of the learning. When it facilitates, it is positive transfer or *transference* (Clyne, cited in Shaffer, 1978:265)<sup>90</sup>; when it impairs learning, it is negative, and brings about interference, defined either as *structural perturbation* (Ma and Herasimchuk, 1971, cited in Bentahila, 1983:16)<sup>91</sup> caused by the introduction of a wrong element in a structure, or as

a result of incorrectly applied generalization/ transfer (Brown, 1980:87)<sup>92</sup>, or even as imperfect language acquisition (Haugen, cited in Shaffer, 1978:267)<sup>93</sup>.

Though differently, interference affects all the levels of language, and both speech and perception. As in the case of transfer, some levels are more susceptible and prone to it than others (Haugen, 1972, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:46)<sup>94</sup>. And of all these, phonology seems to be the one most easily and frequently interfered with, and productive interference the most investigated, maybe because it is more evident and visible than perceptive interference. Although some trials have been made to study perceptive interference (see Guberina's *Crible Phonologique*)<sup>95</sup>, it appears that it involves such huge funding that, in the end, the investigation is judged not to be worthwhile.

Interference is more evident, frequent and numerous among beginners than among advanced learners. The reason might be that because the former rely heavily on their non-FL prior knowledge, and thus learn the FL as though it was one and the same system as L1 or the other language(s) they already know, whereas advanced learners usually learn it as a separate or coordinate system. For this reason, Stern (1984:373)<sup>96</sup> calls the former *High Interference Prone* (HIP) people, and the latter *Low Interference Prone* (LIP) people.

Among predictors of transfer and interference are cross-language interaction and language distance. This means that, (1) whenever languages interact, there is likelihood of transfer and interference, and (2) the greater the similarities between languages in contact, the greater this likelihood. Though it is felt to be intrusive and unattended (Lattey, 1981, in Beardsmore, 1982:46)<sup>97</sup>, interference is, like transfer, subject to some linguistic constraints (Mougeon et al., 1978:58)<sup>98</sup>.

Transfer may involve single items (for instance words, sounds) or bigger units such as whole sentences, paragraphs, discourse. Although both cases involve borrowing items from one language/ code into another, the term borrowing (also known as code-mixing: McClure, 1981, cited in Poplack, 1983:65)<sup>99</sup> is applied only to cases involving single items, whereas code-switching (or code-changing: McClure, 1981, cited in Poplack, 1983:65)<sup>100</sup> is applied to cases involving bigger parts.

Like most strategies, code-switching also helps communication (Bentahila, 1983:16)<sup>101</sup> and is rule-governed (Kachru, 1978:113; Lipski, 1978:250-251; Lattey, 1981, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:114; Poplack, 1983:62)<sup>102</sup>.

Though originally believed to be restricted to only one language (Swain, 1972,

Hymes, 1974, Scotton and Ury, 1977: all cited in Beardsmore, 1982:109-110)<sup>103</sup>, code-switching is nowadays also understood as the shifting from one distinct language to another (Di Pietro, 1978:275-276)<sup>104</sup>. Hymes (1974, cited in The Second Foundation, 1978:237)<sup>105</sup> defines it as "the alternate use of two or more languages, varieties of a language, or even speech styles", a definition shared (among many) by Diebold (1963, cited in Shaffer, 1978:267)<sup>106</sup>, Oksaar (1972, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:112)<sup>107</sup>, Scotton and Ury (1975, cited in The Second Foundation, 1978:237)<sup>108</sup>, and Kachru (1978:107-108)<sup>109</sup>.

As said earlier, code-switching is primarily used to bridge gaps in communication (Kachru, 1978:111; Poplack, 1983:62)<sup>110</sup>, which can be done via and by conveying the speaker's attitude toward either the topic of the conversation or the audience. In the first instance, code-switching is metaphorical and, in the second, it is situational (Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez, 1972, cited in Di Pietro, 1978:277; Clyne, cited in Shaffer, 1978:267; Blom and Gumperz, cited in The Second Foundation, 1978:237)<sup>111</sup>. Like transfer, code-switching can also be consciously and unconsciously applied. The direction of the switch is determined by either the degree of fluency, proficiency or preference in the languages involved, or the prestige, function or situation associated with them. Hence, it is frequently the case that learners usually switch from the less known, or less prestigious, or less preferred to the one they feel at home with, or the one they feel is more prestigious, or the one they prefer to use, where items from the donor language are used to fill gaps. Seen from this angle, code-switching is but a variety of transfer. But unlike this strategy, it seems to involve only bigger chunks of the code, a reason maybe why Clyne (1967, cited in Shaffer, 1978:268-269)<sup>112</sup> calls it *multiple transference*.

Like transfer use, the use of code-switching is also inversely related to the degree of learner proficiency. This means that when proficiency is low, code-switching use is high; when it is high, code-switching use is low (Di Pietro, 1978:275)<sup>113</sup>. Two cases of code-switching use can occur in relation to the listener: if the speaker knows that his interlocutor knows the other language, he will switch to it. If the interlocutor does not know the other language, then the speaker is likely to adapt the borrowed parts to suit the phonology of the main language being used. This is known as *phonological adaptation* (Brown, 1980:180)<sup>114</sup> or *foreignizing*.

So far we have dealt with strategies we think are amongst the basic the FL learner resorts to in the course of his learning. In the next paragraphs, we shall be



dealing with some of the remaining ones we think are, nonetheless, worth speaking about. Just as strategies are numerous and varied, and just as none of the existing typologies describes the subject exhaustively and to everybody's satisfaction, so is what comes in the following pages.

As we said earlier, language is first and above all learned for communication, and learning a language is thus foremost learning how to communicate in it, how to use it functionally (Hatch, 1978, cited in Corder, 1983:16; Corder, 1983:17; Faerch and Kasper, 1980:221; 1983a:25-26)<sup>115</sup>. Hence the crucial importance of communicative strategies: strategies used to compensate for deficits or gaps in communication (Brown, 1980:83; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980; Corder, 1983:16; Tarone et al., 1983:5-6; Ellis, 1986:294; Xiao-Hua Huang and Naerssen, 1987)<sup>116</sup>. They include, not only verbal cues, but also paralinguistic elements such as gestures, body movements, touchings and eye-contacts. Because they are used to encode and express meanings/messages, they are related to the output modality (Brown, 1980:83)<sup>117</sup>. Learning strategies, on the contrary, are used to acquire knowledge (Tarone, 1983a:67; Rubin, cited in Bialystok, 1984:39)<sup>118</sup>, and are therefore said to be of the input modality. In most cases, communicative strategies become learning strategies when and if successful learning takes place, a learning that can indeed be achieved only through and via communication. Because of this relationship between communication and learning, we have devoted the remaining part of this section to discuss communicative strategies.

When we consider the source of problems in communication, i.e. whether it is the speaker who has difficulties making himself understood, or the listener having problems understanding what he is told, we distinguish productive and receptive communicative strategies. The former are used by the speaker and are further divided into reduction and achievement strategies.

The first are used to reduce and/ avoid communication problems. Hence they are also called risk-/ problem-avoiding or message adjustment strategies, or avoidances. Thus, he who uses them tries to avoid problems he meets by reducing either the intended form of the message or the message itself: he avoids or escapes the risk, the challenge presented by the obstacle. Hence Ickenroth (1975, cited in Kleinmann, 1978:158)<sup>119</sup> calls them *escape routes*. They are also called *message adjustment* strategies (Corder, 1983:17)<sup>120</sup> because they are used to adjust what one wishes and wants to convey to the knowledge available to him.

When we consider what part of language they reduce, these strategies can be either formal or functional. Formal reduction strategies are concerned with linguistic form, i.e. phonology, morphology, syntax and lexis. For this reason, we distinguish phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical reduction strategies. Maybe because they deal with form and are also used to reduce/ avoid formal errors, they are also called *linguistic avoidances* (Kleinmann, 1977) and *error avoidances* (Jordens, 1977) (both cited in Faerch and Kasper, 1983a:36)<sup>121</sup>.

Functional or content reduction strategies are used to reduce communicative goals, by helping avoid specific topics, or abandon messages felt difficult to convey, or even replace messages by others. Hence the most talked about are topic avoidances (Tarone, 1977, and Corder, 1978, both cited in Faerch and Kasper, 1980:91)<sup>122</sup>, message abandonment and meaning replacement (Varadi, 1983)<sup>123</sup> or semantic avoidance (Tarone et al., 1976, Blum and Levenston, 1978, and Corder, 1978: all cited in Faerch and Kasper, 1980:91)<sup>124</sup>.

Achievement strategies are used to solve communication problems by confronting them. They are called *compensatory* (Faerch and Kasper, 1980:92)<sup>125</sup> because they help compensate learners' lack of knowledge, or problem-solving strategies. Moreover, because the learner takes risks while trying to solve problems, and at the same time expands his knowledge in how to communicate, these strategies are also known as *risk-running/ risk-taking*, and *resource expansion* strategies. And above all because they aim at succeeding in solving problems, they are ultimately *success-oriented*.

As said earlier, communication strategies can help learning, and thus become learning strategies. To reach this goal, however, they must aim, not at avoidance, but at achievement (Dweck et al., 1978, cited in Wittrock, 1986:305; Faerch and Kasper, 1980:102, and 1983a:54)<sup>126</sup>. Thus, it is only by acknowledging and taking risks, hence learning to communicate in the language, that learners can possibly and fruitfully learn the language (Faerch and Kasper, 1980:221; 1983a:xvi; Hatch, 1978, cited in Corder, 1983)<sup>127</sup>.

When we consider the reference point or basis on which achievement communicative strategies operate, we distinguish five main types of strategies:

L1-based strategies: those based on first or any other language the learner feels he is more proficient in, or prefers to use often, or one that is more prestigious. Among these are code-switching, (literal) translation, foreignizing, transfer and borrowing.

L2- or IL-based (or interlanguage) strategies: those relying on the knowledge of the

target language the learner has at that particular (IL) stage of learning. Instances of these are paraphrase, overgeneralization, word-coinage and restructuring.

Interactional or cooperative strategies are based on the relationships and interactions between the interlocutors. Appeals (to authority or for assistance) are one of the best examples in this case.

Non-linguistic strategies are based on extralingual or paralinguistic cues such as gestures, body movements, eye-contacts, and sounds.

L1-/ IL-based strategies are simultaneously based on the language(s) the learner already knows and IL. Inter-/ intralingual transfer is one of these strategies.

As with most strategies learners use, it is practically difficult to teach someone communicative strategies, and particularly how and when to use them. We think the only possibly feasible thing to do, one that is likely to succeed, is to allow learners to try out hypotheses whenever and in whichever way they feel like, and then possibly correct them. This can be achieved only when the learners are allowed to express themselves as freely as possible. Knowing about strategies is not as paramount as knowing how, when and why to use them. This point of ours seems to be in straight contradiction with the opinion expressed by some experts who propose that the best way to train learners to communicate is to teach them communicative strategies. If by teaching they mean the passing of knowledge from teacher over to learner, then this is impossible. But if by teaching they mean helping create conditions for learning to take place, and if among these conditions learner freedom to speak is guaranteed, then we agree with them.

Receptive communicative strategies are used to decode utterances if there is a problem. They have not been as much investigated as productive communicative strategies, one of the reasons being maybe that it is more difficult to check what goes in than what comes out of the learner. But in spite of this difficulty, some studies have been conducted to investigate this field. Thus, it has been noticed that the listener's difficulties might be signalled to the speaker by the listener himself, or the speaker can notice it and then try to re-encode his message. Hence receptive communicative strategies are divided into repairs/ repair requests, and hybrid strategies.

The first may be either *other-initiated*, i.e. initiated by the listener for the speaker to re-encode his message, or *self-initiated*, i.e. initiated by the speaker himself. They may also be either *non-interactional repairs*, i.e. initiated by either the speaker or the listener, but completed by the other interlocutor, and or *interactional repairs*, i.e.

when there is a shift either from speaker to hearer, or from hearer to speaker (Faerch et al., 1984:72)<sup>128</sup>.

Hybrid receptive communicative strategies consist of one part productive and one part receptive communicative strategies. Pleading ignorance is the best instance in this case.

And finally, repairs/ repair requests can be either general (when the lack of understanding involves the whole message), or specific (when the problem lies with one particular part of the message/ meaning) (Faerch et al., 1984:163)<sup>129</sup>.

Just as it is for all FL learners, learners of English in Eastern Kasai (particularly in the early stages) should and do (when not forbidden) use strategies, because these, mainly communicative ones, do help them use English communicatively, and thus learn it. This should increase confidence in their own capabilities, and push them to seek for opportunities to use whatever they know of this language. In so doing, they would build hypotheses, test them and possibly incorporate the right ones in their knowledge of this language. In this way, use of Ciluba and French prior knowledge, and of the other means (verbal and nonverbal) that usually allow language learners to remedy their weaknesses should be tolerated for them, lest they get unnecessarily or inopportunately discouraged.

Of these means, simplification/ generalization through comparing and contrasting English to French mainly (cf. the numerous reasons reviewed throughout the preceding paragraphs) will be the first and easiest strategy these learners will normally use.

Indeed, because Ciluba and French are already easy for them, they will then try to interpret and understand everything they come across in English in the light of these languages: they will simplify the English knowledge they are trying to acquire by generalizing to it the experience they have of French especially. But as they gain mastery in English, they will shift from French-based generalizations to English-based ones for they will then rely more on their knowledge of English to acquire more English know-how.

Of simplification/ generalization-related techniques they are likely to use the most in the early stages of learning are transfer/ borrowing of French sounds, words, expressions/ idioms and syntactic structure rules. With perhaps the exception of syntactic structure rules, the other transferred/ borrowed elements will likely be *anglicized* in most cases so as to try to make them fit into the English system. Cases

of transfer into English of *pure* French elements is unlikely to be common, mainly because these learners will do everything possible not to show that they really do not know. In case however they do resort to this type of transfer/ borrowing, then they are likely to do it either when talking to their fellow classmates, or pronounce the elements borrowed quickly and imperceptibly so that the teacher has only the impression that what has been said is not English but French. So will it be with cases of code-switching. Just as French-based simplification/ generalization and the subsequent transfers will be more marked in the early period of learning, so will be the degree of interference from French.

As is the case with all language learners, Eastern Kasai learners of English will also feel a great desire to communicate in this new language. But as they are not enough equipped (mainly in the beginning period of learning) to do so without mistakes, they will then resort to a number of strategies that will allow them to compensate for their lack of mastery in this language.

Therefore, it is logical to expect that they should use more English-based achievement communicative strategies than avoidances. Hence they should be willing to take risks. Besides, as they obviously need a hand, these learners will also inevitably use (often indirectly) interactional/ co-operative strategies. It follows that teachers should tolerate the use by these learners of the different strategies they will resort to to try to learn English.

Unfortunately, we have observed (cf. Introduction) that most of them rather massively resort to avoidances, i.e. they altogether avoid speaking English. There must therefore be something wrong in the learning/ teaching process. And this we think has more to do with the teachers' insistence on accuracy and exclusive use of English by these learners (see 5.2.). Indeed, by restricting them to accuracy and exclusive use of English, teachers prevent these learners from using strategies, thus preventing them from using the bits of English they know, from practising this language, from learning, hence pushing them to use avoidances. But since this is at this stage only an intuition and a feeling we developed from mere passive observation of these students, we must look into other potential factors that might be contributing to this situation. And this we shall do in the following chapter.

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## CHAPTER FOUR

### INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL DIMENSIONS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Of the many theories developed and studies conducted in order to understand FL learning/ teaching, most have been in biology, linguistics, cognitive and social psychology, and ecology of learning. This is the reason why we have preferred to devote this particular chapter to factors believed in these fields to play a role in FL learning/ teaching, and to consider their significance for Zaire.

As we have been saying from the start, like language from which it springs, knowing more than one language is a multi-factorial phenomenon, for it is influenced by *mind, matter, and manner* (Ohala, cited in Fledge, 1987:167)<sup>1</sup>: mind (for instance, cognition, but also affective factors), matter (for example, the topic of conversation) and manner (for instance, the ways people involved in the process behave, and the ways the society behaves toward them). It is therefore the interplay between these different factors (and not one particular factor) that determines its outcome.

For reasons of clarity and conciseness, we have preferred to subdivide the factors in this chapter into five groups. They are (1) biological and (2) cognitive factors, (3) language-specific, (4) environmental/ contextual, and (5) social psychological factors. Because of the overlap that exists between these groups, it is often not possible to allocate the different factors entirely and exclusively to any tight and specific categories. As the reader will therefore notice throughout the following lines, each time we speak about a particular group of factors, we will also often and unavoidably be speaking about some others.

#### 4.1. Biological factors

These factors are chiefly concerned with the learner as a physiological entity, hence his linguistic development in relation to his maturational changes. The question of age in relation to FL learning has been for years one of the most debated issues. The reason we believe why this was the earliest to be discussed and to have inspired many an observer of bilingualism is because, amongst the factors involved in this

phenomenon, age is the easiest to measure and deal with.

It has been observed for a very long time that children seem to learn FLs more easily than adults. This resulted in the belief in the existence of an *optimal* period during which it was easier to learn foreign languages, and a *critical period* (CP) after which this becomes more arduous. This was backed by theories and hypotheses developed in neurology, psychology, linguistics and related sciences such as neurolinguistics and psycholinguistics (see for instance Lenneberg, 1967; Chomsky, 1957, 1965, 1968; Scovel, 1969)<sup>2</sup>.

One of the most talked-about hypotheses, the *Critical Period Hypothesis* (CPH) has it that the ability to learn foreign languages progressively decreases after puberty. It suggests that before this stage, the human brain is programmed to learn effectively and without any apparent effort any natural human languages. But past this period, mastery of FLs (mainly of pronunciation) becomes more strenuous, and usually results in nonnative proficiency, whatever the amount and degree of effort put into the learning. Thus, this hypothesis suggests that language learning ability is innate and works naturally and smoothly up to puberty.

In their *Brain Plasticity Hypothesis*, Penfield (1953, cited in Stern, 1984:362)<sup>3</sup> and Penfield and Roberts (1959, cited in Harley, 1986:4-5)<sup>4</sup> espouse this same view and say that, before puberty, there exists in the human brain an automatic *switch mechanism* that allows the learner to go from one language to another without confusion, translation, or interference, and that after this period, the brain "becomes progressively stiff and rigid".

For Lenneberg (1967:176;377)<sup>5</sup>, before puberty, the human brain has what he calls *language readiness* i.e. the ability to learn any language. This fades away after puberty because the brain loses its adaptability and becomes then unable to reorganise itself for the task of language learning (1967:179)<sup>6</sup>. He backs his view with results of studies in neurology and suggests that cerebral lateralization is completed around 13 years of age, whereas before this age, the human brain is *equipotential* for language learning. This has been challenged by (amongst others) Krashen (1973), Kinsbourne (1975), Kinsbourne & Hiscock (1977) (all cited in Harley, 1986:7)<sup>7</sup>, and Whitaker et al. (1981)<sup>8</sup>.

Though Krashen seems to accept the probability of the existence of a biologically-based critical period, he does not support the suggestion that it coincides with lateralization which, according to him, is complete by the time we are five years old.



Though he acknowledges the fact that adults seem to learn FLs with much more difficulty, he suggests that this is due to affective factors (see 4.5.: Social Psychological Factors).

For Kinsbourne and Hiscock, lateralization is complete at age three, perhaps even at birth. Whitaker et al. reject this neurologically-based evidence since (they say) there is no known neurological data that shows that this CP ends with puberty as the brain seems to be ninety percent adult in value by the time we are six. For them, the difficulty postpubescent FL learners experience cannot convincingly be explained on cortical maturation grounds. Lenneberg says that adult ability to learn to communicate in FLs is merely due to resemblances (Universals) which exist between natural languages (1967:176)<sup>9</sup>. But still he insists that native-like pronunciation in FL is difficult for the adult learner to reach because of the loss of language readiness. This view is also shared by Scovel (1969; 1981, and in Harley, 1986:6)<sup>10</sup> for whom *complete fluency* for the FL adult learner is possible only in vocabulary and syntax, but never in pronunciation because the presence of the dominant language his brain is already lateralized for inhibits effective learning of any other linguistic sound system. This inevitably results in a nonnative accent.

Seliger (1978, cited in Harley, 1986:7)<sup>11</sup> does not support the one-period critical hypothesis as put forward by Lenneberg and others. Though he shares with them the idea that age handicaps adults to learn foreign languages effectively, he nevertheless explains this in terms of a *Multiple Critical Periods Hypothesis*, a hypothesis that suggests that cerebral lateralization is progressive and seems to affect the different linguistic levels at different periods. Among others who explain in nativistic terms the difficulty the adult learner has in mastering FLs is Chomsky (1957, 1965, 1968)<sup>12</sup>, even though he does it in purely linguistic terms.

Also a supporter of the CPH, Lamendella (1977:165)<sup>13</sup> says that before puberty the neurolinguistic system is still immature and has thus *intrinsically greater potential* for language learning; after this period, it has already matured, hence its lower potential for language learning.

Walsh and Diller (1981:12)<sup>14</sup> also explain the difficulty adult learners have to master FL accents on neurological bases. They say that, being a *lower order linguistic function*, pronunciation ability is genetically specified and consolidated in the early stages of brain development.

Marler & Munding (1971), and Studdert-Kennedy (1981) (all cited in Fledge,

1987:163)<sup>15</sup> support the loss of cortical plasticity after puberty, which they compare to *crystallisation* -the progressive loss certain birds undergo in their song learning ability, and which starts at a certain period of their life.

The biologically-based CPH has been opposed in many respects. Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978)<sup>16</sup>, and Fledge (1981, cited in Fledge, 1987:165)<sup>17</sup> suggest that, in certain circumstances, adults are equal to or even better than children in language learning. They thus conclude that the neurological argument put forward by advocates of CPH is not convincing evidence.

Whitaker et al. (1981)<sup>18</sup>, Walsh and Diller (1981)<sup>19</sup>, and Peters & Hall (1985, cited in Fledge, 1987:166)<sup>20</sup> also reject the claim that brain development is complete by puberty. They say that their studies have suggested that, as a result of day-to-day experience, the human brain goes on developing either for a short or long period after puberty, or even throughout the entire life. Others who reject that age has anything to do with child-adult FL accent differences are Oyama (1982, cited in Fledge, 1987:166)<sup>21</sup> and Tahta et al. (1981)<sup>22</sup>. Findings of the study made by the former (on 6 to 20 year-old Italians living in the USA) suggested that, instead of decreasing, the degree of FL native-like accent increased linearly with age. For Tahta et al., CPH-based studies have reached the conclusions they have come to because they have considered FL learning to be an overly simple phenomenon, when indeed it involves so many factors that an overstressing of one (age in this case) unredeemingly introduces bias that inevitably makes the findings suspicious and unreliable.

So, in short, in spite of the fact that many studies have validly concluded that language is more effortlessly learnt before than after puberty, no evidence has however been found to support the hypothesis that (1) this facility is directly related to age, and (2) that children are really superior to adults in this field. Actually, findings from these very studies and many others have suggested that, though they seem to be better than adults at acquiring foreign accents, children have been found to be slower than or just the same as adults in other linguistic aspects.

Usually associated with the age issue is the question of the time to start FL learning and, hence, the amount of FL exposure one receives during the learning process. Because it was observed that children learn languages more easily and more effectively than adults, it was also automatically concluded that it is because they learn them at an early age. Consequently, it was believed that an early start in language learning could help the adult learner master the FL, and particularly its accent. Among

those who support this position are (besides nativists) Dryer(1956), Price (1956), Kirch (1956), Anderson (1960), Larew (1961), Brega & Newell (1965;1967), and Durette (1972)(all cited in Burstall, 1978:15)<sup>23</sup>, McNeill (cited in Stern, 1967:xii)<sup>24</sup> and Whitaker (cited in Albert & Obler, 1978:105)<sup>25</sup>. But though an early start is unquestionably a way to increase FL mastery, it seems not to be in itself an important and determining factor in FL learning (Stern et al., 1976, cited in Stern & Weinrib, 1978:164)<sup>26</sup>.

For some, the solution to the problem of mastery in FL learning lies with the quantity of exposure one receives in the language. Thus, for Carroll (1975, cited in Stern, 1984:365)<sup>27</sup>, Hakuta (1974, cited in Albert & Obler, 1978:226)<sup>28</sup>, Burstall et al. (1974, cited in Harley, 1986:21)<sup>29</sup>, and Tahta et al. (1981)<sup>30</sup>, achievement in FL is primarily a function of the amount of time one is allowed to practise the FL. The higher this amount, the better the learner will do.

This conclusion has been challenged (amongst others) by results of studies where researchers, though acknowledging that quantity of exposure is a variable to reckon with in FL learning, do not find in it a determining factor when taken in isolation (Krashen, 1973, cited in Connors et al., 1978:71; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukoma, 1976, cited in Cummins, 1984:118; Genesee, 1978, and Swain, 1981, cited in Harley, 1986:21-22; Cummins, 1984:110)<sup>31</sup>. Krashen, for instance, believes that it is the naturalness and diversity of linguistic material the learner is exposed to, and activities he is allowed to engage in and which he actually and wilfully engages in that count most.

For Genesee, the quantity/ time of exposure can be advantageous to promoting mastery of FL only when coupled with<sup>an</sup> effective and appropriate teaching method. For Swain, it is only when exposure is considered in relation to affective attitudinal and cultural circumstances under which the learning takes place that its importance can be fully ascertained. So is it for Cummins, and Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukoma.

In conclusion, though Carroll and the like insist on the amount of FL exposure to be received by the learner, they do not say in concrete terms how much this should be. We suspect that they would like it to be (nearly) the same as the one received in L1 acquisition! If that is what they mean, then the whole problem cannot be solved considering the differences existing between the conditions under which L1 and FLs are acquired. Indeed it is evidently impossible to get the same quantity (and even quality) of exposure in L1 and FL acquisition.

According to Strevens (1987 IATEFL Conference)<sup>32</sup>, with a minimum of five hours a week, a learner in a language class can successfully master a FL. Compared to the amount and quality of exposure one receives while learning one's L1, five hours per week seem negligible. But if (as he says) it is possible to learn successfully a FL in such a period of time, then it is obvious and logical to conclude that (1) the amount and time of exposure one receives are (in isolation) not an important predictor of success and, (2) that, consequently, there are other factors than time whose impact is more crucial.

Most of the studies that nowadays challenge the CP Hypothesis and its related theories have been chiefly conducted in affective psychology and sociolinguistics. But before we deal with them, we think it suitable to say a word about another set of factors that have, like the age issue, enjoyed a long tradition in discussions on language acquisition.

#### 4.2. Cognitive factors

Broadly speaking, these factors relate to general intelligence and linguistic aptitude, about which much has been said and written, mainly in connection with the so-called impairments bilingualism was said to cause in bilinguals.

As we pointed out in chapter two, critics of bilingualism have suggested that FL learners do not perform well in their nonnative languages because they live with more than one language, a fact which lowers both their I.Q. scores and linguistic aptitude. But no firm evidence has so far been found to support this allegation.

Spolsky (1969), Politzer (1970) and Gardner & Lambert (1972) (all cited in Segalowitz, 1977:148)<sup>33</sup> suggest that, since they successfully master their mother tongue, all (normal) humans have potentials for mastering any human language. They say that if, as it is observed, they do not come to reach the same result in learning languages other than their first ones, that is due to other factors than either their intelligence or aptitude for learning FLs. This opinion is also shared by Vernon (1960) and Genesee (1976) (cited in Stern, 1984:368)<sup>34</sup>, for whom it is achievement in L1 which is the best predictor of FL achievement. Thus, since each normal human is proficient in L1, so should he be in FLs.

Along the same lines, Stern and Weinrib (1978:163-164)<sup>35</sup> say that once the first language is established, there should be no problems for learning any other language.

So are opinions expressed by Lepicq (1973) and Neufeld (1978) (both cited in Carroll, 1981:85)<sup>36</sup>, and Feuerstein (1979, cited in Cummins, 1984:123)<sup>37</sup>. For Roeming (1966) and Hubbard (1975) (both cited in Carroll, 1981:85)<sup>38</sup>, aptitude is not very crucial in FL learning, for all those who have already learnt their L1 are automatically able to acquire any other language. What determines success in FL learning is the learner's motivation, attitude and personality.

For Carroll (1981:158-159)<sup>39</sup>, *foreign language aptitude* is closely related to general intelligence. And bilinguals do have this kind of intelligence. It follows that they logically should perform as well in FL as they do in L1. If, he says, it is true that the ability to acquire L1 is innate for humans, it should then follow that this is also true for all languages. He argues that if those who learn other languages meet with difficulties, these must be imputed to other factors than lack of intelligence. This is the same with what Corno and Snow (1986:605)<sup>40</sup> suggest when they say that aptitude

“signifies some aspect of the present state of an individual that is propaedeutic to some future achievement in some particular situation. As such, it incorporates conative and affective as well as cognitive attributes of persons that predict success in specified endeavors. It includes also prior achievement differences among persons that serve as such predictors.”

If we subtract prior achievement (i.e. achievement that is successful since all FL learners have already mastered their L1) we are left with conative, affective and cognitive factors. Being already established (since the FL learner has already acquired his L1), the latter factors seem to be logically not crucial in FL learning. Thus, we are left only with conative and affective factors. And these indeed seem to be the ones that make the difference in FL learning. It seems then indicated to conclude that (1) foreign language aptitude is not paramount (as it is already there once one has successfully acquired one's L1) and (2) that the most determining variables in FL learning are the conative and affective factors.

Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977), Cummins (1979;1980;1981) and Ekstrand (1982) (all cited in Fillmore & Valadez, 1986:676)<sup>41</sup>, who also share this view, believe that, thanks to his cognitive advantage over the child (which he has got thanks to his well-developed L1 skills), the adult FL learner should normally do better. Then if he does not (as is the case), the blame should fall, not on his cognitive powers, but

on some other factors.

In relation with what we have said throughout this section, we think that learners of English in Eastern Kasai are cognitively speaking well-equipped to learn this language successfully. In fact, as we have seen earlier, they are all of them over twelve years of age, hence they have already known their mother tongue and French at least. From this prior achievement, we can, without fear of being contradicted, say that their overall cognitive ability as regarding the learning of other human languages (including English) is already established. So, this factor should not be pointed at as being the culprit in the situation we said we have observed (cf. Introduction).

### 4.3. Environmental/ Contextual Factors

These factors include all those variables found in the context/ environment where the learning takes place. But for the sake of conciseness, we shall deal only with the manners and ways in which FLs are acquired, i.e. the context of learning and the (acquisition) position occupied by the language under study (as compared to the other languages in the process). We shall however not close this section without saying a word about other related factors, i.e. the quality and quantity of linguistic data to which the learner is exposed, the way he incorporates it into his knowledge, and the status conferred on the FL by the society.

It has been observed for both children and adults that the degree of proficiency reached when a FL is learnt in an informal setting (for instance in the home, in the street, at work) is usually higher than when it is learnt in formal situations i.e. in institutions, such as the classroom with all that it presupposes (hierarchical organization, and instructional methods and aids).

Differences between children in informal settings and those in formal contexts seem to be less pronounced than those between (1) adults in the former and those in the latter, (2) children in an informal environment and adults in a formal setting, and (3) children and adults in the same context. In case (1), adults in informal learning context seem to do better than those in a formal setting. In case (2), children in informal setting seem to do even better than adults in formal context, and in case (3) children seem to do better. In general terms, it seems that learning a FL in an informal way seems to produce better results than learning it in a formal way. In the same way, it has been noticed that learning a FL concurrently with L1 produces better

results than learning it consecutively to this latter language. In the first instance, it is implied that the learner is a child, whereas in the second he is either a child (but who is older than when he learnt L1) or an adult, this meaning that he has already achieved L1 mastery. In both cases of the latter instance, it has been observed that learning is not as fruitful and effortless as L1 learning, and that, with age, the degree of success decreases at the same time as that of effort increases.

As said in the introduction to this section, the setting and age of acquisition issues are related to those of the amount of exposure one receives, the quality and quantity of data one is exposed to, and the society's perceptions of the nature and necessity of FL learning. It has been suggested that, since exposure to FL is generally greater in informal than in formal language acquisition, and since proficiency is relatively higher in the former, the number of times one is exposed to the language is very important. Though this is unquestionably a fact, evidence from many studies has suggested that there is no direct causal relationship between the amount of exposure received and achievement (Cummins, 1984; Strevens, 1987)<sup>42</sup>. In fact, although learners in formal settings seem to learn relatively more slowly and with some degree of difficulty, some nonetheless succeed in the long run in achieving an acceptable level of proficiency, and sometimes even match children and those in informal contexts. This seems to contradict the long-established belief that proficiency attainment in FL is primarily and directly related to the amount of instructional time provided (Carroll, cited in Stern, 1984:365)<sup>43</sup>.

When we compare FL learning context to that of L1, mainly when the former occurs after the latter and in a formal milieu such as the classroom, we realize that the FL learning environment is not natural. This is due to the fact that the learner finds himself deprived of most of the usual supportive elements found in L1 learning situation. Of these are affective elements and (in connection with them) the quality and quantity of linguistic inputs he receives. In fact, due to constraints formal learning context applies on language, in-school linguistic input is basically unnatural, whatever the learning programmes foreseen to contextualize it. It is both of low quality and quantity as it is limited, truncated and has fewer or nearly no contextual redundant features, most of which are primary to understanding and communicating. As a consequence of being exposed to poorer and often out-of-context input, the learner ends up producing the same quality and quantity in output (Connors et al., 1978:70; Wagner-Cough and Hatch, 1975, cited in Harley, 1986:19)<sup>44</sup>. Thus, Krashen

(1973, cited in Connors et al., 1978:71)<sup>45</sup> concludes that input normalcy and diversity, and the type and amount of activities the learner is allowed actually to engage in communicatively are very crucial.

In the same way, Cochrane (1977) and Asher (1981) (both cited in Fledge, 1987:167-168)<sup>46</sup>, Donaldson (1978), Wong and Fillmore (1983), Long (1983), Schachter (1983) (all cited in Cummins, 1984:140-141; 230)<sup>47</sup> and Cummins (1984:230)<sup>48</sup> suggest that language learning is really and possibly fruitful only when the language exposed to is natural. But as in-class language is presented in a disembedded context, it is context-reduced (Cummins, 1984)<sup>49</sup> and, thus, learning becomes cognitively demanding for the learner. Indeed, it requires of him to understand out of context the messages and meanings language conveys. This means that this language is deprived of the many redundancies language usually carries in order to reduce its complexities and allow the listener-speaker to grasp what is said: it mainly relies on purely linguistic cues to get to meaning (as opposed to context-embedded language, where the learner negotiates meaning, relying on linguistic as well as paralinguistic and situational cues). Besides, the input provided in such an environment is often irrelevant, uninteresting, insufficient, grammatically sequenced, and above all it usually focusses on form rather than on use and communication. Thus, it is most often not conducive to learning.

Not only the nature of input is important, but also (in conjunction with it) the nature of interaction the learner is involved in. Interaction can be natural or unnatural. Natural interaction (like in L1 learning) is when communication is real. It is unnatural when (like in FL learning) language is decontextualized, devoid of redundancies (Macnamara, 1973, cited in Harley, 1986:19)<sup>50</sup>. This in turn is unlikely to promote learning and acquisition, even if the input is comprehensible i.e. focussing on communication, thus favouring intake (Krashen, 1981, cited in Harley, 1986:20)<sup>51</sup>. This is so because the learner is usually denied the right and possibility to negotiate meaning and understanding, an activity he is more capable of and inclined to do (Scarcella and Higa, 1982, cited in Harley, 1986:20-21; Long, 1981, and Enright, 1982: both cited in Fillmore and Valadez, 1986:668)<sup>52</sup>. In fact, there is often no real interaction and hence no real co-operation between the learner and the other people involved in the learning process, particularly the teacher. And in such circumstances, learning cannot easily take place (Malamah-Thomas, 1987:7;11)<sup>53</sup>.

Even in the rare cases when input is (made to be) comprehensible, it usually



does not become intake because of the many filters the learner has developed, and which push him to approach language learning through a selection of input elements (Dulay and Burt, 1978:554)<sup>54</sup>. *Input reduction* (Corder, 1967, cited in Faerch and Kasper, 1980:64)<sup>55</sup>, i.e. the conscious and/ or unconscious reduction of input and its transformation into intake, is a normal and necessary learning strategy found in both L1 and FL learning. Its aim is to reduce learning load, thus to allow the learner to cope with and incorporate what he is learning. While it is more unconscious in L1 acquisition, it seems to be relatively more conscious and excessive in formal FL learning, and to increase with age. This we believe is one of the consequences of adult's overall high level of consciousness.

Although, as says Krashen (1981, cited in Cook, 1983:230)<sup>56</sup>, maximization of input comprehensibility is an important principle in language pedagogy, it is, in our opinion, not as paramount as the reduction of learner excessive and unnecessary filtering. Filtering, and at some extent input reduction, affects rate, quality and quantity of language acquisition, mainly in FL learning. The more one filters and reduces, the less rapidly one learns, and the more exposed one is to more low quality, less abundant and less varied input. So is one's intake. Thanks to or because of filtering, learners are able to prefer certain inputs over others, to assign priority to some elements, and are thus able to determine (often unconsciously) what to learn and when to increase, decrease or cease language learning effort (Dulay and Burt, 1978:68-69)<sup>57</sup>.

Gass (1988)<sup>58</sup> also acknowledges the importance of input in FL, but insists on the fact that there is a strong correlation between it, the learner's output and affect, especially his motivation and confidence (1988:212)<sup>59</sup>. As compared to Krashen's input theory, Gass's has more levels of input, and slightly differs from the former. She distinguishes the following:

*Apperceived input* (what, thanks to his past experience, the learner *notices* in the ambient speech around him) is transformed into *comprehended input* (input that is accessible to him through meaning negotiation and speech modification). This input is different from Krashen's *comprehensible input* in that it is believed to be multi-staged (i.e. a continuum) and learner-controlled, whereas Krashen's is two-staged (is or is not) and under the teacher's control. It is this input that is likely to become either intake to be used as communication (i.e. used in immediate conversation) and/ or learning (i.e. to develop the learner's IL grammar). Then follows the *integration*

stage when intake is stored in the learner's permanent knowledge, to be used in his automatic output.

For acquisition (in Krashen's sense) to take place, input should be comprehensible i.e. comprehended input should be successfully used in communication. Gass says that only the learner who is motivated and confident (in himself and in his own abilities) is able to use comprehended input successfully in communication, thus producing comprehensible outputs.

It is at this point that, despite their differences, Gass and Krashen, and many others such as Perdue (1984) and Swain (1985) (both cited in Gass, 1988:210)<sup>60</sup> meet. In fact, all of them suggest that, whatever the type or quantity of input concerned, it can really be taken in by the learner and incorporated in his permanent knowledge, and be successfully used in communication *only if* he has enough motivation and confidence to learn. They hence acknowledge the primacy of affect in FL learning.

The way the society regards the FL, the position and status it confers on it (as compared to any other language in that society) also contribute to promoting successful/ unsuccessful learning. In fact, the way the society looks at a FL, i.e. the status it allocates to it, which in a way determines its function in the community, plays an important role in determining learner attitudes (Beardsmore, 1982:83)<sup>61</sup>. With reference to English in Eastern Kasai, we think (see Chapters One and Two) that learners of this language in this part of the world should (and indeed they do) have positive attitudes towards this language, for it is valued by the society. Indeed, in spite of its obvious foreignness, this language enjoys a rather higher status than Ciluba, and is even threatening French. The reasons behind this are (as we said earlier) that its knowledge is not only perceived as evidence of higher intellectual abilities, but also and above all that it is likely to offer more advantages to whoever has it (than French can). If then (as we said earlier) most learners do not do their best to succeed in English, this must be because of other reasons than their attitudes.

As we said earlier, in most countries, FLs are learnt for the benefit of either the society (e.g. international exchanges, social and political unity), and/ or for that of individuals. Individuals' attitudes towards FLs in most of these countries are the result of a long process that started during colonial times, when the use of the language of the colonizer was usually associated with and provided high social status and material advantages, and was a sign of superior intelligence and education (Segalowitz and Gatlinton, 1977:86)<sup>62</sup>. This idea of associating the once colonizer's language (French,

English...) with power, high culture (Fishman, 1966, cited in Bentahila, 1983:51)<sup>63</sup>, knowledge, prosperity, education, and above all prestige (Bentahila, 1983:27)<sup>64</sup> is still deeply ingrained in most of these countries. So is it with most FL learners in Eastern Kasai. In fact, just as the knowledge and use of FLs by these people make them feel that they become other persons (Green, 1941, cited in Bentahila, 1983:48)<sup>65</sup>, people in Eastern Kasai also consider as more important and brighter all those of their fellows who can speak English. Therefore, it is in their mind as it is in the mind of most people in the once colonized countries that knowing and using FLs (English in Eastern Kasai) will bring them both social and individual considerations (Stewart, 1962, and Herman, 1968: both cited in Bentahila, 1983:51)<sup>66</sup>.

Also important is the fact that the school environment in which this language is learnt puts limitations on the quantity and quality of English input they receive, and also on the quality and quantity of interactions they are likely to engage in. And finally all this has consequences on their affect. Indeed, impact of these limitations on these learners' attitudes and motivations raises the likelihood of an increase in the degree of filtering they are likely to make on the already poor input they get, thus making intake poorer and output even poorer. And so will be the rate at which they learn this language. Because of the limitations on the amount and kind of activities they are allowed to engage in to use this language communicatively, they will not be granted enough time to negotiate meaning and understanding, and use the numerous extralingual cues and other strategies which, considering their level of knowledge of English, they should be allowed to use for they cannot avoid resorting to them (see point 3.3.).

#### **4.4. Language-specific factors**

It has been also often alleged that differences in degrees of ease in FL learning arise from the internal structure of the FL concerned. It is true to some extent that the internal organization of FLs somehow plays a certain role in contributing to the degree of ease/ difficulty one experiences in learning the FL. This is measured in terms of the relative degree of complexity of the language sound system, syntax and semantics, and the range (wide or narrow) of its lexicon. This perceived complexity/ simplicity involves the comparison of what the learner already knows as language(s) and what he is learning. Indeed, to get an approximation of the extent to which a

FL is complex or simple, the learner (overtly or covertly) does take the language(s) he already knows as a reference point.

It is difficult for any other person than the learner himself to say whether or not the language is complex as he is the one who really feels it. But nonetheless, considered in purely linguistic terms (linguistic in its narrowest sense possible i.e. words, rules, word order... taken separately from the social psychological context of communication) it is possible for anyone to say which language is or is not relatively complex for the learner.

The internal structure of the FL is not the only variable that is thought (amongst linguistic factors) to determine the degree of ease or difficulty the FL learner will have. Also important is the extent to which the FL is or is not different from the L1 (or any other language the learner already knows). Language distance (as this linguistic similarity/ dissimilarity is technically termed) is related to the degree of mutual intelligibility between languages. Intelligibility starts with the different surface levels of the languages and ends with message/ meaning mutual understanding. Thus, the less the homology between L1 and FL, the less mutually intelligible they are, and the more difficult the learner feels to learn the FL. Indeed, many people believe that genetically-related languages, i.e. those that descend from the same mother language seem to be more mutually intelligible than those which are not.

According to Karam (1979, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:80)<sup>67</sup>, amongst the different elements that determine the degree of mutual intelligibility, it is lexical similarity which is crucial. Though important, phonological and grammatical similarity (he says) are so only insofar as they help reduce the quantity/ time of exposure learners of less distant languages need to attain acceptable degree of reciprocal intelligibility. This view is challenged by Vildomec (1963, cited in Albert and Obler, 1978:15-16)<sup>68</sup> for whom it is the overall linguistic structural distance that is important in determining mutual intelligibility, hence facilitation in FL learning. Though we are not sure of what he exactly means by *structural*, we are nonetheless certain that in the main his opinion parallels Karam's. The fact that closely-related languages seem easier to learn lies in that they share many common elements. And if the learner has already acquired most of them via the language(s) he already knows, then the task of learning the other language is made simple and easy (Jakobovits, 1968, and Kessler, 1972, cited in Albert & Obler, 1978:193; Finocchiaro, 1978:517-519)<sup>69</sup>.

Chumbow (1978)<sup>70</sup> and T'Sou (1981, cited in Beardsmore, 1982:66-67)<sup>71</sup> say

that, in the school FL learning situation where the learner knows more than one language prior to the learning of the FL concerned (as is the case with learners of English in Eastern Kasai), it is the less distant and more culturally-related language to the FL, and the more prestigious and one used as the medium of instruction that will the most help the learner in his learning, even if it is not the dominant language in that society. They thus predict that, together with classroom ascendancy of one language over another, genetic relatedness is a firm predictor of success in classroom FL learning. Spitzer (1948, cited in Lewis, 1977:87)<sup>72</sup> and Trubetzkoy (cited by Auerbach, 1965, quoted in Lewis, 1977:87-88)<sup>73</sup> support this idea, though they explain it in sociolinguistic terms, namely in those of social distance, i.e. "the (relative perceived) cognitive and affective proximity of [...] cultures "that come into contact within an individual (Brown, 1980:135)<sup>74</sup>.

Speaking of the linguistic situation in Europe, Spitzer says that the overlap found among European civilizations makes it easy for "a person speaking one European language to master semantically any other ". This is so because of the interaction between these civilizations which has helped, in the long run, to create a quite common and homogeneous thought system. Also referring to the same linguistic overlap and semantic system of reference it helped create, Trubetzkoy speaks of the language alliance (the *Sprachbund*) which has become the cornerstone of *the* European society and *Hochsprache* (the European common literary or educated language).

Thus, Spitzer and Trubetzkoy (also Auerbach) suggest that the FL learner will find it relatively easier to learn a FL the society of which has more features in common with his own than the one whose culture is relatively more distant. So do Orr (1953, cited in Lewis, 1977:23)<sup>75</sup> and Fishman (1968, cited in Afolayan, 1978:333)<sup>76</sup>, and Finocchiaro (1978:518)<sup>77</sup> who refers directly to linguistic distance.

When we consider the languages involved in Eastern Kasai English learning process, we notice that English is, in all respects, much more related to French than, say, to Ciluba. And regarding particularly this point, since the distance between Luba and Western civilizations has already been reduced through the adoption of Belgian-French cultures by Luba learners, adoption of English cultural traits should therefore be facilitated as they resemble those of these two cultures. In addition to being more related to English, French is also the instruction language in Zaire. Therefore, learners of English in this part of Zaire should feel more at home with this language in classroom context, and should therefore normally resort to it to learn English.

Linguistic and social distances imply psychological distance - "a set of variables which are relevant for any particular member of the learning group if he goes against the group norm" (Schumann, 1976, cited in Pickett, 1978:141)<sup>78</sup>. Psychological distance is determined, not only by linguistic and social variables but also and above all by some factors inherent to the individual learner in conjunction with the society he is living in. As such, it occupies a nonnegligible place in determining success/ failure in FL learning (see 4.5: Social Psychological Factors).

In a nutshell, although the relative homology between languages and societies and the resulting language, cultural and psychological distances are a predictor of success/ failure in FL learning, they seem, on their own, not to be all that important in determining the learning outcome. It is only when combined with the learner's attitudes of mind insofar as the learning is concerned that they come to influence massively and validly the learning process (McDonough, in Pickett, 1978:141)<sup>79</sup>. It therefore seems that it is the learner's temperamental and motivational variables that, in the end, play the chief role in the determination of the learning outcome. And this is the topic of the next section.

#### 4.5. Social Psychological Factors

Acknowledged nowadays by many to be the ones whose effects are paramount in FL learning, social psychological factors are related to the learner as an individual who is living in relationship with his society and the values it stands for. It is in this way that they are understood to include affective-attitudinal and personality factors.

Lambert (1960-1972)<sup>80</sup> is thought to be the first to have initiated the study of these factors in FL learning, and is thus the first in this field to have pointed out motivation as being the main determinant of success/ failure.

In studies he conducted either alone or in association with other researchers, he distinguishes between integrative and instrumental motivation. The former (seen chiefly in pre-pubescent learners) is said to be found in people who wish to be part of the FL native speakers' culture, hence who want to use the language as its native speakers do, this ultimately resulting particularly in better and nearly native-like FL pronunciation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, cited in Segalowitz, 1977:142)<sup>81</sup>. Instrumental motivation is said to be found in people who learn the foreign language mainly for utilitarian reasons such as to find a job, or to get higher social status, or knowl-

edge in some specific fields. Their intention is not to become like the native speakers of that language, but to get knowledge that might allow them to reach their goals, and fulfil their ambitions. It is because of this that it is thought that instrumentally-motivated learners do less well, especially in acquiring FL accents.

This type of motivation is said to be the main drive in FL learning in, for instance, most so-called developing countries. This is to some extent true because the chief aim for most people who take a FL course is to get some advantages, even when the course is imposed by the government. Learners of English in Eastern Kasai and Zaire in general are a better example to support this claim (cf. Chapters One and Two). Although, in the main, integratively-motivated learners do better than instrumentally-motivated ones, it is not rare to find among these people some who reach very high levels of proficiency, especially in grammar and vocabulary (Gardner and Lambert, 1972, cited in Segalowitz, 1977:142)<sup>82</sup>. Once again, Zaireans are a good example. In fact, although they learn English mainly for practical reasons, some of us have reached so high levels of proficiency in English speech and, of course grammar and vocabulary, that it is not infrequent to hear British or American persons acknowledge it.

Thus, it is not astonishing that not all researchers agree with the suggestion that only integratively-motivated learners do better in FL learning. Yasmeeen Lukmani (1972, cited in Brown, 1980:114)<sup>83</sup> for example suggests that, to do better in FL, one need not necessarily become (affectively) part of the FL group. Usually it suffices to adopt just some few elements of the target culture. Hence the suggestion that most FL learners are to some extent semi-bicultural (Brown, 1980:130)<sup>84</sup>. This contradicts in some way what Spoerl (1943), Bossard (1945) and Soffietti (1955) (all cited in Segalowitz, 1977:144-145)<sup>85</sup> mean when they claim that bilinguals have got dual identities, dual cultures.

Without completely rejecting the idea that learning another language involves the adoption of the target culture, we can however posit that, in bilingualism, bi-culturalism is not a very decisive condition as cultures nowadays seem to have many traits in common. In this way, learners who have already got experience with another culture relatively closely-related to the one whose language they are learning are likely to find it relatively easier to learn that FL. This relative ease seems to be more evident often in other aspects of FL such as the system of ideas and meanings, hence lexicon and semantics (cf. Chapter Two, and point 4.3.).

Many people have tried, in their own ways, to explain the reasons why FL pronunciation seems to be so difficult to acquire by learners beyond puberty. As we saw earlier (cf. 4.1.), CPH advocates mainly say that it is because lateralization has already taken place. But for some others (vide infra), the cause is to be found elsewhere than in the CPH.

In his theory of empathy, which he borrowed from psychoanalysis, Guiora (Guiora, 1972, and Guiora et al., 1972, cited in Brown, 1980:passim)<sup>86</sup> suggests that the chief reason why pre-pubescent learners do better than post-pubescent ones in acquiring foreign accents is the immaturity of their affective attitudinal state as related to language learning ability. According to this *language ego boundary* theory, learners who are more emphatic, i.e. more willing and able to identify with others, are more likely to do better in mastering foreign accents.

Like many other terms in psychology-related fields, empathy is very difficult to define. Guiora (1972, cited in Brown, 1980:108)<sup>87</sup> himself defines it as "a process of comprehending in which a temporary fusion of self-object boundaries permits an immediate emotional apprehension of the affective experience of another". For Gladstein and Feldstein (1983), and Berger (1984) (all cited in Egan, 1986:96)<sup>88</sup>, it is respectively "cognitive suspension" and the "ability to tolerate a state of puzzlement". For Brown (1980:107-108)<sup>89</sup>, it is the process of projecting "one's own personality into the personality of another in order to understand him better". Therefore, empathy is the ability to understand, appreciate and get involved with others. The higher the *empathic capacity* (Taylor et al., 1971, cited in Burstall, 1978:5)<sup>90</sup> one has, the relatively more open to and with others one will be. And children seem to be more open to and with other people than adults.

Guiora says that it is this difference in degrees of openness that makes all the difference between adults and children. Thus, because their personality is not yet completely formed, i.e. still in the making, children are more sensitive to influences from outside, which they more easily accept and make their own through mere conscious or unconscious imitation and personal commitment (via a willingness to be the other, especially when they admire this other).

For Guiora, language learning ability is a personality state (language ego) whose boundaries are very flexible from birth up to puberty. Beyond this maturational stage, they become less and less permeable, thus, more and more resistant to intrusion from outside elements. By becoming more rigid, this personality state (which has at this



point formed the person's more or less permanent self) resists any influence from outside that is perceived likely to alter it. The cause for this resistance lies, not in the changing process itself, but in what the reactions of the people around are likely to cause to the self. In most cases, this is thought in advance to be negative, hence interpreted as a threat. It seems that it is because it is the one aspect of language via which other people can easily notice alterations in another person's personality that pronunciation is so much resisted by post-puberty learners (Stevick, 1976:64)<sup>91</sup>. It is for this same reason that, because they want to appear like those they admire (and also because they easily take in external influences to make them theirs), children seem to acquire *foreign* accents more quickly and more successfully. Though he insists on pronunciation, Guiora also feels that empathy and its related capacity, and language ego permeability, can account (in ways yet to be investigated and determined) for the overall ability to acquire any new linguistic system (1972, cited in Campbell and Schumann, 1981:81)<sup>92</sup>.

Language ego theory could also be used to explain the reason why post-pubescent learners seem to do better or at least as well as pre-puberty ones in other aspects of language such as syntax and vocabulary. Guiora claims that it may be that, since they are not rooted in the learner's personality, these aspects cannot reveal as much of the learner's inner self as pronunciation does. Consequently, any comment (on them), even negative, is likely not to be interpreted by the learner as a menace to his selfhood.

Beyond Guiora's theory is the provision that, if older children and adults are to do better in FL learning, they should try and regain their *affective youth*, and thus become more flexible and open to and with other users of the FL (as children are). If they are unable to do so (as is the case), then they should have a strong *ego strength* (i.e. will, strength and courage to do whatever one wishes to do without being preoccupied with other people's comments) to overcome whatever negative comment other people might make about them or any bad feeling they might have toward them. It is only by being strong in this sense that they can overcome their inhibitions and refrain from using defensive mechanisms such as speechlessness, aggressivity, fear and unwillingness to speak.

Inhibitions and defensive devices (normally used to protect the self when felt threatened) are the unavoidable in language learning. Indeed, language learning involves a range of alienations: alienation between the real self and the learning self,

between the native cultures involved, and between the learner and the other people caught in the learning process (Stevick, 1976)<sup>93</sup>. It therefore seems that, to achieve success, one has to become sociopsychologically like a child. This is unfortunately not feasible for adults: even if they so wish and do their utmost, they cannot possibly become as empathetic as children are, because of their reluctance and fear of losing their self-esteem. The only possible way open to them is therefore to try to lower their inhibition capacity which, indeed, is inversely related to ego strength. In fact the lower the inhibition capacity is, the higher the ego strength; the higher it is, the lower the ego strength.

Adult learners should therefore reshape their personality into what Brown (1980:105)<sup>94</sup> calls *adaptive language ego*, which we understand to mean a strategic affective attitude to language learning: strategic because it is a behaviour/ device adopted in order to reduce the level of inhibitory elements in FL learning situation. Adaptive language ego is also understood to mean a necessary regression of ego to child's state. This might be the reason why Schaefer (1958, cited in Stevick, 1976:43)<sup>95</sup> calls it "a regression in the service of ego".

Schumann considers affective, sociocultural and personality factors to be the most important predictors of success/ failure in FL learning. In his theory of anxiety, stress and shock, he claims that the ease younger children have in mastering new languages is to be explained on grounds of the higher degree of social emotional permeability they have to language (1965, cited in Stern, 1984:363)<sup>96</sup>. This is to be seen in their higher level of empathy which, he says, is a crucial contributor in increasing, not only the ability to acquire authentic accents, but also the overall FL acquisition ability (1975, cited in Campbell and Schumann, 1981:81; and in Stern, 1984:381)<sup>97</sup>. Like Guiora, he claims that ego boundaries permeability decreases with age (1975, cited in Harley, 1986:17-18)<sup>98</sup>. He insists on the learner's state of mind, namely his attitudes towards (1) the FL, (2) the teacher, and (3) the way the learning is conducted. All this is generally reflected in his motivation which is, in the main, determined by his own attitudes and those of the society at large. He says that the differences observed between pre- and post-pubescent learners are, therefore, not to be accredited to differences in biological organization, but rather to social psychological factors, i.e. the emotions and attitudes the learner has at the beginning and in the course of the learning process (Stern, 1984)<sup>99</sup>. Of prime concern are therefore his motivation prior to FL learning, the attitudes that this process engenders in him,

and his degree of perseverance during the learning. Hence his degree of self-esteem, confidence, tolerance (of ambiguity, anxiety, helplessness...).

Attitudes seem to be a crucial factor because language learning is a massive learning problem (Stern, 1984:381)<sup>100</sup> where the learner experiences disorientations, dilemmas, shocks and stresses at different levels: culture, language, and communication. Shocks and stresses are reduced and perceived indirectly (Stern, 1984:130)<sup>101</sup> when the FL and its culture are genetically-related to L1 (or any other language learnt before the FL concerned) and its culture. So is the subsequent anxiety.

The problem basically lies with communication i.e. expressing already-known concepts in new phonological and pragmatic systems. It is mainly during the initial stages of learning, the "schizophrenic period of learning" (Clarke, 1976, cited in Brown, 1980:133)<sup>102</sup> that learners experience the highest degree of traumas, and are likely to *swim or sink*. This implies that the way the learner comes to terms with these traumas will largely determine whether or not his learning will, in the long run, be successful.

Affective and temperamental orientations are, in the main, the result of tensions (1) within the learner himself, (2) within the society, and (3) between the learner and the community. Associated with the learner are, for example, his ease and willingness to accept, face and overcome frustrations, resulting either in his being outgoing, outspoken, venturesome or uninhibited (Stern, 1984)<sup>103</sup>. The uninhibited learner has confidence in himself, has a higher degree of self-esteem, looks for and takes advantages of every opportunity to practise his language. In Seliger's words (1977, cited in Tarone, 1983a:70)<sup>104</sup>, such a learner is a *High Input Generator* (HIG), as opposed to the one who avoids talking, the *Low Input Generator* (LIG).

As seems to be evident, the other skills involved in FL learning cannot properly operate in the absence of social psychological factors. This seems to be the reason why Stern (1984:386)<sup>105</sup> concludes that "the affective component contributes at least as much as and often more to language than the cognitive skills". Schumann (cited in Stern, 1984:386)<sup>106</sup> himself claims that affective and personality factors are the *sine qua non* in FL learning for they determine and provide "the essential motor of cognitive skills that come into play. [They are] needed to engage language aptitude and other cognitive skills". So has concluded Cattell (cited in Corno and Snow, 1986:616)<sup>107</sup> when he says that "personality factors contribute something beyond intellectual abilities".

Focussing on social factors, Segalowitz and Gatbonton (1977:86)<sup>108</sup> suggest that these variables play a crucial role in FL learning, especially in pronunciation acquisition. They say that learners attempt to pronounce FLs as native speakers do when their community regards mastery (mainly of pronunciation) as "prestigious and indicative of the speaker's superior intelligence and level of education". Hanlon (cited by Cochrane, mentioned in Fledge, 1987:169)<sup>109</sup> insists on the fact that the learner is likely to imitate another individual's accent if he positively identifies with him. Smythe et al.(1975) and Taylor (1978) (all cited in Harley, 1986:18)<sup>110</sup>, and Macnamara (1973, cited in Fledge, 1987:169)<sup>111</sup> suggest that children (may) pronounce foreign languages better than adults because they are generally under strong pressure from their peers to conform to their pronunciation norms, without which they cannot possibly survive as members of the group. Hence their higher motivation and the resulting ability to acquire those norms.

Felix (1981, cited in Harley, 1986:12)<sup>112</sup> puts the difficulty adults manifest in learning FLs on account of the competition existing within them between *Language-Specific Cognitive structures* (LSC) and *Problem-Solving Cognitive structures* (PSC). The former are believed to be present in all human beings at birth, whereas the latter are acceded to at puberty, and are sensitive to external factors. Though in small number than LSC structures, they compete with these. This makes it difficult for the post-pubescent learner to match the performance of the pre-puberty one. Hence, the importance of social psychological factors in adult FL learning. In his attempt to explain the apparent superiority of children over adults in the acquisition of foreign pronunciations, Oyama (1979, cited in Fledge, 1987:165)<sup>113</sup> suggests that it is because the former are still in a *sensitive period*, a *period of competence* during which responsiveness and exchange with the environment are heightened. This period is sandwiched by periods of lesser responsiveness, of diminished exchange with the milieu.

Though we strongly think that this sensitive period ends with puberty, we are not so sure about either its beginning or the period before this. What we are sure of is the fact that this period of heightened responsiveness is more related to learner affect than to other factors. Jones (1966) and Palmer (cited in Jones, 1966:148)<sup>114</sup> put adults' difficulties and slow rate to learn FLs on the partial or global atrophy of their imitation ability. The same view is also expressed by Dunkel (cited in Jones, 1966:147-148)<sup>115</sup>, though he identifies this atrophy with greater rigidity of speech

organs. We think that all these cases are basically to do with learners' unwillingness and resistance to imitate other people. Hence we think they are affect-related cases.

Another major contribution in the description of the importance of affective attitudinal and personality factors in FL learning comes from the *Affective Filter hypothesis*, as described by Krashen and many others. Krashen believes that, thanks to his increased consciousness to what is going on within and around him, the adult learner has come to develop a psychological mechanism which sieves most of his experiences. Because it has developed out of his worry to protect his selfhood, to preserve his integrity, his personality, this filtering has been called *affective filter* by Dulay and Burt (1977, cited in McLaughlin, 1987:51)<sup>116</sup>, who first proposed it. They define it as being "that part of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language based on what psychologists call 'affect': the learner's motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states". It is thus a *mental block*, a barrier that prevents the FL learner from transforming all inputs into intakes.

Because their social psychological experience is not yet developed, children do not filter most data that comes their way. They are *low affective filter* individuals (Dulay and Burt, 1977, cited in Krashen, 1981:159-160)<sup>117</sup>, whereas adults are *high or strong affective filter* people (Dulay & Burt, 1977, cited in Krashen, 1981:159-160)<sup>118</sup>. Indeed, due to the strengthening of their social psychological awareness (through increased consciousness of their personality), adults on the contrary filter more and more of what they come into contact with. The strengthening of the affective filter is believed to start with puberty (Krashen, 1982, cited in McLaughlin, 1987:54)<sup>119</sup>. Relying on this suggestion, Brown (1980:139)<sup>120</sup> has come to reject the neurologically-based critical period as put forward by CPH advocates. In its place, he suggests a *critical cultural period* because (he says) puberty coincides with the beginning of the strengthening and multiplication in humans of perceptive filters through which they start to see themselves and the world around them.

Through and via the affective filter hypothesis, Krashen developed his *monitor hypothesis*. This has it that, because of their increased degree of awareness and concern for correctness, adult learners most often consciously and explicitly monitor what they say or do, and consequently (take time to) introduce corrections where necessary (Krashen, 1976, 1977, cited in Krashen, 1981:155-156)<sup>121</sup>. Thus, Krashen distinguishes *learning* (i.e. use of monitor) from *acquisition* (i.e. one's unconscious and automatic incorporation of linguistic data). This is why we believe McLaughlin

(1981, cited in Harley, 1986:13-14)<sup>122</sup> calls them *controlled processing* and *automatic processing*.

Krashen believes that the use of monitor by learners can be both detrimental and beneficial. Thus, he distinguishes optimal (monitor) users (i.e. learners who monitor their performance appropriately and when necessary, not impeding communication) from over-users (i.e. those who use the monitor too often and unnecessarily) and under-users (i.e. learners who use it less, even when necessary). Because they are too careful with the form of what they utter or do, over-users usually end up not interacting with other people, not speaking. Under-users on the contrary end up performing badly as far as correctness is concerned because they do not or use less the monitor. It therefore seems recommendable to help both these two types of learners to become optimal users by encouraging (1) the former to lower their susceptibility level (thus interact more) and (2) the latter to pay attention to and correct their mistakes when necessary.

Krashen also believes that learning can help acquisition in that learnt elements stored in the learner's knowledge can, in the long run, become automatic and unconscious knowledge. This view is also expressed and supported by Cohen (1981, cited in Rubin, 1987:16)<sup>123</sup>. Morrison and Low (1983, cited in Rubin, 1987:18-19)<sup>124</sup> also believe in monitoring as essential to learning. As for them, language depends on two faculties: (1) the *creative faculty*, which uses prior experience to build new language knowledge, and (2) the *critical faculty* (equivalent to Krashen's monitor), which screens what has been created to detect and possibly correct mistakes so as to make the output compatible in all respects with accepted normal linguistic behaviour.

From the discussion above obviously follows that social psychological variables are the cogwheel in FL learning machinery that makes it possible for movements from one set of factors to be related and relayed to others. Without them, there seems to be no possibility for learning to take place. These factors include the learner's motivations, attitudes and personality as they interplay with other variables within his milieu. In fact, in spite of what has been said for decades, language is first of all and unmistakably a social psychological phenomenon. We thus think together with Taylor (1974, cited in Harley, 1986:14-15)<sup>125</sup> that it can be better understood, and therefore taught, mainly through an understanding of social psychological factors. It is then the duty and ultimate goal of language teaching specialists to try and develop methods that will help "students [...] approach language with sentiments and feelings

other than those of anxiety and frustration " (Marckwardt, 1966, quoted in Blatchford, 1978:475)<sup>126</sup>.

As we said throughout the preceding pages, Zaireans in general learn English because it offers many and good opportunities for material advancement and prestige. Besides, getting adequate marks in this language is one of the required conditions to fulfil to pass from one class to another. It follows that they should therefore normally be motivated to learn and should succeed in speaking this language.

What we noticed however is that only a small number of learners are really motivated and end up speaking it. Even though they happen to pass from one class to another, the majority seem discouraged, and finally abandon all hope of doing well. If, as we said, these learners have strong initial motivation to learn English, what then prevents them from persevering and finally speaking it? Is it because they are incapable, or is it because they do not want to make the necessary effort, or even because they prefer not to? As we saw earlier (see cognitive ability and foreign language aptitude), incapability as such is to be excluded. Instead, we think that it is what we call *induced inability* (incapability generated by factors external to the learners) that is the most probable cause: it compels them not to sustain their initial motivation, persevere, and speak the language. We relate these factors to what teachers do to induce learning. In other words, we think that learners' discouragement and subsequent lack of interest and motivation (other than initial) must be the consequences of the ways teachers handle the teaching-learning process (see 5.2.). In this way, it is logical that our next move is to discuss FL/ EFL teaching methods in general, and those used in Eastern Kasai in particular, since they too constitute potential factors that might be impeding learning as we explained it in the Introduction. And this is the topic of the next chapter.

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### FL/ EFL TEACHING METHODS AND APPROACHES

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#### 5.1. FL/ EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches: Overview

The history of FL teaching stretches back to the time human beings started to live in communities. Since then, there have been many changes in the ways languages are taught. These changes are answers to questions asked about and in teaching (Kelly, 1969; Howatt, 1984)<sup>1</sup>, questions which show the increasing dissatisfaction in the results acquired. For Richards and Rodgers (1986:1)<sup>2</sup>, changes in and of methods and approaches reflect changes in (1) the kind of proficiency learners actually need (oral or reading comprehension) or are expected to achieve, (2) theories of language and language learning, and (3) roles, places and positions allocated to the participants (teacher, learner, material used, and the language itself) in the learning process.

In the light of these elements, we have then decided that the description and assessment we are concerned with in the following lines should evolve around the following subjects:

- (a) The theories and principles of language and language learning on which the methods and approaches are built;
- (b) the objectives they are supposed to achieve;
- (c) the procedures and activities used to this effect, and
- (d) the roles and relationships between the different participants involved.

Although these methods and approaches are presented and discussed chronologically, their history is tackled only insofar as it contributes to the understanding of the four points above. Since it is impossible to deal with all methods and approaches developed and applied in FL teaching, we have found it wise to concentrate on those we find are the most known and/ or have contributed a great deal to this field of learning in general and in Zaire in particular. Hence we have decided to discuss the following: (1) Grammar Translation (GT) and (2) Direct Methods (DM), (3) Audiolingual (AL) and (4) Audiovisual (AV) methods, (5) Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and (6) Total Physical Response (TPR) methods, and (7)

Community Language Learning (CLL) and (8) Silent Way (SW) methods, and (9) Suggestopedia.

#### 5.1.1. Grammar Translation method

The first and oldest to be used in foreign language teaching, Grammar Translation or Traditional method (Jones, 1966:149; Stern, 1984:453)<sup>3</sup> dominated FL teaching approximately from 1840s to 1940s (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:4)<sup>4</sup>.

Modelled on the study and analysis of Latin grammar and rhetoric via Latin literary works, the main objective of GT is the study of a language in order to read its literature, and develop mental and intellectual discipline. Little or no attention at all is paid either to speaking or listening (Stern, 1984:354)<sup>5</sup>.

As the FL is studied with reference to the first language (Stern, 1984:455)<sup>6</sup>, and reading and writing are the ultimate goals, the emphasis in GT is laid on accuracy via memorization of grammar rules and bilingual lists of words (Howatt, 1984:132)<sup>7</sup>. The FL grammar is taught deductively, i.e. grammar rules are presented, learned and practised through translation exercises.

The focus of learning falls neither on the teacher nor the learner, but on the language, and learning is seen as chiefly a matter of translating from the language being learnt into L1 (or any other language the learner already knows), and vice versa. The learner seems to be relegated into the background, while the teacher occupies the second position, and the material used the foreground. It is because of this that GT can be said to be at the same time teacher-dominated and material-oriented. Moreover, it focusses on the outcome of the learning, i.e. on the language to be produced. In this sense, it is strongly product-centred (Stevick, 1976:109)<sup>8</sup>.

Opposition to this method started in the mid-19th century and grew stronger by the end of the century. It was mainly directed at its intensive use of the mother tongue (or any other well known language) to teach foreign languages. But despite this strong opposition, GT continued to be used until the present time. We think this is so because GT is the easiest method for both teacher and learner for the simple reason that it relies on one of the most natural and easiest ways the learner has available, namely the reference to his prior linguistic knowledge (see Chapter Three). But although this is GT strength, it is at the same time its Achilles' heel. In fact, by relying on and using exclusively learner prior (L1) knowledge, GT implies that FL



learning is solely a process of translating FL into L1... (and vice versa), and of rote rule learning. It also implies that learning a language is basically explicit learning of forms. Hence nearly no language practice in (near-)natural communication contexts/situations takes place in GT. But as we know, language is neither forms only, nor is it primarily for reading and writing, and language learning (process) involves more than the mere consulting of past linguistic knowledge.

As we saw in Chapter 1, and as we shall see later in this chapter (see point 5.2.), GT has so greatly influenced FL teaching in Zaire that until today this influence is still felt. This might be one of the reasons why TEFL in Eastern Kasai is not successful.

### 5.1.2. Direct Method

A reaction to GT, Direct Method was developed in c.1850. Its main features are (1) the exclusive use of the target language to teach this language, hence its rejection of translation; (2) its insistence on conveying meaning directly (i.e. via context and concrete teaching aids), hence grammar rules are taught inductively; (3) the use of the target language is direct and spontaneous i.e. learners are encouraged to derive grammatical rules from texts and discover the principles involved; (4) emphasis on speaking (Prator, 1979:5)<sup>9</sup> and listening. Hence the systematic attention paid to *good* pronunciation, and use of phonetic transcription. It is for this latter reason that DM is also known as the *Phonetic Method*.

DM advocates claim that it is direct because it is modelled on the way L1 is acquired. And since this is understood to be the natural way to acquire language, they thus also call it *natural method* (Stern, 1984:457; Sauveur, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:9)<sup>10</sup>.

By considering FL learning as being the same process as L1 acquisition, DM thus interprets it in terms of associationist psychology (Ewing, cited in Jones, 1966:151)<sup>11</sup>, that is to say it stresses the fact that to get to meanings, (speech) sounds and simple sentences must be interpreted in association with ideas and/ or persons and concrete objects in the environment. In this, it relates language learning to language use, thus to communication. The focus in DM is on the language taught, especially the final output, the product. Hence, it is said to be product-centred.

The teacher plays the most important role in DM, for he is the initiator, the

model, the user of the material, and the corrector: he is nearly everything that symbolises activity, and the learner a mere imitator and repeater of what the teacher wants and expects him to say. Even though he is sometimes allowed some personal initiative, this is mainly within the boundaries drawn and model provided by the teacher. Hence the method is teacher-dominated.

In spite of its merits, DM has also drawbacks:

- (a) sometimes it requires of the teacher to resort to lengthy and time-wasting, and often unsuccessful explanations (Dodson, 1963:11)<sup>12</sup> to clarify meanings, a reason why Brown (1973, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:11)<sup>13</sup> calls these explanations "verbal gymnastics".
- (b) it seems to succeed better with mid- and advanced learners, whereas it often literally frustrates most beginners, mainly during the early stages of learning.
- (c) although most learners somehow manage to participate in the question-and-answer exchanges that take place during lessons, they do it mechanically for they repeat memorized items and seem unable to create their own structures. In short, they seem unable to use what they learn to communicate their own needs and feelings. If ever there is communication (as its advocates claim), this is merely a reflexive behaviour (Stevick, 1976:109)<sup>14</sup>. The effect of DM in Zaire has also been great. But although it took the position once occupied by GT in FL teaching, translation (the basic principle of this latter method) is still being resorted to whenever most teachers either feel stuck in their explaining to the learners, or when they do not want to make the effort DM requires (see 5.2.).

### 5.1.3. Audiolingual method

Originated in the U.S.A. in c.1950 (Stern, 1984:463; Richards and Rodgers, 1986:47)<sup>15</sup>, AL method is a reaction to DM which it says is not efficient enough to produce in a sensibly short period of time learners who are both capable of speaking and writing well target languages. This is one of the reasons why it insists on listening and speaking through imitation first. It is because of this focus on listening and speaking that Brooks (1964, cited in both Stern, 1984:463 and Richards and Rodgers, 1986:48)<sup>16</sup> coined the term *audiolingual* and applied it to this method. Later, for the same reason, it was also called *Oral approach*, *Aural-Oral approach* (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:46-47)<sup>17</sup>, and *Audiolingual Habit theory* (Carroll, 1966,

cited in Stern, 1984:463)<sup>18</sup>. Furthermore, because it aims at developing fundamental functional (communicative) skills (speaking and listening), Smith (1970, cited in Stern, 1984:463)<sup>19</sup> also called it *Functional Skills Strategy approach*.

AL sees language as a system of related structural elements used for coding and conveying meanings (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:17)<sup>20</sup>. For this reason, it is also known as the *Structural approach* (Fries, 1945, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:46)<sup>21</sup>. Put differently, AL considers language as a structural system used for communication, communication it equates with speech, and speech with language. Even though, by using FL only (Stern, 1984:464)<sup>22</sup>, it ultimately aims to train learners to speak the language as competently as its native speakers do, it has also short-term but not unimportant objectives as they contribute to reach the main one: to train the learner (1) in listening comprehension and (2) accurate grammatical oral fluency, and (3) in reading and writing (Brooks, 1964, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:52)<sup>23</sup>. Hence its massive use of dialogues and oral drills (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:22; 54)<sup>24</sup>. Grammar rules are taught inductively and meaning learnt via contexts.

AL is based on behaviourist psychology (Rivers, 1964, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:50-51; Stern, 1984:465)<sup>25</sup>, for it considers language learning as a process of mechanical habit formation, where (like Pavlov's dogs) the learner is to be conditioned to respond and react in specific ways to teacher (basically verbal) stimuli.

The teacher dominates the learning process as he is the most active: he is the chief source of language, he provides the language to be learnt, controls the pace and direction of learning, and monitors and corrects the learner's performance as and when he wishes (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:24)<sup>26</sup>. Required chiefly to react to teacher stimuli, the learner plays a (passive) reactive role (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:56)<sup>27</sup> in that he is seen as an organism that can be shaped, directed and trained to produce some specific types of answers and behaviours. His role is limited to what and how the teacher wants him to respond. Therefore, even though sometimes he is allowed to learn by interacting with his fellow learners, to monitor and evaluate his own progress (Johnson and Paulston, 1976, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:23)<sup>28</sup>, he does not assume the central position, and is made to depend heavily on the teacher. A powerful tool in the hands and at the service of the teacher, the instruction materials occupy a far stronger position than the learner, for they specify the content and way it is to be learnt and covered, the time to do it, and what part of this content should or should

not be emphasized (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:25)<sup>29</sup>.

AL reached its peak in the 1960s, and then started to decline. The reasons for this fall are mainly found in the criticisms that learners most often find it difficult to use communicatively skills they have acquired during class lessons, and that, in most cases, the drilling and dialogue repeating are very boring and do not really correspond to their actual communicative needs (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:59)<sup>30</sup>. The other major blow to this method is to be found in Chomsky's attack on behaviourism, saying that it is inadequate as an explanation of L1 acquisition process.

As we can see, AL is strongly teacher-dominated and product-centred. Its view of language does not include most of the other parts acknowledged by nearly all experts to be components of language (for instance the social affective dimension). So is the way it sees FL learning process, which it considers only as a process of stimulus-response i.e. mechanical conditioning in which the learner is like a tape-recorder, expected only to record and play back what the teacher wants and when he wants it. Besides, it considers communication as involving basically speech, while we know that this phenomenon involves more than that.

Though we agree with AL that communication is the foremost objective of language, we however do not share the idea that it can be achieved through the use of speech only, especially in the early stages of FL learning. (For the influence of this method in Zaire, see point 5.1.4. below).

#### 5.1.4. Audiovisual method

A reaction to and refinement of audiolingual method, audiovisual method was developed in 1950s by CREDIF (Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français), then adapted later in the U.S.A. and U.K. (Stern, 1984:466)<sup>31</sup>.

Its main objectives are the teaching of speaking abilities through imitation in order to allow the learner to become familiar with everyday language. Hence it was first intended for beginners. It is called *audiovisual* because it uses images in combination with the utterances they are named by. It considers these two elements to be complementary and indissociable, and suggests that they should be always presented together if ever comprehension is to be achieved. It thus claims that image-utterance constitutes the basic unit of meaning, the *semantic unit*. Hence the rigid order in which events are presented in lessons: (1) using a filmstrip and a tape-recorder, the

teacher simultaneously presents the image and its corresponding utterance, then (2) explains them by means of, for instance, pointing, demonstration, selective listening, and Q-A exchanges. This is immediately followed by (3) a repetition and memorization of the items by the learners. Then comes (4) the development phase during which the learners respectively practise with either the visual aids (thus providing the utterance) or the utterance (thus providing the visual aid), and then (5) modify and apply the scenario to real-life situations. AV thus relies on visually presented scenarios as a means to force learners to use meaningful utterances in meaningful contexts, and emphasizes the use of phonological and grammatical drills. And because it gives priority and primacy to speech, it delays reading and writing.

It sees language as a means of communication between people (CREDIF, 1961, cited in Stern, 1984:468)<sup>32</sup>. Hence it stresses its social and situational meaning dimension. Although it deals with phonology and grammar, it sees them as intertwined parts of a whole. Hence it uses them alongside with intonation, rhythm and meaning, for they are indissociable parts of the same semantic unit. Considered from the above angle, AV attempts to deal with language learning as a process of deriving meaning from social oral interactions.

The main criticisms laid against this method are that (1) sometimes meanings are misunderstood as equivalence between pictorial stimuli and their associated utterances sometimes differ from culture to culture, and (2) it is too rigid in keeping to the same teaching sequences, a practice which is not proved to be psychologically-based. To these two can also be added that, like AL, rather than the learner, it is the teacher who plays the most important role, and that the method itself is product-centred. And finally, the same criticisms laid against AL (as far as its reliance on behaviourist psychology is concerned) are also applicable to AV.

As we saw in Chapter 1, and as we shall see in point 5.2., AV and AL together have had a considerable impact on FL teaching in Zaire, due largely to the influence of CREDIF on French teaching. This influence had also an important influence on TEFL.

#### 5.1.5. Communicative Language Teaching approach

Changes in British language studies of the late 1960s, that saw the focus in linguistics put on communication, also influenced language teaching. Language and

language teaching experts (such as Candlin, Widdowson, Wilkins, to name only these three) drew heavily on the works by functional linguists such as Firth and Halliday, and sociolinguists such as Gumperz, Hymes and Labov. Thus, following ideas developed in functional linguistics and sociolinguistics, advocates of CLT became more and more concerned with how to teach language communicative functions. It is therefore because of its interest in and preoccupation with learners' communicative needs and how to incorporate them in language teaching methodology that this approach came to be known (mid-1970s) as Communicative Language Teaching, Communicative or Functional or Notional-Functional approach.

It aims to teach and develop communicative competence, i.e. to find out ways and procedures for teaching learners the four linguistic skills, and how to use them to achieve communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:66)<sup>33</sup>.

As it equates communication with language, and aims to promote successful language learning, CLT emphasizing of communication resulted in two versions: a weak and a strong version. For the first version, language teaching should first and foremost devise and incorporate activities that provide learners with opportunities to use what they learn to communicate their needs (Howatt, 1984:279)<sup>34</sup>. In other words, learners should learn how to use the language. For the strong version, language is better acquired through communication, and learners should therefore be allowed and forced to use it in order to learn it (Howatt, 1984:279)<sup>35</sup>. In view of these two versions, it is believed that CLT learning and teaching activities are expected to be those that

“enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communication processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction”. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:76) (36)

Seen through this quotation, CLT emphasizes communicative processes rather than formal mastery, for the learner is expected to assume different roles, among which the most central are that of negotiator and joint negotiator. Actually, on the one hand, he negotiates (1) between himself, the learning process, and the language he is learning, and on the other hand, (2) within the group he is part of, and classroom

procedures and activities undertaken by the group.

So, he is supposed to give and get something from the learning process. This cooperative approach to learning should help him contribute to and gain from the experience of both the teacher and his fellow learners (Breen and Candlin, 1980, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:77)<sup>37</sup>.

The teacher's major role is to help the learner develop communicability and achieve communication. Hence, he is a facilitator of communication process. Apart from and in conjunction with this role, he acts as an independent participant (Breen and Candlin, 1980, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:77)<sup>38</sup>. He is also an organizer of resources, a resource and a guide: he organizes what is available in the learning context for the learners to use, he lends himself to be used as a resource, and he helps learners find out what to say and do, how and when to say and do it. By guiding the learners in this way, he discovers and investigates what is new for him in their behaviours. Hence he is also a researcher and a learner.

As he is supposed to know their needs, then advise them on what to do and how to proceed to communicate, and since he should know how to manage the group involved in the learning, he is also a needs analyst, counsellor and group process manager (Breen and Candlin, 1980, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:77-78)<sup>39</sup>.

CLT uses a wide range of instructional aids of which text-based materials (text-books), task-based materials (games, role plays, simulations) and realia (maps, pictures, charts...) are the most utilized. All of these materials are used to improve quality and quantity of learners' interactions and language use in the classroom.

Activities and procedures in CLT are to some extent more or less similar to those in AL (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:80-81)<sup>40</sup>. Littlewood (1981:86)<sup>41</sup> divides them into (1) pre-communicative (i.e. structural and quasi-communication), and (2) communicative (i.e. functional and social interaction) activities. As is evident from this division, CLT suggests that learners should first gain mastery over individual linguistic skills before attempting to use and using them to achieve communication. But as it appears to Savignon (1983)<sup>42</sup> and to us, there is a contradiction between this suggestion and the CLT major claim that learners must use language in communication in order to learn it. We think that if ever language is to be used communicatively so that it can be successfully learnt, it should be done through the indiscriminate use of all the skills, and that from the very beginning.

As is evident from the description above, CLT views language as communica-

tion, hence it insists on developing learners' communicative competence in order to allow learning to take place. This implies that, to achieve communication, all the four language skills should not be discriminated in use for they they are one and so they should remain. But this very idea is contradicted by the claim that learners should first develop these skills individually before they can attempt to use them to communicate.

The learner and his experience are placed at the centre, thus making of him the most active element in the learning process. Hence, this approach is learner-centred and experience-based (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:69)<sup>43</sup>. Since it stresses communicability, CLT accepts (among other things) the possibility and feasibility of using prior linguistic knowledge, together with comprehensible pronunciation (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:67-68)<sup>44</sup>. Finally, CLT indirectly sees learner interest and motivation as being amongst the crucial contributors to successful learning.

Despite the major influence of CLT on a world-wide scale, it has scarcely had any effect in Zaire. Our country (as we said in the Introduction) has relied mainly on GT, DM, AL/ AV and has had little knowledge or none at all of CLT and other methods (vide infra) that stress communication. Hence, it is really a step backwards, and this might be a reason why our EFL learners are not performing well. We think there is an urgent need to explore CLT and the other new methods to see what they can offer. Therefore, the next sections will deal with other *alternative* methods.

#### 5.1.6. Total Physical Response Method

Developed by J.Asher, TPR is based on the claim that language can be successfully learned only if and when speech is presented simultaneously in coordination with action. From observations Asher made on child language learning, he said he noticed that children learn language mainly by associating and coordinating speech with action, and most of this speech consists of commands to which children react physically before they can produce corresponding utterances. Hence he believes that, to reach childlike results, adults should use the same approach (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:87)<sup>45</sup>. It is thus because it proposes this approach that TPR is also known as a natural method.

TPR draws on several sources such as behavioural and developmental psychology,



learning theory, humanistic pedagogy, language procedures as proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer, and Katona's memory trace theory (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:87)<sup>46</sup>. In terms of humanistic approach, TPR is believed to aim at reducing stress, thus allowing the learner to be positive in his drive to learn. This is achieved by allowing him to develop his comprehensive skills before he is taught to speak. As comprehension-perception always precedes production, hence easier for the learner to master, reliance on it will make him more confident in his own capabilities before he starts using language verbally. This self-confidence is supposed to create a solid foundation on which he will lean to face and try to solve the unavoidable frustrations that usually accompany language production. In this, TPR has also been influenced by the Comprehension Approach (Winitz, 1981, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:87)<sup>47</sup>, which suggests that, because it precedes language production, comprehension also influences it. This in turn justifies TPR emphasis on meaning as the sole way to promote successful learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:87-88)<sup>48</sup>. In this respect, it resembles the 'strong' version of CLT and is related to the more general trend to emphasize oral skills. Therefore, the path to comprehension passes, not by the internalization of single words, but of whole chunks and prefabricated patterns (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:89)<sup>49</sup>.

The chief objective pursued by TPR is the teaching to beginners especially of speech fluency, which is achieved via comprehension through the use of action-based imperative, role plays, dialogues and slide presentations (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:92-93)<sup>50</sup>. Grammar is taught inductively from the material presented.

Though the learner plays many roles, depending on the type of activity he is engaged in, he nonetheless assumes, generally speaking, a more off-centre role than the teacher. Indeed, even though he can sometimes recognize and respond to new combinations of items taught in previous lessons, which he can also combine in his own (new) ways, he mostly listens to the teacher and performs what he has already determined (Asher, 1977:31)<sup>51</sup>. The teacher thus provides nearly everything and directs the whole learning process for he decides on what to teach and how to teach it. In Asher's own words (1977:43)<sup>52</sup> he "is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors". As to the types and roles of instructional materials, they vary according to the stages of learning. In the beginning stages, the teacher's voice, actions, and gestures are the only materials used, whereas written materials, objects and realia are used in later stages. But in both cases however, teaching aids are but

tools in the hands of the teacher who disposes of them as he wishes.

There is some truth in TPR claim that language production and comprehension achieved in combination with body movements and physical actions promotes learning. What is not true however is the fact that it sees successful adult language learning as necessarily a parallel to child L1 acquisition. As we know, there is evidence that child and adult linguistic, psychological and cognitive processes are somehow different, and so are the ways they approach learning. Finally, TPR concern with comprehension as a means to help reduce learner stresses is also an important element to be reckoned with in language teaching.

The potential relevance of TPR to Zaire lies in the fact that it stresses oral skills through comprehension. Since comprehension is easier and less stressful, it may serve as a means of encouraging learners to become *physically* involved in lessons. As we shall see in Part Three, the level of anxiety in Zairean classrooms is very high and may be one of the factors which inhibit development of speaking skills. TPR is one approach to the reduction of stress, as are the Silent Way, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia we shall consider next.

#### 5.1.7. Silent Way method

Conceived and developed by C. Gattegno primarily to teach initial reading, SW is based on the principle that the teacher should be as silent as possible, so that the learner should be allowed to make most of the talk. This is believed to help and allow him to discover and create language, hence to try to solve most of the problems he comes to grips with. Hence SW is said to involve the hypothetical mode of teaching, namely the type of teaching where teacher and learner co-operate actively, but with the teacher most often assuming the front line position role (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:99)<sup>53</sup>.

As the learner is expected to be involved in everything that is done in the classroom so that later he becomes independent and responsible for his own learning, the teacher strictly avoids repeating what is said because repetition "consumes time and encourages the scattered mind to remain scattered" (Gattegno, 1976:80)<sup>54</sup>. This forces the learner to be always alert and concentrate all his attention on classroom interactions. Concentration is believed to be best achieved during silence, and it is during concentration that the mind works at its fullest capability (Stevick, 1980:41)<sup>55</sup>.

Like TPR, AV and AL, SW also believes in the premise that seeing concrete objects facilitates learning. This is the reason why, to teach sounds, it makes use of *cuisinière rods*, i.e. colour wooden sticks.

Gattegno views language as experience, and experience as meaning. In other words, language is experience since language is meaningful only through experience (Gattegno, 1972:8)<sup>56</sup>. This explains why SW uses many simulated experiences, with tokens and charts as central elements. For Gattegno, vocabulary is central to language learning as he believes that it is lexical items which allow learners to communicate, to function. Hence he insists on the teaching of appropriate functional words.

Acknowledging the fact that L1 learning is somehow different from adult FL learning (a difference he imputes to adult prior linguistic knowledge), Gattegno nonetheless insists on the fact that the former should serve as the basis for the latter. This is how we should understand his suggestion that the adult learner should approach language learning with a child's state of mind. Hence the importance bestowed on affective factors:

“Successful learning involves commitment of the self to language acquisition... To speak [...] requires the descent of the will into the voluntary speech organs and a clear grasp of one's linguistic self of what one is to do to produce definite sounds in definite ways. Only the self of the utterer can intervene to make objective what it holds in itself. Every student must be seen as a will capable of that work ”(Gattegno, 1976:7)<sup>57</sup>.

What this quotation means is that success in (adult foreign) language learning is a matter of the learner's will and motivation, of his overall attitudes and emotions toward the learning task.

As said earlier, SW was developed first as a method for teaching oral-aural skills to beginners. Hence it emphasizes nativelike fluency, correct pronunciation and intonation. As it sees language learning as a process of learner personal growth, and as this development lies first and foremost with the learner himself, SW also aims at making of the learner a self-reliant, autonomous and responsible architect of his own being. To be independent in the use of FL, the learner should trust both his abilities and the knowledge he already has, and use them to learn the new language

by communicating in it (Stevick, 1980:42)<sup>58</sup>.

Responsibility is shown when (1) he resorts to his prior knowledge, thus showing that he knows that he can freely select any set he wants from what is available to him, and (2) he interacts freely with other learners and the teacher. This latter instance introduces an extra dimension, that of co-operative learning: learners are expected to work with and rely on each other instead of competing with one another. Hence, five main roles emerge for the learner: he is as well an independent individual, a member of the group, a teacher, a student, a system-supporter, a problem-solver, and a self-evaluator (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:106)<sup>59</sup>.

The teacher main role is that of a neutral observer, i.e. he must keep out of learners' interactions and performances, and at the same time be involved in the learning process. This *teacher active silence* aspect (as we might call this role) is the most demanding aspect of SW as teachers usually find it difficult not to talk, and talk much during lessons. Apart from this, the teacher is also a designer of lessons and teaching sequences and creator of environments susceptible of encouraging learners to use the language to communicate, and thus to facilitate learning.

As for the instructional materials, they are only tools to be used by teacher and learners, and their selection and implementation lie more with the teacher than the learners.

Silent Way method shares some features with AL, AV and CLT, particularly the repetition by the learners of teacher's utterances, followed by their own modelled on the teacher's, and finally learners' free communication.

Two main aspects of this method constitute an important contribution to language learning pedagogy: (1) the indirect role of the teacher, namely his silence, and (2) the learners' extensive freedom in the use of FL. This accounts for the emphasis SW puts on learner affect as being the element without which learning is not possible.

Just like TPR, SW is nearly unknown in our country. What it offers as elements for reducing learning stress, which we said is very high in Zairean schools, is worth considering in our struggle to improve TEFL in Eastern Kasai and in Zaire as a whole. Therefore, just like TPR about which we talked earlier, and CLL which we are going to describe next, this method should be explored, for the good of our TEFL.

### 5.1.8. Community Language Learning

Developed by C.A. Curran, this method is an application to language teaching of counselling learning, which itself is an application to learning of techniques used in psychological counselling.

Like all humanistic approaches to language, CLL focusses on the way the learner views, perceives, interprets and expresses the world around him. Hence, the central aspect in CLL philosophy is the learner affect. This in turn accounts for its concern with learner prior linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills. So, CLL engages the whole person of learner. Summing up the main characteristics of humanistic methods, hence CLL, Moskowitz (1978, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:114)<sup>60</sup> says that

“they blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are the ideals [...] pursue[d]. They help build rapport, cohesiveness, caring that transcend what is already there [...] (they) help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves [...] (they) help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class ”.

Because it aims to make them feel secure, and trust themselves and their own abilities, CLL encourages learners to use whatever past knowledge they can in order to communicate. Hence the learners are allowed to use language switch, language alternation (Mackey, 1972, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:114)<sup>61</sup> and most of those L1- and IL-based strategies. It encourages learners to attend to each other's speech in order to share information and learn from the experiences of others (La Forge, 1983:45)<sup>62</sup>.

By allowing and promoting this, CLL not only creates a psychologically secure learning atmosphere where elements that lead to most defensive behaviours are neutralized, but also takes into account the developmental nature of the learning process, and the interpersonal and communicative aspects of language. As a matter of fact, it sees language not only as a means to convey messages, but also as a social phenomenon (La Forge, 1983:3)<sup>63</sup>. Hence it stresses (among other things) the interactional character of communication: learners are not only allowed to interact between themselves

and with the teacher, but are above all bound to do so to avoid isolation from the group (Tranel, 1968, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:116)<sup>64</sup>. This helps them (1) move slowly and with minimized emotional breakdowns from being dependent on the teacher and L1 to independence in the use of FL, and (2) increase both their degree of trust in each other, and their intimacy. It is therefore because it so takes account of all that the learner is made of (cognition and affect) that CLL is called whole-person learning method.

The concern with learners' attitudes, feelings, motivations and cognition is also reflected in both the roles played by the participants and their relationships. Thus, far from being the usual master-slave, knower-not knower relationship always characteristic of learning situations, the CLL teacher and learners, and the learners among themselves are engaged in a relationship of mutual assistance, understanding and respect, of care and sharing. The teacher is thus a Rogerian counsellor since he is expected to understand learners' problems, and respond to them with empathy: he is "to relate affect [...] to cognition... To the language of 'feeling' [he] replies in the language of cognition" (Curran, 1976:26)<sup>65</sup>.

The learner assumes multiple roles: he is a member of the group, a listener (to both the teacher and the other learners), a provider of meanings, a repeater of utterances, and a supportive partner. These changes in roles reflect those changes in his language learning development and affective conflicts: from dependence to self-assertiveness, tolerance, independence (La Forge, 1983:44; 50)<sup>66</sup>. As we said earlier, CLL main objective is the teaching to beginners of (near) nativelike fluency in conversation. Therefore, no instructional material is required in the first stages as learners are usually asked to speak about topics of their own choice and liking. Later on however, some materials are used to study in detail and analyse some specific points.

Learning and teaching activities consist mainly of combinations, translations, group work, recording, transcriptions, analysis, reflection and observation, listening and free conversation (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:120)<sup>67</sup>.

A feeling of security is the key notion in CLL. Without it, no learning is thought to be possible. Security procures openness, which in turn works on and sustains motivation. The following quotation sums up all that CLL is about and what it stands for:

“As whole persons, we seem to learn best in an atmosphere of personal security. Feeling secure, we are freed to approach the learning situation with the attitude of willing openness. Both the learner’s and the knower’s level of security determine the psychological tone of the entire learning experience” (Curran, 1976:6)<sup>68</sup>.

As the learner is the main concern in CLL, and as for this reason this method tries to be in accordance with the FL learning process, it is thus well indicated to conclude that it is learner-centred and process-oriented. And since consequently the emphasis is placed on learner’s affect, namely the removal of psychic tensions that impair learning (Stevick, 1980:235)<sup>69</sup>, this method is also affect-oriented.

Like TPR, SW, and Suggestopedia (the topic of the next section), CLL should be explored in our struggle to improve TEFL in Eastern Kasai. Indeed, just like the other *alternative* methods, it incorporates stress-reducing elements that we could borrow to lower the level of anxiety in our TEFL classes.

#### 5.1.9. Suggestopedia

Developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator G. Lozanov, suggestopedia derives from suggestology, a science concerned with nonconscious and nonrational influences to which humans are constantly reacting (Lozanov, 1976, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:142)<sup>70</sup>. Suggestopedia is therefore an attempt to use these influences in language learning to optimize its outcome. It also draws from Eastern mysticism and Soviet psychology.

Its most remarkable features are the use of (soft) music, the appropriate decoration of and furniture in the place of learning, the arrangement of the classroom, and the authoritative behaviour of the teacher. Apart from this latter, the remaining characteristics aim at creating an atmosphere of relaxation where the learners, soothed and lulled by both the music and the mystical air so created around, forget their worries, open up, and concentrate on the unique task of learning.

As an instrument in therapy, soft music is believed to have three functions (Gaston, 1968, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:143)<sup>71</sup> each of which contributes to the creation of an eerie surrounding, appropriate to generating relaxation, concentration, and growth (Ostrander et al. 1979, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:147)<sup>72</sup>. Hence *suggestion* is at the heart of this method: fully relaxed, the learner is seen as

being under hypnosis, and can thus be easily *suggested*.

Suggestopedia is not based on any precise well-structured theory of language. In fact, being much more involved with the unobservables that influence human behaviour, it is not particularly concerned with what makes language or how it is organized. The emphasis laid on memorization of lexical pairs (FL item + L1 translation) suggests that suggestopedia considers language as being centred, not on isolated single words, but on *whole meaningful texts* (Lozanov, 1978:263)<sup>73</sup>. Seen from this angle, suggestopedia can then be said to aim at teaching and developing communication skills (Lozanov, 1978:109)<sup>74</sup>.

As far as language as such is concerned, Suggestopedia seems to aim mainly at teaching efficiently and quickly advanced speech proficiency. Memorization of lexical items (with imitation, Q-A exchanges, role play and listening, teaching and learning activities) is seen as a means to this end.

The learner is given the freedom to volunteer to take part in these activities. But once he has, he should be committed to the class and whatever it is doing. Thus, he has to participate in all the activities so as to help others to relax and learn. This we think is the reason why learners sit in a circle, facing each other. The teacher role is twofold: (a) he creates situations susceptible of making learners most suggestible, and (b) he presents linguistic materials in a way likely to bring the learners to receive and memorize them.

In order to create that relaxed atmosphere we have talked about earlier, suggestopedia uses taped music, printed materials, and classroom fixtures that are likely to interest learners both emotionally and literally. The suggestopedic lesson is divided into three main parts (Bancroft, 1972, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:151)<sup>75</sup>: (1) oral review by both teacher and learners of previously learned materials; (2) presentation and discussion of the material to be learnt, and (3) seance or concert session, during which (while soft music is being played) (a) the teacher reads/ recites, in harmony with the music, the new material, and (b) the learners follow the text and its translated version in the textbooks.

In sum, we should say that suggestopedia is much more concerned with the learner inner state, which it considers to be the major determinant of (successful) learning. Thus, whatever is done in language learning to promote learning should first and foremost take into account the learner's mental and psychological processes, and dispositions. Where these are negative, it is most likely that learning will not



take place. Just like the other alternative methods, it too has a lot to offer to us in our concern of how to improve TEFL in Eastern Kasai. Hence, we should also explore it.

As the description in this chapter reveals, methods in FL instruction can be divided into two major groups: product- and process-centred methods.

(1) Product-centred methods (for instance DM, AL, AV and to some extent GT) focus on developing the four discrete linguistic skills. They are more interested in the final outcome of learning than in what is done and how it is done in order to reach that goal. They often emphasize accuracy in production, and are basically teacher-dominated, and form-based.

Because they are more sensitive to other people's opinions or feelings about what they do and say, (adult) FL learners usually end up devoting most of their learning time to building up defenses against possible threats from the teacher and other people who, they feel, know more than they do. Hence they usually perform in strict imitation of the teacher's model performance. Instead of productive performance, theirs is thus often echoic or reflective (Stevick, 1976:107)<sup>76</sup>.

As can be concluded then, product-centred/ teacher-dominated teaching has many in-built obstacles to learning. Of these de-motivation seems to be the most important. Indeed, for fear of making errors, and thus be exposed to teacher or anybody else's damaging reactions, learners usually withdraw from interactions. In fact, because they are often asked to produce what they are not yet capable of, they end up being alienated (Seeman, cited in Cohen, 1976:75)<sup>77</sup> i.e. they feel they can do nothing at all or very little to outperform their own ability at that stage, and thus find no relevance in the work they are required to do.

Withdrawal is to be understood as their reply to what they feel is *teacher assault* on them; it is also an expression of their anger, bitterness, dismay and bewilderment to what they consider as teacher deliberate provocation and lack of compassion: they know that he knows that they cannot yet produce what he wants them to produce, not because they do not want to, but because they are naturally bound not to. Yet, he insists on their doing so, and judges their performance accordingly!

(2) Though their ultimate aim is also product, process-centred or rationalist methods (Swaffar et al., 1982, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:162)<sup>78</sup> differ from product-centred ones. They focus on developing the overall language communicative competence: they see language as a whole made of interrelated parts, of which

meaning (understood to be the off-product of the interaction between these parts) is paramount.

As meaning, thus communication, can be achieved with minimum reference to form, i.e. as people can communicate with a rather reduced competence, and since these methods stress communication, they are meaning-/ communication-based. Communication is to be effected, not by the teacher, but by the learners. It is for this reason that process-centred methods are learner-dominated and fluency-based.

These methods attempt above all to replicate the natural way FLs are learnt. By concentrating on the process of FL learning, process-centred methods allow the learners to perform productively in that they are free to try and err, test hypotheses, resort to other means and devices than FL itself whenever they feel necessary. It is therefore because they push learners to do everything they can to succeed that these methods are also motivation- and success-oriented.

It is paramount to understand that each of the methods described in this chapter (and many others not included here) have both positive and negative aspects. As language teaching aims at producing people who can speak the language, i.e. who can communicate in it, it is then the duty of the teacher to select from all these methods elements that can ultimately lead to achieving this objective.

As we have seen in the course of this overview, it is above all product-centred methods which have been influential in Zaire. We suggested in preceding chapters and sections that that the consequence of this has not been a significant success in English teaching and learning. It is important therefore to review in more detail, as the conclusion to this section suggests, just how language teaching for English as a foreign language has developed in Zaire in relation to the general history and evolution of language teaching described so far, and how we can take advantage of what has been done in other countries and what the literature suggests to improve this teaching. What to do will be much clearer after we have described what EFL teaching methods and approaches have been used and which ones are still being used in Eastern Kasai and Zaire. This we shall do in the next section.

## 5.2. EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches in Zaire

### Before Independence

As said in 1.3., in contrast to French teaching, English teaching in Zaire started very late. It is then clear that it must have started by first modelling itself on French teaching as this was so far the only available model in foreign language teaching. It is in this way that it started with GT. It did not last with this method because, by the time it started, French teaching had already experienced and experimented with other methods particularly the Direct Method and combinations of it with GT.

### From Independence Onward

It was mainly after independence that TEFL in Zaire started to become an important field and thus started to take a slightly different direction. Indeed, though still using Grammar Translation and Direct methods and their combinations, TEFL fell more and more under the influence of (French) AL-AV principles, in spite of the fact that Zaire was getting closer and closer to English-speaking countries, the USA especially. This is understandable because involvement by these countries was rather economical and strategic than educational.

From 1960 to about the creation of ISP English departments (c.1965), most of TEFL teaching methods were provided/ proposed by textbook publishers, of which the following had together the biggest part of the Zairean TEFL market: Marcel Didier [BRITAIN séries: I and II, 1961; and ANGLAIS séries: I and II, 1963]; H.A.Cartledge and T.J.C.Baly [AN ENGLISH COURSE FOR FRENCH-SPEAKERS series: Book1, Book2, Book3, and Book4, 1965]; and Mills, Zodeougan, and T.Doust [ENGLISH FOR AFRICA series: (for) 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 6th forms, 1977] (Educateur, No.10, 1986)<sup>79</sup>.

All the methods proposed in these books insisted on the exclusive use of English by the teacher. Even though sometimes there are French passages to be translated into English and vice versa, neither the teacher nor the learners are expected to use any other language than English in verbal exchanges that take place during lessons. While the teacher is advised to use, besides English, any paralinguistic means or devices he can to get his messages across to the students, the latter are required to use only English. And any breach of this requirement is condemned and discouraged.

In addition to requiring the exclusive use of English by the learners, these meth-

ods also insist on accuracy in use and pronunciation. In line with this latter aspect, they often recommend the teaching of phonetic transcriptions in combination with explanations about the different positions speech organs adopt during sounds/ speech production. We can see in these recommendations, therefore, the vestiges of the 'phonetic method' and an insistence on the foreign language being learnt as if it were the L1.

As there had been no real official concern to conceive or impose a particular TEFL method, the methods provided in textbooks were either used and dropped, or reshaped to suit the teaching conditions of the Zairean learner and his economical, cultural and material contexts. All this was (and still is) chiefly the teacher's responsibility. As in the case of French, what the educational authorities used to do for TEFL was to set up the objectives the teaching was expected to reach. And these can be summed up as saying that, in the long march to achieving native-like proficiency (major overall objective), the learner should, at the end of any given cycle, be able to speak and understand the quantity and quality of English he is expected to know at that particular stage (minor overall objective) (E.P.S., 1978; Rectorat, 1978b)<sup>80</sup>.

This native-like mastery is equated with *parler correctement* (speak accurately). This emphasis on *accurate* native-like pronunciation is a perpetuation and sequel of the main objective pursued in French teaching. Although official documents also insist on listening as the other ability to be developed (Lettre Dépt DEPS/BCE001/02/90/80 du 7/8/80)<sup>81</sup>, preoccupation with accuracy in pronunciation has been and still is the focus in Zairean TEFL, whatever the teaching approach/ method adopted. This is still visible in the place the various official documents allocate to the teaching of English sound systems and positions of speech organs. Hence accuracy in pronunciation is put on the same level as accuracy in the use of grammatical structures and rules. Fluency is pushed into the background and is understood not to be dealt with in the absence of accuracy.

Because of lack of clear guidelines as to how and what to teach, the teacher still plays a crucial role in devising, adopting, adapting both teaching methods and the contents to be taught. The secondary school teacher of English is indeed free to teach what he likes and how he likes it, as long as he uses one of the officially recommended textbooks. The higher education level teacher is even freer because he is asked to devise his own syllabus, wherein he is expected to include most of the elements in fields officially recommended to be covered.

Though there is no need to deny that attempts have been made to improve TEFL in Zaire, it is however true that they have been sporadic, misguided, uncoordinated, and influenced mainly by big money pressures than by a real understanding of what English teaching should be like if ever it is to produce long-range positive results. Most often, in fact, textbook sellers (whom we have just said are also main providers of EFL teaching methods) use even fraud, bribery, intimidation to have their books officially recommended for teaching, even if they themselves know that the methods proposed in them are not suitable!

TEFL methods in Zaire in general, and in Eastern Kasai in particular, are centred around three of the methods and approaches described above: the Direct, the Audiolingual and Audiovisual methods. Although some time teachers incorporate GT principles (mainly translation) in TEFL methodology, it is the following principles that most underlie it: (1) *teach English in English*, and (2) *teach accuracy*, i.e. good pronunciation in English use.

As can be expected, these methods are all of them teacher-centred and product-oriented: (1) the teacher occupies the central position, for he manipulates, not only the language (which the learners have to imitate and use later), but also the learners themselves, and (2) these methods aim at producing English by using English. As such, they (1) compel the learners to near passivity, (2) see English learning and achievement as synonymous with accuracy achievement, and (3) neglect the process via which English as a foreign language is actually learnt.

By insisting on accuracy and at the same time expecting the learners to practise and speak English, these methods indeed exhibit the paradox on which foreign language teaching has been built for decades: instead of allowing and encouraging the learners to speak, they on the contrary, prevent them from doing so, and consequently discourage them (Rivers, 1973, cited in Malamah-Thomas, 1987:vii; Mockridge-Fong, 1979:92)<sup>82</sup>. Indeed, how can learners in Eastern Kasai (who actually do not yet master English) speak it accurately? How can they communicate when they are denied the very strategic means they should normally use to do so at this stage? Truly, as it is possible to communicate at any stage of English learning ( Littlewood, 1984:95)<sup>83</sup>, they should be given plenty of opportunities to practise. And they can do so only when they use (compensatory) strategies.

It is because most of them cannot communicate in the absence of strategies that they resort to not talking, not speaking the language. Not speaking should therefore

be regarded not as evidence of lack of intelligence, but as a protection of self, and a reaction to the inconsideration they are the object of. By refraining from speaking English, these learners end up not practising it, and of course not learning it (cf. what we said in 5.1.).

Just as we said in section 5.1., it seems therefore that Zaire has been left behind in the development of English language teaching. We have shown how the methods used so far have been product-oriented and teacher-centred. The insistence on accuracy -and especially phonetic accuracy- seems to be preventing rather than helping learners to speak. Furthermore, the failure to consider 'communicative language teaching' principles has left English teaching in Zaire still concerned with grammatical accuracy exclusively, with no concern for fluency and meaning-oriented learning. Finally, there is even less consideration of the potential contribution of process-oriented, learner-centred approaches -such as Community Language Learning- which might help learners to overcome the inhibitions created by insistence on phonetic accuracy.

There is however another dimension to English language teaching in Zaire which makes it different from most of the situations implicit in the theories and methods developed in Europe and the USA. Zairean learners are not the monolinguals that theorists know best, but bilinguals acquiring an education through a second language. For this reason we need to consider also the significance of their bilingualism in the success or failure of their learning of English as a foreign language (cf. Chapters One and Two). It is only by considering these elements that we can devise methods of teaching that can really help improve TEFL, not only in Eastern Kasai, but also in Zaire as a whole.

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## PART THREE

AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IN EASTERN KASAI

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As we said in Part Two (Chapter 5), this third part of this thesis is devoted to an empirical investigation of how English is taught and learned in Eastern Kasai in particular. This empirical study was done with a view to find out which amongst the factors we spoke about in Part One and especially Part Two have determining influence in causing the problem we described earlier in the Introduction.

Like all empirical investigations, this one also involves samples to be investigated, methods used to reach this end, methods and techniques used to collect and analyse the data, and of course the results obtained. It is in this sense that we divided this part into three main chapters (Six, Seven, and Eight), which we devoted respectively to research methods and samples, the instruments and techniques we used to collect the data, and the way we analysed these data and presented the results they generated.

As described in Chapters Six and Seven (*vide infra*), our investigation was intended for learners of English, teachers, inspectors and political educational authorities. We used questionnaires (for students) and interviews (for the other informants). To complement our data, we also observed grammar, vocabulary, reading and conversation lessons.

In deciding to conduct our investigation in this way, i.e. collecting participants' views, perceptions, and (teachers and learners') behaviours, we hoped to gather enough first-hand and varied data, which would serve as a check or verification of our own analysis of practice and the theories and findings described in Part Two, so as to fulfil the purpose we set out to reach.

As the majority of this data does not easily lend itself to quantification, we found it more indicated to use only frequency and percentage counts, which we in fact used within the descriptive-narrative approach we opted for to present the results (*vide infra*).

## CHAPTER SIX

### RESEARCH METHODS AND SAMPLES

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#### 6.1. Population and area

The parent population (Pp1) to which generalisations about this study are to be made is basically that of Ciluba-French speakers learning English in formal situation, namely the classroom context. Because, in Zaire, as a subject, English is taught only at the secondary school level, and then, as both subject and medium of instruction, at the higher level in departments of English, this population is therefore composed of all the students of secondary schools, universities and colleges of higher education. To these must be added other learners who, for one reason or another, are studying this language in private evening schools and language centres.

As formal learning is always associated with teaching and school management at different levels, we found it justified to include in this population EFL teachers and inspectors as they are directly involved in English teaching, and political educational authorities since they are concerned with the maintaining and financing of the education system in general. The decision to include political educational authorities in this population found support in that, although their involvement in education is indirect, it is nonetheless crucial because nothing can be initiated and implemented without their approval and funding. Hence, this population, which is scattered all over Eastern Kasai province, in both rural and urban areas, includes all Ciluba-French speaking learners of English, EFL teachers and inspectors, and political educational authorities.

Because of very poor road infrastructure and transportation facilities on the one hand, time and finance constraints on the other hand, we decided to concentrate on a particular portion of this population, in a specific area of the province, and then try to generalise the findings in the following way: first from the sample to all the learners in the area investigated, then from these to all Ciluba-French speakers, and finally possibly extend the conclusions to all Zairean learners of English.

## 6.2. Samples and Sampling Techniques

Though slightly different, the sampling techniques we planned to use were based on the random principle of selection. What militated in favour of the adoption of this approach was that we wanted to give each member of the population (Pp2) and each school selected an equal chance to participate in the study (see below).

### 6.2.1. Area

Out of the numerous localities in Eastern Kasai (Area1: A1), we selected only four amongst the most important ones: Mbujimayi (the capital city), Miabi, Mweneditu and Cilenge. They constitute Area2 (A2) (see Fig.2.: Appendix 3.2.). This selection was based on the following criteria:

(a) *Distance (from Mbujimayi):*

Miabi is located at 45 kms, Mweneditu 125 kms and Cilenge 40 kms.

(b) *School infrastructure:*

Most schools in these places are well-run, have cement buildings and qualified EFL teachers.

(c) *State of the roads:*

Though not tarred, the roads linking Mbujimayi respectively to Miabi and Cilenge are good and practicable.

The road linking Mbujimayi to Mweneditu is the best one throughout the province for it is the only one intercity road to be completely tarred.

(d) *Transportation facilities*

Due to the short distance and the state of the road linking Mbujimayi to these other places, it is easier to travel from the former town to either of the latter. Though Mweneditu is farther from Mbujimayi than either Miabi or Cilenge, it is by far the easiest to travel to not only because of the state of the road, but also and mainly because, being the only important 'import door' located on the railway network linking the rich south-eastern Shaba province to the rest of the country included Kinshasa, it has the heaviest traffic in the area. As a consequence, most lorries and buses regularly shuttle between these two towns.

## 6.2.2. Schools, forms and streams

### 6.2.2.1. Secondary schools

The criteria defined in (a),(b),(c) and (d) above also guided us in the selection of secondary schools. All pre-selected schools, i.e. the ones we selected as potential candidates for the investigation were allocated an identification number. Then all the numbers were put in a box and lots were then drawn to determine the ones that would actually participate in the study. This same sampling technique was also applied to determine which amongst the *male only*, *female only* and *mixed* schools were to be involved in the investigation.

As there are nowadays less *single sex* schools than *mixed* ones, and also because males usually outnumber females in these latter schools, we decided to take the single sex ones available whenever there was no possibility for us to make a choice, particularly in female-only schools cases. Hence the number (6) of female-only schools against (1) male-only (see Table 25: Appendix 3.5.).

Although we did not consider sex to be an important variable in our investigation (as the problem we set out to investigate is basically the same among both sexes), we anyway decided on this selection for the simple reason that we wanted the sample not to be completely male. As shown in Table 25 (see Appendix 3.5.), we set out to work with a total of 20 secondary schools, of which 18 regular (i.e. morning- and afternoon-schools) and only 2 evening ones.

#### 6.2.2.1.1. Forms and Streams

Not all the forms in these schools were to participate in the investigation. Only the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th forms were. We initially excluded the 6th form from the study because we had noticed (from experience) that during the second and third terms, this form's students were often busy preparing state exams, and were consequently very often absent from their schools. As for the evening schools, we selected only the 1st form because English was, in most cases, taught only during the 1st study year.

Whenever a form happened to be divided into several streams, we decided to

consider only one. The selection of forms as well as that of streams was done through the use of the same sampling techniques as those used to select schools.

#### 6.2.2.2. Universities and Colleges of Higher Education

Apart from secondary school students, university and higher education college students were also potential candidates for the investigation.

There are only three colleges of higher education in Eastern Kasai, and no university:

- 2 Teacher Training Colleges, of which one is in Mbujimayi and the other one in Wembonyama (350 kms from Mbujimayi.)
- 1 Agricultural College in Mukongo (45 kms from Mbujimayi).

Of the three, we selected only the Mbujimayi ISP, namely its English department.

We decided to exclude the ISP of Wembonyama from the study because it is far away from Mbujimayi, and the road linking it to the latter town is very unpracticable. This makes the traffic on it very reduced and travelling expenses and risks of hazard very high. In the same way, we did not consider working with the Mukongo agricultural college because, though nearer our home than for instance Mweneditu, Mukongo is much more difficult to get to due to the very degraded state of the road leading to it. Hence only 4x4 wheel drive vehicles reach it safely, and fares are very high. In sum, we therefore planned to investigate students and teachers in 21 schools (see Table 26: Appendix 3.6.).

#### 6.2.3. Population (Pp2)

As we said in the preceding lines, the sampling techniques we used to select our sample were based on the random principle of sampling. Considering (1) the size of the parent population (Pp1) we were concerned with, and (2) the limitations on time and resources, we found it reasonable to sample (Pp1) and reduce it to (Pp2), the population living in A2 and actually involved in this study. This was further sampled as explained in the following lines.

### 6.2.3.1. Learners

#### 6.2.3.1.1. Secondary school students

Considering the time planned to be devoted to the fieldwork, it was not possible to work with a larger number of students. We therefore decided to select only 4 subjects per form/stream. Thus, the total number of participants in this particular category was to be 368, distributed as follows:

( $18 \times 5 \times 4 =$ ) 360 *regular school* students (where 18 is the number of schools, 5 the number of forms/ streams and 4 the subjects to be selected per form/ stream) plus ( $2 \times 1 \times 4 =$ ) 8 *evening school* students (where 2 is the number of schools, 1 the only form/ stream considered, and 4 the number of subjects to be chosen per form/ stream).

#### 6.2.3.1.2. ISP students

The number of ISP students was planned to be 40, of which 15 first-year, 15 second-year, and 10 third-year students. These were however planned to be increased to 20 for the first and 15 for the third year in case there happened to be more students than usual, and keep 15 for the second. And it did happen that, that academic year, there were 30 students in the first study year, 20 in the second, and 15 in the third. Hence, though we increased the total number of these participants to 45, we decided to have the same number (15) for each of the three study years. It therefore follows that the final total number of learners who filled in the questionnaires was ( $368 + 45 =$ ) 413.

#### Replacement samples

Beside the 368 secondary school students, we foresaw having another 368 on stand-by in case the first group should not (partially or wholly) participate. Thus, practically speaking, we foresaw having two samples from this category of participants: sample1 (S1), those learners actually destined to participate in the investigation, and sample2 (S2), destined to replace S1 or some of its members.

We conceived this sampling with replacement on slightly different lines than



usual one where each member of the sample has "an equal chance of selection from the same parent population", which "means that after selecting one member from the population for sampling, it should be returned again to the population for possible choice a second time" (Selkirk, 1978:13)<sup>1</sup>. The reason why we did so is to be found mainly in the limitation on time we were confronted with, which made it practically impossible for us to grant each potential student participant equal chance of being selected (see the procedure below). The procedure was as follows:

- 1) Students of a form/ stream/ year of study were allocated identification numbers;
- 2) all these numbers were then put in a box and drawn one by one up to eight, and the ones not drawn were discarded;
- 3) the eight drawn numbers were put again in the box and drawn one by one up to four. These then constituted S1, and the other four remaining in the box were S2.

Individuals from S2 who would have (if necessary) to replace absentees in S1 would have been selected on the same random principle as the one applied in the selection of S1 members. In other words, members of S2 sub-groups (i.e. form/ stream/ year) would have been represented by different numbers. Then, when for instance, S1 members of a given sub-group would not have participated, the numbers representing all the individuals in the corresponding S2 sub-group would have been put in a box and then drawn one by one until the number of absentees in the equivalent S1 sub-group would have been reached. Those individuals whose numbers would have been drawn out of the box would automatically replace the missing members in the corresponding S1 sub-group. Fortunately, all the selected students participated, hence we had no reason to resort to replacement samples.

As for ISP students, we did not foresee any replacement sample for the simple reason that the number we had foreseen as S1 could include all the students in the department. Indeed, it was often the case in past years that the maximum number of students in the first year turned around 20, 15 in the second, and 12 in the third. Thus, as it seemed strongly improbable to have a replacement sample in this particular case, we foresaw to do our best to have all the selected students at the test. And this we think we succeeded in doing.

There are many ways of sampling a population. But as said above, we did not use any of these methods alone. What we did was to conceive one that relied on elements taken from some of these ways, most of which are but variants of random sampling. Hence, we borrowed particularly from:

(1) *Simple Random Sampling* technique, from which we borrowed the very principle of random selection.

(2) *Independent Random Sampling:*

The different members of the samples (S1 and S2) were supposed to be selected randomly and independent of each other. This independence principle could however not be applied when we had to select S2 members. Indeed, the constraints of the experimental procedure we were facing made it difficult for us to translate theory into practice (Selkirk, 1978:14)<sup>2</sup>. In fact, as we know, it is theoretically the chief rule in independent sampling that the selection or rejection of any one member of a given population as a member of a given sample should not influence the selection or rejection of any other member. In practice, although we tried to keep to this principle as far as the selection of S1 members was concerned, we could not apply it for S2 as the selection/ rejection of its members was largely influenced by that of S1 members.

(3) *Cluster or Whole group sampling:*

We had to sample schools, forms, streams... from which we had then to select smaller samples of four subjects each to work with.

(4) *Stratified Random Sampling:*

As far as the learner population was concerned, we divided the original larger population (Pp1) into separate categories (i.e. forms and streams), and then had these constitute the secondary smaller population (Pp2) from which S1 and S2 were drawn. Thus, we stratified (Pp1) and (Pp2) on grounds of pre-existing groups.

This extended cluster sampling, coupled with stratified sampling resulted in (5) *Stage Sampling* (Cohen and Manion, 1980:76)<sup>3</sup>, for we selected our samples in stages, "taking samples from samples", namely taking populations from populations, schools from schools, forms from forms, streams from streams.

What we could in practice not achieve was to apply the *principle of proportionate stratified sampling* (Butcher, 1965:8)<sup>4</sup> because in Zaire in general, and in Eastern Kasai in particular, the proportion of mixed schools (as we said earlier) is much larger than that of single-sex ones.

(6) *Sampling with replacement* (see above).

As is evident, none of the techniques cited above could, when taken separately, satisfy the requirements of our study. Hence, as Alpert (cited by Stephan and McCarthy, in Butcher, 1965:24)<sup>5</sup> advises researchers, we had to devise a sampling approach that depended on our judgement and one likely to be of help to us. And that

was what we tried to do in opting for a mixing of elements.

In sum, we used a multistage sampling approach as it was a "combination of various types of sampling methods in order to take advantage of the positive features of each" (Coleman, cited in Smith, 1981:271)<sup>6</sup>.

Amongst those we rejected are the following, and for the reasons given below:

(1) *Random Number Tables:*

Considering the small number of subjects we decided to select from each form/stream/year, each member of the form/stream would not have had equal chance of being selected had we decided to use this sampling technique. In fact, as we know from experience, the minimum number of students in a secondary school form/stream is 40, and that of students in higher education colleges varies between 10 and 20. If we were to use the random number tables approach, it is clear that we would have to stop the selection before even half of the population had been dealt with.

(2) *Systematic Sampling:*

This sampling technique requires the choice of every *n*th member of the population. It thus has more or less the same flaws as random number tables.

We also rejected (3) *convenience* and (4) *quota* samplings, (5) *purposive*, (6) *dimension* and (7) *snowball* samplings (Cohen and Manion, 1980:76-77; Smith, 1981:271-294)<sup>7</sup> mainly on grounds of lack of time.

As convenience (also known as *accidental*) sampling "involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required size has been obtained" (Cohen and Manion, 1980:77)<sup>8</sup>, we could not use it for we could not have enough time to get in touch with *the nearest* possible participants; and even if we had enough time to do so, the study involved so many people from different levels that it would have been quite impossible to have them all in one nearest place to our place (of work).

Neither could quota sampling nor its refinement (dimension sampling), or snowball sampling be adequately used under the time restrictions we were working in. In the case of the latter technique, the time factor is even more crucial because it (the technique) requires the use of a small number of informants who are used to identify others to be included in the sample, and the same process is repeated over and over again until the desired sample size is reached.

It was thus after scrutinizing all these various approaches to sampling that we came to the conclusion that an approach based on simple random sampling prin-

ciple has more principle has more to offer to us, mainly for sampling the (human) populations we had (Deming, cited in Butcher, 1965:7)<sup>9</sup>.

#### 6.2.3.2. Teachers

##### *In Mbujimayi:*

As is usually the case in secondary schools at home, the same teacher who teaches English in the 1st form also does so in 2nd, 3rd and 4th. The one who teaches in 4th, and mainly in 5th also does so in 6th. Hence we decided to select one teacher per school. This would make a total of twenty (20) teachers, we were to group as follows:

- (1) Group 1 : 1st, 2nd, and 3rd forms (10 teachers)
- (2) Group 2 : 4th, 5th, and 6th forms (10 teachers)

As a sample, 20 individuals (out of the thousands of teachers in Eastern Kasai) seem to be rather doubtful. But, because sampling based on sample size was quite unrealisable in the conditions we were to work in, we found it wiser to rely, for this particular category, on teaching experience. Hence were to be selected only those teachers who had been in the profession for not less than four years.

The selection technique we were to use was again based on the principle of random sampling:

- The names of all the EFL teachers (from the selected schools) were to be put into two different boxes: one for Group1 and the other for Group2.
- Then ten names were to be drawn from each box. These should constitute the teacher sample.

##### *In Miabi, Mweneditu and Cilenge:*

We planned to work with at least one teacher per group, and per school. This would make a total of two teachers per school selected, one from Group1 and one from Group2. The total was to be four teachers per locality, thus making a global total of twelve teachers. (In case there were more streams per form, thus more than one teacher per group, we were then to invite them all).

As regards ISP teachers, we planned to invite all our six colleagues in the Dept of English. But we would have been satisfied with a minimum of three in case others should reject our invitation.

### 6.2.3.3. Inspectors and Political Educational Authorities

#### *In Mbujimayi:*

If there had been no change while we were here, then the total number of EFL inspectors in Eastern Kasai should have been five distributed as follows: 2 in Mbujimayi, 1 in Mweneditu, 1 in Miabi, and 1 in Cilenge.

We planned to interview them all.

As for political educational authorities, we planned to interview at all costs the Eastern Kasai Regional Representative of the Zairean central Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education.

#### *In Kinshasa:*

We planned to interview the National Secretary of the Dept of Primary and Secondary Education, or any other high-ranking and well-informed authority willing to be interviewed.

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## CHAPTER SEVEN

### DATA COLLECTION: INSTRUMENTS AND TECHNIQUES

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The instruments we used to collect the data are questionnaires, interviews/ discussions and class observations.

In using the above data collection instruments together, our aim was to seek to establish *covariation* (Dunkin and Biddle, cited in Biddle and Anderson, 1986:232)<sup>1</sup> between the different data we hoped to gather. This approach we opted for is therefore methodological pluralism, also known as *multimethod* or *triangulation between methods* (Denzin, cited in Cohen and Manion, 1980:211ff)<sup>2</sup>.

We preferred this method of data gathering, not only because it made our task somewhat easier and more practical, but also because it increased the validity level of the data, most of which is qualitative. Methodological eclecticism made our data collection more powerful than if we had relied on one method only, for, as Berger (quoted in Smith, 1981:263)<sup>3</sup> puts it

“In science as in love a concentration on one technique is likely to lead to impotence ”.

And this is particularly true in social sciences, of which the problem we set out to study is a part.

To allow the respondents and interviewees to express themselves as explicitly as possible, and because their command of English is in the main usually poor, we decided to use French throughout the whole investigation.

#### 7.1. The questionnaires

Because of the multifaceted nature of the research, we found it difficult to use standardised tests as most of them focus on quite specific aspects. Indeed, as the reader will undoubtedly remember, our research focussed on a range of different major

factors involved in FL learning/ teaching (cf. Introduction, Part One and Part Two). Therefore, any exclusive recourse to such type of tests would have required the use of a very large number of them. Furthermore, considering the limitations imposed on us by time, finance and manoeuvrability, and for ease of administration, we found it wiser to devise our own questionnaires, and try in some pages to deal with most of the topics we set to investigate. To do this, we drew inspiration from (1) some standardised tests and questionnaires used before by other researchers and referred to throughout the literature we had read, and (2) our own experience.

We devised four questionnaires intended for learners: two [Questionnaire1 (Q.1), and Questionnaire2 (Q.2)] for secondary school students, and the other two [Questionnaire3 (Q.3), and Questionnaire4 (Q.4)] for ISP students.

Comprising sixty-two items, and initially intended for 1st-, 2nd- and 3rd-secondary school students, Questionnaire1 was, once the fieldwork started, reconsidered and used for 2nd-, 3rd- and 4th-form students. This was due to the fact that, during our absence from home, English teaching had become optional in 1st year secondary school, and was not taught at this particular level in most of the schools we had pre-selected. Thus, instead of re-selecting schools again to fit our initial plan, we decided to drop all the first forms altogether, and replace them by 4th-form students. In the same way, and because of the change introduced as regarded Questionnaire1, Questionnaire2 (68 items), originally intended for 4th- and 5th-form students, became intended for 5th and 6th forms. Questionnaire3 (79 items) and Questionnaire4 (87 items) did not undergo any modification: as planned, the former remained intended for ISP 1st-year students, and the latter for 2nd- and 3rd-years.

Normally, each group of learners should have been given all the items found in the four questionnaires, i.e. 296 items. Instead, we decided to divide them in this way because we intended to allow the respondents to deal with the exercises as fully and effectively as possible. To reach this aim, we thus decided to present them with less than a hundred items per group so that they could not tire and consequently lose concentration. Indeed, a very long questionnaire often leads to the last items not being answered properly because of strain and fatigue.

Moreover, it was because of the difference in quantity and quality of information the learners were required to provide, a difference due mainly to their differing English learning experience, that the four questionnaires had different numbers of items. Hence, though basically similar to Questionnaire2, Questionnaire3 had some



extra items; and though similar to Questionnaire3, Questionnaire4 included some more items. The additional items referred to specific information we believed only respondents of those categories were likely to possess (see Appendix 1.).

#### 7.1.1.1. Construction:

The questionnaires were constructed around the bulk of factors believed to influence EFL learning and teaching, and which we discussed in Part Two, especially Chapters Three, Four and Five.

To allow the learners to fill in the questionnaires as easily as possible, we used as simple, clear and concise language as possible, although some difficult terms and expressions are still found in a few items.

Each questionnaire was divided into

(1) an Introduction (common to all four questionnaires), in which were explained the objective of the questionnaires, the importance we attributed to the participants' collaboration and cooperation in filling them in, and our commitment as to the confidentiality to which the information provided was to be subjected (see Appendix 1.a.); this was followed by

(2) a Legend (also common to all four questionnaires), in which were given all the main instructions as to how to go about the exercises. We found this method of instructing the informants easier and more practical than the one of listing the instructions at the beginning of each section because different types of items found within a same section required different types of response modes (see Appendix 1.b.).

Though a shortcut for us in resolving the problem posed by the necessity we felt to mix within a same section different kinds of items requiring different types of response modes, we felt this method of providing instructions to be more demanding for the participants. Indeed, they had to refer to the legend for every exercise. Hence, to resolve this difficulty, we planned not to staple the legend sheet together with the rest of the questionnaire: it was to be on a loose sheet of paper, thus making it easier for the informants to consult it (see 7.1.3.). The legend was followed by

(3) a *Fiche Signalétique du Participant*, a set of personal details about the participants, including their age, sex, school/ form/ year taught, studies done, and languages known. Then came

(4) the questionnaire itself, comprising open- and close-ended questions, and multi-

ple choice questions/ statements, of which most were of fixed-alternative and scale types.

Response modes, accordingly, included fill-in, scaled, categorical, tabular, ranking and checklist, with the first three types predominating (see Appendices 1.1.a., 1.2.a., 1.3.a. and 1.4.a.).

As it appears throughout these items, the nature of the problem we were dealing with compelled us to resort massively to introspection as a method to force the respondents to reflect on their EFL learning experiences, and allow us thus to have access to firsthand information.

Though, as a method, introspection is fallible and difficult to use (John Mill, cited by W. James, in Glahn, 1980:119)<sup>4</sup>, we think it is however better to ask the learners themselves to speak about their own experiences. In this we agree with Kellerman (cited in Glahn, 1980:119)<sup>5</sup> who says that "the learner himself must be increasingly utilised... in order to provide the researcher with more data...".

In spite of its fallibility, introspection can be positively used if some precautions are taken. And according to J. Mill (cited in Glahn, *op. cit.*)<sup>6</sup>, the "only safeguard is in final consensus of our farther knowledge about the things in question, later views correcting earlier ones, until at last the harmony of a consistent system is reached". Our safeguard in this investigation were interviews/discussions and classroom observations which we used as cross-check and feedback for the information provided by the questionnaires.

#### 7.1.2. Piloting the questionnaires:

The questionnaires were first sent for comments to some of our friends here in the U.K. Then after corrections, and before the actual administration, they were pre-tested (in the field) mainly to determine the time the average respondent from each category was likely to take to fill in the questionnaire of his own category.

As planned, the pre-test sample consisted of twenty-four randomly selected students (following the sampling technique described in 6.2.3.). They were taken from Institut Mulemba-EDAP (the nearest secondary school to ISP, and one of the few well-organised schools in Mbujimayi) and the ISP. From the former, we selected fifteen subjects, namely three participants from each of the five forms concerned (2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th forms), and from the latter nine students, that is three per each

of the three study years. As there was no need for a replacement sample, we therefore selected only one sample.

All twenty-four participants took the test in one classroom allocated to us by the ISP authorities, and we ourselves supervised the session. We started by explaining what was in the introduction, and mainly how to set about the questions. It took just one hour and forty minutes for the first and quickest student to finish the test, and two hours thirty minutes for the last and slowest. The mathematical mean time was then two hours and eight minutes, which we rounded off to two thirty on grounds that the mathematical mean could have been influenced by the fact that all the pre-test students were taken from good schools. Therefore, we took two thirty as the official time limit for the questionnaire sessions themselves.

We noticed that the participants' questionnaire completion rate was related to their study level. Hence, the quickest were among the 6th-form secondary school and 3rd-year ISP students, and the slowest among the 2nd- and 3rd-form, and 1st-year ISP students. Requests for further explanations about how to answer the questions, and about meanings of words, expressions and structures were similarly distributed. This latter case concerned mainly 2nd- and 3rd-form secondary school students. Among the items most requests were made about were Questionnaire1 items (4), (5), (6), (7), (8), (11), (13), (22), (23), (29), (31), (36), (56), (57), and (58). We experienced no major problem with Questionnaires2, 3, and 4.

### 7.1.3. Administration of the Questionnaires: The Sessions:

We planned to select one teacher from each secondary school to assist us with the administration of Q.1 and Q.2, and one ISP colleague to help us with that of Q.3 and Q.4. We also initially planned that each of the sessions should take place in each selected school, or that we should group the participants where and when possible. Also planned was the fact that we should start with administering Q.1 and Q.2, and then Q.3 and end with Q.4.

As planned, all the sessions started with us explaining the major points in the Introduction, how to deal with the different types of questions, and insisting particularly on those items we noticed the pre-test subjects had had difficulties with. But due to circumstances we could not control (*vide infra*), we were compelled to introduce some modifications. Hence, we started with administering Q.3 and Q.4 as

we managed to get all 45 participants grouped the same day in one ISP room. We ourselves supervised the whole session, which took two hours to be completed.

The main problems arose with Q.1 and Q.2, problems which obliged us to conduct the twenty sessions foreseen during nearly the whole fieldwork period (two months and a half), along with interviews and classroom observations. This was mainly because (1) as most school authorities were reluctant to have their students moved to another school to answer the questionnaire, we ended up sticking to the first option we foresaw, namely to question them in their own schools. Hence, we had to move constantly from one school to another, let alone from one locality to another; (2) as some of these schools were functioning in the mornings, some others in the afternoons, and others (fortunately two only) in the evenings, we often found ourselves working nearly the whole day long. Whenever we had to work with several morning, or afternoon schools, or these two types the same day, we had to go from one to another, checking whether everything was all right, collecting completed questionnaire sheets either ourselves or from helper teachers; (3) different school timetables conditioned the agreements and compromises we reached with school authorities. Hence we had to abide by them.

The administration of Q.1 and Q.2 in Mbujimayi went on until one week before we flew back to Durham. It was thus the most exhausting part of the fieldwork because (1) of the large number of schools it involved, and (2) it was chiefly conducted in alternation with interviews on the one hand, and in accordance with the different English lessons schedules, on the other hand, schedules which dictated the programming of the different classroom observations sessions we had.

All the S1 members participated in the sessions. Therefore, we did not have to resort to replacement samples (S2s). Contrary to what we pre-planned, the distribution of participants per questionnaire was finally:

- (1) Q.1: (216+8=) 224 participants.
- (2) Q.2: 144 participants.
- (3) Q.3: 15 participants.
- (4) Q.4: 30 participants.

But the total remained 413, as planned.

## 7.2. Interviews/ discussions:

These were intended for EFL teachers and inspectors, and political educational authorities.

### 7.2.1. Type and construction:

Each interview was divided into three major parts (see Appendix 2.):

(1) a *Fiche Signalétique du Participant*, which included the participants' personal details about age, sex, studies, professional experience, and languages spoken (for teachers and inspectors), and actual position held, date of appointment to it, and position held before that (for political educational authorities) (see Appendices 2.1.1., 2.2.1. and 2.3.2.).

(2) an *Interview Schedule* and (3) an *Interview Guide*, both intended to help us not get lost during the interview sessions.

The Interview Guide was a general frame of the interview, namely a set of thematic areas to be covered. The Interview Schedule was the translation into much more detailed statements and questions of the topics in the Guide, ideas around which the interviews had to turn. Accordingly, key words/ terms were emphasized so as to catch our attention during the sessions (see Appendices 2.1.2., 2.1.3.; 2.2.2., 2.2.3.; 2.3.1. and 2.3.2.).

Though all the interviews dealt with the same basic topics, they were nonetheless different in that, for teachers and inspectors, the emphasis fell on EFL methodology and classroom activities; for educational authorities it was on EFL seen in the general frame of Zairean education system policy making.

To allow the interviewees to express themselves at some length, but without the risk of them ending up in lengthy aimless talks, we opted for the semi-structured type of interview. We rejected the other two main types, namely the structured and the unstructured interviews because the nature of the information we were looking for required of us that the interviewees be given some latitude to express themselves. In the strictly structured type of interview -*the straightjacket interview* as Wragg (1978:3)<sup>7</sup> calls it-, time and question sequence are so tightly scheduled that interviewees have practically no freedom at all to explain, clarify and justify what they say. In the unstructured type on the other hand, though the interviewees are allowed much more

freedom of speech, there often exists the possibility that the talk results in aimless rambling, and therefore loss of time. Now, because of time limitations on the one hand, and of the necessity to allow the interviewees to expand on what they could say, we found no better compromise than the use of a midway approach, namely the semi-structured interview type. It is indeed a compromise because it combines both formal and informal elements of the interview technique (Agar,1980:134)<sup>8</sup>.

Hence, the interviewees and we were often engaged in a conversation, with us controlling its pace and direction, so as to suit what we set out to gather. It is in this way that all the interviews we conducted were "controlled conversation" (Palmer, cited in Saran, 1985:221)<sup>9</sup>.

Although it is generally considered good practice not to have anyone other than the interviewer and interviewee present during a face-to-face interview, we think group interview is also valid as it is likely to result into mutually enriching discussion and decision making, with in the end the gathering of more reliable and varied data. We therefore stuck to group interview with teachers, not only for the reasons above, but also and mainly because of lack of time, while with inspectors and political educational authorities we resorted only to individual interview.

#### 7.2.2. Piloting the interviews:

As planned, we did not pre-test interviews because (1) it was difficult to do so from Durham, (2) once in the field, we had no material time to do it, and (3) the sample selected was nearly all that could be of these interviewees. Therefore, if ever we could have conducted a pre-test, we would end up actually questioning the subjects. This was (in addition to (1) and (2) above) the reason why we decided against conducting a pre-test in this particular case.

#### 7.2.3. Administration of the interviews:

With the exception of political educational authorities who had to give their personal details just at the beginning of the interview as such, most teachers and inspectors were given their personal details sheets well in advance, and had to complete and return them to us at the beginning of the sessions. In other cases, this was done at the end of the session, and the sheets returned the same day or the next.

Considering the difficulties we would have faced as to the monitoring and remembering of all that was said by the interviewees, difficulties due to what Silverstein (cited in Cazden, 1986:457)<sup>10</sup> calls the "limits of (human) awareness", we decided to tape-record all the interviews.

#### 7.2.3.1. Teachers:

##### 7.2.3.1.1. Secondary school teachers:

###### *In Mbujimayi:*

Because most teachers in some pre-selected schools were teaching in many others, we found ourselves confronted with the possibility of selecting the same persons over and over again, hence ending up with less than the twenty subjects foreseen. It was in view of this that we decided to select also teachers whose schools we did not pre-select. This allowed us to reach the 20 number we had planned.

We invited them all to the ISP and, instead of having them in one group as planned, we divided them into two groups of ten individuals each: five from Group 1, and five from Group 2. We introduced this modification because we realised that with more than ten subjects per interview group, it would have been very difficult for us to control the interview, and have most of the interviewees participate as actively as we wished. Both groups were interviewed the same day, one after another, with just fifteen minutes break at the end of the first session to allow us to breathe.

As planned, the sessions started with the interviewees handing in their personal details sheets, and us explaining the objectives and procedures of the interviews. The rate of participation was very high and we even sometimes had difficulties to control the exchanges between the participants. But on the whole, although we allowed the participants to expand on what they were saying, we nonetheless managed to channel the discussions toward the main topics of the interviews. The height of the discussions (in both quantity and quality of participation) was reached with items (20), (22), (23), (24), (33), (34), (35), and (38). Items 20, 22, 23 and 24 were involved with issues on EFL teaching methods, namely the place of accuracy and fluency in TEFL (item 20) and the differences and similarities between the EFL methods the interviewees were trained to use to teach and those they were using or they thought they should use in practice (items 22, 23 and 24). Items 33, 34, 35 and 38 were concerned with

concerned with EFL teaching in Eastern Kasai, namely whether it was a success or a failure (item 33) and, in case it was a failure, the changes that were needed urgently (and also in mid and long terms) to improve it (items 34, 35 and 38) (see Appendix 2.1.)

As, in the main, all the interviewees contributed quite substantially to the discussions, we did not find it necessary to carry out individual interviews after group sessions. Indeed, opinions were so divided amongst interviewees about what they knew and took for granted and the challenge unveiled by their own discussions on the matter (thanks to the core questions of the interviews) that exchanges continued outside the rooms, for long after the sessions were over. The first session took three hours, and the second two and fifty minutes.

As planned, our role throughout the whole sessions remained that of providing the interviewees with the core questions and topics, of asking filter and probe questions whenever necessary, of trying to keep to the interview plans, and of making the discussions go forward.

*In Mweneditu:*

Contrary to the four teachers we had planned to interview, we actually interviewed five: we indeed selected four, and the fifth volunteered to participate. The session took place in our hotel room, on an evening, and lasted for two hours and forty-five minutes. It was also as interesting as the Mbujimayi sessions. But as a consequence of the smaller number of interviewees we had, the participation rate (in terms of the number of times individual interviewees intervened in the discussions) was even higher than in Mbujimayi. Once again, the climax in the discussions was reached with items (20), (22), (23), (24), (33), (34), (35), and (38).

As we arranged and conducted the interview the same day, and as this was followed by another one, we gave the interviewees their personal details sheets at the end of the session, and they returned them on the morning of the following day.

*In Miabi:*

As planned, we interviewed four teachers. The session took place at the home of one of them, on an afternoon, as the four were teaching in morning schools. As they were very tired from their morning work, but still willing to be interviewed, we decided to offer them some thing to drink in order to motivate them a little more. Then the discussion took place with everybody enjoying a glass of beer.

Once again, items (20), (22), (23), (24), (33), (34), (35), and (38) contributed a



interviewees' evident tiredness. Their willingness to get involved and desire to know more outmatched their fatigue, and contributed a lot to this increase in participation. It was only after the session (which lasted for three hours and fifteen minutes) that we gave them their personal details sheets. They filled them in and returned them the same day.

*In Cilenge:*

As foreseen, we interviewed four teachers. As in Miabi, the session took place at a teacher's home, on an afternoon, and lasted for three hours. The level of participation was also high despite the interviewees' morning work (all were teaching in morning schools). Then, to increase their motivation, we proceeded in the same way that we did in Miabi.

Once more, items (20), (22), (23), (24), (33), (34), (35), and (38) got the palm for the peak of participation. Again, as in Miabi, it was at the end of the session that the interviewees were given their personal details sheets, which they filled in and handed back the same day.

**7.2.3.1.2. ISP Teachers:**

This interview was the last of the series to be conducted, and lasted for two hours and forty-five minutes. It took place at the ISP, on a morning all my colleagues were not teaching. Contrary to what we had planned, only five (out of six) participated. The absentee (we learnt later) had already resigned for a better job in a local private company.

We followed all the steps we had foreseen to apply for the interview sessions. It turned out to be the most animated of all the teachers' interviews: every participant wanted at all times to voice his position. In order not to allow them to take much more time than necessary, we were quite often obliged to interrupt and ask them to vote for the different opinions expressed in relation to the items under discussion.

As with all the preceding interviews, this one also reached the apex in participation with items (20), (22), (23), (24), (33), (34), (35), and (38). The discussion of these particular items went on (on an informal basis) up to nearly one day before we left for Durham.

**7.2.3.2. Inspectors:**

In contrast with our plans, we interviewed only two inspectors: one in Mweneditu, and one in Miabi. There was no inspector either in Mbujimayi or Cilenge: one of the two Mbujimayi inspectors was at that time in Leeds for a six-month refresher course, and the second had already moved to Kinshasa. The inspector who used to be in Cilenge had resigned (we were told) four years before. The Miabi and Mweneditu inspectors were (in the meantime) supervising the Mbujimayi and Cilenge sectors.

In Miabi, the interview took place at the interviewee's home, on an afternoon, and lasted for two hours and thirty minutes. It was very cordial and the inspector was evidently eager to talk. Thus, as he was the only interviewee, we really allowed him to speak to even greater extent and touch on topics outside the interview scope.

When the actual session was over, we gave him the personal details sheet: he filled it in and handed it back to us ten minutes later. He then invited us (for about thirty minutes) to share our own viewpoints on some of the different issues we interviewed him on. Though we were happy when this was over, we were anyway delighted by the enthusiasm and open-mindedness shown by the interviewee.

In Mweneditu, the interview took place in our hotel room, on the evening, two hours after we had finished with the teachers. Since the inspector was a once university colleague of ours, the interview atmosphere was more open and more amicable than ever. He talked extensively throughout the interview, which lasted for three hours and a half. After that, we went on discussing on a more informal basis until early in the morning. And while we were doing so, he filled in the personal details sheet and returned it.

#### 7.2.3.3. Political educational authorities:

As planned, we interviewed two political authorities: one, the *Chef de Division Régionale de l'Enseignement Primaire et Secondaire (Régéd.)* (the Regional Representative of the Central Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education) in Mbujimayi, and the other one, one of his six counterparts in Kinshasa.

##### *In Mbujimayi:*

The meeting took place at the Representative's home, on the morning of our last Sunday in the city. It lasted for one hour. The interviewee was really happy to be involved, and did his best to provide us with adequate and suitable data.

##### *In Kinshasa:*

*In Kinshasa:*

We were lucky again that the person we happened to interview is a long-time friend of ours with whom we grew up. Besides, like us, he too studied English at the university. So it was very easy to get him involved. The interview took place at his home, some twelve hours before we flew back to Durham. It lasted for one hour and twenty minutes.

### 7.3. Classroom Observations:

As we said in the preceding lines, because we had to comply with the lesson schedules teachers had already planned, usually during the first term, classroom observations were conducted alternatively with questionnaire sessions and interviews.

As pre-planned, we visited four schools in the vicinity of ISP, namely Institut Mulemba-EDAP, Institut Musungula, Institut Dibwa, and Lycée Mwanjadi, and observed sixteen lessons instead of the eight we had initially foreseen. We introduced this change because we realised that we could not get enough data that could allow us to adequately generalise the conclusions we were to draw from the observations, and also because, since we dropped the 1st form from the investigation, and as we had planned to focus our inquiry on the beginning stages of English learning, we thought it paramount to increase the number of lessons to be observed for 2nd, 3rd and 4th forms (see Table 27: Appendix 3.7.).

As is evident from this table, the 2nd, 3rd and 4th forms had each four types of lessons to be observed, namely grammar, vocabulary, reading and conversation. The 5th and 6th forms had only two each: reading and conversation.

As is usually the case in Zaire, the plans of the lessons we observed were modelled on the official lesson plan sheet (*Fiche de Préparation*: see Appendix 3.8.) provided by the Department of Primary and Secondary Schools. It included three main headings: (1) the type and title of the lesson, in turn subdivided into the material used to make and teach the lesson, and the objectives pursued; (2) the actual (plan of the) lesson, showing how the 50 minutes' lesson time should be divided among the lesson different parts, namely recall, introduction of new items, development of the lesson and summary; (3) the lesson/ assignments students should write in their class diaries.

Though we were concerned with the whole classroom teaching/ learning process, our emphasis was on communicative-interactive aspects, i.e. (1) the teaching

methods employed and the ways students were reacting to them, (2) teacher-student and student-student relationships and interactions, and (3) the strategies used by the teacher to communicate with the students (and vice versa), and those used by the students to communicate among themselves.

The most obvious material to use for such a work is undoubtedly the video recorder. But as we could not afford one, we decided (as planned) just to write down whatever was coming to our notice. As the range of what is said and done during a language lesson is usually very vast, we found it practical not to have any pre-established list, chart or table of any kind on which to write the immediate results of the observations. Indeed, though seemingly easier and straightforward, marking on pre-established lists, charts or tables during an observation session of oral and non-oral activities (such as those happening in a language lesson) usually diverts the observer's attention from what is actually going on between the participants. Besides, it takes time to find the right case for a given data, and it requires extreme care not to allocate data to wrong categories for, once the mistake has been made, the results of the observation may be badly and irreversibly affected. It was in an attempt to overcome this overall limited nature of human information-processing capacity -the "rounded rationality" as Simon (cited in Erickson, 1986:143)<sup>11</sup> calls it- that we opted for the above-described method of observation data collection.

By allowing us to concentrate on what was happening in the classroom, this approach permitted us to collect as much varied data as possible. Indeed, observational systems based on pre-established lists, tables, etc..., often restrict the classroom data we normally should collect, for they reduce the stream of classroom behaviours to small-scale units which have the merit only of being suitable for tabulation and computation. The exception to this rule was that we decided to take counts of students who were involved in the observations, and find out relatively how many of them participated (in varying degrees) (see 8.1.1., point II.).

In the first case, it was very easy as we were provided with class lists on which presences and absences were marked. Though in the second case it was more difficult to do the job, we found it less arduous for we were, besides the student presence/absence list, also given a plan of the class (on which numbers inside squares represented students). So we used to tick squares each time the students represented by the numbers inside them answered or took part particularly in verbal interactions: a cross represented an interaction with the teacher, and a minus with the other stu-

dents. We did not bother to mark for those who did not participate. We deduced their number from that of those who participated. With regard to point II.3. (see 8.1.1.), we decided that from ten +/- up, the student spoke more, and below this number to one they spoke less.

What we often did for lesson observations was to get in the classroom, sit down among the students in the back of the room, and write down whatever (verbal and nonverbal) that happened to come to our notice. For fear of influencing to a damaging extent the outcome of the observations, we did our best never to intervene in the teaching/ learning process. As we pre-planned therefore, our method of observation was direct, and our role that of a *nonparticipant observer* (Whyte, 1964:321; Smith, 1981:84)<sup>12</sup>. It was only at the end of lessons that we would ask some questions to the teacher and some students to get some more cues on what was done or said during the lessons. And this was done outside the classroom, in the teachers' common room.

Though it was very difficult to write down all that was said and done during the lessons we attended, we anyway think that we did manage to get hold of the essentials we were after.

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## CHAPTER EIGHT

### DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

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As we said in chapters 6 and 7, we collected data thanks to questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. In the following pages, we have analysed them and presented the results of this analysis, prior to our interpreting them. And to do so, we have decided to use descriptive statistics only, namely frequency and percentage counts instead of the numerous and complex statistical tests, for instance significance tests.

The reasons why we opted for this analysis approach instead of one based on significance tests, for example, are twofold:

(1) significance tests seem to us not indicated in the frame of this research work because we have not posed any hypothesis. Hence, for example, chi-square tests cannot be adequately used (Connolly and Sluckin, 1971:125ff)<sup>1</sup>;

(2) the use of tests of significance is thought by some to be irrelevant in education research (Selvin, 1957, cited in Oakes, 1986:152)<sup>2</sup> because they interpret numbers and discard the facts associated with these numbers. In other words, they are said not to consider where the numbers come from (Lord, 1953, cited in Oakes, 1986:153)<sup>3</sup>, and numbers themselves cannot give valid clues as to where they come from or why they are the way they are. Besides, in our case, most of the data were complex and involved more the participants' free judgement and comments than numbers. Hence we found it not indicated to apply nonparametric procedures (Daniel, 1978)<sup>4</sup>.

In language learning, as we know, it is the invisibles, the unobservables that produce what is observed, namely numbers. These unobservables are more related to affect, personality and social variables. And as such, they are very difficult to quantify and present satisfactorily in numerical form. Indeed, as Allwright (1988:249, echoing Breen, 1985)<sup>5</sup> puts it

“An understanding of classroom language learning (and teaching) will only come if we go far beyond the merely observable in our research and at least make a serious attempt to account adequately for the social as well as

the cognitive aspects of classroom language learning, treating the class as a culture in and of itself, whose investigation will require an anthropologist's rather than a statistician's expertise ".

Hence, we have decided that the best way to explain and bring about a satisfactory understanding of the data we collected is to approach them as anthropologist/ ethnographer rather than statisticians. This however is not meant to imply that figures and numbers are not useful in this type of research. They can be used as basis for comparing and interpreting results. This is exactly the way we saw and decided to use them.

Each instrument will first be outlined, and then its data analysed and summarized so as to make the participants' perceptions and behaviours emerge from them. All the results obtained in relation to individual questionnaires will then be put together and summarized so as to give overall opinions of participant students. Then finally, these opinions will be combined with results of classroom observations in order to integrate the latter results into those of the questionnaires.

This same procedure will also be used with the results obtained from teachers' interviews and observations we made in relation to teachers' in-class behaviours, and overall perceptions. In this particular case, however, because all teachers' interviews were of the same format, i.e. they contained the same number of questions and topics, then their results have simply been directly combined with those of classroom observations.

In the case of inspectors and political educational authorities, there was no need to present a summary of results as there was no in-field observation made about these two categories of participants.

The chapter ends with the results of the three different instrument categories (that is questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations) being compared and summarized (see 8.6.).

We shall start the main body of the present chapter by presenting observations results for the simple reason that they had to be used and incorporated in most of the results generated by data from questionnaires and interviews. For this reason, we shall also present them in global terms (see 8.1.), hoping to detail them as we go along combining them with questionnaires and teachers' interviews results.

As the reader will notice, many items within these instruments seem to be re-



peated. The reason for this lies once again in that many of the ideas conveyed by most items are related, and thus overlap.

### 8.1. CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS:

As we said in Chapter 7, we conducted 16 classroom observations in four Mbu-jimayi secondary schools, namely Institut Dibwa, Institut Mulemba, Institut Musungula, and Lycée Mwanjadi. These observations involved five hundred and thirty-five students, of which three hundred and eighty-one Group1 students (i.e. 2nd, 3rd and 4th), and a hundred and fifty-four Group2 students (i.e. 5th and 6th) (see Table 28: Appendix 3.9.). Because of the different sizes of the classes involved in the four different lesson types we observed, and also because we focussed more on 2nd, 3rd and 4th forms (vide supra), these participants were also differently distributed among these lesson types (see Table 29: Appendix 3.10.).

#### 8.1.1. Outline:

Although we did not use any pre-established system to collect lesson observations data, the data collected themselves yielded the following seven-point framework we have therefore used to present the results:

##### *I. Teaching Methods:*

This point was devoted to a brief and synthesized account of (1) the methods used to teach the different lessons observed, and (2) the ways the participants (teachers and students) behaved (in relation to what is usually expected of students in their position).

*II. Participation* was concerned with the relative amount and kind of teachers' and students' participation, which we understood to cover the following points:

##### II.1. Did teachers work with:

II.1.1. the whole class

II.1.2. a group of students, or

II.1.3. individual students?

##### II.2. How relatively many students did respond to

II.2.1. teachers' questions

II.2.2. each other's questions?

II.3. How relatively many among the students did

II.3.1. speak more?

II.3.2. speak less?

II.3.3. not speak?

II.4. Approximate amount of

II.4.1. teacher talk

II.4.2. student talk

*III. Cognitive level* was concerned with the cognitive processes taking place in students in the classroom (and which could be apprehended via the ways they verbally behaved during lessons), namely their relative use of

III.1. recognition

III.2. rote memory

III.3. selective recall.

*IV. Affective climate* was chiefly concerned with whether or not, and to what extent teachers' behaviours supported students' learning. Hence the following questions:

IV.1. Did teachers accept the learners' feelings?

IV.2. Did they share them with the learners?

IV.3. Did they express pleasure about students' verbal and nonverbal activities

IV.3.1. when they responded in the right way?

IV.3.2. when they followed their instructions?

IV.3.3. when they engaged in unexpected but constructive activities?

IV.4. Did they

IV.4.1. accept their ideas?

IV.4.2. clarify their understanding?

IV.4.3. reflect on/ paraphrase their ideas?

IV.4.4. expand on them?

IV.4.5. encourage the students?

*V. Classroom control* was mainly concerned with whether or not, and to what extent classroom atmosphere was teacher-oriented, student self-control oriented, or both. We understood this as answering the following questions:

V.1. Did teachers encourage the students to rely on themselves for classroom climate control?

V.2. Did they allow them to participate freely?

V.3. Did they encourage them to become the architects of classroom discipline?

V.4. Did they encourage/ allow them to join them in the making of classroom work and climate?

VI. *Student-student interaction* was concerned with the following questions:

VI.1. Did teachers encourage students to share information amongst themselves, by encouraging/ allowing them to

VI.1.1. freely and spontaneously express their feelings?

VI.1.2. venture in making and testing assumptions?

VI.2. Did they help them increase their communication ability?

VI.3. Did they encourage them to

VI.3.1. actively listen to each other?

VI.3.2. participate in discussions?

VI.4. Did they encourage them to create and get involved in activities in which they could learn about the possibility they had to assume different roles in the learning process?

VII. *Others:*

This point was devoted to

VII.1 The languages (verbal and/ nonverbal) used by (1) to talk to (2):

VII.1.1. Teacher - student(s)

VII.1.2. Student(s) - teacher

VII.1.3. Student(s) - student(s)

VII.2. The verbal and nonverbal strategies (i.e, gestures, voice changes, eye movements and expressions, facial expressions...) used by (1) to talk to (2):

VII.2.1. Teacher - student(s)

VII.2.2. Student(s) - teacher

VII.2.3. Student(s) - student(s)

VII.3. Questions we put to twenty 2nd-, 3rd- and 4th-form students (selected among those who did not actively participate in the lessons), and four teachers (see Table 31: Appendix 3.12.).

The four questions we asked students covered mainly those aspects of language learning we felt were general enough as to cover most of what is involved in learning. They were:

(1) Is learning English difficult?

- (2) Did you understand what the lesson was about?
- (3) Why did you not participate actively?
- (4) What should your teacher do to encourage you to participate?

Like students' questions, the three we asked the teachers (three G3As and one LA) were also general ones:

- (1) Do you think the students who did not participate understood what the lesson was about?
- (2) Can you do something to encourage them to participate?
- (3) Do you think it is normal that only a few students actively participate in a lesson?

### 8.1.2. Results:

In this point (as said earlier), we have presented in more general terms the results of all seven points that constituted the framework of lessons observations. As these applied mainly to students and teachers (plus the methods these used to teach), more detailed presentations of these results as related to each group of these participants are made separately in points 8.2.5. (for students) and 8.3.3. (for teachers).

Because however of the interdependence existing between what teachers and students do/ say during lessons, we have often found ourselves obliged to refer to either of them to substantiate, clarify or complete what was being said about the other. Then, when we did so, the auxiliary results have been used just as back-up for those at the centre of our concern.

#### *I. Teaching Methods:*

The accounts that follow are summarized descriptions of the lessons we observed, and are based on the teaching methods as outlined in the *Fiche de Préparation* (see Appendix 3.8.) and the different ways they were actually applied during lessons. All the lessons were outlined according to the official lesson plan and were to take fifty minutes.

In the following descriptions, however, we concentrate on only major points, namely the general and specific aims pursued by the lessons (point I.c.), the way the new items are introduced to the students (point II.b.), how the whole lesson develops (point II.c.) and ends (point II.d.). These are indeed the ones on which usually hinge all lessons (see Chapter 7, especially point 7.3., and also Appendix 3.8.). They vary in details, depending on the type of lesson, the approach used by the teachers, and

sometimes the learner group level concerned (see below).

### *I.1. Vocabulary:*

#### I.1.1. Aims:

I.1.1.1. General: to teach the learners how to use English words and expressions to communicate.

I.1.1.2. Specific: the learner should be able to use the new items taught to communicate.

#### I.1.2. Methods:

The methods used were basically outlined and applied in the same way as below, and were the same for both Group 1 and Group 2. They consisted of the following four main parts: Recall, Introduction, Practice-control, and Synthesis.

Hereunder is the account of how they were planned and actually executed:

##### (1) Recall:

Plan:

Duration: 5 minutes. Through questions to students, the teacher should briefly revise some items already taught, and which had some relationship with the ones to be taught in the lesson of the day.

Execution:

The plan was realized as foreseen. (Indeed it is very easy and straightforward to recall previous lesson material because the teacher still has all his energy, all the time for the lesson, and the recalling itself is easy because students already know the items reviewed).

##### (2) Introduction:

Plan:

Duration: 15 minutes. By means of available and suitable teaching aids, the teacher should: (a) introduce the new items (one at a time) in sentences, (b) have the students repeat them, preferably individually (thanks to the teacher's questions), (c) then write (in isolation) each new item on the board, and (d) then after have the students once again repeat them in sentences. [All these four steps should be performed for each single item before introducing another one].

Most of the talk should be done by the teacher.

Execution:

Generally speaking, this was done according to the plan.

### (3) Practice-control

#### Plan:

Duration: 20 minutes. The teacher should (a) briefly re-introduce the items introduced during phase (2), then use them in different contexts than the ones used in the initial introduction, and (b) have the students ask questions to each other, using the (new) items in different contexts.

The main objective was here to allow students to use the items in as many various contexts as possible (practice) so that the teacher could see (control) how well they had understood what they were taught.

As is evident, most of the talk should be by the students: they should ask questions (both to the teacher and to each other), give answers, clarify them, expand on them. In short, this stage should be student-controlled.

#### Execution:

Generally speaking, it was just the opposite of the plan that happened: (a) teachers kept on introducing new contexts, and students kept on repeating them over and over again; (b) the majority of the students seemed unable to assume other interaction roles than that of the listener-repeater. Although some very few sometimes tried to take on other roles, the whole interaction atmosphere was unidirectional (teacher-students) and teacher-controlled. Many students were mere observers. Thus, far from what it should have been, this stage turned out to be somewhat an extension of the Introduction phase, and was shorter than planned.

### (4) Synthesis:

#### Plan:

Duration: 10 minutes. The teacher should (a) ask students some questions, then (b) write himself or preferably select some students and have them write the best answers (i.e. the ones that best highlight the meanings of the new items) on the board, and finally (c) have the students write the text/ story so obtained down in their notebooks.

The main underlying objective was here to make the students feel that they were the architects of the text/ lesson they had to write in their notebooks. In this way, it was believed, they could more easily remember the items taught.

#### Execution:

(a) was executed as planned; (b) it was the teachers who wrote the synthesis texts on the board, with only a negligible portion of students providing some of the answers,

while most were either just listening or copying the sentences in their notebooks; (c) was executed as planned, though many students had already started copying the text during phase (b) above.

Though on the whole the lessons were completed within the 50 minutes' time allowed, the time devoted to its different parts did not quite follow the one planned: Introductions and Syntheses were a bit longer, and Practice-Controls slightly shorter.

## *I.2. Grammar*

### *I.2.1. Aims:*

I.2.1.1. The general aim was basically the same as for vocabulary lessons, except that the items to be taught/ practised were grammatical structures, particles..

I.2.1.2. So was the specific aim.

### *I.2.2. Methods:*

Plan:

Methods and their execution plans were the same as those in vocabulary lessons. So were the actual execution and the results of the observations we made, i.e. that in the practice-control and synthesis sections, students participated much less than they should.

## *I.3. Reading:*

### *I.3.1. Aims:*

I.3.1.1. The general aim was to train students to read and understand any material written in English.

I.3.1.2. The specific aim was to train them to read materials they had already been exposed to, and check whether they were really capable of pronouncing and understanding them correctly.

### *I.3.2. Methods:*

Plans:

Two different methods were planned for Group 1: method A in 2nd and 3rd forms, and method B in 4th forms.

#### *Method A*

Plan:

The lesson should be divided into the following parts, which were to be performed as presented below:

(1) Recall (of items taught in vocabulary and grammar lessons) should take not more

than three minutes.

(2) Listening comprehension (by students) should take 5 minutes, and should consist of the following stages: (a) the teacher should read (aloud and at normal speed) the selected passage, and the students should listen, their (note)books shut; then (b) he should ask them not more than five general comprehension questions about the passage just read.

The aim was here to see if the students were able to grasp general ideas of the passage read aloud by someone else.

(3) Silent Reading (by students) should last not more than 15 minutes: (a) students should read the passage silently from their (note)books, one paragraph at a time; then (b) the teacher should ask them detailed comprehension questions, and this should go on until all the paragraphs have been dealt with.

(4) Expressive reading (by students) should take twenty-seven minutes, during which (a) students should read (individually, and some times in small groups) either sentence by sentence, or paragraph by paragraph, and (b) the teacher should correct their oral performance.

The aim here was to allow students to utter what was written, so that they could correct themselves whenever they could, or have the teacher correct them when necessary.

Method B was practically the same as Method A. The only difference lay in the last step, where much emphasis was to be put on comprehension questions, grammatical structures, use of words, intonation... in relation to the understanding of the written material.

Thus, contrary to Method A teachers, the Method B teacher planned to correct students' mistakes only when they seemed too obvious to ignore, and when they really impeded comprehension.

No synthesis was foreseen in either method.

Execution:

Broadly speaking, both Methods A and B plans were executed as foreseen, except that only a few students tried to take on the other different roles that were expected of them during the Expressive Reading stage, namely to ask questions to other students, correct each other, expand and/ comment on what others said...

The large majority went on playing the same listener-repeater role they were assuming in most of the preceding stages. It was the teachers who definitely had the initiative



in everything that was done/ said.

As far as Group 2 was concerned, method A was planned for 5th form, and B for 6th form, and they were executed accordingly. Thus the same observations we made for Group 1 were also applicable to this group, with the difference that in this case, those few students who tried to take on other roles did so (though not to the expected level) a bit better than Group 1 students.

#### *I.4. Conversation:*

##### *I.4.1. Aims:*

I.4.1.1. The general aim was to train the students to engage freely in conversations.

I.4.1.2. The specific aim was to train and allow them to use in free conversations all the items they had learnt so far.

##### *I.4.2. Methods:*

###### *Plans:*

Two slightly different methods were planned to be used:

Method C (2nd, 3rd and 4th forms), and Method D (5th and 6th forms).

Method C consisted of:

- (1) Recall (of some items previously learnt) was to take three minutes;
- (2) Introduction (of the dialogue by the teacher) was to take ten minutes: the teacher should read the passage at normal speed, explain and write on the board the main items around which the dialogue was built, and the students should repeat them after him;
- (3) Memorization stage should take ten minutes only: students should be asked to repeat and memorize the dialogue (sentence by sentence), focusing on the items written on the board;
- (4) Memorization Practice Control should take fifteen minutes: some students should be selected and sent to the board to perform the dialogue. They were expected to use the items on the board in exactly the same contexts as the ones they appeared in in the dialogue as delivered by the teacher. Hence no personal initiative was allowed at this stage;
- (5) Free Practice should take twelve minutes. This was the stage during which students were expected to make changes to the original dialogue, and use the items freely in as many different contexts as they could.

Hence most of the initiative and talk was to be made by students. The teacher's

role should therefore be limited only to correcting students (should they fail to do so themselves) and keeping the discipline.

No synthesis was foreseen.

Method D was basically the same as C, except that stages 4 (memorization practice control) and 5 (free practice) were combined into only one Practice stage, during which students were expected to use the items of the dialogue in other contexts and, thus, create other dialogues, but whose basic meanings should be related to those of the original dialogue. What mattered, therefore, was that students should be allowed to express in their own ways the meanings conveyed in the original dialogue. And it is in this way that most of the talk was to be made by them.

A synthesis stage was foreseen: students were to copy the original dialogue during spare periods or breaks.

Executions:

Stages 1, 2, and 3 in both methods were executed according to the plans. Phases 4 and 5 in Method C however were, in the main, just a rote and unsuccessful recitation by the students of the original dialogue. Teachers were compelled to take on the all-initiator role.

Though better executed than in method C (since there was much more variability in the use of items and contexts they were used in), phase 4 in method D did not fulfil the plan expectations either: (a) the number of students who really participated was very low, (b) most of them seemed to lack creativity, and (c) teachers still assumed the prominent role.

*II. Participation:*

II.1. Did teachers work with:

**Table 1.: How Teachers Worked with Students**

	Voc.			Gr.			Read.						Conv.					
	F			O			R		M		S							
	2	3	4	2	3	4	2	3	4	5	6	2	3	4	5	6		
Whole cl.	NO						T R Y I N G											
Group of students	±						Y E S											
Individ. students	Y E S																	

II.2. How relatively many students did respond to

Table 2.: Relative Number of Students who Responded to Teachers and to Each Other

	Voc.			Gr.			Read.					Conv.	
	F			O			R		M				S
	2	3	4	2	3	4	2	3	4	5	6		
Teacher (out of)	12 40	14 40	13 39	13 45	15 45	13 39	11 45	13 40	15 45	13 40	14 33	Fewer than in reading	
Each Oth (out of)	7 40	8 40	8 39	7 45	7 45	8 39	6 45	8 40	10 45	14 40	15 33		

II.3. How relatively many among the students did

	Voc.			Gr.			Read.					Conv.	
	F			O			R		M				S
	2	3	4	2	3	4	2	3	4	5	6		
Speak more (out of)	7 40	8 40	9 39	9 45	10 45	9 39	9 45	10 40	10 45	10 40	10 33	Fewer: only those who perfor med spoke	
Speak less (out of)	10 40	10 40	9 39	12 45	15 45	9 39	12 45	12 40	14 45	18 40	10 33		
Not speak (out of)	23 40	22 40	21 39	24 45	20 45	21 39	24 45	18 40	21 45	12 40	13 33		

II.4. Although student talk increased slightly in each upper study level, and teacher talk slightly decreased from 2nd throughout to 6th form, teachers talked more than students, even when the latter were expected to do most of the talking.

### III. Cognitive processes used by students

Table 4.: Cognitive Processes Used by Students

Processes	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Recognition	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Rote memory	yes	yes	yes	+yes	+yes
Select. Recall	+yes	+yes	+yes	yes	yes

+ = more/ less, i.e. the type of process used (i.e. the element on the far left-hand side of the line) is used at a lower degree

### IV. Affective Climate:

IV.1. Did teachers accept the learners' feelings and (IV.2.) share them with the learners? Rarely.

IV.3. Did they express pleasure about students' verbal and nonverbal activities when

(IV.3.1.) they responded in the right way? Yes (as far as verbal activities were concerned). No (for nonverbal ones). In this latter case, most teachers seemed very nervous and unhappy whenever students resorted to these activities (Teachers' behaviours/ reactions in relation to use by students of nonverbal linguistic means is further detailed in VII.2., 8.2.2. and 8.3.2.);

(IV.3.2.) when they followed their instructions? Yes;

(IV.3.3.) when they engaged in unexpected but constructive activities? Most teachers just ignored whatever (constructive or nonconstructive) students did they were not expected to do. The few who did express pleasure did it so quickly that the positive effect such behaviour would have had on the students responsible for such activities was overshadowed. In most cases, teachers seemed interested only in what

they expected the students to do or say.

#### IV.4. Did they

(IV.4.1.) accept their ideas? Only a few teachers tried to do so, mostly when ideas came from *bright* students;

(IV.4.2.) clarify their understanding? Sometimes;

(IV.4.3.) reflect on/ paraphrase their ideas? Sometimes. When they did so, they generally seemed to focus on wrong ideas (for *bad* students) and right ones (for *good* students) [good/ bad seen in terms of amount of both participation and relative precision of answers given];

(IV.4.4.) expand on them? The same observations as in (IV.3.3.) were made, but with the teachers expanding more when ideas came from good students;

(IV.4.5.) encourage the students? Most often, teachers seemed more concerned with right answers, thus with good students.

Though teachers' behaviour can be said to have been non-supportive in general, it was, within the limits of that non-supportiveness, more supportive for good than for bad students.

#### V. Classroom Control:

(V.1.) Did teachers encourage the students to rely on themselves for classroom climate control? (Generally speaking) No;

(V.2.) did they allow them to participate freely, (V.3.) encourage them to become the architects of classroom discipline, and (V.4.) allow them to join them in the making of classroom work and climate? (Generally speaking) No.

The classroom atmosphere was on the whole teacher-controlled.

#### VI. Student-student interaction:

(VI.1.) Did teachers encourage students to share information amongst themselves, by encouraging/ allowing them to (VI.1.1.) freely and spontaneously express their feelings, and (VI.1.2.) venture in making and testing assumptions? (Generally speaking) No.

(VI.2.) Did they help them increase their communication ability? No (generally speaking).

(VI.3.) Did they encourage them to (VI.3.1.) actively listen to each other? Not often;

(VI.3.2.) to participate in discussions? No (in general).

(VI.4.) Did they encourage them to create and get involved in activities in which they could learn about the possibility they had to assume different roles in the learning process? No (generally speaking).

*VII. Others:*

(VII.1.) The verbal and nonverbal languages used by teachers to speak to students (VII.1.1.), those used by students to speak to teachers (VII.1.2.), and those used by students to speak to each other (VII.1.3.):

**Table 5.: Types of Languages Used in Classroom Interactions**

Interactors	Verbal	Nonverbal
Teacher - student	yes (English)	yes
Student - teacher	yes (English) (French)*	no
Student - student	yes (English) (French + Ciluba)*	yes*

\* = use very much discouraged by teachers

(VII.2.) The verbal and nonverbal strategies (for instance gestures, eye and facial expressions, voice tones, body postures) used by teachers when talking to students (VII.2.1.), those used by students to talk to teachers (VII.1.2.), and those used by students when addressing each other (VII.1.3.):

VII.2.1. Teachers to students: mostly

(a) paraphrase/ repetition [(in English) of what teachers said, if students (usually the bright ones) seemed not to have understood];

(b) restructuring (the same explanation as in (a));

- (c) (re-) explaining (same explanations as in (a) and (b) above.
- (d) paralinguistic cues (gestures, facial expressions...) combined with verbal strategies (same explanations as above in VII.2.1. a, b, and c).

#### VII.2.2. Students to teachers:

- (a) Repairs, and requests/ appeals for help, ignorance pleas (very often in nonverbal form: discouraged by teachers)
- (b) Generalisations, meaning replacement, restructuring
- (c) Paralinguistic behaviours (use usually discouraged by teachers, mainly when they came from bad students)
- (d) Silences...

#### VII.2.3. Students to students:

- (a) Generalizations, paraphrase, restructuring...
- (b) Ignorance pleas, appeals for help (sometimes in French and also in Ciluba) usually combined with paralinguistic elements.
- (c) (Rarely) code-switching (from English to French, and Ciluba: usually one item or two at the very most, or an expression).
- (d) Replacement of intended meaning by another related meaning, and
- (e) Paralinguistic elements.

Most of these strategies were communicative productive. But teachers used to intervene and interrupt students, in an attempt to discourage the use of any other strategy (right or wrong) than *good* (verbal) English.

VII.3.: (Summarized English version of) answers to questions we put to 2nd, 3rd and 4th-form students and teachers:

Students:

- (1) Apart from pronunciation, English learning is not more difficult than learning any other language.
- (2) In general, yes.
- (3) Because teachers usually make fun of us whenever we happen to make mistakes. When X, Z... (names of some good students) make the same mistakes (or any other mistake, sometimes even worse than what we make), the teachers seem ready to help them correct them, without ridiculing them. They often interrupt us whenever we seem not to be on the right way. This

makes us feel that they do not want us to participate. They want us not to err as though at our present level of proficiency we can help it. Therefore, for fear of being laughed at, we just do not venture to speak.

(4) Teachers should treat all of us students in the same way, they should allow, encourage and let us speak and finish what we intend to say/ do, and then correct or help us correct our mistakes.

Teachers:

(1) No. If they did, they could have participated. They are not clever. They usually do not participate.

(2) Yes. We could teach them individually. But, as those students are not clever, if ever we concentrate our efforts on them, we will need much more time to get them to an acceptable level of proficiency. But as a consequence, we will 'sacrifice' the good students. Finally, not only we have no time to do it, but also we do not want to do such extra work for the salary we are being paid.

(3) No, it is not. But it is up to them (bad students) to do their best to revise their lessons so that they succeed (like others) in actively taking part in lessons. We do our best to encourage them to do so.

## 8.2. STUDENTS: PERCEPTIONS and BEHAVIOURS:

As said in the two preceding chapters, the four questionnaires were administered to students, and were basically our own conception.

As the questionnaire as such consisted of sections II and III (see Appendix 1.), we have decided to concentrate on them and, therefore drop section I as most of the information in it is, though in different terms, repeated in the above mentioned sections. Also, since most of the items overlap, we have found it beneficial to present them relative to their relatedness in topic and logical sequencing. Hence we have stuck to the grouping made during the description of the outline (see below).

As a consequence then, item results that belong to more topic groups are either presented only when they are described the first time, and then only mentioned (with reference to the first presentation) whenever they occur later, or grouped with those



in (logically) better sequence with them. In this latter case, it sometimes happens that results are presented in topic groups that come later in the presentation. Hence, only mention (by number) of them is made in the other cases where they are not described.

### 8.2.1. Questionnaires: Outlines and Results:

#### 8.2.1.1. 2nd, 3rd, and 4th-form students:

Totalling 224 individuals, these participants (together with 1st-year evening school students) were administered Questionnaire 1, whose outline and data results are described in the following lines.

##### 8.2.1.1.1. Questionnaire 1 Outline:

Questionnaire 1 was divided into three sections (see Appendix 1.1.a.):

(a) Section I comprised ten main items, numbered from (A) to (J), and was devoted to the informants' personal details (*Fiche signalétique du participant*);

Section II and Section III comprised together a total of sixty-two items subdivided as follows:

(b) entitled *Profil linguistique du participant* (Participant's linguistic profile), Section II comprised the first eight items. In broad terms, it was concerned with the students' position as to whether they would/ would not have chosen to study English were they given the option to choose (items 1, 2, and 3), the order in which they acquired the different languages they knew (item 4), what they themselves thought their proficiency in those languages was (item 5), their frequency of use of those languages outside and inside the classroom (items 6 and 7), and which of them they wished to be addressed in during English lessons (item 8);

(c) entitled *Stratégies et Techniques d'Apprentissage et de Communication* (Learning and Communication Strategies), Section III comprised fifty-four items and was mainly concerned with (1) the strategies the participants used to learn and communicate in English, those the teachers employed to teach and communicate with them, and (2) what participants thought English learning and teaching should be like.

It is in this sense that, since language learning involves many interrelated and over-

lapping factors, most of the topics covered by these items overlap. Hence the way we have grouped the items (see below) is only for the sake of clarity:

- (1) Process of (EF) language learning: items 9, 10, 12, 14, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, and 62.
- (2) English language teaching methodology: items 9, 10, 12, 13, 18, 19, 20, 24, 25, 26, 27, 49, 50, 51, 52, 55, 57, 60, 61, and 62.
- (3) Affect and Personality: items 14, 19, 20, 57 and 58.
- (4) English language use and frequency of exposure: items 11, 15, and 16, and
- (5) English language proficiency: items 17, 18, and 19.

Response modes used in this questionnaire included:

- (1) Multiple-choice (from two choices up);
- (2) Open-ended mode (i.e. requiring the students' opinions);
- (3) Items that required the participants to mention/ select elements;
- (4) Tick type, using:
  - (a) E, TB, B, AB, M, and CP;
  - (b) T, S, AS, Px, R, and J;
  - (c) Td, d, Ad, F, and Tf (cf. Appendix 1.b.).

#### 8.2.1.1.2. Results:

The summary (in form of frequency and percentage counts) of the data used in this section is given in Appendix 1.1.b. (Tables 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11).

The Participants' Linguistic Image (i.e. Section II) generated the following results:

The majority of informants (210 i.e. 93.75%) would have learnt English (even if it was not a compulsory curricular course) because first they liked it, and second they considered knowing it to be a key to better future job conditions and easy travelling around the world.

For those (6.25%) who would not have studied it, it would have been mainly because English is a very difficult language to learn [ITEMS 1, 2, 3].

All the participants acquired English consecutive to at least their mother tongue and French [ITEM 4]: it was a third language for 48 students (i.e. 21.42%), a fourth for 175 (i.e. 78.12%), and a fifth for 1 (i.e. 0.44%).

80.35% (against 17.85%) acknowledged that their oral proficiency in English (as compared to the one in their other languages) was poor [ITEM 5]. Hence speaking was pointed out to be the most difficult skill to achieve, followed by writing, listening and reading.

As compared to French and Ciluba, English was said to be more or less frequently used with the teacher of English, occasionally with classmates, and nearly never with family members [ITEM 6].

As to which among the languages they knew students used to talk to their English teacher and fellow students during English lessons, 44.63% used English quite often, whereas some few also sometimes used French and Ciluba. To address their classmates, all of them frequently used French and Ciluba, and rarely English and the other Zairean (national) languages [ITEM 7]. And nearly all of them (99.99%) preferred/ wished to be generally addressed in English during English lessons, with more occasional uses of French (59.81%) than Ciluba (33.47%) [ITEM 8].

As to section III data, they yielded the following results:

#### (1) PROCESS OF EF LANGUAGE LEARNING:

All 224 students pointed to speaking as the skill on which emphasis should be put during the first months of the training, because it is the ultimate goal in English language learning [ITEM 9]. Reading and writing should be dealt with subsequently. And although they recognised this, they nonetheless still found speaking English to be more difficult than understanding it [ITEM 12].

77.67% did not wish that the teacher correct them every time they made a mistake because this would impede their fluency, hence scare them to speak freely. Those who wished the opposite (22.32%) said it was because they had to end up speaking without mistakes [ITEM 10].

87.50% preferred to use whatever English they knew to speak to people who knew it as this would allow them to practise and master it. 12.50% opposed this position on grounds that they were afraid and ashamed to make mistakes: hence they said they preferred to speak only when sure of what to say and how to say it [ITEM 14].

Of the 90 (i.e. 40.17%) who said their command of English was somehow good [ITEM 17], 10 (11.11%) said it was due mainly to the teacher, 65 (72.22%) said it was basically thanks to their own efforts, and 15 (16.66%) said it was equally thanks to the teacher and their own efforts [ITEM 18]. No other factor was mentioned as being also responsible for that situation [ITEM 19].

As to all those who said their proficiency was poor (131, i.e. 58.48%), they blamed lack of both in- and out-class oral practice, and the fact that teachers usually worked more with bright than with weak students. And of these 131, 125 (i.e. 95.41%) also said that it was because they were required to speak only in good English (something they said they could not achieve) that they used to avoid talking, hence not practising English [ITEM 20].

All the informants believed that the other languages they knew helped them learn English [ITEM 21]. And amongst these languages, French was singled out as being the one they used most often [ITEMS 22 and 37], and thus the one that helped them most [ITEM 23].

Though used to a lesser degree, Ciluba and then Kiswahili came in second position. The main reason put forward to justify all these cases was the similarities existing between English and each of these languages: French was said to be more akin to English [ITEM 38] than either Kiswahili or Ciluba.

72.54% did not want the teacher to explain everything they did not know [ITEMS 24 and 25], and all 224 students did not wish either to be left alone to discover everything by themselves [ITEM 26]: 80.35% wanted the teacher to explain one part, and leave them to investigate the other in order to discover for themselves some of the mechanisms of the language [ITEM 27].

All 224 admitted that they most often thought first in the other languages they knew what they intended to say in English. And among these languages, French was once again mentioned as the most used, followed by Ciluba and Kiswahili [ITEM 29].

In the same way, all 224 also acknowledged borrowing into English elements of the other languages [ITEM 30], of which French once more occupied the top, followed by Ciluba and Kiswahili [ITEM 31].

They all 224 also admitted to translating mentally first into the other languages most English utterances they were exposed to before they could understand them in this language [ITEM 32]. And of the languages most translations were made in, French came again top, followed again by Ciluba and Kiswahili [ITEM 33].

All 224 also used paralinguistic means to convey meanings when speaking in English [ITEM 34], for they had to compensate for their lack of command in English [ITEM 35]. And they did so mostly without consciously having first planned it [ITEM 36].

All 224 again admitted to inventing words from words of the other languages they already knew [ITEM 39], of applying English phonology to words of these languages

so as to use them in English [ITEM 40], of avoiding English words they were not yet sure of, and replacing them by others they knew better, even if they did not exactly suit the original intended ideas [ITEM 41], and finally of avoiding speaking about some topics in English [ITEM 42]. They all mentioned not knowing the topics and lack of suitable (English) linguistic means as the major factor that compelled them to use these strategies, and 181 (i.e. 80.80%) also added fear and shame of making (verbal) mistakes [ITEM 43].

187 (i.e. 83.48%) did not see a handicap in the use of the other languages they knew to learn English [ITEM 44]: for them, those languages were a very important help, mainly during the initial stages of the learning process. Those who considered it a handicap (16.51%) argued that there was a danger of always resorting to those languages whenever learners would speak English.

99.21% accepted that they most often resorted first to guessings (based on the languages and the bits of English they already knew) to understand new English items [ITEMS 45 and 46]. Beside this, 88.16% also very often consulted their classmates they considered brighter than themselves. Fewer (24.55%) consulted the teacher.

Most participants also admitted that they used these same techniques (in nearly the same proportions) to learn to pronounce new English words. In the same way, over 90% acknowledged to very often resorting to comparison (of English grammar rules and those of the other languages) and use of short English key sentences to learn English grammar. Only a few resorted to memorization [ITEM 47].

To practise/ learn English outside English lessons, 75.89% resorted to listening to English radio programmes, and 13.08% talked to people who knew English [ITEM 48].

Opinions were nearly equally divided as to whether the teacher should explain everything in English: 50.89% opposed, and 49.10% accepted [ITEM 49]. Of the latter, 45.45% said he should do it always, and 54.54% often [ITEM 50]. Of the 50.89% who opposed, who were thus for the use of English and the other languages they knew, also 45.45% said he should do it frequently, and 54.54% sometimes [ITEM 51].

But though they basically rejected the use of Zairean national languages, the participants nonetheless admitted that Ciluba should be used in some very rare cases [ITEM 52]. And though all 224 also admitted to mentally monologizing in English [ITEM 53], only 25 (i.e. 11.15%) accepted doing it sometimes, while the majority (199, i.e. 88.88%) did it frequently [ITEM 54]. All of them too found it good for

students to start practising English speaking from the very beginning of the course, because it enormously helps learning [ITEM 55].

207 (i.e. 92.41%) more frequently mentally prepared what they intended to speak in English before they could actually utter it [ITEM 56]. And in nearly the same proportions, they preferred to have their mistakes corrected implicitly, because explicit correction made them nervous and angry [ITEMS 57 and 58].

Understanding the whole meaning of an English utterance was the strategy most used by 220 (i.e. 98.21%) to first comprehending whatever they were told in English [ITEM 59].

As for the type of tests and exams they wished they had [ITEMS 60 and 61], 203 (i.e. 90.62%) preferred a combination of oral and written forms because (they said) knowing English is synonymous with speaking and writing it, even though the former skill should undoubtedly far outweigh the latter. The other main reason they gave was that all students should be given relatively equal chance to succeed, as proficiency in the different aspects of English (oral and written) differed. As a consequence of having all the tests and exams written, most participants (194 i.e. 86.60%) did not feel the need and compulsion to do their best to learn to speak English [ITEM 62].

#### (2) EFL TEACHING METHODOLOGY:

For all the items concerned with this topic, except item 13, the results are already described in (1) above.

As for ITEM 13, it produced the following results: skills involving speaking (namely conversation and reading) were said to be relatively more difficult than those involving writing (namely composition). At the bottom of this decreasing difficulty scale were grammar, dictation and vocabulary, this latter being the least difficult of them all.

#### (3) AFFECT AND PERSONALITY:

As already shown in (1) above, most participants (i.e. 79.46%) said they would speak freely to any other people who speak English, provided they were not made to feel that they make mistakes. This, they said, would allow them, not only to practise this language, but above all to boost their confidence and strengthen their will to go on trying to speak [ITEMS 14, 20, 57 and 58].

#### (4) EFL USE AND EXPOSURE:

Most (i.e. 80.35%) students used English to read and translate what they read into French, or either of the languages they knew. Fewer (i.e. 33.48%) spoke and wrote it. Speaking was thus said to be the skill to which English was the least

applied, followed by writing. Reading and translating were the ones to which it was more applied, the latter being top [ITEM 11].

191 (i.e. 85.26%) admitted to listening to radio programmes in English. Among them, 20 (i.e. 10.47%) did it often, 100 (i.e. 52.35%) fairly often, 30 (i.e. 15.70%) sometimes, and 41 (i.e. 21.46%) rarely [ITEM 15]. But as to whether they watched English-speaking movies, nearly the same number (192, i.e. 85.71%) replied negatively. Of the 32 (i.e. 14.28%) who watched them, 75% did it rarely, 15.62% sometimes, and only 9.37% fairly often [ITEM 16].

(5) ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: [Results already presented in (1)].

Only 29 students made extra comments and suggestions:

- (1) 20 (i.e. 68.96%) wanted to be taught actual everyday instead of 'bookish' English.
- (2) 25 (i.e. 86.20%) wanted to be provided with suitable learning material such as books, audio cassettes and film strips.
- (3) 27 (i.e. 93.10%) wished that school time devoted to English should be increased.
- (4) 24 (i.e. 82.75%) wanted English teaching to start from primary school level.
- (5) They suggested that the teacher should do everything possible to make students understand (28, i.e. 96.55%), and like English (27, i.e. 93.10%). In this respect, they recommended that he should use appropriate methods and teaching aids so as to suit the learners' proficiency level. And in this particular case, 26 (i.e. 89.65%) insisted that the teacher must take the students for what they really are i.e. they know little English. Hence, he should slow down his speech delivery and lessons pace, and give explanations to those who require them.

#### 8.2.1.1.3. Summary:

The results above can be summarized in the following main points:  
On the whole, students liked studying English mainly for instrumental reasons. For all of the participants, English was but a foreign language, acquired consecutively to at least their mother tongues and French. As such, its mastery, particularly that of speaking, was poor. Hence their use of this language was infrequent, though they preferred to be talked to in it during English lessons, with occasional recourse to French than Ciluba or Kiswahili to help them understand English utterances whenever necessary.

Though difficult to master, speaking was said anyway to be the skill teachers

should give priority to, especially during the first stages of learning. Hence fluency and understanding should be more stressed than accuracy. This implies that teachers should correct students' mistakes only when they (students) fail to do so by themselves, and when mistakes really impede understanding. And all this correcting should be carried out tactfully so as not to frustrate the students.

Because fluency should be the ultimate aim, participants wished they should be allowed to resort to other verbal as well as nonverbal means to compensate for their lack of proficiency in English, something they usually did automatically via strategies such as translations, borrowings, phonological adjustments, paraphrasing, re-structuring (to mention only these). If allowed to do so, they would more freely and unrestrainedly practise their English.

Among the languages they were likely to use to effect this compensatory strategy, French was the most important because of its similarities with English. For fear of making mistakes, and thus be exposed to ridicule, most of them decided not to take part in (English) exchanges. In the same way, many also preferred frequently not to consult their teachers for help.

To motivate them to learn and master the speaking-understanding skill, but without neglecting the other language skills, they wished the testing system to combine oracy and writing, but with the former outweighing the latter.

So we think that in doing most of what precedes, teachers would help students learn the language and ultimately succeed in their enterprise because they would be following the natural process of EFL learning. Hence the good teacher of English is believed to be the one who, in spite of all the inconveniences, does his best to replicate this natural EFL learning process [Process of EF language learning + EFL teaching methodology + Affect and Personality + EF language use, exposure, and proficiency].

#### 8.2.1.2. 5th and 6th-form students:

Questionnaire 2 was the instrument we used to collect data for the 144 subjects who formed this category of learners.



### 8.2.1.2.1. Questionnaire 2 Outline:

Like Questionnaire 1, Questionnaire 2 was also divided into three sections (see Appendix 1.2.a.):

(a) like Section I in Questionnaire 1, Section I in this questionnaire comprised ten items, numbered from (A) to (J), and was also entitled *Fiche signalétique du participant*. And as such, it was also concerned with the participants' personal details.

(b) Entitled *Les facteurs affectifs et motivationnels* (Affective and motivational factors), Section II consisted of thirty-eight items (from item 1 to item 38), most of which, as the title suggests, were concerned with the students' social psychological factors, seen at work in the following five areas: (1) the participants' reasons for studying English (items 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, and 29, (2) factors contributing to success/ failure (items 1, 2, 3, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, and 32), (3) English language practice (items 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 24, 26, 28, 30, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, and 38), (4) English teaching methodology (items 19, 20, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, and 38), and (5) the position of English in the world and in Zaire (items 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 13, 14, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 31, and 32).

(c) Section III (*Les qualités du professeur idéal d'Anglais*: characteristics of the ideal teacher of English) consisted of thirty items, from item 39 to 68. Even though, as the title reads, it was chiefly concerned with those characteristics the participants thought the ideal (good) teacher of English should possess (items 39 to 64), this section also included items that referred to teaching methodology (items 65, 66, and 67), and affect (item 68). Once again, as in the case of Questionnaire 1, this one also ended with an invitation to the participants to discuss any new topic, or expand on those tackled in the items.

Response modes in this questionnaire were of three main types:

- (1) Tick type:
  - (a) simple;
  - (b) using 1, 2, and 3;
  - (c) using Oui/ Non;
  - (d) using Ti, I, Ai, Mi, Ne, and Pi;
- (2) items that required mentioning elements;
- (3) open-ended mode (cf. Appendix 1.b.).

As the reader will once again notice, the grouping we made in describing sections

II and III, and to some extent the response modes, is neither exhaustive nor exclusive. Indeed, since most topics concerned with in many of these items interrelate, and thus overlap, it was very difficult to draw neat boundaries between them, as it was to deal with them completely separate from one another.

#### 8.2.1.2.2. Results:

The summary (in form of frequency and percentage counts) of the data related to Questionnaire 2 is presented in Appendix 1.2.b. (Tables 12, 13, and 14).

Section II produced the following results:

##### (1) REASONS FOR STUDYING ENGLISH:

70.92% (against 21.42% and 7.63% undecided) admitted that their ultimate aim in learning English was not to become British in speech and behaviour, but basically to get later a good and well-paid job [ITEMS 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 25 and 29].

But although 52.08% (against 40.97%) liked English lessons [ITEM 24] and 50.69% (against 36.80%) liked more to speak English than either French or Zairean languages [ITEMS 26 and 28], and 76.38% (against 7.63%) liked more to speak French than Zairean languages [ITEM 27], 60.41% (against 32.29% and 7.29% undecided) would still have learnt it, had they been asked to choose, and accepted studying it because they wanted to [ITEMS 21 and 22].

Results of items 13, 14 and 23 are presented in point (2) below.

##### (2) SUCCESS/ FAILURE DETERMINANTS:

53.47% (against 38.19%) said they liked to learn English [ITEM 1], and about the same number (52.77%) said that, if they were given the chance to choose between learning either English or French, they would have opted for English [ITEM 2], and would like it to be taught from primary school level [ITEM 3].

91.66% said they felt more important when they spoke English than those Zaireans who only knew French [ITEM 13]. In the same line, 89.58% (against 9.02%) said they admired Zaireans who could speak both French and English [ITEM 14].

96.17% indicated that motivation to learn English increased the more they managed to speak it, and decreased the more unsuccessful they were [ITEMS 15 and 16]. Hence, even though only 56.25% found English difficult to learn [ITEM 23], 89.57% said that, because the teacher wanted them to use good English only, they decided altogether to withdraw from verbal exchanges taking place during lessons [ITEMS 17 and 18] as

they were afraid they would be laughed at if they made mistakes.

[As for the results of items 20, 21, 22, 24, 27, and 32) below, see: point (1) for 21, 22, 24, and 27, and point (4) for 20 and 32].

### (3) EFL PRACTICE:

The results of all the items covered by this topic are presented as follows: items 15, 16, 17, and 18 are in point (2); 19, 20, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, and 38 in point (4); 24, 26, and 28 in point (1).

### (4) EFL TEACHING METHODOLOGY:

75.96% (against 24.30%) said they were discouraged, nervous and disoriented whenever they were interrupted to be corrected [ITEM 20], and 84.71% (against 12.15%) would like to be allowed from time to time to resort also to their other languages, mainly during the first months of the course, to palliate their still mediocre command of English [ITEMS 19 and 30].

Although 54.86% liked their teacher of English [ITEM 32], opinions were divided as to whether they liked the ways used to teach them [ITEM 33]. For those (50%) who liked the ways used to teach them, and who also said the teacher encouraged them to learn English [ITEMS 34, 36 and 37], it was chiefly because the teacher used English, spoke clearly and adjusted his delivery tempo to their level; also because he obliged them to speak only in (good) English, and kept demonstrating how important it has become nowadays. But for those (also 50%) who were not satisfied [ITEM 35], it was mainly because the teacher obliged them to talk only in (good) English. This deterred them from venturing to speak for, in most cases, they did not possess the adequate skills to do so. Consequently, the teacher worked more with those who could manage, thus neglecting those who could not. Thirdly, they pointed out that he was so much concerned with finishing the lessons within the time allocated to him that he really did not care about how they learnt and understood what they were taught.

The main change most participants (90.27%) would however like to see introduced in the ways they were taught was that they should be given plenty of opportunities to express themselves freely, not only in good English, but also in whatever *bad* English they could afford to use [ITEM 38].

### (5) ENGLISH IN THE WORLD and IN ZAIRE:

For 75.34% of participants, English is the major international language today, and will remain so in the future [ITEM 31], even when confronted with French [ITEM 4]. But in spite of this position, 71.52% said that it will not easily take the place of

French in Zaire [ITEM 5], even though they still thought that it (rather than French) would help them travel easily to other countries [ITEMS 6 and 7].

The results of other items related to this topic are presented in:

point (1): items 12, 22, 24, 26, 27, and 28;

point (2): items 3, 13, 14, and 23; and point (4): item 32.

Section III generated the following results:

Among the twenty-four characteristics from which the students were asked to select those they thought depict the ideal/ good teacher of English, the following were said to be important: the teacher should

- (1) know and speak English well (100%: [ITEM 39])
- (2) answer and explain all the questions he is asked (100%: [ITEM 40])
- (3) accept being contradicted (100%: [ITEM 41])
- (4) explain well, clearly and briefly (100%: [ITEM 42])
- (5) not stress (good) pronunciation during the initial stages of learning (100%: [ITEM 45]), but the meaning of what is said (100%: [ITEM 46])
- (6) therefore correct pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm only when they seriously interfere with meaning (100%: [ITEM 47])
- (7) follow the official study programme, but adjust it to the realities of his class and environment (97.91%: [ITEMS 49 and 51])
- (8) emphasize speaking rather than writing (97.22%: [ITEM 54]), encourage students to always speak in English (100%: [ITEM 55]), and hence be tolerant with their mistakes and help them correct them (100%: [ITEM 56])
- (9) accept (without encouraging it) that students resort to their other languages and paralinguistic means whenever they really feel they have no other alternative to express themselves (79.16%: [ITEM 58])
- (10) design combined grammar, pronunciation, comprehension... exercises for students' language practice (100%: [ITEM 59])
- (11) encourage students to exclusively start to use English three to four months after the beginning of the course (98.61%: [ITEM 60]) and
- (12) encourage and allow them to speak more than he does (100%: [ITEM 61]).

The following were said not to be important:  
the teacher should (NOT)

- (1) do all the exercises for his students (94.44%: [ITEM 43])
- (2) correct all their mistakes (100%: [ITEM 44])

- (3) uncompromisingly follow the official study programme (94.09%: [ITEMS 48 and 50])
- (4) provide his students with plenty of grammar exercises (51.38%: [ITEM 52])
- (5) oblige them to memorize lists of items (93.05%: [ITEM 53])
- (6) ridicule them whenever they err (96.52%: [ITEM 57]) and
- (7) behave like an English man (59.02%: [ITEMS 62 and 63]).

When asked to point out the five characteristics they considered to be the most important, and the other five they believed to be the least important, participants gave the following choices which we have divided into three main groups for each of these two categories:

The five most important were:

Group 1: 48.61% mentioned items 46, 47, 55, 58, and 61; Group 2 i.e. 34.72% mentioned items 54, 56, 58, 59, and 61; the 16.66% who constituted Group 3 mentioned items 41, 47, 49, 58, and 61.

As most of these items are related, we have therefore grouped them into the following five macrocharacteristics, namely the good teacher

- (1) insists more on the meaning of what is said, and therefore corrects pronunciation mistakes only when they irredeemably jam understanding [ITEMS 46 and 47];
- (2) insists on *speech fluency* rather than accuracy and writing [ITEMS 45 and 54];
- (3) encourages students to take advantage of any possible opportunity to use English. Hence, for understanding's sake, he should allow them to resort to other means whenever they get stuck;
- (4) treats grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation... as indivisible parts of a whole: hence they should be dealt with together in exercises [ITEM 59];
- (5) allows and encourages learners to do most of the talking [ITEM 61].

As for the five least important characteristics, the choices made included

Group 1: 47.91% mentioned items 52, 53, 57, 62, and 63;

Group 2: 41.66% mentioned items 44, 48, 50, 57, and 62;

Group 3: 10.41% mentioned items 44, 50, 53, 57, and 62.

Hence the following five macrocharacteristics, namely the good teacher of English should NOT

- (1) correct all the mistakes made by his students [ITEM 44];
- (2) uncriticizingly apply the official course programme [ITEMS 48 and 50];
- (3) encourage rote learning, but understanding; and overemphasise accuracy to the

detriment of other aspects of language, notably fluency [ITEMS 52 and 53];  
 (4) in any way laugh at and ridicule students when they make mistakes [ITEM 57];  
 (5) necessarily behave like a British person [ITEMS 62 and 63].

As to the type of tests and exams the participants wished they were given, they all 144 preferred the combined oral-written type [ITEMS 65 and 66] (for the same reasons as those given by Q.1 students), and had, in this respect, said that, they did not feel compelled to do their best to learn to speak because the testing system was overwhelmingly written and geared to getting marks for passing from one class to another [ITEM 67].

As to whether or not the content of the texts used to teach them had a strong positive impact on their motivation and perseverance to go on learning English, 51.38% (against 48.61%) said that it had not [ITEM 68]. They argued that, although motivation and perseverance are increased when text content is interesting, this can really happen only when the student wants and desires to learn. Hence for them, motivation is the *sine qua non* for a text content (whether interesting or not) to have any real impact on learner's motivation.

Apart from these results, a number of participants also added the following comments:

- (1) 110 (i.e. 76.38%) wanted the number of hours devoted to English to be increased
- (2) 75.69% wanted to travel to English-speaking countries so as to practise their English
- (3) 68.75% wanted the teacher to allow them to use whatever English they could, even with mistakes, so as to encourage them to speak and,
- (4) 70.13% wanted him to devote most of his teaching time to *weak* students because they are the ones who really need his compassion and understanding.

#### 8.2.1.2.3. Summary:

The majority of participants claimed that they were actually learning English for instrumental reasons, for it has become the first major international language, and as such was quickly and increasingly competing with French in Zaire [Reasons for studying English and English in the world and in Zaire].

Although only just over 50% liked English lessons but said they would have however not chosen to study it had they been free to choose (even though they also

said they would prefer to study it rather than French), over 70% considered knowing English to be more important than speaking French and/ Zairean languages. They also pointed out that they could not well manage in this language mainly because they were frustrated by their lack of progress to speak *good* English, which ultimately generated fear/ shame of making mistakes. Hence their unwillingness to take part in lesson (verbal) activities, which thus reduced the already scarce opportunities they had to practise this language [Success/ failure determinants + EFL practice].

Because they were discouraged by their lack of proficiency in English, and particularly the numerous factors associated with it in relation to the way they were being taught, most would therefore like their teacher of English and all he was doing to teach them to be a motivating rather than a crippling factor. In other words, they would like him to take them as they were, i.e. acknowledge their weaknesses and strengths, and act accordingly, instead of assessing their performance on his. And to achieve this, he should teach in accordance with the (natural) way in which they actually learn English.

In line with this, and in order to encourage them to willingly learn to speak, he should test them on both oral and written performance, even though much more emphasis should be laid on oracy [EFL Teaching methodology + good teacher's characteristics].

#### 8.2.1.3. 1st-year ISP students:

It was Questionnaire 3 that was used to collect data for these 15 learners.

##### 8.2.1.3.1. Questionnaire 3 Outline:

As we said in chapters 6 and 7, Questionnaire 3 was basically Questionnaire 2, but to which eleven extra items were added (see Appendix 1.3.a.). It was also divided into three sections:

(a) as in Questionnaires 1 and 2, section I in this questionnaire was also devoted to the participants' personal details, the only difference being that it contained nine basic items (numbered from A to I) instead of ten;

(b) also entitled *Les facteurs affectifs et motivationnels*, section II had also 38 items which dealt with the same topics, and were grouped in the same way as in Q.2;

(c) section III was also entitled *Les qualités du professeur idéal d'Anglais*, and consisted not of thirty-eight but forty-one items distributed as follows:

items 39 to 64, 76, 77, 78, and 79 were the same as in Questionnaire 2, namely items 39 to 64 corresponded to Q.2 items 39 to 64, and items 76, 77, 78, and 79 to Q.2 items 65, 66, 67, and 68. Thus, out of the 79 items that composed Q.3, 68 were the same as in Q.2, and eleven (11) were different/ extra. These were items 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, and 75.

With the exception of item 65, which was the usual closing open-ended invitation to the informants, the other *extra* items were chiefly concerned with the participants' opinion as regarding (1) the position of English, and the amount of time to be devoted to it in courses provided in the department of English (items 66, 67, 68 and 69), (2) the reasons why they were still learning this language (items 70, 71 and 72), and (3) their degrees of motivation (and subsequent reasons) from the start of the learning process till the time the questionnaire was submitted to them (items 73, 74 and 75). As with Q.1 and Q.2, this questionnaire also ended with an invitation to the students to comment upon any other matter they wished to (see Appendices 1.1.a., 1.2.a. and 1.3.a.).

Response modes in this questionnaire were also of three main types:

- (1) Tick type:
  - (a) simple;
  - (b) using 1, 2, and 3;
  - (c) using Oui/ Non;
  - (d) using Ti/ I/ Ai/ Mi/ Ne/ Pi;
- (2) mentioning of elements;
- (3) open-ended mode (cf. Appendix 1.b.).

The same remarks we formulated above concerning Questionnaire 2, namely about the grouping of items and modes of response, also apply to Questionnaire 3.

#### 8.2.1.3.2. Results:

The summary (in form of frequency and percentage counts) of the data used in the next paragraphs is given in Appendix 1.3.b. (Tables 15, 16, and 17).

Section II generated the following results:



## (1) REASONS FOR STUDYING ENGLISH:

60.94% of participants (against 26.66% and 12.37% undecided) pointed out that, being nonnative speakers of English, their real aim in learning English was neither to speak it as perfectly as British people, nor to behave completely like them, but to be able later to find a good job, and manage in their field of specialization [ITEMS 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 25 and 29].

Nearly all of them (93.30% against only 6.66% undecided) liked English lessons [ITEM 24], and 73.30% (against 13.30% and 13.30% undecided) liked more to speak English than either French or Zairean languages [ITEMS 26 and 28], and 60% (against 20% and 20% undecided) liked to speak French than Zairean languages [ITEM 27]. Still in the same way, 76.65% (against 13.30% and 9.95% undecided) accepted to be studying English, not because it was compulsory, but because they wanted to. Hence they still would have learnt it even if it was optional [ITEMS 21 and 22].

## (2) SUCCESS/ FAILURE DETERMINANTS:

93.30% (against only 6.60% undecided) admitted that they liked learning English [ITEM 1], and 73.30% (against 6.60% and 20% undecided) said they would have chosen to study it were they asked to choose between it and French [ITEM 2]; but only 53.30% (against 40% and 6.60% undecided) wished it should be learnt from primary school [ITEM 3].

Whenever they spoke English, 86.60% (against 13.30%) felt more important than their countrymen who knew French only [ITEM 13], and 80% (against 6.60% and 13.30% undecided) acknowledged admiring Zaireans who knew both English and French [ITEM 14].

79.95% (against 13.30% and 6.60% undecided) pointed out that the more they managed to speak English, the more motivated to learn it they were; the less they did, the more discouraged they became [ITEMS 15 and 16]. Hence, even though only 33.33% (against 33.33% and 33.33% undecided) found English difficult to study [ITEM 23], 73.30% (against 26.65%) said that, because they were required to use (good) English only, they usually did not participate in lessons whenever they felt they would be laughed at should they make mistakes [ITEMS 17 and 18].

## (3) EFL PRACTICE:

The results of items under this heading are presented in points (1) [items 24, 26 and 28], (2) [items 15, 16, 17 and 18], and (4) [items 19, 20, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38].

#### (4) EFL TEACHING METHODOLOGY:

80% of participants (against 6.60% and 13.30% undecided) said they were discouraged and disoriented when someone interrupted them to correct them [ITEM 20], and 63.30% (against 33.30% and 3.30% undecided) wished to be allowed, especially during the early stages of learning, to resort to their other languages to compensate for their still poor command of English [ITEMS 19 and 30].

66.60% (against 33.30%) liked their teachers of English [ITEM 32], and 60% (against 40%) said they liked the ways they were taught [ITEM 33], mainly because they were required to use English only and were often told about the benefits they could draw from knowing English, which (they said) encouraged and allowed them to practise it [ITEMS 34 and 37]. Those who did not like them pointed out that it was mainly because teachers did not give them enough chance to practise during lessons: they (teachers) were more concerned with how to deliver the lesson (planned) contents in the time allocated to them in the timetable, and hence they monopolized speech, and most often spoke to and with only those students who could manage well [ITEM 35]. For this reason (they said), teachers discouraged them [ITEM 36].

But nearly all 15 (i.e. 86.66%) were unanimous to point out that the main change they would like to see introduced in EFL teaching methodology was that they should be given more opportunities to express themselves. This would allow teachers to actually have better understanding of how, why, and what they were learning, and teach them accordingly [ITEM 38].

#### (5) ENGLISH IN THE WORLD and IN ZAIRE:

Though 73.33% (against 15.53% and 11.10% undecided) indicated that English is nowadays the major international language, and will still be so in the future [ITEMS 4 and 31], only 60% (against only 40% undecided) said that, in the future, it will be more important than French in Zaire [ITEM 5].

In the same way, only 50% (against 13.30% and 36.60% undecided) said English (rather than French) would be of great help to them if they were to travel to other countries [ITEMS 6 and 7].

[Results of items 12, 22, 24, 26, 27 and 28 are presented in point (1), those of items 3, 13, 14 and 23 in point (2), and of item 32 in point (4)].

As for section III, it produced the following results:

Out of the twenty-four characteristics defining the ideal teacher of English, the participants selected as important and not important the same characteristics as those

chosen by Q.2 students (see Table 32: Appendix 3.13.).

As to which five are the most important and which five are the least important characteristics, the participants' choices (expressed in two groups) were as follows:

The five most important were:

(1) 66.60% mentioned items 39, 54, 55, 58 and 60, and (2) 33.30% mentioned items 41, 42, 49, 56 and 61. Hence, the five most important macrocharacteristics can be said to be: the good teacher (1) has good command of English, and gives clear, short and good explanations [ITEMS 39 and 42]; (2) stresses spoken language [ITEM 54]; (3) encourages students to speak [ITEMS 41, 55, 56, 58 and 61]; (4) encourages them to start using English early in their training [ITEM 60], and (5) adjusts the official course programme to the realities of his class [ITEM 49].

The five least important were:

(1) 80% mentioned items 48, 50, 53, 57 and 62, and (2) 20% mentioned items 40, 44, 50, 57 and 62. Hence the five least important macrocharacteristics can be understood as saying that the good teacher should NOT (1) correct all the mistakes made by his students, or explain/ solve all the problems they encounter [ITEMS 40 and 44], (2) uncompromisingly apply the official course programme [ITEMS 48 and 50], (3) compel students to memorize lists of words, grammar rules... [ITEM 53], (4) ridicule them when they make mistakes [ITEM 57], and (5) necessarily behave like a British [ITEM 62].

Concerning the types of tests and exams they wished teachers should use, 60% preferred a combination of oral and written forms, but with the oral type predominating [ITEMS 76 and 77]. Their justifications for this can be summarized in: (1) although as a language, English is to be both spoken and written, it is nevertheless true that it is primarily intended to be spoken; (2) to give equal chance to all students to be assessed on the same grounds, thus allow them to have equal chance of getting good marks, and (3) to reduce/ counter teachers' bias in marking.

It was therefore because of the predominance of the written mode in the testing system that all 15 (100%) participants pointed out that tests and exams did not really encourage them to do their best to master spoken English [ITEM 78].

And again, the majority (80% against 20%) did not think that text contents could possibly have any big influence on their perseverance to learn if they were not in the first place motivated to do so [ITEM 79].

Items 66 to 75 generated the following results:

(1) ENGLISH AND EXPOSURE (to it in the department of English):

60% (against 40%) would like all the courses in this department to be taught in this language [ITEM 66]. Hence nearly the same number rejected the use of French as a medium of instruction in this department [ITEMS 67 and 68]. But all 15 (100%) wanted the number of hours devoted to this language and all the courses taught in it to be increased [ITEM 69].

(2) REASONS FOR LEARNING ENGLISH AFTER SECONDARY SCHOOL  
+ (3) DEGREES OF MOTIVATION:

All 100% replied positively [ITEM 70] to the question of whether they had willingly chosen to learn English after their secondary school studies: 60% said it was because they liked it and also knew that it was the most important international language the knowledge of which they would largely benefit from; 20% said it was due to the fact that English was the course they understood better in secondary school, and which they ultimately ended up liking; and for the remaining 20%, it was because they wanted to travel, and saw in English the only language that could help them make their dream come true [ITEM 71]. And all these reasons explained why all of them indicated that they were still motivated to go on learning this language [ITEMS 73 and 74].

#### 8.2.1.3.3. Summary

In general, like Q.2 participants, learners in this group were also studying English for instrumental reasons, and derived more prestige from their knowledge of this language because of the eminent position it occupies and will still occupy in the world, and in Zaire and Eastern Kasai in particular. Hence they would still have learnt it even if it was not a compulsory secondary school course. All of them opted for English studies at the university level for a number of reasons (ranging from ease in learning to material profit) that culminated in their liking it. Hence their motivation was still strong [Reasons for learning English + English in the world and in Zaire+ motivations]

Though all of them were still motivated in their efforts to learn this language, these were often stifled by the ways teachers proceeded to teach them, especially the amount of talk they were allowed, the ways they were corrected and the requirement that they should use only good English. Thus, they wished their teachers could

understand their dilemmas and give them more freedom and opportunities to practise the language than they had had so far [Success/ failure determinants + EFL Teaching methodology + EFL practice and exposure].

#### 8.2.1.4. 2nd and 3rd-year ISP students:

These students were 30 and were given Questionnaire 4.

##### 8.2.1.4.1. Questionnaire 4 Outline:

Once again, as said in the two preceding chapters, this questionnaire was basically the same as Q.3, the difference being that it contained 87 items, divided into three sections (see Appendix 1.4.a.):

- (a) section I was (in number and type of information required) the same as the corresponding section in Questionnaire 3,
- (b) so was section II (items 1 to 38);
- (c) section III comprised not only all the items in Q.3 section III (items 39 to 75, and 84, 85, 86 and 87), but also eight extra ones (items 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82 and 83). With the exception of item 76 which was concerned with the participants' opinion as regarding EFL teaching methodology they were trained in, all the remaining seven (7) extra items dealt mainly with the EFL learning process (see Appendices 1.2., 1.3. and 1.4.).

As in Questionnaire 3, response modes in this questionnaire were also of three main kinds:

- (1) Tick kind
  - (a) simple;
  - (b) using 1/2/3;
  - (c) using Oui/ Non;
  - (d) using Ti/ I/ Ai/ Mi/ Ne/ Pi;
  - (e) using 1 and 2;
  - (f) using a/b/c to select elements;
- (2) mentioning of elements;
- (3) open-ended mode (cf. Appendix 1.b.).

Once again, remarks made for Q.3 concerning items grouping and response modes

also apply to this questionnaire.

#### 8.2.1.4.2. Results:

The following results are based on the summary (in form of frequency and percentage counts) of the data related to Questionnaire 4 (see Appendix 1.4.b.: Tables 18, 19, and 20).

Q.4 section II yielded the following results:

##### (1) REASONS FOR STUDYING ENGLISH:

73.33% of participants (against 23.33% and 3.33% undecided) indicated that their actual aim in learning English was neither to speak it as perfectly as its native speakers do, nor to take over all their ways, but to manage satisfactorily in their field of specialization and get later a good well-paid job [ITEMS 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 25 and 29].

90% of them (against 6.66% and 3.33% undecided) liked English lessons [ITEM 24], and 73.33% (against 8.33% and 18.33% abstention) preferred to speak English than any of the other languages they knew [ITEMS 26 and 28], and 60% (against 10% and 30% undecided) liked to speak French than Zairean languages [ITEM 27].

In the same way, all (100%) of them admitted that they were studying English because they freely chose that option, and could have done so even if it was not compulsory at secondary school level [ITEMS 21 and 22].

##### (2) SUCCESS/ FAILURE DETERMINANTS:

Although all (100%) liked English and would have chosen it were they asked to choose between it and French, and felt more proud whenever they spoke it and admitted that they admired their country fellows who could manage in both English and French, only 76.66% (against 16.66% and 6.66% undecided) wished it should be taught from primary school level [ITEM 3].

83.33% (against only 16.66%) revealed that increase/ decrease in their motivation was related to their ability to perform in this language [ITEMS 15 and 16]. Hence, even though only 56.66% ( against 40% and 3.33% undecided) said English is difficult to learn [ITEM 23], the majority of them [79.99% against 18.33% and 1.66% undecide) acknowledged that they were afraid to participate and did not participate in lessons whenever they suspected they would be ridiculed if they happened to make mistakes, a thing they could not avoid as teachers expected them to speak only in (good) English [ITEMS 17 and 18].

## (3) EFL PRACTICE:

All items covered by this heading are dealt with in points (1) [items 24, 26 and 28], (2) [items 15, 16, 17 and 18], and (4) [items 19, 20, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38].

## (4) EFL TEACHING METHODOLOGY:

60% of participants (against 33.33% and 6.66% undecided) felt bad every time they were interrupted to be corrected [ITEM 20], and nearly the same number (56.66% against 43.33%) wanted teachers to allow them to resort, from time to time and mainly during the first stages of the course, to their other languages to palliate their poor performance [ITEMS 19 and 30]. And around the same number again (i.e. 56.66%) liked their teachers of English and the methods used to teach them, especially the exclusive use of English as the teaching medium because this compelled them to practise this language, and also the fact that teachers frequently spoke about the benefits one could draw from knowing English. Those who did not like both teachers and teaching methods, and who were therefore often discouraged, said it was chiefly because teachers monopolized class talk and did not pay the attention they should have to students' learning process and feelings: they were often too concerned with finishing the contents of their lessons within the time limits allowed by the time-table [ITEMS 32, 33, 34, 35, 36 and 37].

But in spite of these different opinions, all of them agreed that the main change to be introduced in teaching methods should be (1) to allow them to talk more and (2) ask teachers to be tolerant and understanding with how they were learning and feeling so as to help them solve the dilemmas they usually faced [ITEM 38].

## (5) ENGLISH IN THE WORLD and IN ZAIRE:

Although nearly all of them (92.22% against 7.77%) pointed out English as today and tomorrow's major world language [ITEMS 4 and 31], and 83.33% (against 15% and 1.66% undecided) said it was the one language that would help them a lot if they were to travel [ITEMS 6 and 7], only 76.66% (against 16.66% and 6.66% undecided) accepted the possibility of it becoming more important than French in tomorrow's Zaire [ITEM 5].

(Results of other items dealing with this topic are presented in points (1) [items 12, 22, 24, 26, 27 and 28], (2) [items 3, 13, 14 and 23], and (4) [items 32]).

As for section III data, they produced the following results:

With the exception of items 40 and 52 where opinions were equally divided, Q.4 participants made the same choices as Q.2 and Q.3 students as regarding important

and not important good teacher characteristics (see Table 32: Appendix 3.13.).

As to which five were the most important and which five the least important, choices were made as follows:

Four groups of participants (in %) made the following selections: 50% selected items 46, 47, 51, 58 and 61; 20% selected 46, 47, 49, 54 and 59; 16.66% selected 39, 41, 42, 45 and 46; and 13.33% chose 47, 54, 56, 58 and 60. As is evident, these can be summarized as meaning that the good teacher of English should (1) give priority to meaning and correct pronunciation only when it prevents the former being grasped [ITEMS 45, 46, 47 and 59]; (2) compromise between official instructions and his students' process of learning [ITEMS 49, 51 and 56]; (3) explain clearly, well and briefly [ITEMS 39 and 42]; (4) allow his students more freedom of speech [ITEMS 41 and 61], and (5) give priority to speech rather than writing [ITEM 54] and hence tolerate that learners resort to other means of expression whenever they are completely stuck [ITEMS 54, 58 and 60].

The participants fell into two groups as regarding the least important characteristics: 63.33% mentioned items 48, 50, 52, 57 and 62, and 36.66% chose 48, 50, 57, 62 and 63. We thus understood these to mean that the good teacher of English should NOT (1) follow the official instructions to the letter [ITEMS 48 and 50], (2) make of grammar exercises the main language practice tool [ITEM 52], (3) ridicule his students [ITEM 57], and (4) necessarily behave like a British person [ITEMS 62 and 63].

As regards the types of tests and exams they would like to have, all (100%) preferred the combined oral-written system, with emphasis being nonetheless laid on the oral skill, this because English is first of all learnt to be spoken [ITEMS 84 and 85]. Hence all of them pointed out that the testing/ exam system used so far did not encourage them to learn to speak the language [ITEM 86].

As to whether motivation/ perseverance was increased by text contents, 60% said it was not [ITEM 87]. [The reasons for and against given by participants as regarding items 84, 85, 86 and 87 were the same as those given on the same issues by Q.1, Q.2 and Q.3 students (see Q.1 items 60, 61 and 62, Q.2 items 65, 66, 67 and 68, and Q.3 items 76, 77, 78 and 79).

Items 66 to 83 yielded the following results:

(1) POSITION OF ENGLISH and EXPOSURE (to it in the department of English):

Although only 70% indicated that they wished all the courses in the department



should be taught in this language [ITEMS 66 and 67], all 100% of them would like all the courses directly related to English to be taught in English and the number of hours devoted to them increased [ITEMS 68 and 69].

(2) REASONS FOR LEARNING ENGLISH AFTER SECONDARY SCHOOL + DEGREES OF MOTIVATION:

After their secondary school studies, all the participants freely chose to specialize in English because they mainly wanted to get later the benefits they believed/ were led to believe this language would bring to them [ITEMS 70 and 71]. Generally speaking, their motivation to go on learning was still high as they increasingly hoped to see their expectations fulfilled [ITEMS 73 and 74].

But though all were still motivated, 70% complained about the gap existing between what they were asked/ taught to do and what they actually should do. Put in other words, they complained about the paradox existing between theory and practice: they were asked to make students participate in lessons while the *English only* method they were told to use and were actually using did not and could not allow students to perform satisfactorily, i.e. to speak [ITEM 76].

(3) EFL LEARNING PROCESS:

All (100%) participants indicated that, because it was natural and inevitable for their students (as it was for themselves), they sometimes resorted to bits of their other languages (mainly French) and nonverbal means such as gestures, eye and facial expressions, body postures, and that they also invented new words, expressions, rules... from both their other languages and the bits of English they already knew to convey messages [ITEMS 77, 78, 79, 80 and 81].

In the same line of thought, they all also admitted however that strategies based on other means than English decreased the more the learners knew of English, and that consequently recourse to English and English-based strategies were on the increase [ITEMS 82 and 83].

Repeating in different terms what they indicated throughout the questionnaire items, the majority of participants (83.33%) made extra comments that can be summarized as saying that (1) the aim of English teaching should be to help students speak, not only good grammatical (i.e. bookish) English, but also and above all the English ordinary English people use in their daily life; hence (2) emphasis should be laid on speaking rather than getting good marks for passing classes. In other words, stress should be put on spontaneity and fluency, and teachers should unreservedly

selves, while the majority were inactive. As shown in Tables 6.a. and 6.b. (where we have considered only results from vocabulary, grammar and reading lessons, as these are the ones where students' participation greatly depends on their own free will, than conversation where it is on the whole controlled by teachers), even though student participation progressively increased from 2nd throughout to 6th form, teacher talk dominated in all lessons, and most of the few talk made by students was in the main directed more to teachers than to each of themselves:

(a)

Table 6.a.: Relative Total Number (in %) of Students who Talked to

(1) teachers	32.37
(2) each other	21.72

(b)

Table 6.b.: Relative Total Number (in %) of Students' Speech Quantity

Sp.Quantity	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	Mean totals
spoke more	19.23	22.40	22.76	25	30	23.87
spoke less	26.15	29.60	26.01	45	30.30	31.41
did not sp	54.61	48	51.21	30	39.39	44.64

As regards the rate of use by students of recognition, rote memory and selective recall cognitive processes, the data suggested that 2nd, 3rd and 4th form students resorted more to the first and second processes, whereas 5th and 6th formers, though also using them, were shifting more and more to selective recall.

The data also revealed that teachers were generally more concerned with students' answers and behaviours they were expecting from them, and were more inclined to positively reward good students by for instance expanding/ commenting on what they said and how they behaved or encouraging them to take risks. Their reactions to weak students' replies and behaviours were on the whole discouraging: their comments focussed on wrong answers and behaviours; when they did comment on right ones, this was frequently done in a way that it went unnoticed. Therefore, though in general teachers' behaviours did not support students' learning efforts, this was more the case

for weak than bright students.

Because of teachers' overall control on what students said and did during lessons, and also because of the ways they reacted to them, student-to-student interactions were minimal and classroom discipline and atmosphere largely teacher-controlled.

As concerning the types of verbal and nonverbal linguistic means used by teachers and students to communicate, students were requested to use (when talking to teachers or to each other) only (good grammatical) English, and recourse to French or any other of their languages or nonverbal communication means was strongly resented by teachers. These (the teachers), on the contrary, resorted to any possible means of communication other than English to make themselves understood by students.

About the questions we asked twenty of those students who did not participate in lessons, all these twenty students were unanimous in indicating that the main reason why they were inactive during lessons lay, not in the relative difficulty associated with English learning, but with their teachers' de-motivating and frustrating attitude towards the majority weak students, an attitude that left them with no other option than to try to protect their self-esteem. And the only means at their disposal then was to withdraw from most classroom activities.

### 8.2.3. Summary of Results from Student Data

As the heading reads, this point is about the summary of all the results of students' questionnaires and lesson observations in relation to these participants. Our main concern here is therefore to present these findings and compare the different results obtained so as to make similarities and differences emerge. To do this, we have considered all the different groupings we made when presenting the results in 8.2.1.1.2., 8.2.1.2.2, 8.2.1.3.2. and 8.2.1.4.2. We have therefore ended up with five main areas of interest, namely (1) reasons for learning English, (2) EFL learning, (3) EFL teaching approach, (4) Teaching aids, and sociopsychological variables in EFL learning.

But as all these areas interrelate and overlap, and in order to retain most of this interdependence, we have decided, not to deal individually with each at a time, but with them all together. We found this approach more contributing to the clarity, and especially understanding of the findings.

As the data indicated, particularly results of Q.1 item 4, English is learnt in

As the data indicated, particularly results of Q.1 item 4, English is learnt in Eastern Kasai consecutive to at least the students' mother tongue and French, the official and instruction language. Its usage is restricted mainly to English lessons, and its use by people (other than the few Americans and British who visit/ work in the area and those Zaireans who have learnt it) is quite <sup>low</sup>inexistent. In such circumstances, it is clear why the large proportion of participants found it difficult to orally use English, a fact that (amongst others) obviously contributes to their poor proficiency in it.

But even though this was the case, most of them would do their best to take advantage to the fullest of the few practice opportunities they would get. But their will to do so was stifled, not directly by their poor performance, but by the teaching techniques used to teach them, which did not allow them to freely and often speak the language: teachers neglected the majority poor performers as they rushed to finish their lessons; they did not allow them enough time and consideration to express their ideas as they could and wished to; they usually interrupted them even before they could show what they knew and did not know. Thus, although most of them understood what the lessons were about and could somehow play an active part in them, they nonetheless *preferred* not to get involved lest they would be shamed/ ridiculed by teachers' behaviours and, by extension, those of their few fellow students who could manage better.

It was therefore the reason why all of them (plus even those who could manage better) pointed out that the main change they would like to see introduced in the ways they were taught English was to optimize learners' *freedom of speech* and opportunities to use this language, hence to improve their speaking ability. Therefore, because they were still incapable of speaking English without making mistakes (as their teachers wanted them to), they wished teachers should allow them to resort to their other languages (particularly French) and nonverbal means to compensate for their poor command, hence enable them to communicate.

In the same way, they wanted tests and exams systems to be geared more towards helping them learn to communicate verbally than towards achieving correctness at all costs and getting marks for passing classes. In relation to this, they indicated that the good teacher is the one who cares for their feelings, understands and helps them learn according to the way they, as learners of English as a foreign language, should normally learn it.

The above results were also confirmed by those of the lessons observations we

made, though they specifically apply to students at secondary school level only: teacher talk largely dominated exchanges during lessons; even though it slightly decreased the higher the student study levels, only few students spoke (23.87%), whereas the large majority either did not speak (44.64%), or spoke little (31.41%). The direction of the exchanges was also largely teacher-student and student-teacher than students-students. Therefore, though generally speaking teachers' ways of handling teaching/ learning process did discourage students and contribute to the development in them of feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, feelings which in turn engendered de-motivation, they nonetheless did much more damage on the majority weak than bright students.

The results also suggested that, though initial motivation to learn English was strong enough in all the participants, the degree of motivation and will to persevere was shown to be related to the relative success they felt they were making in performing/ managing to perform in this language. Hence shown to be more motivated and persevering were the minority who could more or less perform successfully, whereas the majority poor performers were rapidly losing the will and motivation to fight and go on.

The same phenomenon was also observed in relation to the difference in study levels: the more the motivation and will to go on learning increased, the higher the study level (for instance the difference between 5th and 6th forms, and between these and ISP students). But in spite of this, the general trend portrayed by the results still showed a decrease in initial motivation, hence less perseverance.

### 8.3. TEACHERS: PERCEPTIONS and BEHAVIOURS

As we said in chapter 7, especially in point 7.2., all 38 EFL teachers (i.e. 33 from secondary schools and 5 from ISP) who took part in the investigation were given interviews. They were all qualified to teach EFL, and had fairly long professional experience (see Table 21: Appendix 2.1.4.). Apart from their different degrees in TEFL qualification and school levels where they were teaching, all these teachers (we believed) had to face more or less the same problems and had similar experiences in TEFL. Hence we decided to use the same interview for all of them.

### 8.3.1. Interview: Outline and Results:

#### 8.3.1.1. Outline:

In the following paragraphs, we have dealt, not with all the three parts that constituted the interview format, i.e. interviewees' personal details, interview guide and schedule, but only with the latter for it is the one that actually made up the interview as such (see Appendix 2.1.3., especially point II). It was divided into two.

We devoted the first part to collecting personal details sheets (where they were given beforehand), and introducing to the teachers the aims we intended to reach, and the procedure we had to follow to successfully conduct the interview. The second (and most important part) was the interview itself. It consisted of thirty-nine core questions/ statements, spread over six different sections. Entitled *Processus d'Apprentissage et Stratégies de communication* (Learning and Communication Strategies), section I focussed on five main areas of the EFL learning process: (1) the role/ importance of prior linguistic knowledge [Items 1 and 2], (2) that of nonverbal means [Item 3], (3) whether the use of the above in EFL learning is normal, thus natural and inevitable [Item 4], (4) the reasons why learners resort to them [Items 5 and 6], and (5) the trend (progressive/ regressive) in the use of these during the learning process [Items 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11].

Concerned with affective and motivational factors in EFL, section II concentrated on: (1) students' motivation/ perseverance in learning English [Item 12], and (2) teachers and society's influence on the above [Items 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18].

Section III was devoted to EFL teaching methodology, and focussed on: (1) the methods used to teach vocabulary, grammar, reading and conversation, and the importance they allocated to accuracy and fluency [Items 19 and 20], (2) students' behaviours in relation to these methods [Item 21], (3) similarities/ differences between EFL methods teachers were using and those they were taught/ trained to use [Item 22], and (4) conclusions as regarding elements of a good EFL teaching method [Items 23 and 24].

As to section IV, it comprised only one broad item [Item 25] which was concerned with the characteristics of a good EFL learner.

Section V was devoted to: (1) tests and exams systems [Item 26], (2) their impact on learners' motivation/ perseverance to learn to speak English [Item 27], teachers'

suggestions regarding this matter [Items 28 and 29], and (3) the possibility, necessity and feasibility of adapting textbooks to local environments [Item 30].

The last section (VI) focussed on the teaching of English in Eastern Kasai, namely (1) the meaning teachers attached to 'success/ failure' in relation to students' performance [Item 31], (2) whether and why ELT in this area was or was not a success/ failure, and their suggestions as to how to improve it (in case it was/ was not a failure) [Items 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 and 38], and (3) the probable impact on people and material involved, and how to solve problems that could arise in case changes/ improvements were to be introduced [Item 39].

As in the case of Questionnaires, the interview also ended in an open-ended invitation to the interviewees to raise and talk about any other matter they wished to.

#### 8.3.1.2. Results:

All 38 teachers acknowledged that the linguistic knowledge students had prior to learning English was an important and helpful factor on the road to success and that, in the case under study, it was mainly French that they would more resort to because it has more in common with English than the other languages they knew [ITEMS 1 and 2]. They also pointed out that, in addition to this linguistic past experience, students also resorted to nonverbal means (gestures, mimes, facial expressions...) to express/ convey what they meant [ITEM 3]. This practice, they said, is natural, thus normal because, due to their lack of adequate English (verbal) means that could allow them to use this language more effectively, students, not only of English as a foreign language, but of all foreign languages, have recourse to what they know better and nonverbal cues to communicate in the language they still do not yet master. Hence, their students' using of it should in no way be considered as a sign of lack of intelligence [ITEMS 4, 5 and 6].

As evidence that the use of this strategy is related to the degree of mastery of the language being studied, they pointed to the fact that the more their students knew English, the less they resorted to this strategy, and the more they relied on English or English-based strategies to communicate in this language. This also happened to themselves when they were students, and was still true even at the time the present interview was taking place: they were using less and less of this strategy because their

knowledge of English was increasing. So, in short, they said there was a relationship (Progression-Regression) between degree in knowledge of English and use of non-English (verbal) means and nonverbal cues.

They also indicated that the use of non-English verbal means was often mental whereas that of non-verbal ones was usually exhibited openly.

Although they recognized the (positive) importance of prior linguistic knowledge and nonverbal means in EFL, they nonetheless pointed out that it might also have a negative impact if students get used to resorting to it even when they could avoid it [ITEMS 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11].

All of them were also agreed that, there existed a big difference between their students' attitude at the start, during and by the end of the course: prior to and upon starting the course, nearly all the students showed very high enthusiasm and expectancy level to learn English. But as the course progressed, and mainly by the end of the first six months or so, students' degree of interest started to dwindle. But at the same time, a minority group (those who were managing satisfactorily) started to emerge, and their motivation to learn the language was increasing. This trend went on up to the sixth form. Then (as ISP teachers pointed out), most of those who chose to specialize in and actually entered the English department on the whole showed increasing interest and motivation, and the more they successfully used the language, the more motivated they became. Put differently, the data suggested that, generally speaking, students' degree of effort in learning English decreased from 2nd to 6th form secondary school, and was on the increase from 1st to 3rd year ISP [ITEM 12].

Both secondary school and ISP teachers acknowledged that their attitudes and ways of teaching on the one hand, and the society's perceptions towards English on the other had largely influenced students' motivation and perseverance to learn this language. But they insisted that, in Eastern Kasai, teachers' influence was bigger because they (the teachers) and the lessons they provided were the only major opportunity that really and psychologically shaped and conditioned students' attitudes towards English. Hence, society's influence, though important prior to students' starting of and still present during the course, became if not secondary but subjected to and worked in the shadow of the teachers' [ITEMS 13, 14, and 15].

They all also pointed out that, in Zaire, French and English had higher status than Zairean national languages, and that, though French (because of its long Zairean



colonial connection) had still much larger audience, English was undoubtedly enjoying higher prestige and had a bigger audience on the international scene because of its predominant use in world trade, diplomacy, discoveries, inventions... And so will it be in the future [ITEMS 16, 17 and 18].

As regarding the methods used to teach vocabulary, grammar, reading and conversation, the data indicated that, on the whole, they were the same as the ones we saw teachers use during the lessons we observed, the description of which we have made in 8.2.1., under point I. These same methods were also used by ISP teachers (1) to train their students (i.e. future secondary school teachers of English) and (2) in refresher courses/ in-service training for teachers already in the profession [ITEM 19].

As pointed in 7.2.3.1.1. and 7.2.3.1.2., intense discussions started with item 20, i.e. the place teachers allocated to accuracy and fluency in their methods: 22 (57.89%) said accuracy had priority, and 16 (42.10%) conciliatorily said (as shown in the following lines) that fluency came first in the initial stages of learning, and accuracy later. For the former group, accuracy was the most important aspect for one can possibly not communicate in *unacceptable* English. This opinion of theirs is well illustrated by the following comments made by some (pro-accuracy) teachers:

(1) "J'insiste sur l'exactitude vu qu'il n'y a pas moyen de bien parler une langue sans être correct" [a Cilenge interviewee]: (I emphasize accuracy for no one can possibly communicate in a language if he is not accurate.)

(2) "On ne peut pas parler et se faire comprendre sans être exact" [a Mbujimayi interviewee]: (We cannot speak and make ourselves understood if we are not accurate.)

(3) "Les élèves doivent être initiés à s'exprimer correctement. Sans exactitude, on ne peut pas se faire comprendre" [a Miabi interviewee]: (Learners must be trained to speak correctly. Without accuracy, no one can make himself understand.)

(4) "Ils (les élèves) ne peuvent pas s'exprimer librement sans être corrects dans ce qu'ils disent et comment ils le disent" [another Mbujimayi interviewee]: (Students cannot freely speak (English) if they are not accurate

in what they say and how they say it.)

Pro-fluency teachers said that, even though accuracy is important, fluency is even more because one can master all the rules, know many words, expressions, but end up not succeeding to use the language communicatively. But on the contrary, one can make himself understood by using few words and unacceptable forms. The most important, they pointed out, was that students (mainly during the initial stages) speak the language. They said too much emphasis on accuracy *kills* students' (drive to) fluency and that, in spite of all the odds, even if students highly mastered English, they could possibly not use it as accurately as accuracy proponents wanted them to, because such perfection was unattainable.

Though they insisted that fluency should have priority, they nonetheless made it clear that that by no means implied either that accuracy was to be altogether sacrificed, or that emphasis on fluency should remain so from the start to the end of the course, but that the balance fluency/ accuracy in teaching methods should reflect the one actually existing in the way students should learn and were actually learning the language. In other words, emphasis on fluency should be higher during the first stages of learning, but should gradually decrease (and stress on accuracy increase) in proportion as students' knowledge of the language increased:

(1) "Moi, je distingue trois étapes dans l'apprentissage: l'enfance, l'adolescence et la maturité. Au début, j'insiste sur la spontanéité. Cette insistance décroît plus les élèves progressent vers les autres étapes. En même temps, je commence à accentuer l'exactitude. Mais malgré mon insistance sur la spontanéité durant la première étape, les élèves (en général) ne parviennent pas à s'exprimer comme il faut. Beaucoup semblent avoir peur, honte... de parler"[an ISP teacher]: (There are three stages in language learning: childhood, adolescence and maturity. During the first stage, I stress fluency. This emphasis decreases the more the students move towards the other stages. At the same time, I start to be gradually concerned with accuracy. But, in spite of my insisting on fluency during stage one, most students do not speak as they should: they seem to be afraid, ashamed to speak.)

(2) "Tout d'abord, il faut que les élèves se sentent à l'aise pour parler.

Vu qu'ils ne peuvent pas parler sans commettre d'erreurs, leur demander de le faire (en insistant sur l'exactitude) est très dangereux puisque ça pourrait les pousser au mutisme" [a Mbujimayi interviewee]: (First of all, students should be made to feel at ease to speak. Because they cannot speak (the new language) without mistakes, it would be highly damaging to ask them to do so (by insisting on accuracy) for this would push them into speechlessness.)

(3) "Il faut qu'ils (les élèves) n'aient pas peur de parler, même avec des fautes. Si on insiste trop sur l'exactitude, on risque de les frustrer et de ne pas les encourager à parler. D'ailleurs, ils ne peuvent pas parler correctement pendant les premiers mois du cours, et cela nous le savons bien. Alors pourquoi leur demander l'impossible?" [a Cilenge interviewee]: (Students should be made fearless to speak, even with mistakes. Too much emphasis on accuracy would discourage and prevent them from speaking. However, we all know too well that they cannot help making mistakes during the first stages of the course. Why then ask them to perform miracles?)

(4) "La spontanéité en premier lieu, l'exactitude après. S'il n'y a pas de spontanéité, les élèves ne parviendront pas à s'exprimer couramment, même s'ils connaissent toutes les règles..." [a Mweneditu interviewee]: (Fluency first, accuracy after. If the first lacks, students will not be able to use English communicatively, even if they know all the rules of grammar.)

But when we cross-questioned those who were for accuracy, asking them (1) "*Pensez-vous qu'il est possible aux élèves ou à nous tous ici présents de parler Anglais correctement?*" (Is it possible for students or any one of us present in this room to speak English without mistake?) and (2) "*Est-il possible de parler Anglais sans être complètement correct?*" (Is it possible to communicate in English without being completely accurate?), they all acknowledged that in (1) it was not possible, and in (2) it was possible.

So all these results suggest that, in spite of their diverging opinions, all 38 teachers (100%) were agreed (some openly, some others implicitly) that (1) like themselves, their students could not speak the all-mistakeless English they expected them to, (2) anyway, they could speak and make themselves understood with the *truncated* English proficiency they had, (3) accuracy comes with more knowledge of the language, (4) fluency should be more emphasized in the initial stages of learning, this by no means

meaning that accuracy should be neglected, and (5) stressing fluency during the first part of the learning is a key to (a) helping students have confidence in themselves and their own abilities, and so (b) psychologically conditioning them to open up, and shake off most of the negative feelings and attitudes that usually prevent them from doing their best to speak, hence learn the language. In fact, as one of the teachers in Mbujimayi put it, "C'est en s'exprimant qu'on apprend à s'exprimer" (To learn to speak a language one has to speak it) [ITEM 20].

As suggested in the preceding lines, the 38 teachers were unanimous that, though seemingly good, the teaching methods they were using were, on the whole, unable to make students active, for only very few of them actually participated in lessons. The (remaining) majority who seemed ill at ease, ashamed and even afraid to speak, used to become active mainly when they had to copy syntheses/ summaries from the board [ITEM 21].

The data also pointed out that all teachers (some openly and some others implicitly) admitted that there were contradictions between the methods they were taught/ trained in to use and the way students were actually learning and reacting. Based on *Teach English in English only* motto, the methods they were taught to use, though intended to make students speak English as freely as possible and participate in lessons, were in fact driving them into speechlessness. The only times they dared to speak were during the rare cases when teachers allowed them to resort to nonverbal as well as *grammatically unacceptable* English and non-English (verbal) means. In other words, most students were participating only when they were allowed to use, not only English, but also some other means at their disposal. Hence, in spite of the reservations expressed by some of them, all 38 teachers indicated that they were not completely satisfied with their teaching methods for the very basis on which they were conceived seemed, even if only in part, to be at the root of students' speechlessness and passivity.

It is in this sense that they all said that a good EFL method should (1) allow students (chiefly beginners) to resort to other means to supplement their still inadequate knowledge of English, for this will free them from the numerous negative feelings that usually stifle their will and drive to speak, and (2) progressively emphasize accuracy only as students progressively gain in confidence in their own abilities, and their command of the language broadens.

Though the danger of them ending up always resorting to these other means

sans crainte..., à toujours essayer de parler "[a Cilenge teacher]: (The most serious danger is that students get hooked on resorting to this strategy, and use it too often and unjustifiably. But the advantage is more fundamental because students get used, from the start, to speak freely and fearlessly.)

(2) "Le professeur doit être capable de détecter le moment opportun à partir duquel il devra commencer à décourager cette pratique. Il y sera d'ailleurs aidé par les élèves eux-mêmes. En effet, une fois qu'ils auront atteint un niveau acceptable de maîtrise de l'Anglais, ils commenceront de par eux-mêmes à utiliser plus l'Anglais que les autres moyens dont nous venons de parler "[another Cilenge teacher]: (The teacher should be able to detect the right moment when to start asking the students to use English only. Anyway, he will be helped in this by the students themselves. In fact, once they have reached an acceptable level of command in this language, they will start to resort more to it than to the other means we have just spoken about.)

(3) "Les avantages sont plus psychologiques, et contrebalancent les désavantages et dangers, surtout pour les débutants: une fois qu'ils sont habitués à s'exprimer librement, ils le feront toujours et de plus en plus...ils apprendront encore plus à s'exprimer "[a Mbujimayi teacher]: (The advantages are more psychological, and counterbalance the dangers, particularly for beginners: once they get used to speaking freely, they will go on and on, and thus learn more how to do it.)

(4) "Le plus grand avantage, surtout pour les débutants, est qu'ils auront le courage de parler comme ils pourront; ils seront moins honteux et moins effrayés de parler; ils seront encouragés, intéressés et motivés"[a Miabi teacher]. 'L'enseignant [doit être assez] vigilant. D'ailleurs il y sera aidé par les élèves eux-mêmes puisqu'ils auront de moins en moins envie d'utiliser cette technique plus ils progressent dans leur apprentissage "[another Miabi teacher]: (The biggest advantage, chiefly for beginners, is that they will not be afraid or ashamed or discouraged to speak freely; hence they will be more motivated and interested to go on speaking the language... The teacher should be enough watchful. By all means, he will be helped by the students themselves for, as they gain in mastery, they will not feel the need

to resort to this strategy.)

(5) "S'ils [les élèves] maîtrisent la langue comme il faut, ils ne sentiront pas le besoin d'utiliser ces autres moyens. Et cela se fait automatiquement" [a Mwenditu teacher]: (If their progress is normal, they will not feel the need to resort to these other means.)

In line with what they said about the characteristics of a good EFL approach (see items 22, 23 and 24), all 38 teachers also unanimously indicated that (1) a good student is the one who does his best to learn, i.e. the one who always takes advantage of most opportunities to speak the language, hence to correct himself and be corrected by those around him, particularly the teacher, the one who does not lose heart or hope when confronted with difficulties, who always perseveres in his efforts to succeed [ITEM 25], and (2) the best indicated way to assess students' progress is through a combination of oral and written tests, but with the former aspect predominating. This allows first a fair assessment of their performance as it takes into account both writing and speaking abilities; second, (due to the emphasis to be laid on speaking), this type of assessment will put more pressure on learners to do their best to learn to speak because English is first of all taught to be spoken [ITEMS 26 and 27]. Again in line with the above, all 38 interviewees suggested that the number of students per class should be reduced and that of teachers and schools increased so as to make EFL teaching more individualised; they also wished that teachers' working conditions should be improved. As to how they understood *to communicate*, they all agreed that, though it should be understood chiefly as to speak, it also means to write and read the language understandably [ITEM 28].

All of them also acknowledged that, though there undoubtedly is a cause-effect relationship between the written material used in TEFL and the degree of motivation/perseverance students exhibit in learning the language, they nonetheless said that this was not a direct one. Indeed (as they pointed out), though text quality (i.e. interesting vs uninteresting) has an impact on students' motivation, this alone cannot determine the outcome of learning: students should first be motivated so that text could have an influence on their way of learning. Hence, as illustrated in the following quotations, whatever the conditions of learning, students can succeed only when they, in the first place, are motivated, i.e. if they really want to [ITEM 29]:

(1) "On peut toujours utiliser des textes intéressants pour renforcer l'intérêt des élèves. Mais ceci est secondaire. Le plus important est que les élèves aient déjà de la motivation au départ, et qu'elle soit soutenue "[a Mbujimayi teacher]: (Using interesting texts is in itself no guarantee for students' success. The most important is that they should be in the first place motivated and that this motivation be sustained.)

(2) "L'élève qui veut réellement apprendre y parvient toujours dans la plupart des cas "[a Mweneditu teacher]: (A student who really wants to learn nearly always reaches his goal.)

(3) "Ce qui compte c'est l'intérêt qu'ont les élèves dans le cours, leur motivation, leur attitude générale "[an ISP teacher]: (What matters most is students' interest in, motivation and overall attitude towards the course.)

In the same way, they all pointed out that it was neither possible, nor necessary or even advantageous to have all TEFL texts with Zairean/ African contexts lest this ended in narrowing the scope and reducing the quality of the English to be taught. On the contrary, they suggested that some (new) texts should be, besides the ones by British and other English-speaking writers, written to portray Zairean/ African values so as to help learners see how to express their own values into English, and so understand English values in their own experiences [ITEM 30].

In line with the meaning of *to communicate* (cf. item 28), all 38 teachers said success is achieved when students succeed in speaking and writing English comprehensibly even though speaking to/ understanding other people is the most important aspect. Failure was said to be when none of these occurs, and chiefly when speaking ability is not achieved [ITEM 31].

In the light of this, all 38 were unanimous in saying that TEFL in Eastern Kasai was a failure because most students were not able to (orally) communicate in English [ITEM 32]. They pointed at teaching methodology, teachers' (bad) working conditions and in-service training, lack of enough opportunities for students to practise the language, and poor school infrastructure as the factors to be changed if any noticeable improvement was to be achieved. As the following comments by teachers reveal however, teaching methodology and better working conditions for teachers were, amongst these, said to be the ones that needed swift and urgent changing [ITEMS 33, 34, 35 and 36]:

(1) "L'adaptation des méthodes d'enseignement à la manière que les élèves apprennent réellement est ce qu'il faut faire d'urgence...A cela il faudrait ajouter l'encouragement des enseignants en ce qui concerne leurs salaires et conditions de travail en général "[a Mbujimayi teacher]: (The most urgent change to carry out is to reconcile teaching methods with the way students really learn English... To this should be added the improvement of teachers' pay and overall working conditions.)

(2) "[...] Pour les (élèves) motiver, les encourager et les pousser à dévoiler ce dont ils sont capables. Ainsi, on pourrait bien les corriger, et eux-mêmes pourraient aussi se corriger et progresser. Ne dit-on pas que la meilleure façon d'apprendre à parler est de parler?"[another Mbujimayi teacher]: (This is to motivate them (the students), to encourage them to expose their weaknesses and strengths. In this way, they could be easily corrected, and could do so themselves, and make progress. Don't they say that the best way to learn to speak a language is to speak it?)

And among these two, teaching methods were said to be the one element that teachers could (with or without their headmasters' approval) easily handle because they are their day-to-day tool [ITEM 37]:

"C'est la méthode... parce que c'est le seul outil à sa disposition qu'il est le seul à manipuler à chaque instant. Donc qu'il peut facilement façonner à ses caprices et convictions, quand il le veut et comme il le veut..."[vu que] nous ne sommes pas régis d'une manière rigide en ce qui concerne la méthodologie "[two Mweneditu teachers]: (It is methodology, because it is the only tool handy to him (teacher) and which he is the only one to handle at every single moment, therefore the one he can easily mould as he wishes, when and how he wants to.)

In line with what precedes (cf. items 33, 34, 35, 36 and 37), they concluded, as illustrated by comments made by two teachers (one from Cilenge and another from Mbujimayi), comments we have quoted below, that [ITEM 38]



(1) “[Il faudrait que les méthodes d’enseignement soient une conciliation des théories émises sur l’enseignement des langues et de ce qui se passe réellement chez les élèves quand ils apprennent... [et que par conséquent], le stage [des futurs enseignants d’Anglais] doit être la pratique réelle de ceci”[the Cilenge teacher]: (Teaching methods should reconcile language teaching theories and how students actually learn... So should the training of future teachers of English.)

(2) “Les enseignants doivent avoir beaucoup d’occasions de se recycler et d’apprendre (grâce aux séances de recyclage et d’animation pédagogique, conférences et stages)... afin qu’ils soient toujours à la pointe de ce qui se passe dans l’enseignement des langues ”[the Mbujimayi teacher]: (Teachers should be given (in form of conferences, refresher courses) plenty of opportunities to keep learning so as to be abreast of developments in language teaching.)

As regards the effects these changes were likely to have on teachers, political (educational) authorities, students and teaching materials, the data again suggested that all 38 teachers concluded (as illustrated by comments below) that (1) teachers will be more motivated to do their duties if their working conditions were improved, (2) political (educational) authorities will inevitably oppose these changes whenever they would involve funding, (3) teaching materials will be improved and, in the end (if all the above is successfully implemented), (4) students will the most benefit for TEFL will be immensely bettered [ITEM 39]:

“[Ces changements seront] bénéfiques pour les enseignants car ça va les encourager dans leur travail...[Mais] vu les implications financières pour implanter ces réformes [...] Il y aura résistance voire même opposition de la part des administrateurs et pourvoyeurs des fonds... [Ces changements seront très] bénéfiques car la restructuration et l’équipement des écoles auront un impact positif sur l’équipement en matériels didactiques...[Et enfin] de tous, ce sont les élèves qui en profiteraient beaucoup plus car le résultat final sera l’amélioration de l’enseignement, dont eux sont les consommateurs. Et c’est ça le but même de l’enseignement ”[an ISP teacher]: ([These changes] will boost teachers’ morale. [But] considering the degree

of funding they will require, they will inevitably be resisted and even opposed by those who provide the funds. [On the other hand] they will greatly improve teaching materials, and ultimately the whole teaching, all this for the benefit of the learners.)

### 8.3.2. Classroom Observations: Results with Respect to Teachers

As we said when introducing point 8.1.2., this point is particularly about classroom observations results as related to teachers. Though most of these have already been dealt with in the above-mentioned (i.e. 8.1.2.) and 8.2.2. especially, we have decided to present them here in a more direct and concise way, concentrating on those points that refer to teachers. Nonetheless, with the exception of point III (students' cognitive level), all the other points developed in 8.2.2. have also been tackled in this section.

As the results suggested in 8.2.2., generally speaking teachers were the most active element in all the lessons, and were working with smaller groups of mainly 'bright' students. Hence it was they who talked more up to the point of monopolizing class talk (points I and II).

Though their behaviours can be said to have been more supportive for good than bad students, they remained on the whole unsupportive for the learners: teachers did not accept students' feelings/ ideas, they expressed rebuke and dissatisfaction when students used nonverbal activities and behaviours; so was it with students' non-English or wrong English or unexpected verbal activities, whether constructive or not.

In short, teachers discouraged students' behaviours and activities other than those they expected from them, that is *good* (oral) English. But in the meantime, they themselves profusely resorted to nonverbal means, and sometimes even to *unacceptable* English forms to convey their messages to the students. For instance, during a grammar lesson on questions in the past, a teacher asked a student to change *He came yesterday* into a question. Expecting the student to say *Did he come yesterday?*, he was visibly very cross with him when he said, raising his voice *He came yesterday?*, and rudely told him that that was not English. The other instance (this time involving pronunciation during a reading lesson) is the one in which a student said [bus] instead of [b s]. The teacher just stopped and told him that that was "English from

Zambia ”, actually meaning that it was rubbish, a remark other students responded to with loud laughter.

The atmosphere during all the lessons was so tightly controlled by the teachers that interactions were one-way, namely teacher-students. Accordingly, nearly everything that was done or said during these lessons was either initiated by the teachers, or had their seal of approval.

Finally, though all five teachers acknowledged that low student participation in the lessons was a sign that something was wrong (and hence improvement was needed), they directly laid the blame on the students, on grounds that they were not clever. They said that the only thing they could do to change the situation for better was to devote much more time to those weak students, something they were not prepared to do because (1) that would mean *abandoning* the few bright ones, and (2) most important this would require of them extra effort they were not willing to make for the same low remuneration they were paid.

### 8.3.3. Summary of Results of Data from Teachers

The data indicated that all 38 teachers acknowledged that it was natural, normal, thus inevitable that their students' English learning process was similar to the one followed by all FL learners: hence they were bound to resort to their past linguistic experience (of French mainly), nonverbal means, and non-English as well as unacceptable English forms in their attempts to communicate in and learn English. As the use of these strategies was said to be inversely related to the degree of proficiency achieved, it would normally and gradually decrease the more proficient the students become.

Not only were these strategies said (mainly during the initial stages of learning) to allow students to communicate, but most and above all they were said to help them build up their confidence and overcome/ reduce most of the negative feelings and attitudes which usually interfere with learning and often end up creating feelings of insecurity, low self-esteem that inevitably culminate in speechlessness and a decrease in motivation.

In line with this, the data also revealed that teachers found that (due mainly to society's positive perceptions of English) their students' motivation prior to and upon starting the course, which was high enough to guarantee satisfactory results

for all students, gradually decreased from 2nd through to 6th form secondary school, and then progressively increased from 1st to 3rd year ISP. This decrease in students' motivation and perseverance was (as also suggested by observation data) shown to be strongly related to the methods used by teachers and was said to be directly at the root of most students' speechlessness and passivity. Hence, though still blaming the students, teachers acknowledged that change had to be introduced in teaching practices so as to make students more open-minded, active and talkative, by emphasizing (speaking) fluency rather than accuracy and writing, and minimizing teachers' excessive and unnecessary involvement in the teaching process. As for the few secondary school students who seemed less affected, and ISP students, the data suggested that this was mainly due to their relative higher degree of success in handling the language, hence their relatively stronger and higher motivation/ perseverance.

All 38 teachers claimed that TEFL in Eastern Kasai was so far a failure because far too many students did not satisfactorily succeed in communicating orally in English at the end of their studies or coming to the standards they were expected to reach on completing a given study cycle. Of the numerous factors they believed were responsible for this situation, teaching and testing methods on the one hand, and teachers' overall low morale (due chiefly to low pay) on the other hand were said to be the two that needed urgent improvement. And of them, the former was pointed as the one that most needed very urgent and swift change, and the one that could relatively easily be carried out and implemented for this could be done by the teachers themselves, and without necessarily major or indeed any funding. In this particular case, the data suggested that, to ensure successful implementation, teachers should be informed about the desirability, urgency, feasibility of and the benefits they and their students were likely to get from such an endeavour.

#### **8.4. INSPECTORS: PERCEPTIONS**

Like the teachers, the two inspectors who contributed to the present study were also interviewed. Both were male and had quite good experience of TEFL (see Table 22: Appendix 2.2.4.).

As the reader will notice in the following lines, though this interview was basically similar to the one given to teachers, it had nonetheless some differences.

#### 8.4.1. Interview: Outline and Results:

##### 8.4.1.1. Outline

The present outline follows the same pattern as the one used in describing the interview given to teachers. Like the latter interview, this one was also introduced by us explaining the aims we intended to reach, and the procedure to be applied during the whole session.

This was followed by the interview itself, which was also divided into six sections all of which had a total of 41 items instead of 39 as in teachers' interview.

Section I was, in topic (Learning and Communication Strategies) and number of items (11, i.e. from item 1 to 11), similar to the corresponding section in the teachers' interview, except that item 11 referred directly to EFL learning as experienced by inspectors rather than teachers.

Section II also focussed on affective and motivational factors in EFL, and had the same number of items (7, i.e. items 12 to 18) as section II in the teachers' interview, except that (1) item 12 referred to inspectors' observations of students' behaviours during lessons, (2) item 13 referred to their perceptions about whether and how teachers had an influence on students' learning, and (3) item 14 referred to EFL teaching methodology in relation to students' learning drive and attitude towards English.

Section III (EFL teaching methodology) was also the same as the equivalent section in teachers' interview (6 items, from 19 to 24), except that items 19 and 20 referred implicitly to observations inspectors made about methods used by teachers, and item 22 referred to their experience both as inspectors and as teachers.

Though totally different from section IV in the teachers' interview, section IV in this interview (tests/ exams systems and textbooks) was similar to section V in the teachers' interview, the only difference being that it comprised 4 items (items 25, 26, 27 and 28) instead of 5.

Section V dealt with a topic not included in the teachers' interview, namely the characteristics of a good EFL teacher. But unlike section V in teachers' interview, it consisted of only one wide-ranging item (item 29).

Though largely similar to section VI in teachers' interview, section VI in this interview dealt, besides TEFL state in Eastern Kasai (items 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36,

37 and 38), with the role of EFL inspectors (item 39) and their attitude as regarding the experimentation of new EFL approaches by teachers and/ headmasters (items 40 and 41).

Like the teachers' interview, this one also ended with an open-ended invitation to inspectors to tackle any matter they wished to (see Appendices 2.1.3. and 2.2.3.).

#### 8.4.1.2. Results

Like the teachers, both inspectors indicated that the use by students (mainly beginners) of past linguistic know-how (of French particularly) and nonverbal as well as *unacceptable* English forms was natural, normal and inevitable. Hence it is not a sign of intellectual inability. Indeed, handicapped by their lack of adequate command in English when at the same time they were bound to communicate in this language, students had no other suitable alternative than to resort (often unconsciously) to their past experiences, non-verbal means and unacceptable English forms. They found this strategy to be inversely related to the learners' degree of mastery in English, namely that it was more frequent the less proficient the students were, and gradually decreased the more proficient they became.

Even though they pointed out that use of the above strategy was important and inevitable (mainly for beginners), the interviewees nonetheless made it clear that it might become an obstacle to successful learning if students went on unnecessarily resorting to it, i.e. even when they could have avoided it [ITEMS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11].

As regards students' motivation/ perseverance to learn English, the data (like the ones from the teachers) also suggested that there was a sharp difference between the degree of motivation prior to/ upon starting, and that during and upon finishing the course: high prior to/ upon starting the course, motivation showed an abrupt fall by the end of the first four months or so. Then this progressively went on up to the sixth form. But at the same time, at each level of study, there was a minority of students whose motivation/ perseverance was, if not gradually increasing, at least sustained the more they succeeded in using this language. Thus, the interviewees concluded that, had it not been a requirement for passing classes, most students would have stopped studying English after the first two years of study [ITEM 12].

Though generally speaking the interviewees also acknowledged that teachers'

attitudes and teaching methods on the one hand, and society's perceptions towards English on the other contributed largely to the degree and amount of effort and will students put in their learning of this language, they however indicated that, in the particular case of Eastern Kasai, society's influence had more to do with motivation prior to/ upon the start of the course, whereas teachers' (mainly via teaching methods) played a bigger role in shaping their motivation/ perseverance after the first four months or so [ITEMS 13, 14 and 15].

Again like the teachers, the two inspectors also pointed out that foreign languages, namely French and English, were more valued by Zaireans than their own national languages, and that among these two, though French was still deep-rooted in Zairean life, English was, as far as prestige was concerned, increasingly catching up and even overtaking the former language. The reason was the rapidly predominant position it nowadays occupies in world trade, politics, sciences and technology [ITEMS 16, 17 and 18].

Concerning the methods the two inspectors observed teachers use to teach vocabulary, grammar, reading and conversation, the data showed that they were in the main the same as the ones we saw teachers use during the lessons we attended (cf. 8.2.1.), and which matched those teachers themselves said they were using (cf. item 19, in point 8.3.1.2.) [ITEM 19].

As for the place allocated to fluency and accuracy in these methods, the two interviewees (as shown in the following quotations) expressed the same two opposing views as those expressed by the teachers: the one from Miabi said accuracy was to be primary, and the one from Mweneditu that, in initial stages, primacy should be given to fluency and only later and progressively should accuracy take precedence [ITEMS 20 and 21]:

(1) "L'exactitude et après la spontanéité...parce que quand les élèves parlent bien, ils peuvent aussi parler couramment '. 'En vérité, très peu d'élèves participent réellement aux leçons...La majorité ne semble attendre que la sonnerie annonçant la fin des leçons. '"[the Miabi inspector]: (Accuracy first, fluency later...for it is only when students speak accurately that they can speak fluently. Truly, very few students actually contribute to lessons. The majority seem just to be waiting for the bell ring (signaling the end of lessons so that they can get away.)

(2) "C'est la spontanéité, puisqu'on peut parler couramment mais avec des erreurs [... surtout] au début [...] afin que le professeur parvienne à détecter les fautes et les corriger. En 5e et 6e, c'est l'exactitude. [Si le professeur insiste trop sur l'exactitude en 3e et 4e, la classe sera passive [... parce que] les élèves ne pourront pas s'exprimer vu qu'ils n'auront pas encore maîtrisé assez de structures de la nouvelle langue. [...D'où] ils pourront facilement se décourager et perdre le goût du cours "[the Mwenditu inspector]: (Fluency first for it is possible to speak fluently and communicate in ungrammatical English [...mainly] at the beginning [...] so that the teacher can find out and correct students' mistakes. In 5th and 6th forms, it is accuracy. [If the teacher insists too much on accuracy in 3rd and 4th forms] most students will be passive because they would have not yet enough mastered the language. [Hence] they might easily get discouraged, and lose all interest in the course.)

Contrary to the above where they disagreed, the two inspectors acknowledged that the methods they were taught/ trained to use (as teachers) were more indicated for upper than beginning study levels [ITEM 22]:

(1) "Quand on observe le tout avec un esprit critique, on découvre qu'il y a contradiction surtout pour les premières années d'Anglais. En fait, il nous avait été recommandé de ne jamais permettre aux élèves de recourir aux langues qu'ils connaissent déjà et de n'utiliser que l'Anglais pour enseigner l'Anglais [...] et de tout faire pour que les élèves participent aux leçons. [Mais] c'est juste le contraire [qui se passe]: c'est très difficile de faire participer la majorité de la classe [si on ne va pas] à l'encontre de ces recommandations "[the Miabi inspector]: (When we analyse these methods with an open mind, we find out that there are contradictions, mainly for the initial stages of learning. Indeed, we were asked and told never to allow students to resort to their other languages, and use only English to teach English [...] and to do all we could to make students active during lessons. [But] it is just the opposite that happens: it is very difficult to achieve this on a large scale unless we disregard these principles.)

(2) "Il y a similitudes pour les classes avancées et contradictions surtout



pour les premières années d'apprentissage. On nous avait toujours enseignés de n'utiliser que l'Anglais, et de ne recourir en aucun cas à d'autres langues que les élèves connaissent déjà "[the Mweneditu inspector]: (There are similarities as far as the methodology for advanced students is concerned, and contradictions mainly for the one intended for beginners. We were taught/trained to use only English, and never to resort to the other languages that students already know.)

Hence they both, not only concluded that good teaching methods should be compatible with the actual way students acquire English, namely that they should match students' learning and communication processes, this mainly in order to encourage them to invest much effort in learning, but also drew attention to the dangers involved in such an approach, dangers which they believed could be easily and successfully dealt with [ITEMS 23 and 24]:

(1) "Il faudrait que la méthode d'enseignement ne soit pas en contradiction avec ce que les élèves font réellement pour apprendre. Ainsi, il faudrait que le recours aux langues qu'ils connaissent déjà et aux moyens kinésiques soient, non pas encouragés, mais plus tolérés chez les débutants [...Ceci] pour les encourager à s'habituer à parler'. 'Le seul danger... est que les élèves risquent de trop s'habituer à recourir à ces moyens-là. Mais il peut bien être évité si les élèves voient qu'il ne leur est permis d'en faire usage que dans des cas d'extrême nécessité. D'ailleurs, il n'y aura même pas besoin de leur dire d'en diminuer la fréquence... Cela se fera automatiquement quand ils auront atteint un certain seuil de maîtrise de l'Anglais'"[the Mibi inspector]: (The teaching approach should not contradict what students really do when they learn. Therefore, recourse to their other languages and kinaesthetic means should be, not encouraged, but allowed mainly for beginners. This chiefly in order to encourage them to learn how to speak. The only danger is that students might abuse these means. But this obstacle can be easily surmounted if students feel and see that they are allowed to do so only on a very limited basis. Anyway, the need to do so will relatively not even exist ... as this will automatically happen when students have

reached an acceptable level of proficiency in English.)

(2) "En 3e et 4e: tolérer le recours aux gestes et langues que l'élève connaît déjà; procéder lentement avant de n'exiger que l'Anglais. Ça aide l'élève à comprendre plus facilement, ce qui l'encourage et le motive '. 'Le danger le plus sérieux est que l'élève risque de s'habituer à ce recours-là au point d'en faire une technique permanente. Mais [...] si le professeur applique la méthode comme il faut, ce risque ne se réalisera pas'" [the Mweneditu inspector]: (In 3rd and 4th forms: allow the student to resort to non-verbal means as well as his other languages; proceed slowly and gradually before requiring that he should use English only. This will not only help him understand more easily but also encourage and motivate him. The most evident danger is that the student might end up having too frequently recourse to the means above. But, however, if the method is used correctly, this risk is likely not to happen.)

Both inspectors said they preferred EFL tests and exams to involve both speaking and writing, but with the emphasis falling more on the former than the latter aspect. In this way, since (as they remarked) there was a strong relationship between the type of tests/ exams used and the degree of motivation/ perseverance students would show in their learning of how to speak the language, students would try hard to learn to master more this skill than writing (as was the case with the existing system, which stressed writing to the detriment of speaking) [ITEMS 25 and 26]:

(1) "Pour... développer tous ces deux aspects [parler et écrire] de la langue. Mais toutefois, la plus grande partie devrait être consacrée à l'oral '[the Miabi inspector] 'parce que l'Anglais est une langue, et l'objectif principal de tout apprentissage d'une langue vivante est de parvenir à faire parler les élèves '" [the Mweneditu inspector]: (To develop both aspects [speaking and writing]. But much more emphasis should be laid on speaking... because being a living language, English (like all living languages) is taught first to be spoken.)

(2) "Le système d'examens et d'interrogations oraux pousse les élèves à parler la langue " [the Mweneditu inspector]: (Oral exams and tests compel

students to develop their oral skills.)

Though both acknowledged that there was a relationship between the quality of text contents and students' motivation/ perseverance to learn to speak English, they however argued that it was neither a straight or very determining one. In fact, they both said that what mattered most was students' general motivation/ perseverance and attitude towards the learning, without which text content quality could not have any considerable impact on learning outcome. In this way, they concluded and added that, though it was advantageous to have texts based on Zairean/ African values and environments so as to show the learners how to translate Zairean/ African experiences into English (and vice versa), it was neither possible, necessary or advantageous to have all the texts based on local values and contexts. It was not possible because (they said), being a foreign language, English could not be taught successfully in the total absence of the values and contexts of its native speakers. It was neither necessary nor beneficial because, besides what precedes, this would reduce and impoverish the English (to be) taught to students [ITEMS 27 and 28]:

“Le tout en général dépend de la volonté des élèves à apprendre à s'exprimer. Quand cette volonté y est, même en l'absence de textes intéressants, les élèves parviennent toujours à réussir à parler [...] Quand l'accent est mis sur l'écrit (comme c'est le cas ici chez-nous), c'est le contraire qui arrive. C'est ainsi que (entre autres raisons) beaucoup d'élèves ne parviennent pas à s'exprimer ”[the Miabi inspector]: (In the end, all depends on students' will to learn to speak. Where this will exists, even when texts are not interesting, students always succeed to speak the language [...] When emphasis is laid on writing (as is the case in our system), it is just the opposite that happens. This is (amongst other reasons) why most students do not succeed to speak English.)

As to which characteristics they (as inspectors) believed best define the good teacher of English, both (in relation to their opinion as expressed in items 22, 23 and particularly 24) said that the major one is to make students learn and succeed to speak English. Hence, the good teacher should know, understand and take his students for what they really are [ITEM 29]:

“Le bon enseignant, en bref, est celui dont la plupart d’élèves parviennent à s’exprimer en Anglais. Ceci implique beaucoup de facteurs [tels que] connaître les élèves, les comprendre et les apprécier à leur juste valeur ” [the Miabi inspector]: (The good teacher of English is the one who succeeds to make most of his students speak English. This implies that he should know and understand them, and assess their performance accordingly.)

As to the students’ opinion as well as their own when students, they were agreed on the former but opposed on their own views when they were students. Hence according to them, students believed a good teacher is the one who gives higher marks and who knows what he is teaching. For the Miabi inspector (when a student), the good teacher was the one who used to give students better and higher marks, whereas the one from Mweneditu sustained that it was the one who succeeded to motivate most of his students to speak and who actually made them behave in such way [ITEM 29]:

(1) “[Le bon professeur d’Anglais] était celui qui donnait beaucoup de points et qui connaissait sa matière ” [the Miabi inspector]: (The good teacher of English was the one who used to give [students] higher marks and who knew what he was teaching.)

(2) “[...] Celui qui faisait comprendre la matière aux élèves, c.à.d. celui qui parvenait à inculquer aux élèves le goût et la facilité de s’exprimer en Anglais ” [the Mweneditu inspector]: ([The good teacher of English] was the one who succeeded in making students understand what he was teaching, like and willingly and successfully learn to speak this language.)

As to what success and failure meant to them, both inspectors indicated that success in EFL generally speaking meant satisfactory mastery in both speaking and writing, but basically in the former skill. Failure was said to be the opposite, and particularly when speaking was not achieved, even if writing was [ITEM 30]. In this way, they said that TEFL in Eastern Kasai was a failure because most students were unable to satisfactorily speak English [ITEM 31]:

“C’est un échec car le nombre de ceux qui parviennent réellement à parler Anglais est très négligeable ” [the Miabi inspector]: (It is a failure

because only very few students actually get to satisfactorily speak English.)

They mostly blamed teaching/ testing methods used, and teachers' lack of motivation, which they therefore concluded needed improving [ITEM 32]:

(1) "L'échec a comme source surtout l'application d'une mauvaise méthodologie et aussi le manque de motivation des enseignants. Il y a aussi le système d'examens et interrogations en vigueur qui n'est pas pour encourager les élèves à parler la langue "[the Miabi inspector]: (Failure originates in wrong teaching methodology and teachers' lack of motivation... It has also to do with the present exam/ test type which, as a matter of fact, does not compel students to improve their verbal abilities.)

(2) "Mais je crois qu'en ce qui concerne l'enseignement de l'Anglais comme tel (mis à part les salaires), c'est le côté méthodologique qui nécessite des changements "[the Mwenditu inspector]: (But I think that as far as TEFL as such is concerned, it is the teaching methods that should necessarily be improved.)

Improvements/ changes (they said) should involve a reformulation and reapplication of methods so as to account for the actual process students apply in learning English, a rise in teachers and inspectors' pay, and an improvement in the overall teaching infrastructure, particularly a reduction in the number of students per class so as to allow teachers to deal with most students on a more individual basis. This in turn requires an increase in the numbers of both teaching staff and classes [ITEM 33]:

"Que nous tous (enseignants et inspecteurs) soyons bien payés, que la méthodologie soit révisée et adaptée à ce qui devrait normalement se faire; que le nombre d'élèves par classe soit réduit afin de permettre à l'enseignant de s'occuper de tous les élèves "[the Miabi inspector]: (Both teachers and inspectors should be better paid, teaching methods should be revised to take into consideration what should normally be done; students' number should be reduced so as to allow teachers to concentrate on individual students.)

They also agreed that teaching methods and salaries should be improved urgently in the short run, and that the former was the one factor that could be dealt with by

teachers themselves as (a) it was the only element they could freely handle when and how they wished to, and (b) the one that did not necessarily require (huge) funding, except of course teachers' (good) will and motivation. In this latter instance, the most important thing to do would be to explain to the teachers the reasons why the changes had to be implemented, and the benefits they themselves and their students were likely to get [ITEMS 34, 35 and 36]:

(1) "[L'] amélioration des salaires et changement de la méthodologie d'enseignement [sont] les changements à court terme [...] les plus urgents" [the Mweneditu inspector]: (Increasing salaries and improving teaching methods are the most urgent changes to introduce.)

(2) "[Mais celui qui peut être facilement manipulé par le professeur] c'est la méthodologie [car] ça ne demande pas de fonds, pas d'infrastructure spéciale. L'enseignant peut le faire quand il le veut... Le seul investissement est que l'enseignant soit motivé et convaincu que ce qu'il faisait avant n'était pas ce qu'il fallait faire" [the Miabi inspector]: (What can easily be improved by the teacher is the teaching methods for this does not necessarily require either funding or special equipment. The teacher can do it when and how he pleases. The only thing that really matters is that he be motivated and convinced that what he was doing before was not what he should have been doing.)

In line with their positions as regarding items 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35 and 36, the two inspectors concluded that (1) the teaching and practical training of future teachers of English in Eastern Kasai should be compatible with the way students actually acquire this language, and (2) both teachers and inspectors of English should be given plenty of opportunities to go on learning so as to keep pace with developments in TEFL and related fields [ITEM 37]:

(1) "[Il faudrait] adapter la méthodologie (surtout pour les premières années) à ce que les élèves font réellement quand ils apprennent au lieu d'initier les futurs enseignants d'Anglais à une méthodologie qui va presque à l'encontre de la voie naturelle et normale suivie par les élèves" [the Mweneditu inspector]: (Teaching methods (mainly for beginners) should be redesigned so as to match the natural path students actually follow to

learn English, instead of training future teachers in an approach which obviously opposes the above process.)

(2) "Dans ce sens, les enseignants déjà en fonction devraient être souvent recyclés... afin qu'ils continuent à enrichir leurs connaissances. Il en est de même pour les inspecteurs "[the Miabi inspector]: (In this way, teachers should be given opportunities to keep abreast of developments in TEFL. So should it be for inspectors.)

Like the teachers, both inspectors acknowledged that the different people involved in/ concerned with the changes proposed in items 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36 and 37 will resist/ oppose them differently [ITEM 38]. Teachers will most likely resist changes if these require extra work for no extra payment/ reward, and also if they (teachers) were kept in the dark as to the reasons that had prompted these changes:

"L'application des réformes serait difficile si les enseignants ne sont pas, d'une manière ou d'une autre, motivés. Il faudrait les convaincre que ce qu'ils sont appelés à faire est mieux que ce qu'ils faisaient avant. Il y aura résistance surtout s'il y a augmentation de l'effort à fournir, sans une amélioration des salaires ou la garantie d'une récompense dans ce sens"[the Mweneditu inspector]: (Implementing these changes would be very strenuous if the teachers are, in one way or another, not motivated. They should be convinced that their old ways are not suitable. There will also be resistance chiefly if changes require teachers to make extra effort for the same pay or no reward of any sort.)

Political educational authorities will resist mainly when the changes involve funding; students' resistance (if there is any) will be minimal, negligible and dwarfed by their willingness to speak English, and the improvement of their overall learning experience:

"Les pourvoyeurs des fonds et administrateurs sont ceux qui s'opposent le plus surtout quand l'argent entre en jeu [...] Quant aux élèves, ils s'opposent et résistent rarement "[the Miabi inspector]: (Political educational authorities oppose changes mainly when they involve money. As for students, they rarely oppose changes.)

As to which they thought their role was, and whether they had realised it, both interviewees said (1) (as suggested by the Miabi inspector) that even though sometimes they had to stand against official instructions, their role was "de contrôler ce que font les enseignants d'Anglais et résoudre les problèmes auxquels ils sont confrontés et aider ainsi à l'amélioration de cet enseignement" (To check what teachers do, and help them come to terms with the numerous difficulties they encounter, and thus help improve TEFL), and (2) that they thought they had (as the Mewneditu inspector said) so far satisfactorily achieved it [ITEM 39]:

"Je pense l'avoir réalisé, si pas pleinement, toutefois d'une manière satisfaisante: après chaque inspection, je discute toujours avec l'enseignant. Je considère ses points de vue, et lui montre les erreurs qu'il aurait commises, et la façon de les éviter ou de les corriger" (I think I have achieved it, if not fully, at least satisfactorily: I always talk with teachers after every lesson I attend. I take into account their views, show them their mistakes, and how to avoid or correct them.)

In line with the above [and mainly because, as the Miabi inspector put it, "l'inspecteur doit être critique et souple ... pour le bien de l'enseignement d'Anglais" (the inspector must be open-minded... for the sake of TEFL)], both inspectors said they were prepared to allow schools and particularly teachers to try out any new TEFL approach [ITEMS 40 and 41]:

(1) "Je suis bien disposé. Ceci nous est recommandé par nos supérieurs et notre métier. Nous sommes là pour apprécier. Là où il y a un élément nouveau, il est de notre devoir de l'apprécier et de voir dans quelle mesure il peut soit contribuer soit nuire à la pratique éducative" [the Miabi inspector]: (I am willing. This is a requirement for our job: we have to assess realistically whatever comes to our notice, so as to see which element is likely to contribute to or interfere with teaching practices.)

(2) "Je suis très bien disposé. L'essentiel est que le professeur arrive à faire parler les élèves. Si ce but est atteint, c'est qu'il y a quelque mérite dans la méthode. Et il est de mon devoir de l'apprécier à sa juste valeur, et d'en faire profiter les autres. D'ailleurs ce rôle leur est reconnu officiellement. C'est pour cela qu'il y a sur la fiche d'inspection une rubrique intitulée



*imagination pédagogique* "[the Mweneditu inspector]: (I am very willing. What matters most is that students succeed to speak. If this is achieved, it then means that the approach has got some merit. It is my duty to find and assess it, and to make it available to other teachers. The right for teachers to experiment new ways is officially guaranteed. That is the reason why there is a special section on the inspection sheet entitled (*teacher's Pedagogical Creativity.*) (We have emphasized).

## 8.5. POLITICAL EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITIES: PERCEPTIONS

Like the teachers and inspectors, the two political educational authorities who took part in the investigation were also interviewed. Both were also male, had university degrees and had been in the profession for quite a long time (see Table 23: Appendix 2.3.3.).

### 8.5.1. Interview: Outline and Results:

#### 8.5.1.1. Outline

Like the two interviews in 8.3.1.1. and 8.4.1.1., this one was also introduced by us explaining the aims we intended to reach and the procedure to be followed in conducting it. But unlike them, the interviewees were here orally asked three main questions about their personal details. This was then followed by the interview itself, which was divided into four main sections, totalling together 21 items (see Appendix 2.3., especially 2.3.2.).

Entitled *Objectifs et Raisons de l'Enseignement du Français et de l'Anglais* (Aims in and Reasons for teaching French and English in Zaire), section I comprised 3 items (items 1, 2 and 3), and focussed on reasons why foreign languages were taught in Zaire (item 1), why among these only French and English were taught (item 2), and their present and future status in the world and in Zaire (item 3).

Section II (*L'Etat Actuel et Futur de l'Enseignement de l'Anglais au Zaire*) was concerned with the present and future state of TEFL in Zaire, and consisted of 5 items (items 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8): item 4 dealt with what the government meant by students' success/ failure in TEFL; items 5 and 6 dealt with these two notions but

as applied to TEFL in general in the interviewees' areas, and what to do to improve the practice; item 7 was concerned with kinds of tests and exams, and their impact on students' motivation/ perseverance to learn to speak the language, and item 8 focussed on whether it was possible, necessary and advantageous to adapt TEFL textbooks to purely Zairean contexts.

Consisting of 8 items (items 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16), section III (*Innovations, améliorations et changements*) was concerned with (1) which changes to introduce in TEFL in the area (items 9 and 10), (2) which ones were relatively easier to introduce and why (item 11), (3) whether the government would accept their implementation (item 12), (4) when and how to introduce them (item 13), (5) whether the government could afford the necessary funds to meet the cost of such undertaking (item 14), (6) whether it could consider suggestions for change in TEFL made by teachers, schools and local educational authorities (item 15), and (7) whether the interviewees themselves were willing to do so (item 16).

Section IV (*Réactions aux innovations/ améliorations/ changements*) tackled the problem of resistance to change in education, and consisted of 5 items (items 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21) which dealt with: (1) whether the interviewees were willing to allow teachers to experiment new teaching approaches, with or without their headmasters' consent (item 17), (2) why there always is resistance/ opposition to changes in systems such as education (items 18), (3) sources of resistance to change in education and their classification in degrees of importance, and how to come to terms with them (items 19, 20, and 21).

Like teachers and inspectors' interviews, this one also ended with an open-ended invitation to the interviewees to raise any matter they wanted to.

#### 8.5.1.2. Results:

Both interviewees said that the teaching of foreign languages in Zaire, especially the two major ones (French and English) is very valuable for it allows Zaireans to take part in world transactions, particularly to benefit from technological and scientific discoveries and inventions made in developed countries. In this way (they said), even though French (because of its colonial past) was still dominant in Zaire, English (the major international language of today and tomorrow) was increasingly gaining ground and will enjoy in the near future, if not the same status as French, at least a more

menacing and increasingly competing position [ITEMS 1, 2 and 3].

For both of them, the government sees success/ failure in English as synonymous with communicating in this language i.e. speaking and writing understandably, skills it considers to be expressed in the success/ failure shown in the marks students get in the course. Hence, considering the large number of students who get satisfactory marks in English to pass from one class to another, this implies that there somehow is success in TEFL. But considering the very small number of students who actually end up satisfactorily speaking the language, Zairean TEFL is so far a failure. This was also their conclusion as regarding the particular cases of the areas they were in charge of.

To improve the situation, both insisted on the use of adequate EFL teaching methods, i.e. those where much more emphasis is laid on speaking (i.e. acceptable fluency) rather than on writing and accuracy [ITEMS 4, 5 and 6]. This should also be reflected in tests/ exams systems, instead of the ones presently in use where writing and the search for form perfection completely overshadow the need and drive for speaking skills. They therefore concluded that tests and exams should be oral-written, but with the oral aspect predominating for, being a language, English is primarily taught to be spoken, and that the poor performance in this ability as demonstrated by most learners was largely imputable to the overall disregard it is the object of in teaching methods [ITEM 7].

Though they both acknowledged that some written material used in TEFL should be conceived to deal with local cultural values so as to increase students' motivation, they altogether rejected adaptation to Zairean/ African contexts of all these materials. As the interviewee in Mbujimayi put it, illustrating by implicitly comparing French to English teaching,

"On ne peut pas, par exemple, adapter les livres de Jean Paul Sartre au contexte Zairois ou Africain sans en changer le fond. Ce que nous pourrions faire c'est de... élaborer, à côté des textes des auteurs Anglais ou anglophones, des textes qui nous retrempe dans notre contexte afin que nous puissions parvenir à l'exprimer dans la langue nouvelle que nous apprenons" (We cannot, for instance, adapt Sartre's writings to Zairean/ African contexts without altering their (cultural value) contents. What we should do is to conceive, beside those written by British and English-speaking writers, others that express our own values, this in order to show

us how to express our Zairean experience in this new language we are learning.)

This means that any attempt at adapting all texts to Zairean/ African contexts would end up in the teaching of poor and reduced type of English [ITEM 8].

As implied in the preceding paragraphs, both interviewees acknowledged that changes should be introduced in TEFL practices in their own areas, and in Zaire in general. They indicated that the government's will *in principle* to improve, not only TEFL but the whole education system, was handicapped by wrong decisions about priorities and mainly mismanagement. But still they insisted on changing EFL teaching practices in the sense of more motivating the learners to speak the language and persevere in doing so as being the number one short-term change to carry out. This should be followed by/ introduced at the same time with substantial teachers' pay rise or any other significant material reward to encourage/ motivate them.

Having themselves noticed that teaching in general, and TEFL in particular, was in crisis, political authorities would like solutions to resolve it and improve the practice to be proposed and implemented by those who had more expertise in the matter, namely teachers, schools, inspectors:

(1) "Les pouvoirs politiques ont constaté que l'enseignement en général est en baisse. Alors, ils ont fait appel à tous ceux qui y sont impliqués de proposer des solutions. Donc, ils voudraient que les solutions soient initiées par la base. Eux les étudieront et les décisions qui en découleront devront être exécutées par la base. Ce qui est positif est que ces décisions seront initiées [...] par ceux-là mêmes qui sont sur le terrain, ceux-là mêmes qui s'occupent directement de l'enseignement (enseignants, autorités éducatives régionales.)" [the Mbuji mayi political educational authority]: (The government has noticed that there is a decrease in the quality of teaching. It has turned to the people involved in teaching (i.e. teachers and local educational authorities) for proposals as to how to improve it, proposals it (the government) would study and (when accepted) later to be issued as regulations and decisions for schools to implement.)

(2) "Nous avons constaté [que] l'enseignement ici chez-nous [est en] crise. Les instances supérieures du pays cherchent à réformer tout le système.

Elles ne veulent pas imposer des solutions toutes faites. Ce que l'Etat voudrait implanter est un système conçu dans le pays, par ceux-là mêmes qui s'occupent de l'enseignement: ce sont eux qui, finalement, connaissent ce qui va et ce qui ne va pas. Ainsi, on voudrait que les suggestions viennent de la base de la hiérarchie scolaire (enseignants, directeurs, inspecteurs...). Ces suggestions seront étudiées par le sommet et formulées en recommandations et décisions à exécuter par la base "[the Kinshasa political educational authority]: (We have noticed that our teaching system is in a crisis. We want to reform it, not by means of solutions copied from outside, but by using ones suggested from inside by those people who are actually involved in teaching (i.e. teachers, headmasters, inspectors), and who hence know what is suitable and what is not. Their suggestions will be studied and then issued as recommendations and decisions schools will have to implement.)

In this way, as local political educational authorities, the two interviewees said they were also willing to encourage and consider proposals from the above because, to be successful, changes should originate from the very people who are to deal with them, teachers in this case. If, as it was usually the case, changes were initiated by some external body, then they should be explained to and willingly accepted and implemented by these people [ITEMS 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16]. In line with this, they said they were prepared to allow teachers to experiment (with or without their headmasters' approval) new teaching approaches [ITEM 17].

They pointed out that resistance to changes in systems such as education originates mainly in the participants' (particularly teachers') conservatism, expressed either singly by each of the following factors or their combination: (1) fear because of (felt) incapacity to comprehend and/ successfully implement/ cope with change, and (2) due to material, prestige, group pressure... reasons, the desire to keep the status quo [ITEMS 18 and 19].

Though they acknowledged that resistance to change in education is likely to be found in all those involved (namely teachers, students, inspectors, parents, political and educational authorities), they nonetheless indicated that teachers' opposition is the most potent as they are ultimately the ones on whose attitude and behaviours lie the quality of the outcome. Then come political and political educational authorities for they provide both legal and financial means without which change is likely not to be executed. Then follow the students, and last of all the parents [ITEM 20].

But they concluded that, though better working conditions for teachers were also to be reckoned with in dealing with Zairean TEFL crisis, it was the overall teaching methods that had to be changed: they proposed to see emphasis shift from writing and accuracy to fluency (in speaking), together with all its motivation-bearing effects on students. Hence, though teachers and students' attitudes and behaviours were considered to be crucial deciding factors for these changes to succeed, the latter were however said to be even more [ITEM 21]:

(1) "Les enseignants sont (à côté des élèves) les plus susceptibles à déterminer les résultats finals de l'apprentissage. Pour qu'ils mènent à bien leur tâche, il faudrait qu'ils soient convaincus que ce qu'ils font ou qu'on leur demande de faire est valable pour eux, et bon pour les élèves "[Mbuji mayi political educational authority]: (Teachers play (besides students) the most important role in determining the outcome in EFL learning. To successfully fulfil their duty, they must be convinced that what they do or are asked to do is worth it as well for themselves as for their students.)

(2) "L'enseignant peut être motivé, peut donner le meilleur de lui-même, mais ne pas toujours réussir si les élèves ne sont pas motivés, intéressés "[the Kinshasa political educational authority]: (Teachers' motivation and willingness to do their best to teach are no guarantee for success if in the first place students are not motivated/ interested.)

## 8.6. GENERAL SUMMARY OF RESULTS:

As we said in the introduction to this chapter, the purpose here is to sum up the results of all the data collected for this study. As the reader will remember, the purpose of this thesis is to find out which among the factors involved in foreign language learning (factors we described and analyzed in Part Two, and which we later included in the questionnaires, interviews and lesson observations) are causing problems in the learning of English in Eastern Kasai, and particularly the lack of verbal proficiency we observed among the learners.

In this section, we have tried, via the results produced by the data we have described and analyzed throughout this chapter (cf. points 8.1.2., 8.2.1.1.2., 8.2.1.1.3., 8.2.1.2.2., 8.2.1.2.3., 8.2.1.3.2., 8.2.1.3.3., 8.2.1.4.2., 8.2.1.4.3., 8.2.2., 8.2.3. 8.3.1.2.,

8.3.2., 8.3.3., 8.4.1.2., and 8.5.1.2.), to isolate and compare among them as many of these factors as possible, with the view to expose the differences and similarities existing between them.

As far as teaching methods are concerned, grammar and vocabulary lessons were taught in the same way, and their aims were also similar, except that the items introduced were either grammatical particles or words/ expressions. Of the four stages (Recall, Introduction, Practice-Control, and Synthesis) that constituted these methods, the first two were executed as foreseen (i.e. they were teacher-dominated), whereas the last two were not: they were teacher- rather than student-controlled. Hence the degree of teacher involvement (as evidenced by teachers' amount of talk) spread beyond the expected level, and consequently, interactions were mainly from teacher to few students and vice-versa. Most students were passive and unable, reluctant, afraid or ashamed to take part, a behaviour teachers partly attributed to students' lack of intelligence. Even the few students who worked with teachers often just repeated (without noticeable personal contribution) what the teachers were saying or wanted them to say.

Besides, contrary to the teachers, who were using any possible ways (verbal as well as nonverbal) to make themselves understood, students were visibly forbidden/ discouraged to express themselves in anything other than correct/ good English.

This same teacher-controlled orientation also predominated in both reading and conversation lessons, and so the emphasis was laid on accuracy (in pronunciation and what was said and how it was said). In short, in all these lessons, and more evidently in reading and conversation, students were trained/ encouraged/ compelled more to echoing teachers' behaviours than to creating their own.

As the results (chiefly those of questionnaires and interviews) also indicated, the Zairean people in general, and those in Eastern Kasai in particular, largely perceived English more positively than French. This might have contributed (even in part) to the fact that 82.70% (93.75% Q.1, 60.41% Q.2, 76.65% Q.3, and 100% Q.4) of the students who participated in this study indicated that they would have chosen to study this language even if it was not a compulsory subject in the curriculum. In the same way, they also pointed out that, though they were basically learning English for instrumental purposes, they all in the first place (for one reason or another) liked it.

As English was but a foreign language to all these participants, for they all acquired it consecutively to at least their mother languages and French, and also

because it was mainly constricted to English lessons, its frequencies and opportunities of use were very limited. And because of this (amongst other reasons: see below), students found it particularly difficult to speak this language. In this way, all of them acknowledged that they were bound to resort (and were indeed doing so) to other means, such as the other languages they knew (particularly French) as well as paralinguistic elements, to compensate for their gaps in English knowledge.

But this overall strategy was largely resented by teachers, who insisted on the use of correct/ good English. As a consequence, most students (particularly at secondary school level) found themselves unable to communicate, hence to participate actively in lessons. As the data also revealed, they became frustrated and discouraged, and had nothing else to hold on to sustain their fading motivation but the urge and obligation to get marks to pass classes. As this requirement could be satisfactorily fulfilled just by succeeding in tests and exams, all of which were predominantly written, the majority of students then did not really bother to achieve speaking ability.

Coupled to scarcity of practice opportunities, frustration and lack of incentive for improving verbal skills (engendered by the teaching/ testing methods used) were thus found by all participants in this study to be the major factor behind the overall students' passivity and inability to use English in oral communication.

Because on the one hand proficiency was found to be related to experience in English and inversely related to use of other means than English and, on the other hand, because motivation/ perseverance to master this language, mainly its spoken form, was shown to be related to the degree of success achieved in communicating in it, all participants indicated that methods of teaching and testing, and teachers' overall behaviours in relation to this matter, should be made to account for these factors so that students be taught and assessed correctly. And this, as it was also suggested, would result in an increase in their motivation/ perseverance and free them from the shackles of reluctance/ fear/ shame/ inability to speak the language.

This prerequisite for successful EFL learning would, in the end, contribute importantly to improving TEFL in Eastern Kasai, which was so far said to be a failure:

(1) "[L'enseignement de l'Anglais au Kasai Oriental est] dans l'ensemble [...] un échec [...] compte tenu du nombre réel de ceux qui parviennent, à la fin du cycle secondaire, à s'exprimer en Anglais" [the Mweneditu inspector]: (TEFL in Eastern Kasai should be considered a failure when we take into account the number of those who can actually speak English on completing



secondary school studies.)

(2) “Il faut que les élèves se sentent à l’aise pour parler [...] ’, ‘[...] même avec des fautes”[a Mbuji mayi and a Cilenge teachers]: (Students should be made to feel free to speak the language, even with mistakes.)

(3) “Il faudrait que la méthode d’enseignement [... tolère] le recours aux langues qu’ils [les élèves] connaissent déjà et aux moyens kinésiques [... surtout] chez les débutants [...] pour les encourager à s’habituer à parler [... parce que] quand cette volonté y est [...], les élèves parviennent toujours à parler ”[the Miabi inspector]: (Teaching methods should allow students, particularly beginners, to resort to their other languages and kinaesthetic means to get them used to speak [English]... Indeed when they willingly and unrestrainingly engage in conversations, students will always and ultimately succeed to use English communicatively.)

(4) “[Il faut] tolérer le recours aux gestes et langues que l’élève connaît déjà; procéder lentement avant de n’exiger que l’Anglais. Ça aide l’élève à comprendre facilement, ce qui l’encourage et le motive ”[the Mweneditu inspector]: (The student should be allowed to resort to gestures and the other languages he already knows; the teacher should proceed slowly and progressively before he asks him to use English only. This will help him [the student] to understand more easily, what will consequently encourage and motivate him.)

(5) “L’enseignant peut être motivé, peut donner le meilleur de lui-même, mais ne pas toujours réussir si les élèves ne sont pas motivés, intéressés”[the Kinshasa political educational authority]: (The teacher might be motivated and do his best to teach properly, but still fail to make students speak if they do not actually want and wish to.)

Coming next after the re-designing of teaching/ testing methods (as indicated by all teachers, inspectors, political educational authorities, and most students) as one of the factors that should be normally considered to guarantee a successful implementation of innovations was the improvement of teachers’ pay and overall working conditions, and their opinions as regarding the desirability, necessity and usefulness of the proposed changes:

(1) "Pour qu'ils [les enseignants] mènent à bien leur tâche, il faudrait qu'ils soient convaincus que ce [...] qu'on leur demande de faire est valable [...] "[the Mbuji mayi political educational authority]: (In order that they carry out their duty satisfactorily, teachers should first be convinced that what they are asked to do is worthwhile.)

(2) "Il y aura résistance [de la part des enseignants] surtout s'il [n'] y a [pas] amélioration des salaires ou [...] garantie d'une récompense [quelconque] "[the Mweneditu inspector]: (Teachers will resist mainly if there is no pay improvement or reward of any kind [in relation to the implementation of the changes].)

(3) "A cela il faudrait ajouter l'encouragement des enseignants en ce qui concerne leurs salaires et conditions de travail en général "[a Mbuji mayi teacher]: (To that [change in teaching/ testing methods] should be added motivating the teachers in terms of salary increase and improvement of their overall working conditions.)

As far as textbook cultural content was concerned, the data suggested that, in general, all participants (and particularly teachers, inspectors and political educational authorities) did not find it to be a crucial element, when taken in isolation. They indicated that, since learners had (thanks to French learning) more or less achieved cultural congruence/ matching between French/ Belgian cultural traits (which are, in the main, largely the same as British ones) and Ciluba/ Zairean culture, the proximity between English and Ciluba/ Zairean cultures was thence increased, with the obvious consequence that the acquisition of English cultural traits by Ciluba/ Zairean learners of English should, on the whole, become easier. This, as the data also suggested, implied that, though it contributes to increasing learners' interest/ motivation in English learning, should however not be considered separately from the overall motivation/ perseverance that teaching/ testing methods and teachers' ways of handling them engender in the learners.

As is obvious, all the findings in this part do not necessarily weigh the same in contributing to problems in TEFL in Eastern Kasai, and particularly the learners' lack of verbal command of English we talked about earlier in this thesis. Therefore, it is logical that we discern among them the ones that contribute more, and amongst them, perhaps, the one which is the most crucial. This is one of the topics in the first

of the two chapters of the next part, the second chapter being the conclusion of the thesis.

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## PART FOUR

## MAJOR FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS and CONCLUSION

As we have just said in the last section of the preceding part, this last part of this work is devoted to identifying which among the findings described in Part Three are the major ones, and which among these is/ (are) likely to be the most influential in causing Eastern Kasai learners' lack of English oral proficiency. Then we shall consider the implications arising from this and try to provide certain recommendations as to how to solve, not only this/ (these) major problem(s), but possibly others as well. Then we shall conclude the thesis.

As it appears, this is a logical step in trying to reach the main purpose we set to reach in this study. Indeed, the reader will remember that this thesis is about finding solutions to problems met by teachers and particularly learners of English in Eastern Kasai. And one of these problems is the lack of oral fluency by these learners. Thus, we started by defining this purpose, saying what prompted us to embark on this research work. Then we described these learners' sociolinguistic background and education system (which we believe also play a role in their achievement in English), insisting specifically on the teaching of French and English (Part One). Then we tried to understand theoretically English teaching in Eastern Kasai in the light of (1) theories developed in language and foreign language learning, and (2) findings from other parts of the world, not only in these two general fields, but also in TEFL (Part Two). We thus mainly explored the following factors which we believe also play a role in FL learning: the effects that knowing more than one language has on the FL learner, how he learns a foreign language, how his brain handles the learning, and how much (if they do) his I.Q., the learning environment, his prior knowledge, affect and personality, and teaching methods used contribute to his learning. Then, on the basis of these factors, we empirically investigated English learning in Eastern Kasai (Part Three), using questionnaires for students, interviews for EFL teachers, EFL inspectors, and political educational authorities, and classroom observations. Then we analysed the data and got the results we have just presented.

Let us now turn to Part Four which, as we described above, we have divided into two chapters: Chapter Nine (Major Findings, Implications and Recommendations), and Chapter Ten (Conclusion).

## CHAPTER NINE

### MAJOR FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS and RECOMMENDATIONS

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As the title indicates, this chapter concerns the findings of the present research work, their implications regarding TEFL in Eastern Kasai in particular, and in Zaire in general, as well as our recommendations as to how to improve it, especially regarding the fundamental question posed earlier (cf. Introduction), namely the reason(s) why most Zairean Ciluba-French speaking learners of English do not (dare) speak this language.

Although, as the results in Chapter 8 suggest, there are many factors causing this problem, in the present chapter however, we have decided to focus exclusively on the major ones. This does not mean that we shall drop the minor ones altogether. On the contrary, we shall (where possible and necessary) integrate them in and use them to explain and interpret the major ones. This will then be followed by our suggestions as to how to carry out and successfully implement and evaluate the changes we shall propose.

#### 9.1. Summary of Findings and Implications

As we said above, the research data collected have indicated that a large number of factors are involved in causing the major problem we described in the Introduction. All participants in the research, and particularly students, indicated that speaking English was the skill learners have the most difficulty to master, whereas they rather more satisfactorily manage in understanding it. This rather successful understanding was shown to be achieved chiefly thanks to the learners' knowledge of other languages, particularly French. As the data suggested, what makes of this language a facilitator in this particular case is that (1) it is more related to English than any of the other languages the learners know and, (2), being the Zairean official (compulsory) instruction language, it is psychologically the one these learners find easier and more or less in compliance with the (official instruction linguistic) regulations to use and translate into most of (the new) English experiences they could otherwise not directly grasp in this new language.

These findings are in line with our convictions in this matter and also with theories on foreign language learning (cf. Chapter 4, point 4.4.: Language-specific Factors).

Also supporting these findings are the suggestions that languages basically share the same (universal) principles (and even more those of the same more relatively easily retraceable parentage), even though they are *expressed* in different ways. This idea of a *single deep cognitive/ semantic level*, of a *unified system*, and of the *dual-iceberg (linguistic) phenomenon* is discussed in theories on language we described in 3.1. (The Bilingual's Languages: Independence or Interdependence?).

This independence/ interdependence principle also lends support to that part of the findings which suggests that learners of English in Eastern Kasai process this language first and above all for meaning before they deal with single items and the ways these are verbalized. Indeed, as the theories on language processing have it (cf. Chapter 3, point 3.2.1.) (what as we have just said the data collected also suggested), like all foreign language learners, learners of English in Eastern Kasai also find it easier to rely first on meaning/ understanding to learn this language before they attempt to express themselves in it. Reliance on/ recourse to meaning-understanding is the easiest way at their disposal because the deep common basis English and the other languages they knew, particularly French, have is semantic. Hence, they first resort to meaning to learn English.

The other major finding is the type of English teachers in general want their students to acquire. In fact, as the data revealed, from nearly all the teachers we interviewed and the ways we saw those whose lessons we attended behave, students were expected to learn to use and express themselves in nothing else but mistakeless English. But, as the data also revealed, all participants (teachers, inspectors, political educational authorities, and above all the students) were convinced that this was not possible because (amongst many other reasons) of the learners' poor experience with/ knowledge of English. Thus, the data showed that there was a big paradox between teachers' behaviours/ attitudes and their expectations: they acknowledged that students could not possibly either reach the immaculate speech correctness they wanted them to achieve or use only English in their attempts to communicate in and learn this language. But, at the same time, they kept pressure on them to achieve this unachievable. In this way (as the data once again revealed, particularly those from lesson observations), while they who knew English better than the students were



using all the means (verbal and nonverbal as well) they could to pass their messages across to the students, they discouraged these from resorting to and using these very means.

This, as the data also suggested, largely contributed to the fact that only those few students who could satisfactorily function in English were somewhat actively involved in lessons, while the majority were prevented (so to speak) from doing so. Another consequence of this paradoxical stand was that interactions in the classrooms were chiefly unidirectional: from the teachers (who, as it were, knew more and better than all the students) to the few students (whose ability to use English put them in the foreground among the students). Also a consequence of this, or better because of it, teachers' involvement in lessons was excessive, while students' was almost non-existent. Hence nearly all that was done/ said in the classrooms was, in one way or another, either by teachers, or approved by them, or in compliance with their perceptions and attitudes, which were apparent either directly from what they used to say/ want, or indirectly through what their attitudes and behaviours conveyed. Hence, as we implied earlier, the data also suggested that teaching methods as well as classroom atmosphere and discipline management were heavily teacher-centred and teacher-dominated.

The data also revealed that, because on the one hand learners had to succeed getting good marks in English to pass from one class to another and, on the other hand, what teachers used to do and all their perceptions, attitudes and behaviours prevented them from taking an active part in lessons, and finally because the exam/ testing system emphasized writing rather than speaking, the great majority of the learners we investigated did not particularly bother to improve their English speaking ability, as they could satisfy the pass requirement by performing only in writing.

The above findings plus corollaries corroborate the ideas put forward in many theories and approaches in foreign language teaching, ideas we discussed in Chapter 5 (FL/ EFL Teaching Methods and Approaches). In this particular chapter, it was in fact shown how, as opposed to student-dominated/ oriented and process-centred methods, teacher-dominated/ centred and product-centred methods (GT, DM, AL and AV, for instance) stress accuracy, with the inevitable consequence that learners are reduced to passive and idle receptors, while teachers assume nearly all the roles that equate activity in the classrooms. And the data we gathered (mainly those from classroom observations) also pointed in this same direction: to cite only a few

instances, teachers were initiators of activities, helpers when students needed help, information retrievers, clarifiers, supporters, confronters, summarizers and process observers (Simon and Boyer, 1974)<sup>1</sup>.

The other major obstacle the learners faced in their English learning, an obstacle we easily foresaw because inherent in the status of English in Eastern Kasai (and which the data later confirmed), was the scarcity, both inside and outside the classrooms, of time and opportunities for practising this language.

Indeed, outside-class practice time and opportunities were found to be insufficient because the use of English in this area is occasional, hence very limited: the only people with whom students could practise English are the rare and few English-speaking people (Americans, mostly) who visit the area or work with private/ government projects. So were (as particularly the data from Questionnaire 1 revealed) opportunities to listening to radio programmes or watching movies in English. As for time and opportunities during English lessons, the data indicated that, pressed by official regulations to finish lessons within the time set in the timetable, and teach the officially-set curriculum, teachers could not provide students with enough time and opportunities to practise their English.

Another major finding the data (especially those from teachers, inspectors and political educational authorities) suggested was that all the above-mentioned participants (and the government in general) perceived TEFL in Eastern Kasai in particular, and in the whole country in general, as being in a state of crisis, which needed resolving. In other words, all indicated that TEFL in Eastern Kasai in particular, and in Zaire in general, needs reforming. With relation to this and with specific reference to teachers, the data suggested that these participants were willing to bring about and implement changes in this regard, but only on condition that their working conditions (and particularly their pay) were improved.

As the determiner of instruction regulations and the one body that guarantees and protects instruction standards, the government (as all the inspectors and political educational authorities revealed) is willing and prepared to first consider suggestions for change made by the lower stratum of the educational pyramid (i.e. local educational authorities, inspectors, teachers). But at the same time, the data also revealed that, due to lack of funds, and particularly to wrong decisions and mismanagement, it is highly probable that the government will resist changes that require huge funding, even if they were proven to be the medicine needed to cure TEFL, and the educational

system as a whole.

In relation to most of the major findings described earlier, the data indicated that the most important of them all in this research (see below) is the fact that learners were found to lack motivation to go on learning English, a fact acknowledged by all the participants, some directly, some others indirectly. This lack of motivation was overwhelmingly found to be, not directly due to the learners themselves, but caused by the ways they were being taught and the different experiences they were having. Put differently, the data suggested that it was the teaching methods used (and their consequences) that were largely responsible for the lack of motivation and subsequent passivity and negative attitudes observed in most students.

The reasons why we too have come to view teaching methods (namely their de-motivating influence) as occupying the most determining position amongst all the findings are that most of the other findings can be successfully explained in relation to it, and proven to be engendered by it.

To start with, let us consider the reasons why most learners in Eastern Kasai understand English relatively better than they speak it. Apart from the *universal principles* which we believe have also contributed to this phenomenon, we think that the EFL learner's willingness and readiness to engage in oral exchanges, and thus *expose* himself to the potential threat of others' comments, are paramount. In fact, as highlighted in the literature and also in our own reflections on this particular matter (see Chapter 4, point 4.5.), we believe that, coupled to the inherent relative linguistic difficulty associated more with speaking (than understanding) a new language, most students we observed found it relatively easier to understand English (rather than speak it) because they have been *made* unwilling to open up, i.e. to *expose* themselves. Indeed, as the data revealed, far from increasing their *ability to tolerate a state of puzzlement* (Berger, 1984)<sup>2</sup>, or *language ego boundary* (Guiora, 1972, and Guiora et al., 1972)<sup>3</sup>, the methods used to teach these learners have been shown to heavily contribute to the decrease of this ability/ ego boundary. In fact (as shown earlier in this and the preceding chapters), teachers and the methods they were using overemphasized correct, errorless English pronunciation, and the many weak students who were usually and inevitably making mistakes were, one way or another, ridiculed or laughed at by the teachers and those few gifted students who (as the data indicated) were *on good terms* with the teachers.

Faced with this behaviour they came to consider as a threat to their self-esteem,

these numerous weak students progressively built up defensive mechanisms, of which the most evident was a decision to reduce to the minimum their oral participation in lessons. This psychological stand, which (as we believe) learners more or less consciously adopted during the early years of English learning (i.e. 2nd and 3rd years secondary school) became in the long run part of their EFL *personality state*, hence deep-rooted in their EFL linguistic behaviour. This might also explain, even in part, that the majority of 4th, 5th and 6th formers also pointed at speaking as being more difficult for them to master. In the same line of thought, the few who (as the data indicated) used to speak did so, not because they were speaking correct English (indeed they were also making mistakes, even if these were fewer as compared to those made by weak students), but because they were managing relatively well to regain their *affective youth*, increase their *adaptive language ego* (Brown, 1980)<sup>4</sup> and ended up quite successfully increasing their *ego strength*. Thus, as the data suggested, it was because these students were relatively less inhibited, more willing to face and overcome those frustrations associated with speaking English that they were somehow satisfactorily using this language orally.

As for ISP students, the data suggested that, though they also found speaking ability to be more difficult to achieve than understanding, their speaking skills were better than those of secondary school students. This, as we believe the data suggested, was due, not only to these students' wider experience in and acquaintance with English (which also undoubtedly contributed to improve their proficiency), but primarily (and in relation with their experience) to their willingness to speak, a willingness brought about by their increased and increasing confidence in their own abilities as regards this matter. This, we believe, subsequently raised their tolerance of ambiguity threshold, hence increased their *empathic capacity* (Taylor et al., 1971)<sup>5</sup>.

In the same way, students' unwillingness to *get involved* can be made accountable for the unidirectionality in classroom interactions we spoke about earlier in this chapter, teachers' almost total involvement in lessons, students' neglect or disinterest in oral skills development (in favour of writing), and above all teacher-centredness/domination in teaching methods used. Indeed, knowing and using more *correct* language (since they were also the ones who set English correctness standards in the learning process), teachers were inevitably doomed to talk more, and thus contribute more than necessary to the lessons. Hence their excessive involvement in lessons and interactions with students. On the other hand, due to this, students in general were

unescapably driven to keep a very low profile because they were afraid of being unable to fulfil teachers' oral performance expectations, a fact which, in some way, also undoubtedly contributed enormously to students' concentration on writing rather than oral skills.

Even in the case of time and opportunities to practise English, students' motivation seems to have also been crucial. Actually, being a foreign language, and hence being learnt under the conditions we described earlier in the Introduction, conditions which have been corroborated by the data we gathered (see Chapter 8.), English will remain for quite a long time restricted mainly to classrooms. Consequently, the time those who learn it could devote to practise it, and the practice opportunities they are likely to get are (and will remain) very limited. We think therefore that it is mainly up to the learners themselves to do their best to take advantage of what (in terms of practice time and opportunities) these learning conditions offer to them and, even more importantly, to create more opportunities and hence increase practice time. But, without motivation, that is without the will to (1) use the scarce opportunities and time instructional conditions offered to them, and (2) increase them (i.e. these opportunities and time) by *reaching out*, no successful practice of this language, hence improvement in verbal proficiency, could ever be possible.

In line with the above, frustrations, disappointments, lack of confidence in their own abilities (to mention only these) also played a crucial role in determining the quantity and quality of English language items these learners were likely to transform into input/ intake, and subsequently the quality and quantity of speech output they were likely to exhibit. As we described it earlier in Chapter 4 (points 4.3. and 4.5.), particularly with relation to input/ intake and filtering, like all learners learning a foreign language under the conditions English is learnt in Eastern Kasai, learners of this language in this part of the world are exposed to basically unnatural, limited and poor (in both quality and quantity) type of English. So are the interactions they are involved in. In this present instance, because (as the data indicated) they were discouraged and had lost hope, these learners were not (consciously, but more uncsciously) paying enough heed to the English speech they were exposed to. To adopt Gass's (1988)<sup>6</sup> terminology, they do not *apperceive* a great deal of this already poor (English) input, which they equally poorly transform into *comprehended* input (cf. Chapter 4, point 4.3.).

This deterioration in input apperception and comprehensibility (so to speak) is,

we believe, a direct consequence of the excessive *reduction* of the already reduced English speech proper to this type of formal language learning (see points 4.3. and 4.5.). This reduction behaviour, which we believe finds its origin in the (rather more unconscious and excessive) filtering of whatever is related to English (speech), a sieving which is itself already highly affect-based because of the formality of the learning conditions and the *advanced affective age* of the learners, was even further strengthened by the methods used to teach, hence the ways teachers were handling the learning process. Put differently, the data seem to have indicated that this excessive filtering of input was greatly due to the anxiety, frustrations and despair students in Eastern Kasai learn English with. Therefore, lest they be further exposed to depreciative remarks from the other people in the learning environment (teachers particularly), most of these learners *over-monitor* their own speech, and exhibit only those few parts of it they think are likely not to attract *threats* to them.

In short, lack of incentive to perform orally plus the already poor nature of input/intake specific to this formal learning type, which stressed the downward trend in the quality and quantity of English these EFL learners are exposed to, have a great impact on the quality and quantity of the English they *put out*. In fact, as we saw (cf. Chapter 4, point 4.3.), there exists a relationship between the type and quantity of language learners *take in* and the type and quantity of speech they produce. In this particular case under study in this thesis, since the English they are exposed to is virtually very poor, and so are the bits of it they transform into input/intake, it is then not exaggerated to conclude (as the data suggested) that the traumatic experiences these learners had and are still having (mainly in terms of post-initial motivation), traumas caused largely by the ways teachers handle the EFL learning process, are the one element that in the end have contributed a lot more to their poor proficiency in English.

In conclusion, the data indicated that, though learners of English in Eastern Kasai (and in Zaire in general) have motivation to learn English, a conclusion also reached by Swekila (1981:101-102)<sup>7</sup> when he said that "In general [...] students in Zaire have favourable general attitudes towards English", they generally speaking lack *motivation to go on learning*, or *post-initial motivation*, i.e. perseverance. He found this lack of perseverance to have been caused by teachers and the ways they handled the whole learning business. So did Lubasa (1985:124)<sup>8</sup> when he said that "[EFL] teachers [in Zaire] precisely 'kill' the learners' motivation with their teaching

” But unlike Lubasa who associated this *killing of motivation* more with course or syllabus design (p.123)<sup>9</sup>, we have found that the real problem is the neglect that motivational attitudinal factors are the object of in the teaching methods used. At a certain stage in his research, Lubasa (1985:111)<sup>10</sup> also reached this conclusion, even though he mentioned only some of the elements involved in TEFL:

“For a formal language learning context [like the one in Eastern Kasai, and in Zaire in general] to result in similar achievement as in [an] informal [English learning] context, curricula, syllabuses, and coursebooks ought to take account of the learners’ freedom, their motivation and their perseverance ”.

More direct and open was Swekila’s conclusion: he said that TEFL ineffectiveness in Zaire in general (and as a consequence in Eastern Kasai) is mainly due to “the discrepancy which exists between the students’ goals and expectations and the objectives of the course *as it is taught* ”(1981:102. We have emphasized)<sup>11</sup>. As is evident, he sees this discrepancy as having more to do with the ways the methods used to teach prevent students from speaking, when indeed their (students’) all efforts are naturally aimed at achieving oracy:

“The basic objectives of the course as laid down in the curriculum [and as translated into teaching acts] ought to be modified to allow the *inclusion of the development of speaking ability* ”(p.103. We have once again emphasized)<sup>12</sup>.

Just like Swekila, we have reached the same conclusion that it is because teachers and the methods they use to teach *prevent* learners of English in Eastern Kasai from using this language verbally that TEFL in this area is not efficient. Also like Swekila, we have equated this inefficiency with the fact that most of these learners do not (dare) use this language in oral communication. It is our strong conviction that it is because they lack self-confidence (as well as some satisfactory command of English) that these learners are discouraged. Put differently, we strongly believe that because the teachers and their teaching methods *kill* their interest, their will and readiness to get involved, and above all their freedom to use English that these learners lack *motivation to go*

on. This is also (among many others) Gardner's (1982:136)<sup>13</sup> opinion when he said that "attitudinal variables are [strongly] related to achievement in second language because they help maintain an individual's motivation to success in the language".

As we said earlier, the learners we investigated were found to be lacking, not the motivation *before and upon starting the course*, but the one that should later on sustain and increase the initial one so as to carry them to a successful completion of the learning, i.e. satisfactory English verbal proficiency. As we also said throughout this chapter, this methodology-engendered lack of *motivation to go on/perseverance* is, as the data suggested, the one factor that the most contributed to the fact that (to answer the fundamental question this research work is concerned with) most Zairean Ciluba-French speaking learners of English do not perform well in oral English communication. And it is this factor that ought to be dealt with in the first place if any far-reaching improvement in Eastern Kasai TEFL is ever to be realized.

## 9.2. Recommendations

In the next pages therefore, we present our recommendations as to what to change and which strategies to use to this end, and how and when to assess the outcome of the change.

As we said in the first part of this chapter, the data have indicated that it is because EFL students in Eastern Kasai lack *motivation to go on learning* (until success is achieved)/ *perseverance* that they do not successfully perform in English oral communication. This lack of perseverance was found to be *induced* by the teaching methods used, hence by the teachers. This had many consequences of which (to mention only a few) (1) students' disinterest in speaking and concentration on writing skills (this being a further consequence of the exam/ testing system), poor oral proficiency, hence speechlessness, passivity and withdrawal mainly from verbal interactions; (2) teachers' overall domination of and involvement in the whole teaching-learning process (a phenomenon brought about chiefly by the over-emphasis put on speech accuracy). To use a bottom-up approach, students' speechlessness and passivity (which were found to be caused by their lack of perseverance, which in turn was found to be caused by their relatively consistent *failure* to fulfil teacher-set correctness standards) were engendered by the methods teachers used. Therefore (as we said when we concluded the first part of this chapter), to improve Eastern Kasai EFL students' fluency or better to decrease their speechlessness and passivity levels, change must be in



the first place concerned with how to extricate the very element at the root of their unwillingness to use English in verbal communication. And this element is the fact that teaching methods overemphasize form/ accuracy/ product. And this, as a consequence, makes of the teaching process more teacher-dominated, teacher-centred.

In sum, EFL methods ought to be made fluency-/ process-based, hence the learning process much more learner-dominated, or at least more learner-oriented. In this way (see below), these learners will be more motivation-oriented, i.e. motivation in the sense of perseverance or sustaining and increasing of initial motivation, which (as the data indicated) these students usually have before and upon starting English learning.

In line with the discussion and conclusions concerning the process FL learning follows, we can say that the one significant thing to do in this case is to try to model EFL teaching methods on much of this process. This is especially the case regarding the types of strategies learners use (cf. point 3.3.). First and most important of all, EFL learners in Eastern Kasai should be made to feel *free and expected* to use any communication means available to them when facing oral communication problems. They should (so to speak) be *tacitly allowed* to use all the range of those strategies intrinsic to EFL learning process, of which the most important, and therefore the ones whose use must be reinforced, are achievement/ productive communicative strategies.

On the other hand, they should be made to feel that, even though they do not yet successfully come to use English as they should, their attempts to speak this language are acknowledged by their teachers as successful and necessary steps on the road to final successful achievement. Hence they should not be made to feel exposed when they resort to these strategies or when they are unsuccessful or make mistakes. Thence teachers should not be over-concerned with the mistakes these learners make and correct them each time to the point of becoming, as Medgyes (1983:6)<sup>14</sup> says, *schizophrenic*, a behaviour we (building on this writer) have come to call *error correction mania* or *error correction schizophrenia*. This (abnormal) attitude of over-correcting learners' mistakes is unfortunately found among many of us EFL teachers whose first language is not English. And this is what largely contributes to making most of our students' motivation plummet.

When they feel they are somehow achieving something, these learners *will* go on trying and achieving. Whence their *motivation to go on* achieving/ improving will grow and grow and end up becoming (as we said in the first part of this chapter) part of their whole EFL linguistic behaviour, their *EFL personality state*. Once they

have realized that they themselves and also their teachers and the other people in the learning process can trust their efforts and abilities, these learners will no longer be afraid or reluctant to try now and again to achieve: from the *avoiders* the data indicated most of them are, they will become *achievers, performers*.

The communication we have been so far referring to is mainly oral because the only one visible element of EFL learning outcome that will most make these learners (like all learners of any living foreign language) feel whether or not they have achieved, or are on their way to achieving, the ultimate aim of EFL learning, namely oral proficiency. In this way, and in relation to what we said earlier (concerning EFL learning process), these learners should be allowed enough time to engage in meaning negotiation, as this is also an important cornerstone in the overall learner communication freedom we have talked about in the preceding paragraphs.

But like in all FL learning contexts, time in EFL learning in Eastern Kasai is also inherently a very precious and rare commodity. Where then is this extra time learners are to be allowed to carry out their meaning negotiation going to come from? We believe that by allowing them to use other means (the ones they find easy to handle) to express themselves, a use which will at the same time reduce the amount of time teachers usually spend trying to explain all the notions in English, a practice that usually has the drawback of only increasing most students' comprehension difficulties, thus requiring more and more time for the teachers to explain, repeat, illustrate... Hence, it is from the usual time *wastage* in EFL classes (Dodson, 1963:6)<sup>15</sup> that the time to be allocated to students' meaning negotiation will come.

With regards to this particular point, we would advise teachers either not to use translations or not to resort themselves frequently to paralinguistic means. They should ask those few gifted students to do it on their behalf for those of their classmates who have difficulties. Teachers should therefore act themselves only in case there happens to be no solution from the students themselves. By not indulging in translations and other communicative strategies (than English) to clarify and explain their messages to the students, teachers will not only compel them to work hard and be involved in the learning process at any single moment of this activity, but they will also tacitly express their disapproval and reluctance for students to use these means. This tactical psychological strategy will be, in the long run, adopted by students themselves, helped in this by their increased and still increasing command of English. In the end therefore, they will develop abhorrence for resort to these other means but

English to communicate in this language.

By allowing students time to engage in meaning negotiation, and thus allowing them to try to use English in verbal communication, teachers will also allow them to increase their practice opportunities and time during English lessons. In conjunction with students' freedom of speech (and perseverance and the feeling of achievement they will inevitably feel), these increases will also push them to seek (both inside and outside classrooms) for more and more opportunities and time to practise their English. It then follows that they 'will' do their utmost to look for and create opportunities for much more practice time, hence more practice opportunities: they will become high input generators -HIG (Seliger, 1977, cited in Tarone, 1983a, see Chapter 4, point 4.5.)<sup>16</sup>. In so doing, they will undoubtedly expose themselves to a greater quantity of English and thus also increase its quality (even if in the slightest proportions). And because they will feel more confident and relatively happy with their learning outcome, therefore motivated to know and achieve more, they will *reduce* less of this input, and therefore end up transforming most of it into intake.

Also to increase the possibility of heightening this emphasis on the learners' motivation to speak English, exam/ testing system should also (as all the participants in this research pointed out) be more directed to developing oral rather than writing skills. But as to achieve this would require funding (it will, for instance, require a reduction in the number of students per class, thus an increase in the number of EFL classes, teachers, and teaching hours), the government would (as the data have indicated) not be warm enough about this solution. Therefore, the only possible and feasible way out in this case resides in promoting speaking ability as we have described it in the preceding lines. Indeed, the sole learners' determination to always do better will prove a crucial enough factor to bring about positive change in their oral proficiency, hence increase their overall motivation to succeed.

The introduction of completely new methods in EFL teaching in Eastern Kasai might prove very difficult and long a task because, though relatively freer in their methodological handling of the teaching process, EFL teachers are anyway compelled to follow the macro-lesson plan already set by the educational authorities (cf. Lesson Preparation Sheet: Appendix 3.8.). We thus suggest that the changes we have put forward here should (in the meantime) be applied to the methods our data indicated these teachers still use (cf. Chapter 8, points 8.1., 8.3.1.2., 8.3.2. and 8.4.1.2.).

They should be introduced particularly in those parts of the lessons where students

are expected to talk, and hence take control, direction and management of the lessons: *practice-control* (stage 2) and *synthesis* (stage 4) for grammar and vocabulary lessons; part of *listening comprehension* (stage 1) and *silent reading* (stage 3), and the whole of *expressive reading* (stage 4) for reading lessons. In this latter stage, emphasis should be laid on comprehension questions/ answers, like in Method B.

In conversation lessons, *memorization* (stage 3 in Method C) should (if used) be shortened and the time thus saved should be allocated to *practice* (stage 3 in Method D). Indeed, to allow the students much time and freedom of speech, teachers should adopt Method D which (thanks to its Practice stage) gives much more latitude to learners to relatively less unrealistically practise their English, this in line with the recommendations we made earlier in this chapter. However, we also suggest that, besides this, trials should be made (mostly by teachers) to introduce new ways of teaching, with the aim to reducing students' stress and anxiety, by allowing them freedom of speech. This has also much chance of succeeding, for inspectors and administrators (and also the government) (cf. Inspectors and Administrators' interviews) have acknowledged the need for change, and are prepared to let teachers (or anybody else in the profession) experiment new approaches. The next step in this change process should, of course, be concerned with the implementation of these changes.

Like the broad educational institution of which it is a part, TEFL in Eastern Kasai is bound to change if it is to survive. It is in this sense that the changes we have suggested are dictated by the perpetual adjustment to environment, society and its values this field of knowledge is to make in order to fulfil its duties to the Eastern Kasai community. As is usually the case in innovations, all the people involved in TEFL in Eastern Kasai are bound to and will, to varying degrees, react to/ resist these changes (Klein, 1972:502; Schein, 1972:99; Havelock, cited in Morrish, 1976:55-70; 88)<sup>17</sup>. This reaction/ resistance to change is a normal defensive behaviour triggered by what they are likely to perceive as a menace (Miller, 1967, cited in Nicholls, 1983:9; Morrish, 1976:87; Dalin, 1978:35)<sup>18</sup>. As the data indicated, because they are the ones who will most obviously adopt and implement the changes, EFL teachers are most likely the ones who will most resist them. Though the reasons for this resistance are numerous, the data suggested that some of these teachers are most likely to resist because they will feel that changes are evidence that what they were doing so far was wrong, hence their competence is questioned. This might consequently weaken their

position and status vis-a-vis the learners and/ or the other people in the learning process. Some others are likely to resist because they might feel insecure in handling the new elements; and most certainly many are likely to oppose them because they are unsatisfied with their working conditions, especially their low pay.

Since however these changes do not require extra effort or work from them (they will indeed alleviate teachers' work load by transferring most of the active part of the teaching process to the learners), teachers' resistance is likely not to be triggered by this requirement. If ever there is resistance on these grounds, then this might be because teachers are likely to find it more difficult not to talk much (what the changes aim at) than talk much (what they try to combat).

As resistance is a normal integral and in-built part of change process, there is no way of completely getting rid of it among EFL teachers in Eastern Kasai when they are told about and asked to adopt and implement these changes. The only wise and sensible thing to do to secure successful adoption and implementation of these innovations is to try to reduce or lower these teachers' resistance level by consulting them and appealing to their understanding and goodwill (Argyle, 1967, Johns, 1973, and Dickinson, 1975: all cited in Nicholls, 1983:42; 45)<sup>19</sup>.

This can be achieved by resorting to a combination of *value*, *rational*, *didactic*, and *psychological* resistance reducing strategies (Guba, cited in Morrish, 1976:116-117)<sup>20</sup>. This will amount to showing these teachers how these changes will benefit their students and themselves, convincing them of their necessity, applicability, and effectiveness, therefore creating in them positive attitudes toward them, and showing them that their involvement and contribution are welcome and expected, an evidence that they are valued. In so doing, we believe, these teachers will inevitably find out, among other things, that their work load will become relatively lighter than before and that, being relatively less complex, the changes could be easily implemented (Morrish, 1976:75-83)<sup>21</sup>. There will therefore be greater probability that they will co-operate even in the absence of salary increase or any other alternative material reward. By trying to reduce their resistance in this way, there will be higher possibility of reducing the risk of seeing this whole change process *sky-rocket* (CAL, 1978:87)<sup>22</sup>, i.e. seeing teachers enthusiastically and actively participate in and adopt these changes, pursue them intensely for some time, and then drop them.

Adoption of this combination of *empirical-rational* approach (where emphasis is put on informing and motivating the teachers concerning the changes) and *norma-*

*tive re-educational* approach (where teachers are allowed to voice their opinion as to why, how and when the changes are to be introduced) (Chin and Benne, 1972:32-59; Sieber, 1972, cited in Whiteside, 1978:45; Thompson, 1981:184-190)<sup>23</sup> will, we believe, guarantee *power equalization* or *participant (teacher) involvement* (Leavitt, 1965, and Havelock, 1969: both cited in Nicholls, 1983:42; 43)<sup>24</sup>, this sine qua non for success in change adoption and implementation. Indeed, as Huberman (cited in Morrish, 1976:170)<sup>25</sup> said

“The most durable and effective innovations are those which the user has internalized; that is which he has embraced because they satisfy his own specific needs ”.

As is evident then, participatory strategies (i.e. those involving the adopters of the changes in the process) must be preferred to coercive ones (i.e. those in which force, mainly from above, is used to impose changes onto the adopters). Also evident is the fact that imposing the changes we have suggested will, in most cases, probably end up compelling the teachers to *go underground* (Pellegrin, 1967, cited in Nicholls, 1983:42)<sup>26</sup>, i.e. accept the changes *in principle* while secretly undermining them. In this specific case, the result would probably be that many will comply with the changes only to avoid sanctions (Kelman, 1972:224; 226)<sup>27</sup>: they will either not apply them when unsupervised, or apply them in a wrong or incomplete way.

As the last main point of this chapter, the following lines are concerned with how to evaluate the changes introduced, i.e. how to check whether or not they have been successful.

Any programme set to evaluate change should normally answer certain basic questions related to both the topic of study and the innovations introduced in this respect. In the particular case under study in the present thesis, we have based our evaluation programme on ideas developed by Taba (cited in Morrish, 1976:155-157)<sup>28</sup>. It is in this way that we have found it indicated that our evaluation programme should answer the following six fundamental questions:

- (1) Is the most important change we have proposed consistent with the objectives of EFL teaching in Eastern Kasai in particular?
- (2) Is this evaluation programme comprehensive enough as regards these

objectives?

- (3) Has it got sufficient diagnostic value so as to account for the strengths and weaknesses of this main change?
- (4) Is it really capable of describing what we have designed it to describe?
- (5) Is it capable of describing the learners' performance in the light of the objectives set in the instructional programme?
- (6) Can it be applied continuously, and thus become an integral part of the EFL teaching-learning process in this area?

As the reader will certainly notice in the following lines, we have adopted an upside-down presentation of this programme. In fact, we have progressively answered the evaluation questions above whilst at the same time introducing bits of the programme itself, which is finally fully exposed together with answers to Questions 4, 5, and 6. We have preferred this approach to the one often used in research [where the programme is presented first, then after put to the test (here the six questions)] because we feel this procures more insight in how the programme fits the test, and vice versa.

Concerning Question 1, we strongly believe that, let alone the other changes, the main change we have suggested is consistent with the objectives of EFL teaching in Eastern Kasai, which amounts (cf. Part Two, especially points 3.2.2. and 3.3., and chapters 4 and 5) to *speaking English satisfactorily*. As the data indicated, EFL learners in Eastern Kasai cannot achieve perfect accuracy in English use and pronunciation, but can attain *satisfactory fluency* in English oral communication. As *verbal fluency communication* cannot be possible without the learners understanding what their interlocutors say to them, it goes without saying that, before they achieve speaking ability, these learners will have already been able to understand most of what their interlocutors would say, (cf. Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5). In this way (answer to Question 2), this programme is comprehensive as far as the objectives of the EFL course in Eastern Kasai are concerned.

As we suggested earlier, the innovations to be introduced into EFL teaching methods in Eastern Kasai have both strengths and weaknesses. The strengths include the attempt to increase the learners' will and desire to use English orally most often, as well as to enhance their oral skills. But because this is most likely to be achieved by these learners only with reference to their prior linguistic knowledge, gestures and other means and strategies of communication than English itself, there is the danger

(cf. Teachers and Inspectors' interviews: Appendices 2.1. and 2.2.) that some students might end up making of this relatively easy *escape route* their permanent EFL communication strategy. But despite this possible drawback, it is certain (cf. chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5) that most learners will in the long run end up achieving fluency, i.e. speaking English more fluently than ever before (answer to Question 3).

As the change suggested is mainly about promoting increase in learners' motivation to speak English (hence their freedom, flexibility, and willingness to use this language orally), we believe that our evaluation programme is really capable of describing this fact for which we have designed it. Hence, since we have to evaluate this innovation in terms of the numbers of students who would feel able to and who would actually speak English during at least the first six months of the course, after this period, and at the end of the secondary study cycle, evaluation in this respect should therefore be done by comparing:

(1) *Old to New approach:*

Learners taught with new methods (i.e. the ones in which the change has been introduced) should be compared to those taught with old methods (i.e. those the data indicated EFL teachers in Eastern Kasai are using so far): if the new approach learners' participation rate in lessons (in terms of numbers of learners participating, the quantity and quality as well as the general direction of interactions) outweighs that of old approach learners, then the change will be proving successful.

(2) *New approach learners among themselves:*

This should also be done on participation ground: if learners in each successive upper study year perform relatively better than those in the immediately preceding year, then the change will be proving successful.

(3) (At the end of the secondary school EFL programme), *the final number of old and new approach learners* who can satisfactorily and freely communicate in English: if the number of 'new approach students' is higher than that of 'old approach ones', then the change will be proving successful (answers to Questions 4 and 5).

As it appears, evaluating this innovation can be done on both short- and long-term bases, and also on small and large scales. This means that it can be applied continuously, thus becoming an inherent part of EFL teaching-learning process in Eastern Kasai (answer to Question 6).

Although we have made the suggestions above, we are aware that what we have done here is only sketching an outline for future developments and evaluation, and



we realize that curriculum innovation and evaluation is a complex issue in itself, and therefore it needs further research.

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## CHAPTER TEN

## CONCLUSION

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As said in the Introduction, we embarked on this work with the aim to research into the problems met by Zairean Ciluba-French speaking learners of English, and to attempt to make suggestions as to how to solve them. We were particularly interested in finding out what prevents most of these learners using this language orally, as speaking is beyond doubt the chief objective which, like all TEFL courses, TEFL in Eastern Kasai primarily aims to achieve.

Though, from experience we felt that some specific factors amongst the many that interact in foreign language teaching/ learning were responsible for this situation, we preferred not to deliberately focus our attention on them. Therefore, we decided to consider, if not all, at least most of the factors interplaying in TEFL (cf. Part Two) as having all, *a priori*, equal potential for being the factor(s) at the root of the main problem we were concerned with. As is evident, this convinced us not to put forward any particular hypothesis, even though we did comment and reflect (in relation to the situation in Eastern Kasai) on the issues we talked about in Part Two.

Before doing this, we thought it wise to start by describing the Ciluba-French learner's historical, sociolinguistic and system of education background, focussing particularly on the teaching of French and English (Part One, Chapter One). The historical sociolinguistic study showed that, like all Zairean learners, the Eastern Kasai learner of English knows at least two languages before he starts to learn English: his mother tongue (or any other local language), and French, the official language and language of instruction. It was also revealed that English in Zaire and in Eastern Kasai is not a second language, but a foreign language, a fact which was later indirectly corroborated by the place TEFL occupies in the Zairean language education system as a whole. Indeed, as compared to the teaching of French, TEFL started later in the 1950's, i.e. by the end of the colonial period.

For many reasons, and particularly because it was felt by the Belgian colonizing power as a threat to French, English started to be taught first as an option. It was only later, i.e. after independence, that it became a secondary school compulsory subject, and a specialization branch at higher education level. As it had only French teaching

as the model in foreign language teaching in Zaire, TEFL (as we also described it later in Chapter 5) started first by following the path cut by this teaching, a path which, in spite of all, still influences it nowadays.

Secondly, we decided to investigate and see the results and assumptions reached by other researchers in foreign language teaching, TEFL and related fields (Part Two). Hence this part of the thesis consisted in an attempt to understand English learning in Eastern Kasai, an attempt we made through an exploring of the following factors we believed influence foreign language learning: the effects on the learner of knowing more than one language (Chapter Two), some issues on how the bilingual learns a foreign language (namely the relationships between the languages he knows and the one he is learning; how he processes the latter and how, not only this, but also the learning itself develops; and the strategies he is likely to use in this process) (Chapter Three), some factors related to his physiology and cognitive powers, to the languages he is handling, and the context in which he is doing this, and to his affect, attitudes and personality (Chapter Four), and a description/ assessment of methods in FL/ EFL teaching used in the world at large and those used in Zaire and Eastern Kasai (Chapter Five).

As far as Chapter Two is concerned, the literature suggested that knowing more than one language has definitely no adverse effects on the FL learner. The poor verbal performance most FL learners exhibit was said to be due, not directly to the very fact that they know more languages, but to other factors inherent in the conditions under which the FL is being learnt. We too came to the same conclusion that most Ciluba-French speaking Zaireans who learn English in school conditions perform poorly, not because the two languages they know prior to learning English inhibit their EFL learning, but because of other factors.

In Chapter Three, the literature suggested that, like all human languages, the languages the FL learner knows and the one he is learning are to some extent independent at the production (for they are at this level separate/ co-ordinate systems), and interdependent at the perception (for they are stored as concepts/ meanings in the brain). And since these are basically the same in all human languages, they are also so in all the languages known to the FL learner. In line with this, the literature then suggested that it is on account of this commonness on the one hand, and that separateness on the other, that should be put the relative ease with which the FL learner perceives/ understands the FL, and the relative difficulty he has to produce/

speak it.

On reflection, we found this to be the same with learners of English in Eastern Kasai: they will rely on Ciluba and (particularly) French to learn English. Their comprehension of English precedes their speaking of it because (as the literature also had it) perception always precedes production. They will also use their knowledge of French to learn English because these two languages have more conceptual, syntactic and sound system elements in common than English has with Ciluba. With regard to the way the FL learner processes the FL, how this language develops and how the learner learns it, the literature suggested that, due to the language unity at the conceptual level, the FL learner will find it easier to process the new language from meaning, and so he does.

Concerning his competence in the new language, the literature has shown that this is a continuous process which, for the FL learner, has no end. This fact is also true for the speaker for whom the FL is the mother tongue, even though this is more evident as far as the FL learner is concerned. Continuity in this process, the literature suggested, means that, at different stages, different periods, the FL learner's abilities in the FL will be different. But since there is no prospect for him to reach the native speaker's level of competence, the FL learner will always (even though decreasingly) more often than the native speaker make use of strategic competence (i.e. strategies) to communicate.

As we reflected, we found the EFL learner in Eastern Kasai to be no exception to this rule: he finds it easy to understand English rather than speak it because particularly of the similarities that exist between French and this new language. He will also resort more to French because the instruction context has already privileged this language, making for him its use a habit he will find hard to discard.

As we have said above, this learner is bound to use strategic competence, meaning that he will follow the same linguistic developmental route as all FL learners. But in his particular case, he will first rely on Ciluba and French particularly, and use many other verbal as well as nonverbal strategies to learn English. Then, this will progressively decrease the more proficient he becomes in this language. Consequently, he will then progressively decrease his use of *outside of English system* linguistic strategies, and increasingly look inside and within this system for means to communicate in this language.

The main strategy at his disposal in this matter will of course be simplification/

generalization (of English or its elements in the light of Ciluba and French), the strategy on which most of the others he is also inevitably bound to resort to (transfer/borrowing, foreignizing, for instance) are based. He will inescapably do this to bridge the gaps in his command of English: he will first simplify/ generalize English by comparing it to/ contrasting it with (Ciluba and) French. Then, as his proficiency in this language increases, this simplification/ generalization will become more and more English-based. Before he reaches this stage, however, he will have also already *anglicized* most of the elements he will find himself in need to borrow from Ciluba and French.

We also reflected that, because he will naturally feel a strong urge to communicate in English, this learner will make more use of English-based achievement communication strategies than avoidances, thus willing to take risks to speak English. And because on the one hand he will want to use English orally, and on the other because he will not yet have mastered this language, he will undoubtedly use interactional/ co-operative strategies (plea for ignorance, for instance).

As we said earlier, we subdivided Chapter Four into five other groups of factors, related to (1) the learner as a physiological being (biological factors) (2) with the ability to know languages (cognitive factors), (3) the relationships existing between the languages involved in the learning process (language-specific factors), (4) the context in which the FL learning is taking place (environmental/ contextual factors), and (5) the learner affect, attitudes and personality (social psychological factors). The literature we consulted on all these factors suggested that, though some of them are more important than others, none was said to be more crucial in determining FL/ EFL learning outcome than social psychological factors. Indeed, apart from biological and cognitive factors which the literature obviously discarded as unimportant (on grounds that acquisition of L1 by any normal human is evidence that he is competent and able to learn any other human language), language-specific and contextual factors were said to be important only insofar as the learner is really motivated and willing to learn. In other words, the literature suggested that social psychological factors are (as we are also convinced: see our reflections on this matter) the cogwheel without which the role played by the other factors could not have an impact on FL learning.

So, when we reflected on TEFL in Eastern Kasai, we were convinced of the same thing: the cause at the root of the problem this thesis has been dealing with is the learners' lack of motivation and will to persevere in their learning. This we concluded

was strongly related to the methods used in this teaching, and the subsequent teachers' behaviours and attitudes. So, we came to the conclusion that the inability many of these learners had to speak English was due neither to the fact that they were cognitively immature, nor that they were biologically abnormal, or that it was because they were learning this language in very poor contexts (i.e. where there were practically no time or opportunities to practise English, no good English models, to name only these), but to the more potent effect of their lacking of the drive and incentive to sustain, increase their initial motivation, and keep on learning. And because we were convinced that this was external to these learners in that it was generated by the teachers and the methods they used, we termed this incapacity *induced inability*.

Chapter Five dealt with nine of the most known teaching methods and approaches in FL/ EFL (i.e. Grammar Translation and Direct Methods, Audiolingual and Audiovisual methods, Communicative Language Teaching and Total Physical Response methods, and Silent Way, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia), and also with the situation in Zaire and Eastern Kasai as related to this issue. Hence, we subdivided it into two sections, the first of which we devoted to a general discussion-description of these methods, and the second to the ones used in TEFL in Eastern Kasai and Zaire.

Concerning the first section, the literature suggested that the above-mentioned methods and approaches should be grouped into two: those focussing on the product of learning (product-centred) and those which, though aiming also at the product, do it by emphasizing the process through which this product is ultimately achieved (process-centred methods). Product-centred methods and approaches (DM, AL, AV, and to some extent GT) were said to aim to develop (separately from one another) the four linguistic skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. They were said to overemphasize accuracy in production, and to be form-based and teacher-dominated. Hence the literature suggested that they have many in-built obstacles to successful learning, of which learner de-motivation was said to be the major one. Indeed, the literature showed that, by overstressing accuracy, these methods and approaches at the same time prevent learners from participating in lessons and exchanges, for the simple reason that, being not yet accurate, learners can possibly not yet satisfy these methods' central requirement. Hence, knowing that the teachers are aware of their situation, and yet they still insist on their (the learners') achieving this *not yet possible* deed, most learners get confused, discouraged and lose hope of ever succeeding to



speak the language. Hence, they translate their frustration into speechlessness and passivity.

Though they too aim to produce good speech, process-centred methods and approaches (CLT, TPR, SW, CLL, and Suggestopedia, for instance) focus on developing the learners' language communicative competence, i.e. their overall communication skills/ meaning expressing abilities. To do so, they attempt to replicate and apply the learning principles of the actual way FL learning is believed to be done. In this way, they allow learners to err, try out hypotheses, use other communication means to try to express themselves when the need arises. In so doing, these methods and approaches increase learners' confidence in themselves and enhance their willingness to learn to speak. So they are learner motivation-oriented, communication-/ fluency-based, and ultimately learner-oriented. The literature also suggested that these two groups are not entirely what they are said to be. Indeed, it is only because they include more of the process or product elements that they are labelled either process- or product-centred. In fact, they also include a smaller amount of the elements of the opposite group, which means that, considered individually, none of them is wholly appropriate.

With particular reference to Eastern Kasai, the literature showed that the TEFL methods and approaches used there are basically product-based. Hence, we reflected that EFL teaching in this area is inevitably teacher-dominated, with all the consequences this is likely to generate. Of these, we postulated that learners' passivity and withdrawal from (oral) interactions and de-motivation were to be the major ones.

Part Three of the thesis was entirely devoted to an Empirical Investigation of English Language Learning in Eastern Kasai, and was therefore concerned with the fieldwork and the results obtained. We divided it into three chapters: Chapter Six (Research Methods and Samples), Chapter Seven (Data Collection: Instruments and Techniques), and Chapter Eight (Data Analysis and Results).

In broad terms, Chapter Six was concerned with the description and explanation of the methods we planned to use to conduct our fieldwork and sample the population and the area we planned to investigate. Hence it was divided into two sections: Population and Area (where we described the population and the area we were to investigate), and Samples and Sampling Techniques (where we described the techniques we were to use to sample these population and area, and the reasons why we were to do so). We planned to investigate EFL learners, EFL teachers, EFL inspectors,

and political educational authorities. For the first of these groups, we planned to work with 21 schools in Mbujimayi, Cilenge, Miabi and Mweneditu, of which 19 regular (day) secondary schools, 2 evening schools, and the Mbujimayi Teacher Training College (ISP). In all these institutions, we planned to deal with 413 EFL learners, ranging from first to fifth secondary school form (368 participants), and from first to third ISP study year (45 participants).

As concerning the teacher sample, we planned to investigate a total of 38 teachers (to be selected from the very schools we planned to work with), of which 32 from secondary school level, and 6 from the ISP. For this latter group however, we planned that we should be satisfied with a minimum of 3 participants if it would prove difficult to get 6.

We also planned to investigate a total of 5 EFL inspectors (2 in Mbujimayi, and 1 respectively in Mweneditu, Miabi and Cilenge), and 2 political educational authorities (1 in Mbujimayi and 1 in Kinshasa).

But as Chapter Seven (in which we described the techniques and instruments we planned to use and which we actually did use, and the ways we were to and did collect the data) has shown, things did not go completely according to our plan. Hence we introduced certain modifications (an account of which is made in Chapter Seven).

As for the sampling techniques, we planned to resort to triangulation because we realized that none of the various known sampling techniques read in the literature could, individually, suit our investigation. Hence, though centring our multimethod approach on the principle of random selection, we borrowed into it certain elements from simple random sampling, independent random sampling, cluster, whole group and stratified sampling techniques, and sampling with replacement. We used three types of instruments: 4 questionnaires (Questionnaires 1 and 2 for secondary school learners, and Questionnaires 3 and 4 for ISP students), 3 different types of interviews (1 for teachers, 1 for inspectors, and 1 for political educational authorities), and finally lesson observations in four secondary schools.

As described in Chapter Seven, and considering the modifications we introduced in our fieldwork, we finally involved 413 EFL learners, 38 teachers (from whom we had 6 interviews), 2 inspectors (from whom we had 2 interviews), and 2 political educational authorities (from whom we had also 2 interviews), and observed 16 lessons (involving 535 learners and 16 teachers). These observations focussed mainly on the teaching methods, the ways learners were behaving in relation to them, the relation-

ships and interactions between the different people in the classroom, and the strategies they were using to communicate to and with each other. As it was not possible for us to acquire and use a video recorder, we wrote down the data as they came our way. This way we are convinced helped us collect more valuable and varied data than if we had relied mainly on some pre-established system of gathering data.

As we were pressed by time and lacked sufficient financial support, we did not technically speaking pilot either the questionnaires or the interviews. The only thing we did as a pre-test was to have some of our friends read and comment on these instruments, and also when we submitted the questionnaires to a sample of 24 Mbu-jimayi learners, mainly with the view to determine the mean completion time to allocate to each specific questionnaire participant group. Due also to some facts we were confronted with in the field, we were obliged to change our plans and administer these different instruments as alternately as we could, instead of starting with all the questionnaires and ending with lesson observations as we planned in the first place.

Because we were concerned in our investigation with a large number of factors, we did not take and use any specific standardised test or any other questionnaire used before in other researches. Instead, we constructed our own, to suit the purpose we set to reach. It was also the same with the interviews.

Chapter Eight was devoted to the analysis of the data and the presentation of the results they yielded. In the first place, we described the approach we used to analyse the data, the reasons why we opted for it, and the way we presented the different data generated by the different instruments, and the reasons why we did so. With regard to this, we used no more than frequency and percentage counts together with explanations as a means to analyse the data and present the results. We did so because we were convinced that was the most appropriate way we had to deal with the data we gathered, data which were chiefly qualitative, very varied, and of which the great part consisted of ones that do not lend themselves easily to quantification. Hence we were convinced that they required more our judgment to be better understood than nonparametric or any other statistical tests.

We started with classroom observations, particularly those parts of them we thought were not appropriate to be dealt with together with the data from either the questionnaires or the interviews. Thus, after outlining the seven-point framework the observation data themselves yielded, and which we then used to present the results they generated, we presented the results of the Teaching Methods data, focussing on

the objectives the lessons were pursuing, the methods the teachers planned to use and the extent to which they stuck to/ diverged from them, and the ways students reacted to them. Then followed a comparison of students and teachers' participation rates, the type of cognitive processes students mostly used, the affective climate during the lessons, classroom control, the degree of interactions between students, and others (including the number and types of strategies used by teachers and students during the lessons). These were finally followed by summarized English versions of answers to questions we asked five teachers and twenty students after observing lessons.

Generally speaking, all the four types of lessons we observed were said to aim at developing learners' ability to speak English. But we observe that, in practice, the highly teacher-centred methods used and the teachers did nothing else but to prevent students from expressing themselves. Hence, it was the teachers (and not the students) who spoke and acted more. All the students, particularly those in the 2nd, 3rd and 4th secondary forms, used more recognition and rote memory than selective recall cognitive processes, which means that they were just repeating (without personal initiative intervening) what they heard the teachers or the other students say. Teachers' behaviours were in general largely unsupportive for students' learning. Thus, most of what was done or said in the classrooms was, if not by the teachers, at least teacher-initiated; and though they were profusely using different verbal and nonverbal strategies to teach, teachers did not want students (mainly the weak ones) to resort to them to communicate. As a result, most students were not participating, a behaviour we interpreted as a manifestation of their frustration, discouragement and de-motivation.

The questionnaire and interview data particularly produced numerous results of which the most outstanding was the de-motivating role played together by the teachers and the teaching methods insofar that they actually prevented the learners from learning to speak English. Indeed, the results of these data indicated that fluency in EFL learning was the skill learners most wanted to be trained in, not only to ensure successful learning outcome, but also and most importantly, to motivate them so that they could persevere in their endeavour.

These data also suggested that the EFL teaching methods used as well as teachers' behaviours and attitudes made it nearly impossible for the learners to engage freely in speaking. Hence these same data also suggested that methods as well as teachers' behaviours should be made to allow learners much more *freedom of expres-*

sion than ever before, this implying that these should tacitly be allowed to (1) use different kinds of strategies to express themselves, (2) engage in hypothesis formation and testing, meaning negotiation, and of course (3) err. By allowing them to behave in such a way, teachers would withdraw themselves from the centre and front line positions they have been so far occupying to the background where they and their methods have until now relegated the learners. As a consequence, learners would thus willingly become primary responsible for their own learning, would be more active, and would thus willingly take on as many roles in the teaching/ learning process as possible, and would likely end up more *opening up*, seeking for and creating more opportunities to practise and learn to speak English.

Starting in the classroom context, this behaviour will, we hope, be carried out into the street, into everyday life, thus becoming part of these learners' personalty and ego.

This finding was in line with our reflections on the basic cause of why most Ciluba-French learners of English are unable/ unwilling to use this language orally. The results corroborated our suspicion that this is so because, even though they have the motivation to learn English before and upon starting the course, these learners lack the drive to sustain it, make it grow and thus make them persevere. As we also reflected, these results also suggested that this has largely to do with the methods used and teachers' attitudes and behaviours.

In consideration of this, we proposed that methods should be reshuffled so as to allow, as Swekila (1981:103)<sup>1</sup> said, "the inclusion of the development of speaking ability". Ideally, we should have recommended that all the methods be completely changed and remodelled on the very basic principles of, say, humanistic methods, methods where teaching is based on learner-made syllabuses (like in CLL), and where learners are allowed plenty of time and freedom to express themselves. Unfortunately, TEFL in Eastern Kasai is part of an institution, and as such, it cannot escape limitations, mainly on time, learner and teacher freedom, and of course finance. In view of these restrictions, therefore, we proposed a solution which we believe is appropriate (not idealistic) to the situation as it is at home. It is to allow learners enough freedom and time to use English during those lesson stages already foreseen for this activity, namely Practice-control and Synthesis (in Grammar and Vocabulary lessons), Listening Comprehension, Silent Reading and Expressive Reading (in Reading lessons), and Practice (in Conversation lessons).

In relation to these reforms we also proposed that, being the ones for whom innovations such as these are intended, teachers should be made to feel motivated to implement them. To do so, they should either get material reward (salary increase, bonuses, for example) or be consulted so that they feel concerned and know what all the process is about, why it is being carried out, and how it is going to affect their teaching as well as their students. If none of these is done, then there will be a greater possibility of seeing the teachers, one way or another, boycott these innovations.

In the case we researched in this thesis, we found out that probably only the latter approach is possible, not only because of the financial difficulties our country is in, but also because of the lack of understanding of the importance of teaching our authorities so often show.

As we said in Chapter Nine, evaluation of the changes we have proposed can be done on short-, mid- or long-term bases, and can involve any number of learners. Therefore, it is up to the individual teachers to select which of these three types they would like to carry out. But we advise that the short- and mid-term are more profitable for they allow the teachers to correct and avoid mistakes, thus to adjust their methods for better results.

Throughout this research work, we have many a time used *Eastern Kasai* and *Zaire* interchangeably. The reason we have been doing so is (as we hinted in earlier paragraphs) that the TEFL situation in Eastern Kasai is basically the same as the one in the other parts of Zaire. Hence, we are convinced that the problem we have investigated in this work is basically the same in Zairean TEFL in general and that, therefore, the results we have obtained can be obtained anywhere else in Zaire, and that the solutions we have proposed can be applied to any Zairean TEFL course. In this same way, we believe that the methods we have used in this research can be replicated in other parts of Zaire, with the same conclusions as the ones we have reached here.

Though, however, we are convinced that the way we conducted our research is valid, it is surely not the only way to investigate the TEFL problems in our country. We think that other research will always bring some new light, some new element necessary to the resolution of these problems. And one of the other ways we think might be of use in this sense is to research into how the *learner freedom and plenty of practice time* aspects we have spoken about in this work, and the solution we have proposed could possibly be introduced to a greater degree into the other parts of the

lessons (as they are so far taught), with a view to make the whole lesson process learner-dominated/ learner-controlled.

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## A P P E N D I C E S

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### Contents

Questionnaires (1.)

Interviews (2.)

Miscellaneous (3.)

APPENDIX 1.

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## QUESTIONNAIRES.

## Contents

Introduction (1.a.)

Legend (1.b.)

Questionnaire 1 + Summary of Data (1.1.a. & 1.1.b.)

Questionnaire 2 + Summary of Data (1.2.a. & 1.2.b.)

Questionnaire 3 + Summary of Data (1.3.a. & 1.3.b.)

Questionnaire 4 + Summary of Data (1.4.a. & 1.4.b.)

1.a.

## I N T R O D U C T I O N

L'objectif du travail que vous allez faire dans quelques minutes et dont le questionnaire se trouve devant vous est de recueillir vos avis, opinions et impressions sur divers aspects de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage de l'Anglais au Kasai Oriental en particulier, et dans tout notre pays en general.

Pour que cet objectif soit pleinement atteint, et que les résultats de cette enquête soient valables, il est extrêmement important que vos remarques et réponses soient aussi SINCERES et PRECISES que possible.

Ce travail n'est ni un examen ni une interrogation. Il ne sera donc pas coté et ne pourra en AUCUNE FAÇON affecter vos résultats scolaires ou académiques.

Tout ce que vous direz sera traité en toute CONFIDENCE: ni vos professeurs, ni vos préfets, ni vos collègues ne verront ces questionnaires une fois remplis. Nous vous demandons donc de travailler en toute tranquillité, de vous exprimer LIBREMENT et CLAIREMENT, et de REPONDRE A TOUTES LES QUESTIONS qui vous sont posées dans ce questionnaire.

N'HESITEZ PAS de poser de questions ou demander des éclaircissements s'il vous arrivait de rencontrer de difficultés au courant de ce travail.

MERCI D'AVANCE POUR VOTRE COLLABORATION.

BISELELA TSHIMANKINDA

Université de Durham

Faculté des Sciences Sociales

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Durham, Angleterre.

Janvier-Mars 1988.

1.b.

## L E G E N D E

.....= Complétez

\* = Biffer la (les) mention(s) inutile(s)

E = Excellent

TB= Très Bien

B = Bien

AB= Assez Bien

CP= je ne Connais Pas

M = Médiocre.

1 = D'Accord

2 = Incertain (ni pour ni contre)

3 = Pas D'Accord.

Ti= Très Important

I = Important

Ai= Assez Important

Mi= Moins Important

Pi= Pas du tout Important

Ne= Neutre (c.à.d. vous n'avez pas de position, pas de réponse sûre.)

T = Toujours

S = Souvent

AS = Assez Souvent

Px = Parfois

R = Rarement

J = Jamais

Td = Très Difficile

d = difficile

Ad = Assez difficile

F = Facile

Tf = Très facile

APPENDIX 1.1.

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## Questionnaire 1 and Summary of Data

## CONTENTS

Questionnaire 1 (1.1.a.)

Summary of Data (1.1.b.)

1.1.a.

## Questionnaire 1.

## SECTION I: FICHE SIGNALÉTIQUE DU PARTICIPANT

CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

- (A) Date de naissance:...../...../ 19....
- (B) Sexe: Masculin/ Féminin.\*
- (C) Ecole:.....
- (D) Année d'études: 1e/ 2e/ 3e/ 4e/ 5e/ \*
- (E) Section:.....
- (F) Option :.....
- (G) Profession (si vous travaillez):.....
- (H) Langue(s) maternelle(s):
- a) Du Père:.....
- b) De la Mère:.....
- c) Que vous parlez:.....
- (I) Autres langues que vous connaissez:
- a) Langues Zairoises:.....
- b) Langues étrangères:.....
- (J) Aviez-vous déjà doublé de classe? Oui/ Non.\*
- Si OUI, laquelle (lesquelles) parmi celles mentionnées ci-dessous:
- a) Primaire: 3e/ 4e/ 5e/ 6e. \*
- b) Secondaire: 1e/ 2e/ 3e/ 4e \*



## SECTION II: PROFIL LINGUISTIQUE DU PARTICIPANT

ATTENTION: N'oubliez pas de consulter la légende!

(1) Si vous aviez le choix, auriez-vous choisi d'étudier l'Anglais? OUI/NON \*

(2) Si OUI, pourquoi?.....

(3) Si NON, pourquoi?.....

(4) Indiquez, dans l'ordre d'acquisition, les langues que vous connaissez:

1.....2.....3.....

4.....5.....6.....

Si vous aviez acquis certaines langues simultanément, veuillez les indiquer ci-dessous:

1.....

2.....

(5) Indiquez dans le tableau ci-dessous ce que vous pensez être votre niveau de connaissance de ces langues. Utilisez les lettres E, TB, B, AB, M, CP.

Langues	Parler	Comprendre	Lire	Ecrire
Français				
Anglais				
Ciluba				
Kiswahili				
Kikongo				
Lingala				
.....				
.....				

(6) Indiquez vos fréquences d'utilisation de chacune de ces langues quand vous parlez aux personnes ci-dessous.

[Ecrivez T, S, AS, Px, R, ou J à la jonction de la colonne de la langue et celle de la (des) personne(s)].

Langues	Père	Mère	Frères Soeurs	Prof. Engl.	Cond. Copains
Français					
Anglais					
Ciluba					
Kiswahili					
Kikongo					
Lingala					
.....					
.....					

(7) Lesquelles de ces langues utilisez-vous (T,S,AS,Px,R,J) EN CLASSE(pendant les leçons d'Anglais) pour vous adresser à votre professeur d'Anglais et à vos condisciples? (Mettez une + là où il faut).

Langues	Prof. Engl.						Cndisciples					
	T	S	AS	Px	R	J	T	S	AS	Px	R	J
Anglais												
Français												
Ciluba												
Kiswahili												
Kikongo												
Lingala												

(8) Lesquelles de ces langues souhaiteriez-vous que votre prof. d'Anglais et vos condisciples utilisent (T, S, AS, Px, R, J) pour s'adresser à vous pendant les leçons d'Anglais?

(Mettez une + pour indiquer votre choix)



*SECTION III: STRATEGIES ET TECHNIQUES D'APPRENTISSAGE ET DE COMMUNICATION*

ATTENTION: N'oubliez pas de consulter la légende!

(9) D'après vous, sur quel aspect de la langue anglaise voudriez-vous que l'ACCENT soit mis pendant les PREMIERS MOIS du cours d'Anglais? PARLER / ECRIRE \*

(Parler= comprendre quand on vous parle en Anglais et vous faire comprendre quand vous parlez dans cette langue.)

(Ecrire= Comprendre ce qui est écrit en Anglais et vous faire comprendre par ce que vous écrivez.)

POURQUOI?.....

(10) Voudriez-vous que le professeur vous corrige CHAQUE FOIS que vous commettez des fautes? OUI / NON \*

POURQUOI?.....

(11) Que faites-vous (T, S, AS, Px, R) avec la langue anglaise? (Parler, lire, écrire, traduire.....?)

Mettez une + pour marquer votre choix.

Activité	T	S	AS	Px	R
Parler					
Ecrire					
Lire					
Traduire					

(12) Qu'est-ce qui est plus facile pour vous: COMPRENDRE quand quelqu'un vous parle en Anglais ou PARLER vous-même en cette langue? COMPRENDRE / PARLER \*

(13) Quel type de leçons d'Anglais trouvez-vous Td, d, Ad, F, Tf?

(Mettez une + pour montrer votre choix)

Leçons	Td	d	Ad	F	Tf
Grammaire					
Vocabulaire					
Lecture					
Conversation					
Rédaction					
Dictée					
Composition					

(14) Si vous rencontrez des gens qui ne parlent qu'Anglais, aimeriez-vous leur parler en cette langue, même si vous ne la maîtrisez pas encore? OUI / NON \*  
 POURQUOI?.....

(15) Ecoutez-vous des émissions radiophoniques en Anglais? OUI?NON \*

Si OUI, donnez-en la fréquence: T/S/AS/Px/R \*

(16) Voyez-vous des films où on parle Anglais? OUI / NON \*

Si OUI, donnez-en la fréquence: T/S/AS/Px/R \*

Si NON, pourquoi?.....

(17) D'après vous, quel est votre niveau actuel en Anglais? TB/B/AB/M \*

(18) Si vous avez choisi TB,B ou AB, dites-nous au moyen d'un pourcentage si c'est surtout grâce à votre professeur ou vos efforts personnels que vous avez atteint ce niveau.

Professeur(s):....% — Efforts pers.:....%

(19) Mentionnez les autres facteurs qui auraient contribué à cet état de choses:.....

(20) Si vous avez choisi M comme réponse à (17), à quoi pensez-vous que cela est dû?

(21) Croyez-vous que les langues que vous connaissez vous aident dans votre apprentissage de l'Anglais? OUI/NON \*

(22) Si OUI, indiquez-en la fréquence en mettant une + dans la case correspondant à chaque cas.

Langues	T	S	As	Px	R
Français					
Ciluba					
Kiswahili					
Kikongo					
Lingala					
.....					
.....					

(23) Quelle est parmi ces langues celle qui vous aide LE PLUS dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais? Lingala /Français/Ciluba/Kiswahili/Kikongo/.....\*

POURQUOI?.....

(24) Aimerez-vous que votre professeur vous explique TOUTES les règles de grammaire? OUI / NON \*

(25) Aimerez-vous que votre professeur vous explique TOUT ce que vous ne savez pas? OUI / NON \*

(26) Aimerez-vous qu'il ne vous explique rien du tout et que vous découvriez TOUT vous-même? OUI / NON \*

(27) Aimerez-vous qu'il vous explique une partie et que vous fassiez des efforts pour découvrir le reste par vous-même? OUI / NON \*

(28) Vous arrive-t-il de penser tout d'abord dans les autres langues que vous connais-

sez quand vous voulez parler en Anglais? OUI / NON \*

(29) Si OUI, quelles langues? (Indiquez-en les fréquences en mettant une + dans la case correspondant à votre choix).

Langues	T	S	AS	Px	R
Français					
Ciluba					
Kiswahili					
Kikongo					
Lingala					

(30) Vous arrive-t-il d'utiliser des mots, phrases, expressions, règles de grammaire... des langues que vous connaissez quand vous parlez Anglais? OUI / NON \*

(31) Si OUI, quelles langues? (Indiquez-en la fréquence en mettant une + dans la case correspondant à votre choix)

Langues	T	S	AS	Px	R
Français					
Ciluba					
Kiswahili					
Kikongo					
Lingala					
.....					
.....					

(32) Vous arrive-t-il de traduire tout d'abord mentalement (en les langues que vous connaissez) ce que vous entendez en Anglais avant de l'exprimer en cette langue?



OUI / NON \*

(33) Si OUI, écrivez en regard de chaque langue la fréquence (T,S,AS,Px,R) y relative.

Français :

Ciluba :

Kiswahili:

Kikongo :

Lingala :

..... :

(34) Vous arrive-t-il d'utiliser des gestes, expressions du visage, mimiques...pour vous faire comprendre quand vous parlez Anglais? OUI / NON \*

(35) Si vous avez répondu OUI aux questions (28), (30),(32), et (34): pourquoi, d'après vous tout cela vous arrive-t-il? (Choisissez votre réponse parmi les propositions ci-dessous, et ENCERCLEZ la lettre qui correspond à votre choix.)

a) Parce que vous aimez mélanger les langues et utiliser les gestes

b) Parce que vous ne connaissez pas assez d'Anglais pour exprimer correctement tout ce que vous pensez ou voulez dire

c) Parce que vous voulez montrer que vous êtes plus intelligent que les autres élèves/ étudiants.

d) Autres raisons:.....

(36) Si vous avez répondu OUI aux questions (28),(30), (32) et (34), le faites-vous INTENTIONNELLEMENT ou INCONSCIEMMENT? (Indiquez-en les fréquences en mettant une + dans la case qui correspond à votre choix)

Manière	T	S	AS	Px	R
Intentionnellement					
Inconsciemment					

(37) Parmi toutes les langues que vous utilisez pour apprendre à parler et comprendre l'Anglais, quelle est celle que vous utilisez LE PLUS?.....

(38) D'après vous, qu'est-ce qui fait que vous utilisiez beaucoup plus cette langue-là ? (Indiquez votre réponse en encerclant la lettre qui y correspond parmi les propositions ci-dessous):

- a) Parce qu'elle ressemble beaucoup plus à l'Anglais que les autres.
- b) Parce que je la parle plus correctement que les autres.
- c) Parce que c'est la langue que je parle partout avec tout le monde.
- d) Autres raisons:.....

(39) Vous arrive-t-il d'inventer des mots Anglais à partir des mots de vos autres langues? OUI /NON \*

(40) Vous arrive-t-il de changer la prononciation de certains mots des langues que vous connaissez et de les prononcer en Anglais? OUI / NON \*

(41) Vous arrive-t-il d'éviter certains mots Anglais que vous ne connaissez pas bien, et de les remplacer par d'autres que vous connaissez bien, même si le sens n'est pas exactement celui des mots évités? OUI / NON \*

(42) Vous arrive-t-il d'éviter de parler de certains sujets en Anglais? OUI / NON \*

(43) Si OUI, choisissez VOTRE ou VOS raisons parmi les propositions ci-dessous. Encerchez la (les) lettre(s) y relative(s).

- a) Parce qu'il y a des fois où je ne connais pas le sujet de la conversation.
- b) Parce qu'il y a des fois où, bien que je connais le sujet de la conversation, je manque de vocabulaire pour exprimer mes idées.
- c) Parce que parler Anglais est très difficile et est une perte de temps.
- Autres raisons:.....

(44) Pensez-vous que l'usage des langues que vous connaissez peut constituer un

handicap dans votre apprentissage de l'Anglais? OUI / NON \*

JUSTIFIEZ VOTRE REponse:.....

(45) Parmi les techniques ci-dessous, indiquez celles que vous utilisez (T,S,AS,Px,R) D'ABORD pour essayer de comprendre un nouveau mot, une nouvelle expression, une nouvelle structure que vous rencontrez en Anglais:

- a) Consulter le dictionnaire: T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- b) Consulter le prof. d'Anglais:T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- c) Consulter un condisciple plus fort que vous: T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- d) Deviner en me référant aux langues que je connais déjà : T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- e) Deviner en me référant au peu d'Anglais que je connais : T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- f) Autres techniques:.....

(46) Parmi les techniques citées dans (45), lesquelles utilisez-vous pour essayer de prononcer des mots et expressions nouveaux dont vous ne connaissez pas la prononciation?

- a) T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- b) T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- c) T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- d) T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- e) T/S/AS/Px/R \*
- f).....

(47) Indiquez les techniques que vous utilisez T,S,AS,Px,R,J pour apprendre les règles de la grammaire anglaise:

- a) Mémorisation : T/S/AS/Px/R/J \*
- b) Utilisation de ces règles dans des (courtes) phrases-clé : T/S/AS/Px/R/J \*
- c) Comparaison avec les règles des autres langues que vous connaissez:  
T/S/AS/Px?R/J \*
- d) Autres techniques:.....

.....T/S/AS/Px/R/J \*

(48) Mentionnez les techniques par lesquelles vous apprenez l'Anglais en dehors des leçons d'Anglais.

.....

Indiquez-en aussi les fréquences (T/S/AS/Px/R \*)

(49) Aimerez-vous que votre professeur vous explique tout en Anglais? OUI/NON \*

(50) Si OUI, indiquez la fréquence : T/S/AS/Px/R \*

(51) Aimerez-vous qu'il vous explique de temps à autre en Anglais et en les langues que vous connaissez déjà? OUI / NON \*

(52) Si OUI, indiquez ces langues et les fréquences y relatives :

Français : T/ S/ AS/ Px/ R \*

Ciluba : T/ S/ AS/ Px/ R \*

Kiswahili : T/ S/ AS/ Px/ R \*

Kikongo : T/ S/ AS/ Px/ R \*

Lingala : T/ S/ AS/ Px/ R \*

.....

(53) Vous arrive-t-il de monologuer (=parler seul) en Anglais? OUI / NON \*

(54) Si OUI, indiquez-en la fréquence : T/S/AS/Px/R \*

(55) D'après vous, est-il BON ou MAUVAIS pour les élèves/ étudiants de commencer à essayer de parler en Anglais dès le début du cours d'Anglais? BON / MAUVAIS \*  
POURQUOI?.....

(56) Quand on parle en Anglais, on peut soit le faire SPONTANEMENT soit APRES AVOIR PREPARE MENTALEMENT ce qu'on veut dire. Indiquez en fréquences

(T,S,AS,Px,R,J) la façon dont VOUS utilisez ces procédés:

- a) SPONTANEMENT: T/S/AS/Px/R/J \*
- b) APRES PREPARATION:T/S/AS/Px/R/J \*

(57) Aimeriez-vous être corrigé (T,S,AS,Px,R,J) d'une manière EXPLICITE ou IMPLICITE?

- a) Correction EXPLICITE : T/S/AS/Px/R/J \*
- b) Correction IMPLICITE : T/S/AS/Px/R/J \*

(58) Quel est votre sentiment quand votre condisciple vous corrige soit implicitement soit explicitement?

- a) Correction EXPLICITE: Gêné/ Content/ Fâché \*
- b) Correction IMPLICITE: Gêné/ Content/ Fâché \*

(59) Que faites-vous D'ABORD quand on vous parle en ANGLAIS? (Choisissez votre réponse parmi les propositions ci-dessous et encerclez la lettre y relative.)

- a) Essayer de saisir la signification avant de comprendre les mots isolés.
- b) Comprendre tous les mots avant de comprendre la signification.
- c) Comprendre toutes les relations grammaticales qui existent entre les différents mots avant de comprendre la signification.
- d) Autres:.....

(60) Je voudrais que l'examen d'Anglais soit:

- a) Complètement ECRIT: OUI/NON \*
- b) Complètement ORAL : OUI/NON \*
- c) ECRIT et ORAL : OUI/NON \*

-Pourquoi? (Justifiez votre réponse).....

(61) Je voudrais que les interrogations d'Anglais soient:

- a) Complètement ECRITES: OUI/NON \*
- b) Complètement ORALES : OUI/NON \*

c) ECRITES et ORALES : OUI/NON \*

-Pourquoi?.....

(62) La façon dont les examens et interros sont posés m'encourage à faire tout pour essayer de parler Anglais. OUI/NON \*

-Pourquoi?.....

- Si vous avez autre chose à ajouter à ce qui vient d'être dit dans ce questionnaire, veuillez le faire ci-dessous.

FIN DU QUESTIONNAIRE  
MERCİ POUR VOTRE COLLABORATION



Table 7 (followed)

Kiswahili												
Père	-	-	3	2.41	1	0.80	-	-	-	-	120	96.77
Mère	4	3.22	2	1.61	3	2.41	1	0.80	1	0.80	113	91.12
Fr./S.	4	3.22	4	3.22	6	4.83	3	2.41	10	8.06	97	78.22
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.80	123	99.19
Co/Cop	-	-	10	8.06	12	9.67	10	8.06	30	24.19	62	50
(7)												
Anglais												
Prof.A	10	4.46	30	13.39	60	26.78	52	23.21	72	32.14	-	-
Co/Cop	-	-	7	3.12	18	8.03	30	13.39	45	20.08	124	55.35
Français												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	40	17.85	122	54.46	48	21.42	14	6.25
Co/Cop	-	-	60	26.78	100	44.64	50	22.32	4	1.78	10	4.46
Ciluba												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.78	20	8.92	200	89.28
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	3	1.33	10	4.46	40	17.85	171	76.33
Lingala												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	3.92	49	96.07
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.96	1	1.96	49	96.07
Kikongo												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Kiswahili												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.80	3	2.41	120	96.77
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	4.03	2	1.61	117	94.35
(8)												
Anglais												
Prof.A	90	40.17	130	58.03	4	1.78	-	-	-	-	-	-
Co/Cop	98	43.75	126	56.25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Français												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	94	41.96	70	31.25	60	26.78
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	60	26.78	44	19.64	120	53.57
Ciluba												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	20	8.92	80	35.71	124	55.35
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	22.32	174	77.67
Lingala												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.96	50	98.03
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.96	50	98.03
Kikongo												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Kiswahili												
Prof.A	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.80	3	2.41	120	96.77
Co/Cop	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.80	1	0.80	122	98.38
(11)												
Parler	-	-	-	-	70	31.25	124	55.35	30	13.39		
Ecrire	-	-	-	-	80	35.71	135	60.26	9	4.01		
Lire	-	-	80	35.71	110	49.10	26	11.60	8	3.57		
Traduire	-	-	100	44.64	70	31.25	54	24.10	-	-		





Table 7 (followed and end)

(46)												
a) [30]	-	-	-	-	20	66.66	10	33.33	-	-		
{13.39}												
b) [80]	-	-	30	37.50	40	50	10	12.50	-	-		
{35.71}												
c) [224]	-	-	185	82.58	30	13.39	9	4.01	-	-		
{100}												
d) [224]	100	44.64	124	55.35	-	-	-	-	-	-		
{100}												
e) [224]	120	53.57	104	46.42	-	-	-	-	-	-		
{100}												
f) [None]												
(47)												
a) [100]	-	-	30	30	40	40	20	20	10	10		
{44.64}												
b) [200]	78	39	100	50	20	10	2	1	-	-		
{89.28}												
c) [224]												
{100}	201	89.73	19	8.48	4	1.78	-	-	-	-		
* (48)												
a) [224]	-	-	70	31.25	100	44.64	54	24.10	-	-		
{100}												
b) [191]	-	-	20	10.47	30	15.70	100	52.35	41	21.46		
{85.26}												
(50)	50	45.45	60	54.54	-	-	-	-	-	-		
(52)												
Français	-	-	20	18.18	30	27.27	60	54.54	-	-		
Ciluba	-	-	10	7.40	12	8.88	10	7.40	103	76.29		
Kikongo	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-		
Kiswahili	-	-	-	-	9	13.63	33	50	24	36.36		
Lingala	-	-	-	-	1	12.5	3	37.5	4	50		
(54)	-	-	110	49.10	89	39.73	20	8.92	5	2.23		
* (56)												
a)	-	-	-	-	10	4.46	65	29.01	130	58.03	19	8.48
b)	19	8.48	90	40.17	98	43.75	15	6.69	2	0.89	-	-
(57)												
a)	-	-	17	7.58	53	23.66	100	44.64	54	24.10	-	-
b)	13	5.80	137	61.16	60	26.78	14	6.25	-	-	-	-

Table 8: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with OUI/ NON response mode.

Response Mode	Oui		Non	
	f	%	f	%
Item No.				
(1)	210	93.75	14	6.25
* (10)	50	22.32	174	77.67
* (14)	196	87.50	28	12.50
(21)	224	100	-	-
(24)	63	28.12	161	71.87
(25)	60	26.78	164	73.21
(26)	-	-	224	100
(27)	180	80.35	44	19.64
(28)	224	100	-	-
(30)	224	100	-	-
(32)	224	100	-	-
(34)	224	100	-	-
(39)	224	100	-	-
(40)	224	100	-	-
(41)	224	100	-	-
(42)	224	100	-	-
* (44)	37	16.51	187	83.48
(49)	110	49.10	114	50.89
(51)	135	60.26	89	39.73
* (53)	224	100		
* (60) a)	60	26.78	164	73.21
b)	45	20.08	179	79.91
c)	203	90.62	21	9.37
* (61) a)	60	26.78	164	73.21
b)	45	20.08	179	79.91
c)	203	90.62	21	9.37
* (62)	30	13.39	194	86.60

Table 9: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items H, I, &amp; J

(H)		f	%
a)			
	1) Ciluba	218	97.32
	2) Kikongo	1	0.44
	3) Kiswahili	4	1.78
	4) Lingala	1	0.44
b)			
	1) Ciluba	218	97.32
	2) Kikongo	1	0.44
	3) Kiswahili	4	1.78
	4) Lingala	1	0.44
c)			
	1) Ciluba	218	97.32
	2) Kikongo	1	0.44
	3) Kiswahili	4	1.78
	4) Lingala	1	0.44
(I)	a)		
	1) Ciluba	6	2.67
	2) Kikongo	-	-
	3) Kiswahili	120	53.57
	4) Lingala	50	22.32
	b)		
	1) Français	224	100
	2) Anglais:	224	100
(J)	OUI:	117	52.23
	a)	70	59.82
	b)	117	100
	NON:	107	47.76

Table 10: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with E/TB/B/AB/M/CP response mode.

Resp. Type	E		TB		B		AB		M		CP	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Item No.												
(5)												
Anglais												
Parler	-	-	-	-	19	8.48	21	9.37	180	80.35	4	1.78
Ecrire	-	-	-	-	38	16.96	79	35.26	103	45.98	4	1.78
Compr.	-	-	-	-	42	18.75	93	41.51	87	38.83	2	0.89
Lire	-	-	-	-	60	26.78	103	45.98	60	26.78	1	0.44
Francais												
Parler	-	-	20	8.92	94	41.96	60	26.78	50	22.32	-	-
Ecrire	-	-	33	14.73	117	52.23	69	30.80	5	2.23	-	-
Compr.	-	-	100	44.64	120	53.57	4	1.78	-	-	-	-
Lire	-	-	40	17.85	160	71.42	18	8.03	6	2.67	-	-
Ciluba												
Parler	218	97.32	4	1.78	2	0.89	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ecrire	86	38.39	98	43.75	37	16.51	3	1.33	-	-	-	-
Compr.	218	97.32	4	1.78	2	0.89	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lire	60	26.78	85	37.94	71	31.69	8	3.57	-	-	-	-
Kikongo												
Parler	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ecrire	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
Compr.	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lire	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kiswahili												
Parler	15	12.09	73	58.87	27	21.77	5	2.23	4	3.22	-	-
Ecrire	7	5.64	68	54.83	33	26.61	13	10.48	3	2.41	-	-
Compr.	26	20.96	80	64.51	16	12.90	2	1.61	-	-	-	-
Lire	9	7.25	61	49.19	19	15.32	31	25	4	3.22	-	-
Lingala												
Parler	4	7.84	10	19.60	17	33.33		13.72	13	25.49	-	-
Ecrire	2	3.92	4	7.84	8	15.68	25	49.01	12	23.52	-	-
Compr.	15	29.41	30	58.82	5	9.80	1	1.96	-	-	-	-
Lire	5	9.80	16	31.37	17	33.33	10	19.60	3	5.88	-	-
(17)			-	-	40	17.85	50	22.32	131	58.48	3	1.33

Table 11: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items 4, 9, 12, 13, 18, 35, 38, 43, 58, & 59

(4)

- Acquisition consécutive:

	L1	L2, L3,...	f	%
Groupe1	Ciluba	Français - (Anglais)	48	21.42
Groupe2	Ciluba	Kiswahili - Français - (Anglais)	120	53.57
Groupe3	Ciluba	Lingala - Français - (Anglais)	50	22.32
Groupe4	Kikongo	Lingala - Ciluba - Français - (Anglais)	1	0.44
Groupe5	Kiswahili	Ciluba - Français - (Anglais)	4	1.78
Groupe6	Lingala	Ciluba - Français - (Anglais)	1	0.44

- Acquisition simultanée: Pas mentionnée.

	Parler		Ecrire		Comprendre	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
* (9)	224	100	-	-		
(12)	-	-			224	100

(13)

	Td		d		Ad		F		Tf	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Grammaire	7	3.12	30	13.39	110	49.10	77	34.37	-	-
Vocabulaire	-	-	-	-	-	-	199	88.83	25	11.16
Lecture	40	17.85	60	26.78	100	44.64	24	10.71	-	-
Conversation	51	22.76	113	50.44	53	23.66	7	3.12	-	-
Rédaction	10	4.46	65	29.01	129	57.58	20	8.92	-	-
Dictée	-	-	15	6.69	109	48.66	100	44.64	-	-
Composition	10	4.46	65	29.01	129	57.58	20	8.92	-	-

(18)

	Professeur	Efforts personnels
10 (11.11%)	60% - 65%	35% - 40%
65 (72.22%)	30% - 35%	65% - 70%
15 (16.66%)	50%	50%

Table 11 (followed and end)

		f	%
(35)	a)	-	-
	b)	224	100
	c)	-	-
	d)	-	-
* (38)	a)	224	100
	b)	-	-
	c)	-	-
	d)	-	-
* (43)	a)	224	100
	b)	224	100
	c)	-	-

(58)

	Géné		Content		Fâché	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
a)	124	55.35	40	17.85	60	26.78
b)	5	2.32	219	97.76	-	-

(59)

	f	%
a)	220	98.21
b)	4	1.78
c)	-	-
d)	-	-

## 2. Further Explanations and Data

### (2) Raisons avancées:

- 200 (95.23%): L'Anglais est plus important que le Français
- 207 (98.57%): Facilité de voyager dans le monde
- 209 (99.52%): Facilité pour trouver un bon emploi
- 210 (100%): Aiment connaître l'Anglais (en plus du Français)

### (3) 14 (6.25%): L'Anglais est très difficile à apprendre et parler.

(9) Parce que: Le but primordial est de parler l'Anglais. Nous pouvons apprendre à lire et écrire seulement après que nous ayons acquis un peu plus de facilité avec le parler c.à.d. parler et comprendre ce qui est dit en Anglais.

### (10)

- OUI: Nous devons parler sans faute.
- NON: Si le professeur nous corrige chaque fois, a) nous ne pourrions pas parler couramment, b) nous aurons toujours peur d'être interrompus et corrigés. Donc, le professeur peut toujours nous corriger, mais pas chaque fois.

### (14)

- OUI: S'exercer dans la langue afin de pouvoir élargir nos connaissances et nous améliorer.
- NON: Honte et peur de commettre des fautes: parler seulement quand nous sommes sûrs de ce que nous voulons dire et de la façon que nous voulons le dire.

(16) NON: On n'en trouve pas.

(19) Rien.

### (20) M [131]:

- 131 (100%): Pas beaucoup de pratique orale en classe (et moins encore en dehors)
- 131 (100%): Pas assez de temps et d'occasions de nous exprimer en classe.
- 125 (95.41%): On nous demande de toujours parler en bon Anglais, c.à.d. sans faute (quand en fait nous ne le pouvons pas). Ceci nous décourage. D'où nous nous renfermons sur nous-mêmes pour éviter de commettre des fautes et de nous faire ridiculiser.
- 131 (100%): Le professeur parle presque exclusivement avec les élèves qui sont brillants en classe. Il nous néglige.



(23)

- 215 (95.98%): Français: Beaucoup de ressemblances avec l'Anglais.

- 4 (1.78%): Kiswahili: Beaucoup de mots Swahili ressemblent aux mots Anglais (phonologie et signification)

- 5 (2.23%): Ciluba: Même chose que pour le Kiswahili.

(35) d) Pas d'autres raisons.

(37) 224 (100%): Français.

(38) d) Pas d'autres raisons.

(43) d) 181 (80.80%): Peur et honte de commettre des fautes. D'où nous nous taisons quand nous ne sommes pas sûrs.

(44)

- OUI: Risque de recourir chaque fois à ces langues-là quand on parle Anglais.

- NON: Ces langues nous aident à apprendre l'Anglais (surtout pendant les premières années de l'apprentissage) car nous y recourons beaucoup.

(45) f) Pas d'autres techniques.

(47) d) Pas d'autres techniques.

(48) a) Suivre les programmes radiophoniques en Anglais et, b) essayer de parler avec ceux qui connaissent l'Anglais.

(55) BON: 224 (100%): Pour pouvoir nous habituer, dès le début aux sons, structures, vocabulaire, grammaire...c.à.d. la façon de s'exprimer en Anglais.

(60) + (61): Connaître la langue c'est la parler et l'écrire. Mais c'est le parler qui doit toutefois primer. Aussi donner la chance à tous les élèves/ étudiants de prouver ce dont ils sont capables, car il y en a qui excellent en l'un et sont faibles dans l'autre de ces deux aspects à cause des différences individuelles dans les aptitudes.

(62)

- OUI: Nous réussissons à avoir beaucoup de points, et on nous interroge sur les structures, expressions, règles de grammaire, vocabulaire... que nous devons connaître pour bien parler Anglais plus tard.

- NON: Vu qu'on nous interroge et examine surtout à l'écrit, nous ne faisons pas ce que nous devrions normalement faire pour pouvoir essayer de parler cette langue.

### 3. Extra comments made by some participants

29 (12.94%): Avaient fait les remarques suivantes:

1) 20 (68.96%): Qu'on nous enseigne l'Anglais COURANT, c.à.d. celui qui est REELLEMENT parlé car nous avons remarqué que notre Anglais est plutôt livresque.

2) 25 (86.20%): Besoin de matériel (livres, cassettes et films anglais...) pour bien étudier.

3) 27 (93.10%): Il faut intensifier l'enseignement de l'Anglais. Il semble être négligé.

4) 24 (82.75%): Il faut introduire l'enseignement d'Anglais à l'école primaire.

5) 28 (96.55%): L'enseignant doit tout faire pour que les élèves/ étudiants comprennent ce qui est enseigné.

6) 27 (93.10%): L'enseignant doit tout faire pour que les élèves aiment le cours d'Anglais. Pour ce faire, il doit utiliser des méthodes appropriées, du matériel adéquat, et enfin il doit bien connaître le niveau de ses élèves.

7) 26 (89.65%):

- Très souvent, les enseignants oublient que les élèves n'ont pas un haut niveau en Anglais; ils s'adressent à eux et voudraient qu'ils s'expriment comme des gens qui ont déjà maîtrisé cette langue.

- Très souvent, ils *foncent* avec la matière et refusent de donner des explications supplémentaires à ceux des élèves qui en ont réellement besoin.

APPENDIX 1.2.

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## Questionnaire 2 and Summary of Data

## CONTENTS

Questionnaire 2 (1.2.a.)

Summary of Data (1.2.b.)

1.2.a.

## Questionnaire 2

## SECTION I: FICHE SIGNALÉTIQUE DU PARTICIPANT

CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

- (A) Date de naissance:...../...../ 19....
- (B) Sexe: Masculin/ Féminin.\*
- (C) Ecole:.....
- (D) Année d'études: 1e/ 2e/ 3e/ 4e/ 5e.\*
- (E) Section:.....
- (F) Option:.....
- (G) Profession (si vous travaillez):.....
- (H) Langue(s) maternelle(s):
- a) Du Père:.....
  - b) De la Mère:.....
  - c) Que vous parlez:.....
- (I) Autres langues que vous parlez:
- a) Langues Zairoises:.....
  - b) Langues étrangères:.....
- (J) Aviez-vous déjà doublé de classe? Oui/ Non.\*
- Si OUI, laquelle (lesquelles) parmi celles mentionnées ci-dessous:
- a) Primaire: 3e/ 4e/ 5e/ 6e. \*
  - b) Secondaire: 1e/ 2e/ 3e/ 4e/ 5e. \*

**SECTION II: LES FACTEURS AFFECTIFS ET MOTIVATIONNELS****CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!**

Les opinions exprimées ci-dessous sont, selon les gens, soit partiellement soit totalement vraies ou fausses. Indiquez votre position en ENCERCLANT chaque fois l'un des chiffres après chaque proposition ou en faisant ce qui est demandé (si autre qu'encercler les chiffres).

- (1) J'aime étudier l'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (2) S'il m'était donné de choisir entre le Français et l'Anglais, je choiserais d'étudier l'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (3) Au Zaire, l'Anglais devrait être enseigné dès l'école primaire. 1/2/3/
- (4) Dans le monde d'aujourd'hui, l'Anglais est plus important que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (5) Dans le Zaire de demain, l'Anglais deviendra plus important que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (6) Avec le Français, je peux facilement voyager partout au monde. 1/2/3/
- (7) Avec l'Anglais, je peux voyager beaucoup plus facilement au monde qu'avec le Français. 1/2/3/
- (8) A la fin de mes études, je parlerai Anglais comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (9) J'apprends l'Anglais pour mieux connaître les us et coutumes des Anglais, Américains et Canadiens. 1/2/3
- (10) J'apprends l'Anglais pour pouvoir après trouver un très bon emploi. 1/2/3/
- (11) En étudiant l'Anglais, mon but est de le parler un jour aussi parfaitement qu'un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (12) En tant que Zairois, je ne pourrai jamais connaître l'Anglais comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (13) Quand je parle Anglais, je me sens plus important que mes copains qui ne parlent que Français. 1/2/3/
- (14) J'admire beaucoup plus les Zairois qui parlent Anglais et Français que ceux qui ne parlent que Français. 1/2/3/
- (15) Plus je me débrouille bien en Anglais, plus je veux apprendre cette langue. 1/2/3/
- (16) Moins je me débrouille en Anglais, plus je suis découragé de continuer à étudier cette langue. 1/2/3/

- (17) J'évite souvent de parler pendant les leçons d'Anglais car j'ai peur que les autres élèves/ étudiants se moquent de moi si je commettais des fautes. 1/2/3/
- (18) je ne veux pas souvent parler pendant les leçons d'Anglais parce que le professeur nous exige de ne parler qu'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (19) Vu que je ne connais pas encore assez d'Anglais, j'aurais voulu que le professeur nous autorise (de temps en temps) d'utiliser aussi le Français ou les autres langues que nous connaissons. 1/2/3/
- (20) Je suis découragé, embrouillé et nerveux chaque fois qu'on m'interrompt pour me corriger. 1/2/3/
- (21) J'apprends l'Anglais parce qu'il est une branche obligatoire du programme. 1/2/3/
- (22) J'étudierais l'Anglais même s'il n'était pas une branche obligatoire du programme. 1/2/3/
- (23) L'Anglais est plus facile à apprendre que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (24) J'aime les leçons d'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (25) J'apprends l'Anglais pour être capable de lire et comprendre les livres, revues et documents relatifs à ma spécialité. 1/2/3/
- (26) J'aime parler plus l'Anglais que les langues Zairoises. 1/2/3/
- (27) J'aime parler plus le Français que les langues Zairoises. 1/2/3/
- (28) J'aime parler plus l'Anglais que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (29) En étudiant l'Anglais, je voudrais aussi apprendre à agir, manger, rire, c.à.d. me comporter comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (30) Pendant les PREMIERS MOIS du cours d'Anglais, j'aimerais que l'usage des autres langues que nous connaissons soit permis. 1/2/3/
- (31) D'après vous, quelle est parmi les langues ci-dessous la PLUS IMPORTANTE (du point de vue échanges commerciales, diplomatie, technologie et sciences) dans le monde:
- a) Aujourd'hui: Anglais/Français/Russe/Chinois/Espagnol/Portugais \*
- b) Demain: Anglais/Français/Russe/Chinois/Espagnol/Portugais \*
- (32) Aimez-vous votre professeur d'Anglais? OUI / NON \*
- (33) Aimez-vous la façon qu'on vous enseigne Anglais? OUI / NON \*
- (34) Si OUI, qu'est-ce que vous aimez en particulier?.....
- (35) Si NON, qu'est-ce que vous n'aimez pas en particulier?.....

(36) Est-ce que votre professeur d'Anglais vous encourage à étudier l'Anglais? OUI/NON

\*

(37) Si OUI, comment?.....

(38) Quels sont les changements que vous voudriez qu'on apporte à la façon qu'on vous enseigne?.....

## SECTION III: LES QUALITES DU PROFESSEUR IDEAL D'ANGLAIS

## CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

Bien que le professeur idéal n'existe pas en pratique, les qualités qui le caractérisent se trouvent éparpillées parmi les BONS professeurs. Indiquez ci-dessous l'importance de certaines de ces caractéristiques dans votre définition du BON professeur d'Anglais.

Le bon professeur d'Anglais:

(39) Connait et parle bien l'Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi\*

(40) Répond à et explique toutes les questions qui lui sont posées.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(41) Admet d'être contredit. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(42) Explique clairement, bien et brièvement. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(43) Fait tous les exercices pour les élèves/ étudiants. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(44) Corrige toutes les fautes commises par les élèves/ étudiants.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(45) N'accorde pas beaucoup trop d'importance à la prononciation pendant les premiers mois du cours. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(46) Insiste beaucoup (pendant les premiers mois du cours) sur la signification de ce qui est dit. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(47) Ne corrige la prononciation, le rythme et l'intonation que quand ils empêchent le message/ signification d'être saisi comme il faut. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(48) Suit mot à mot le programme officiel. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(49) Suit le programme officiel, mais l'adapte au rythme, de travail des élèves/ étudiants et aux réalités de sa classe. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(50) Applique mot à mot ce qui est dit dans le livre du maître. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(51) Adapte ce qui est dit dans le livre du maître aux réalités de sa classe et de son milieu. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(52) Fait faire beaucoup d'exercices de grammaire. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(53) Oblige les élèves/ étudiants de mémoriser des listes de mots, expressions et règles de grammaire. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(54) Insiste beaucoup plus sur la langue parlée que sur la langue écrite.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(55) Encourage les élèves/ étudiants à toujours parler Anglais partout où ils en ont



l'occasion. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(56) Ne se fâche pas quand les élèves/ étudiants commettent des fautes, mais les aide au contraire à corriger ces fautes. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(57) Se moque des élèves/ étudiants quand ils commettent des fautes.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(58) Accepte (SANS TOUTEFOIS L'ENCOURAGER) que les élèves/ étudiants recourent aux mots, expressions, structures...des langues qu'ils connaissent, et gestes, mimes, expressions du visage... pour se faire comprendre quand ils parlent Anglais.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(59) Fait faire des exercices combinés de grammaire, vocabulaire,prononciation, rythme, intonation... dans un contexte qui en donne clairement la signification.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(60) Encourage les élèves/ étudiants à ne plus parler qu'Anglais apres trois à quatre mois de cours. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(61) Permet aux élèves/ étudiants de et les encourage à parler plus que lui.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(62) Se comporte comme un Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(63) Change de voix pour parler comme un Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(64) Si vous avez d'autres caractéristiques IMPORTANTES, veuillez les ajouter:.....

- Parmi les qualités mentionnées ci-haut, indiquez-en 5 PLUS IMPORTANTES et 5 MOINS IMPORTANTES.

1.....1.....

2.....2.....

3.....3.....

4.....4.....

5.....5.....

(65) Je voudrais que l'examen d'Anglais soit:

a) Complètement ECRIT: OUI/NON \*

b) Complètement ORAL : OUI/NON \*

c) ECRIT et ORAL: OUI/NON \*

-Pourquoi?.....

(66) Je voudrais que les interros d'Anglais soient:

a) Complètement ECRITES: OUI/NON \*

b) Complètement ORALES: OUI/NON \*

c) ECRITES et ORALES: OUI/NON \*

-Pourquoi?.....

(67) La façon dont les interrogations et examens sont posés m'encourage à faire tout pour essayer de parler en Anglais. OUI/NON \*

-Pourquoi?.....

(68) La nature (c.à.d. le contenu) des textes utilisés aux leçons d'Anglais a une grande influence sur ma motivation et ma persévérance à continuer d'étudier l'Anglais. OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

- Si vous avez quelques remarques à ajouter à ce qui vient d'être dit dans ce questionnaire, veuillez le faire ci-dessous:

FIN DU QUESTIONNAIRE  
MERCI POUR VOTRE COLLABORATION

## 1.2.b.

## Summary of Data

\* = (Further) explications

S=144

## 1. Frequency and Percentage Counts

Table 12: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with 1/2/3 response mode.

Item No.	1		2		3	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
(1)	77	53.47	12	8.33	55	38.19
(2)	76	52.77	13	9.02	55	38.19
(3)	77	53.47	18	12.50	49	34.02
(4)	100	69.44	3	2.08	41	28.47
(5)	103	71.52	-	-	41	28.47
(6)	40	27.77	10	6.94	94	65.27
(7)	112	77.77	2	1.38	30	20.83
(8)	18	12.50	30	20.83	96	66.66
(9)	10	6.94	10	6.94	124	86.11
(10)	130	90.27	10	6.94	4	2.77
(11)	94	65.25	-	-	50	34.72
(12)	107	74.30	17	11.80	20	13.88
(13)	132	91.66	-	-	12	8.33
(14)	129	89.58	2	1.38	13	9.02
(15)	137	95.13	-	-	7	4.86
(16)	140	97.22	-	-	4	2.77
(17)	130	90.27	-	-	14	9.72
(18)	128	88.88	1	0.69	15	10.41
(19)	123	85.41	-	-	21	14.58
(20)	109	75.69	-	-	35	24.30
(21)	48	33.33	9	6.25	87	60.41
(22)	45	31.25	12	8.33	87	60.41
(23)	49	34.02	14	9.72	81	56.25
(24)	75	52.08	10	6.94	59	40.97
(25)	97	67.36	7	4.86	40	27.77
(26)	73	50.69	35	24.30	36	25
(27)	110	76.38	23	15.97	11	7.63
(28)	73	50.69	1	0.69	70	48.61
(29)	30	20.83	3	2.08	111	77.08
(30)	121	84.02	9	6.25	14	9.72



Table 14: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with OUI/ NON response mode.

Resp. Mode  Item No.	Oui		Non	
	f	%	f	%
* (31)				
(32)	79	54.86	65	45.13
(33)	72	50	72	50
* (34)				
* (35)				
(36)	72	50	72	50
* (37)				
* (38)				
* (65)				
a)	-	-	144	100
b)	-	-	144	100
c)	144	100	-	-
* (66)				
a)	-	-	144	100
b)	-	-	144	100
c)	144	100	-	-
* (67)				
(68)	70	48.61	74	51.38

## 2. Further Explications and Data

(31)

a) Anglais: 102 (70.83%); Français: 42 (29.16%)

b) Anglais: 115 (79.86%); Français: 27 (18.75%)

(34) Oui: L'enseignant utilise l'Anglais, parle clairement et à un rythme ajusté à notre niveau; il nous encourage à toujours étudier l'Anglais (en nous démontrant chaque fois son importance dans le monde); il nous oblige à ne parler qu'Anglais.

(35) Non: En nous obligeant de n'utiliser que l'Anglais, même quand nous ne connaissons pas le mot, l'expression, la structure... anglais par lequel nous voulons convoier le message que nous voulons que notre interlocuteur reçoive, l'enseignant nous pousse à ne pas oser de parler.

L'enseignant parle tout le temps et, par conséquent, nous empêche de nous exercer. Il se préoccupe plus de terminer ses leçons (dans les limites du temps que l'horaire lui donne) que de notre compréhension.

Il s'occupe plus de ceux qui savent déjà se débrouiller assez bien que de nous qui nous débrouillons encore assez mal.

(37) Oui: Il nous oblige à ne parler qu'Anglais, et nous démontre chaque fois comment l'Anglais est important.

(38) Qu'on nous donne plus d'occasions pour parler et nous entraîne en Anglais; qu'on nous comprenne que nous apprenons l'Anglais, donc que nous ne pouvons pas déjà maîtriser cette langue.

(64)

Les 5 qualités les plus importantes:

[70: 48.61%]: (46), (47), (55), (58), (61)

[50: 34.72%]: (54), (56), (58), (59), (60)

[24: 16.66%]: (41), (47), (49), (58), (61)

Les 5 qualités les moins importantes:

[69: 47.91%]: (52), (53), (57), (62), (63)

[60: 41.66%]: (44), (48), (50), (57), (62)

[15: 10.41%]: (44), (50), (53), (57), (62)

(65), (66) &amp; (67): Mêmes raisons que Q1(60, 61, 62).

### 3. Extra Comments made by Some Participants

110 (76.38%): Augmenter les heures d'Anglais.

109 (75.69%): Visiter des pays anglophones.

99 (68.75%):

Il faut qu'on nous permette de beaucoup parler en Anglais, même avec des fautes, ceci pour nous permettre de nous exercer: "C'est en forgeant qu'on devient forgeron".

101 (70.13%): Que les enseignants s'occupent beaucoup plus de ceux qui besoin d'aide: "Ce sont les malades qui ont beaucoup plus besoin de médecin".

## APPENDIX 1.3.

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### Questionnaire 3 and Summary of Data

#### CONTENTS

Questionnaire 3 (1.3.a.)

Summary of Data (1.3.b.)



## 1.3.a.

## Questionnaire 3

*SECTION I: FICHE SIGNALÉTIQUE DU PARTICIPANT*

CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

- (A) Date de naissance:...../...../ 19...
- (B) Sexe : Masculin / Féminin \*
- (C) Ecole :.....
- (D) Année d'études :.....Graduat
- (E) Section : Lettres et Sciences Humaines.
- (F) Option : Anglais et Cultures Africaines.
- (G) Langue(s) maternelle(s):
- a) Du Père:.....
  - b) De la Mère:.....
  - c) Que vous utilisez:.....
- (H) Autres langues que vous parlez:
- a) Zairoises:.....
  - b) Étrangères:.....
- (I) Aviez-vous déjà double de classe? OUI /NON \*
- Si OUI, (les)laquelle(s) parmi celles ci-dessous:
- a) Primaire: 3e/4e/5e/6e \*
  - b) Secondaire: 1e/2e/3e/4e/5e/6e \*
  - c) Supérieur:
- ISP:
- a) Option Anglais:1e \*
  - b) Autres: 1e/2e/3e \*
- Université:
- a) Option Anglais: 1e/2e/3e \*
  - b) Autres: 1e/2e/3e \*

*SECTION II: LES FACTEURS AFFECTIFS ET MOTIVATIONNELS*

CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

Les opinions exprimées ci-dessous sont, selon les gens, soit partiellement soit totalement vraies ou fausses. Indiquez votre position en ENCERCLANT chaque fois l'un des chiffres après chaque proposition ou en faisant ce qui est demandé (si autre qu'encercler les chiffres).

(1) J'aime étudier l'Anglais. 1/2/3/

(2) S'il m'était donné de choisir entre le Français et l'Anglais, je choiserais d'étudier l'Anglais. 1/2/3/

(3) Au Zaïre, l'Anglais devrait être enseigné dès l'école primaire. 1/2/3/

(4) Dans le monde d'aujourd'hui, l'Anglais est plus important que le Français. 1/2/3/

(5) Dans le Zaïre de demain, l'Anglais deviendra plus important que le Français. 1/2/3/

(6) Avec le Français, je peux facilement voyager partout au monde. 1/2/3/

(7) Avec l'Anglais, je peux voyager beaucoup plus facilement au monde qu'avec le Français. 1/2/3/

(8) A la fin de mes études, je parlerai Anglais comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/

(9) J'apprends l'Anglais pour mieux connaître les us et coutumes des Anglais, Américains et Canadiens. 1/2/3/

(10) J'apprends l'Anglais pour pouvoir après trouver un très bon emploi. 1/2/3/

(11) En étudiant l'Anglais, mon but est de le parler un jour aussi parfaitement qu'un Anglais. 1/2/3/

(12) En tant que Zaïrois, je ne pourrais jamais connaître l'Anglais comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/

(13) Quand je parle Anglais, je me sens plus important que mes copains qui ne parlent que Français. 1/2/3/

(14) J'admire beaucoup plus les Zaïrois qui parlent Anglais et Français que ceux qui ne parlent que Français. 1/2/3/

(15) Plus je me débrouille bien en Anglais, plus je veux apprendre cette langue. 1/2/3/

(16) Moins je me débrouille en Anglais, plus je suis découragé de continuer à étudier cette langue. 1/2/3/

- (17) J'évite souvent de parler pendant les leçons d'Anglais car j'ai peur que les autres élèves/ étudiants se moquent de moi si je commettais des fautes. 1/2/3/
- (18) Je ne veux pas souvent parler pendant les leçons d'Anglais parce que le professeur nous exige de ne parler qu'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (19) Vu que je ne connais pas encore assez d'Anglais, j'aurais voulu que le professeur nous autorise (de temps en temps) d'utiliser aussi le Français ou les autres langues que nous connaissons. 1/2/3/
- (20) Je suis découragé, embrouillé et nerveux chaque fois qu'on m'interrompt pour me corriger. 1/2/3/
- (21) J'apprends l'Anglais parce qu'il est une branche obligatoire du programme. 1/2/3/
- (22) J'étudierais l'Anglais même s'il n'était pas une branche obligatoire du programme. 1/2/3/
- (23) L'Anglais est plus facile à apprendre que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (24) J'aime les leçons d'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (25) J'apprends l'Anglais pour être capable de lire et comprendre les livres, revues et documents relatifs à ma spécialité. 1/2/3/
- (26) J'aime parler plus l'Anglais que les langues Zairoises. 1/2/3/
- (27) J'aime parler plus le Français que les langues Zairoises. 1/2/3/
- (28) J'aime parler plus l'Anglais que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (29) En étudiant l'Anglais, je voudrais aussi apprendre à agir, manger, rire, c.à.d. me comporter comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (30) Pendant les PREMIERS MOIS du cours d'Anglais, j'aimerais que l'usage des autres langues que nous connaissons soit permis. 1/2/3/
- (31) D'après vous, quelle est parmi les langues ci-dessous la PLUS IMPORTANTE (du point de vue échanges commerciales, diplomatie, technologie et sciences) dans le monde:
- a) Aujourd'hui: Anglais/Français/Russe/Chinois/Espagnol/Portugais \*
- b) Demain: Anglais/Français/Russe/Chinois/Espagnol/Portugais \*
- (32) Aimez-vous votre professeur d'Anglais? OUI /NON \*
- (33) Aimez-vous la façon qu'on vous enseigne Anglais? OUI / NON \*
- (34) Si OUI, qu'est-ce que vous aimez en particulier?.....
- (35) Si NON, qu'est-ce que vous n'aimez pas en particulier?.....

(36) Est-ce que votre professeur d'Anglais vous encourage à étudier l'Anglais? OUI  
/ NON \*

(37) Si OUI, comment?.....

(38) Quels sont les changements que vous voudriez qu'on apporte à la façon qu'on  
vous enseigne?.....

### SECTION III: LES QUALITES DU PROFESSEUR IDEAL D'ANGLAIS

#### CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE

Bien que le professeur idéal n'existe pas en pratique, les qualités qui le caractérisent se trouvent éparpillées parmi les BONS professeurs. Indiquez ci-dessous l'importance de certaines de ces caractéristiques dans votre définition du BON professeur d'Anglais.

Le bon professeur d'Anglais:

- (39) Connait et parle bien l'Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi\*
- (40) Répond à et explique toutes les questions qui lui sont posées.  
Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (41) Admet d'être contredit. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (42) Explique clairement, bien et brièvement. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (43) Fait tous les exercices pour les élèves/ étudiants. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (44) Corrige toutes les fautes commises par les élèves/ étudiants.  
Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (45) N'accorde pas beaucoup trop d'importance à la prononciation pendant les premiers mois du cours. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (46) Insiste beaucoup (pendant les premiers mois du cours) sur la signification de ce qui est dit. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (47) Ne corrige la prononciation, le rythme et l'intonation que quand ils empêchent le message/ signification d'être saisi comme il faut. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (48) Suit mot à mot le programme officiel. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (49) Suit le programme officiel, mais l'adapte au rythme de travail des élèves/ étudiants et aux réalités de sa classe. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (50) Applique mot à mot ce qui est dit dans le livre du maître. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (51) Adapte ce qui est dit dans le livre du maître aux réalités de sa classe et de son milieu. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (52) Fait faire beaucoup d'exercices de grammaire. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (53) Oblige les élèves/ étudiants de mémoriser des listes de mots, expressions et règles de grammaire. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*
- (54) Insiste beaucoup plus sur la langue parlée que sur la langue écrite.  
Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(55) Encourage les élèves/ étudiants à toujours parler Anglais partout où ils en ont l'occasion. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(56) Ne se fâche pas quand les élèves/ étudiants commettent des fautes, mais les aide au contraire à corriger ces fautes. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(57) Se moque des élèves/ étudiants quand ils commettent des fautes.  
Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(58) Accepte (SANS TOUTEFOIS L'ENCOURAGER) que les élèves/ étudiants recourent aux mots, expressions, structures...des langues qu'ils connaissent, et gestes, mimes, expressions du visage... pour se faire comprendre quand ils parlent Anglais.  
Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(59) Fait faire des exercices combinés de grammaire, vocabulaire, prononciation, rythme, intonation... dans un contexte qui en donne clairement la signification.  
Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(60) Encourage les élèves/ étudiants à ne plus parler qu'Anglais apres trois à quatre mois de cours. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(61) Permet aux élèves/ étudiants de et les encourage à parler plus que lui.  
Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(62) Se comporte comme un Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(63) Change de voix pour parler comme un Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(64) Si vous avez d'autres caractéristiques IMPORTANTES, veuillez les ajouter:....

- Parmi les qualités mentionnées ci-haut, indiquez-en 5 PLUS IMPORTANTES et 5 MOINS IMPORTANTES.

- 1.....1.....
- 2.....2.....
- 3.....3.....
- 4.....4.....
- 5.....5.....

(65) Si vous avez quelques remarques à ajouter à ce qui vient d'être dit dans cette partie du questionnaire, veuillez le faire ci-dessous.

(66) Nous voudrions que tous les cours au Département Anglais soient dispensés en Anglais. OUI / NON \*

(67) Nous voudrions que certains cours soient donnés en Français et d'autres en Anglais, comme il est présentement le cas. OUI / NON \*

(68) Nous voudrions que tous les cours de spécialité (y compris l'Introduction à la Linguistique Générale) soient donnés en Anglais. OUI / NON \*

(69) Nous voudrions que le nombre d'heures des cours de spécialité soit augmenté. OUI / NON \*

(70) Aviez-vous choisi d'étudier l'Anglais après vos études secondaires? OUI/NON \*

(71) Si OUI, pourquoi?.....

(72) Si NON, comment vous retrouvez-vous alors au Dépt. Anglais?.....

(73) Si vous aviez choisi d'étudier l'Anglais, êtes-vous toujours motivé de continuer à étudier cette langue? OUI /NON \*

(74) Si OUI, qu'est-ce qui continue à vous motiver?.....

(75) Si NON, qu'est-ce qui vous a découragé?.....

(76) Je voudrais que l'examen d'Anglais (du secondaire à l'université) soit:

a) Complètement ECRIT: OUI/NON \*

b) Complètement ORAL : OUI/NON \*

c) ECRIT et ORAL: OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

(77) Je voudrais que les interrogations aussi soient:

a) Complètement ECRITES: OUI/NON \*

b) Complètement ORALES: OUI/NON \*

c) ECRITES et ORALES: OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

(78) La façon actuelle de poser l'examen et les interros en Anglais m'encourage à faire tout pour essayer de parler cette langue. OUI/NON \*

-Expliquez-vous:.....

(79) La nature (c.à.d. le contenu) des textes utilisés pour m'enseigner l'Anglais a une très grande influence sur ma motivation et ma persévérance à continuer d'étudier cette langue. OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

-Si vous avez des remarques à ajouter à ce qui vient d'être dit dans cette partie du questionnaire, veuillez le faire ci-dessous:

FIN DU QUESTIONNAIRE  
MERCİ POUR VOTRE COLLABORATION



## 1.3.b.

## Summary of Data

\* = (Further) explications

S=15

## 1. Frequency and Percentage Counts

Table 15: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with 1/2/3 response mode.

Resp. Mode Item No.	1		2		3	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
(1)	14	93.33	1	6.66	-	-
(2)	11	73.33	3	20	1	6.66
(3)	8	53.33	1	6.66	6	40
(4)	9	60	5	33.33	1	6.66
(5)	9	60	6	40	-	-
(6)	2	13.33	7	46.66	6	40
(7)	9	60	4	26.66	2	13.33
(8)	6	40	2	13.33	7	46.66
(9)	2	13.33	1	6.66	12	80
(10)	8	53.33	4	26.66	3	20
(11)	6	40	-	-	9	60
(12)	10	66.66	1	6.66	4	26.66
(13)	13	86.66	-	-	2	13.33
(14)	12	80	2	13.33	1	6.66
(15)	14	93.33	1	6.66	-	-
(16)	10	66.66	1	6.66	4	26.66
(17)	13	86.66	-	-	2	13.33
(18)	9	60	-	-	6	40
(19)	9	60	1	6.66	5	33.33
(20)	12	80	2	13.33	1	6.66
(21)	2	13.33	1	6.66	12	80
(22)	11	73.33	2	13.33	2	13.33
(23)	5	33.33	5	33.33	5	33.33
(24)	14	93.33	1	6.66	-	-
(25)	10	66.66	-	-	5	33.33
(26)	9	60	3	20	3	20
(27)	9	60	1	6.66	5	33.33
(28)	13	86.66	1	6.66	1	6.66
(29)	2	13.33	5	33.33	8	53.33
(30)	10	66.66	-	-	5	33.33



Table 17: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with OUI/ NON response mode.

Resp. Mode <hr/> Item No.	Oui		Non	
	f	%	f	%
* (31)				
(32)	10	66.66	5	33.33
(33)	9	60	6	40
* (34)				
* (35)				
(36)	9	60	6	40
* (37)				
* (38)				
(66)	9	60	6	40
(67)	7	46.66	8	53.33
(68)	13	86.66	2	13.33
(69)	15	100	-	-
(70)	15	100	-	-
* (71)				
* (72)				
(73)	15	100	-	-
* (74)				
* (75)				
* (76)				
a)	3	20	12	80
b)	3	20	12	80
c)	9	60	6	40
* (77)				
a)	3	20	12	80
b)	3	20	12	80
c)	9	60	6	40
* (78)	-	-	15	100
* (79)	3	20	8	53.33

## 2. Further Explications and Data

(31) Langue internationale:

a) Aujourd'hui: Anglais: 9 (60%); Français: 6 (40%)

b) Demain: Anglais: 15 (100%)

(34) On nous oblige de parler Anglais, ce qui nous aide à apprendre et maîtriser la langue parlée.

(35) Nous n'avons pas beaucoup d'occasions de nous exercer en classe: L'enseignant est plus préoccupé par le respect du programme qu'il est tenu de terminer. D'où, il parle le plus souvent avec ceux des étudiants qui se débrouillent déjà bien en Anglais.

(37) 7 (46.66%): L'enseignant nous pousse à ne parler qu'Anglais entre nous et avec lui.

(38) 13 (86.66%):

Que l'enseignant nous donne plus d'occasions de parler afin qu'il puissent détecter nos points faibles pour mieux nous corriger, et nous permettre ainsi de progresser.

(64):

2 grandes qualités ont été ajoutées:

a) 14 (93.33%): Connaissance et maîtrise par l'enseignant de la matière qu'il enseigne.

b) 13 (86.66%): L'enseignant doit se préoccuper plus des étudiants qui ne connaissent pas encore bien la langue que de ceux qui se débrouillent déjà assez bien, et du temps.

Les 5 Qualités les plus importantes:

10 (66.66%): (39), (54), (55), (58), (60).

5 (33.33%): (41), (42), (49), (56), (61).

Les 5 Qualités les moins importantes:

12 (80%): (48), (50), (53), (57), (62).

3 (20%): (40), (44), (50), (57), (62).

(71)

9 (60%): Aimaient entendre parler Anglais; importance de l'Anglais comme outil pour trouver un bon travail.

3 (20%): L'Anglais était le cours qu'ils comprenaient le mieux, donc ils avaient fini par l'aimer.

3 (20%): L'Anglais est langue idéale vu qu'ils voulaient voyager après.

(72) Tous les 15 (100%) avaient répondu OUI. Donc pas de commentaire à cette question.

(74) Toujours motivés car ayant déjà choisis d'étudier l'Anglais comme cours. Aussi parce que nous comprenons assez bien et nous débrouillons aussi bien. Nous aimons le cours.

(75) RIEN (100% de OUI: cf. (74))

(76)

3 (20%): Complètement ORAL. L'Anglais est une langue, donc il doit être parlé. [NON=12 (80%)]

3 (20%): Complètement ECRIT. Pour mieux contrôler la façon de de coter, c.à.d. éviter le parti-pris. [NON=12 (80%)]

9 (60%): ECRIT + ORAL. L'Anglais est une langue. D'où il doit être parlé. En plus, on doit apprendre à l'écrire pour mieux comprendre tout ce qui est écrit en Anglais et pour pouvoir nous exprimer aussi par écrit.

En plus, il faut donner la chance à tous les étudiants. A cause des différences individuelles, il y en a qui parviennent à maîtriser soit l'un ou l'autre aspect, soit tous les deux. En examinant oralement et par écrit, on donne la chance à tous de pouvoir montrer ce dont ils sont capables. Ce mélange compenserait aussi les effets négatifs du sentimentalisme dont font montre beaucoup d'enseignants. [NON=6 (40%)]

(77) Mêmes résultats que (76) et mêmes raisons également.

(78) NON (100%): Pas de partie orale, d'où nous ne nous préparons que pour l'écrit.

(79)

- OUI [7 (46.66%)]: Un texte dont le contenu est intéressant accroît aussi la motivation et la persévérance.

- NON [8 (53.33%)]: Bien qu'un texte intéressant a une influence positive sur la motivation et la persévérance, cette influence est conditionnée par la volonté de l'étudiant et son désir d'apprendre.

APPENDIX 1.4.

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## Questionnaire 4 and Summary of Data

## CONTENTS

Questionnaire 4 (1.4.a.)

Summary of Data (1.4.b.)

1.4.a.

## Questionnaire 4

## SECTION I: FICHE SIGNALÉTIQUE DU PARTICIPANT

CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

- (A) Date de naissance:...../...../ 19...
- (B) Sexe: Masculin / Féminin \*
- (C) Ecole:.....
- (D) Année d'études:.....Graduat
- (E) Section: Lettres et Sciences Humaines.
- (F) Option:: Anglais et Cultures Africaines.
- (G) Langue(s) maternelle(s):
- a) Du Père:.....
  - b) De la Mère:.....
  - c) Que vous utilisez:.....
- (H) Autres langues que vous parlez:
- a) Zairoises:.....
  - b) Etrangères:.....
- (I) Aviez-vous déjà doublé de classe? OUI /NON \*
- Si OUI, (les)laquelle(s) parmi celles ci-dessous:
- a) Primaire: 3e/4e/5e/6e \*
  - b) Secondaire: 1e/2e/3e/4e/5e/6e \*
  - c) Supérieur:
- ISP:
- a) Option Anglais: 1e/2e/3e \*
  - b) Autres: 1e/2e/3e \*
- Université:
- a) Option Anglais: 1e/2e/3e \*
  - b) Autres: 1e/2e/3e \*

*SECTION II: LES FACTEURS AFFECTIFS ET MOTIVATIONNELS*

CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

Les opinions exprimées ci-dessous sont, selon les gens, soit partiellement soit totalement vraies ou fausses. Indiquez votre position en ENCERCLANT chaque fois l'un des chiffres après chaque proposition ou en faisant ce qui est demandé (si autre qu'encercler les chiffres.)

- (1) J'aime étudier l'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (2) S'il m'était donné de choisir entre le Français et l'Anglais, je choiserais d'étudier l'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (3) Au Zaïre, l'Anglais devrait être enseigné dès l'école primaire. 1/2/3/
- (4) Dans le monde d'aujourd'hui, l'Anglais est plus important que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (5) Dans le Zaïre de demain, l'Anglais deviendra plus important que le Français. 1/2/3/
  
- (6) Avec le Français, je peux facilement voyager partout au monde. 1/2/3/
- (7) Avec l'Anglais, je peux voyager beaucoup plus facilement au monde qu'avec le Français. 1/2/3/
- (8) A la fin de mes études, je parlerai Anglais comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (9) J'apprends l'Anglais pour mieux connaître les us et coutumes des Anglais, Américains et Canadiens. 1/2/3/
- (10) J'apprends l'Anglais pour pouvoir après trouver un très bon emploi. 1/2/3/
- (11) En étudiant l'Anglais, mon but est de le parler un jour aussi parfaitement qu'un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (12) En tant que Zaïrois, je ne pourrais jamais connaître l'Anglais comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (13) Quand je parle Anglais, je me sens plus important que mes copains qui ne parlent que Français. 1/2/3/
- (14) J'admire beaucoup plus les Zaïrois qui parlent Anglais et Français que ceux qui ne parlent que Français. 1/2/3/
- (15) Plus je me débrouille bien en Anglais, plus je veux apprendre cette langue. 1/2/3/
- (16) Moins je me débrouille en Anglais, plus je suis découragé de continuer à étudier cette langue. 1/2/3/



- (17) J'évite souvent de parler pendant les leçons d'Anglais car j'ai peur que les autres élèves/ étudiants se moquent de moi si je commettais des fautes. 1/2/3/
- (18) je ne veux pas souvent parler pendant les leçons d'Anglais parce que le professeur nous exige de ne parler qu'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (19) Vu que je ne connais pas encore assez d'Anglais, j'aurais voulu que le professeur nous autorise (de temps en temps) d'utiliser aussi le Français ou les autres langues que nous connaissons. 1/2/3/
- (20) Je suis découragé, embrouillé et nerveux chaque fois qu'on m'interrompt pour me corriger. 1/2/3/
- (21) J'apprends l'Anglais parce qu'il est une branche obligatoire du programme. 1/2/3/
- (22) J'étudierais l'Anglais même s'il n'était pas une branche obligatoire du programme. 1/2/3/
- (23) L'Anglais est plus facile à apprendre que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (24) J'aime les leçons d'Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (25) J'apprends l'Anglais pour être capable de lire et comprendre les livres, revues et documents relatifs à ma spécialité. 1/2/3/
- (26) J'aime parler plus l'Anglais que les langues Zairoises. 1/2/3/
- (27) J'aime parler plus le Français que les langues Zairoises. 1/2/3/
- (28) J'aime parler plus l'Anglais que le Français. 1/2/3/
- (29) En étudiant l'Anglais, je voudrais aussi apprendre à agir, manger, rire, c.à.d. me comporter comme un Anglais. 1/2/3/
- (30) Pendant les PREMIERS MOIS du cours d'Anglais, j'aimerais que l'usage des autres langues que nous connaissons soit permis. 1/2/3/
- (31) D'après vous, quelle est parmi les langues ci-dessous la PLUS IMPORTANTE (du point de vue échanges commerciales, diplomatie, technologie et sciences) dans le monde:
- a) Aujourd'hui: Anglais/Français/Russe/Chinois/Espagnol/Portugais \*
- b) Demain: Anglais/Français/Russe/Chinois/Espagnol/Portugais \*
- (32) Aimez-vous votre professeur d'Anglais? OUI /NON \*
- (33) Aimez-vous la façon qu'on vous enseigne Anglais? OUI / NON \*
- (34) Si OUI, qu'est-ce que vous aimez en particulier?.....
- (35) Si NON, qu'est-ce que vous n'aimez pas en particulier?.....

(36) Est-ce que votre professeur d'Anglais vous encourage à étudier l'Anglais? OUI  
/ NON \*

(37) Si OUI, comment?.....

(38) Quels sont les changements que vous voudriez qu'on apporte à la façon qu'on  
vous enseigne?.....

## SECTION III: LES QUALITES DU PROFESSEUR IDEAL D'ANGLAIS

## CONSULTEZ LA LEGENDE!

Bien que le professeur idéal n'existe pas en pratique, les qualités qui le caractérisent se trouvent éparpillées parmi les BONS professeurs. Indiquez ci-dessous l'importance de certaines de ces caractéristiques dans votre définition du BON professeur d'Anglais.

Le bon professeur d'Anglais:

(39) Connait et parle bien l'Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi\*

(40) Répond à et explique toutes les questions qui lui sont posées.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(41) Admet d'être contredit. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(42) Explique clairement, bien et brièvement. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(43) Fait tous les exercices pour les élèves/ étudiants. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(44) Corrige toutes les fautes commises par les élèves/ étudiants.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(45) N'accorde pas beaucoup trop d'importance à la prononciation pendant les premiers mois du cours. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(46) Insiste beaucoup (pendant les premiers mois du cours) sur la signification de ce qui est dit . Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(47) Ne corrige la prononciation, le rythme et l'intonation que quand ils empêchent le message/ signification d'être saisi comme il faut. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(48) Suit mot à mot le programme officiel. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(49) Suit le programme officiel, mais l'adapte au rythme de travail des élèves/ étudiants et aux réalités de sa classe. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(50) Applique mot à mot ce qui est dit dans le livre du maître. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(51) Adapte ce qui est dit dans le livre du maître aux réalités de sa classe et de son milieu. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(52) Fait faire beaucoup d'exercices de grammaire. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(53) Oblige les élèves/ étudiants de mémoriser des listes de mots, expressions et règles de grammaire. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(54) Insiste beaucoup plus sur la langue parlée que sur la langue écrite.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(55) Encourage les élèves/ étudiants à toujours parler Anglais partout où ils en ont

l'occasion. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(56) Ne se fâche pas quand les élèves/ étudiants commettent des fautes, mais les aide au contraire à corriger ces fautes. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(57) Se moque des élèves/ étudiants quand ils commettent des fautes.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(58) Accepte (SANS TOUTEFOIS L'ENCOURAGER) que les élèves/ étudiants recourent aux mots, expressions, structures... des langues qu'ils connaissent, et gestes, mimes, expressions du visage... pour se faire comprendre quand ils parlent Anglais.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(59) Fait faire des exercices combinés de grammaire, vocabulaire, prononciation, rythme, intonation... dans un contexte qui en donne clairement la signification.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(60) Encourage les élèves/ étudiants à ne plus parler qu'Anglais après trois à quatre mois de cours.

Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(61) Permet aux élèves/ étudiants de et les encourage à parler plus que lui. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(62) Se comporte comme un Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(63) Change de voix pour parler comme un Anglais. Ti/I/Ai/Mi/Ne/Pi \*

(64) Si vous avez d'autres caractéristiques IMPORTANTES, veuillez les ajouter:.....

- Parmi les qualités mentionnées ci-haut, indiquez-en 5 PLUS IMPORTANTES et 5 MOINS IMPORTANTES.

- 1.....1.....
- 2.....2.....
- 3.....3.....
- 4.....4.....
- 5.....5.....

(65) Si vous avez quelques remarques à ajouter à ce qui vient d'être dit dans cette partie du questionnaire veuillez bien le faire ci-dessous.

(66) Nous voudrions que tous les cours au Département Anglais soient dispensés en Anglais. OUI / NON \*

(67) Nous voudrions que certains cours soient donnés en Français et d'autres en

Anglais, comme il est présentement le cas. OUI / NON \*

(68) Nous voudrions que tous les cours de spécialité (y compris l'Introduction à la Linguistique Générale) soient donnés en Anglais. OUI / NON \*

(69) Nous voudrions que le nombre d'heures des cours de spécialité soit augmenté. OUI / NON \*

(70) Aviez-vous choisi d'étudier l'Anglais après vos études secondaires? OUI/NON \*

(71) Si OUI, pourquoi?.....

(72) Si NON, comment vous retrouvez-vous alors au Dépt. Anglais?.....

(73) Si vous aviez choisi d'étudier l'Anglais, êtes-vous toujours motivé de continuer à étudier cette langue? OUI / NON \*

(74) Si OUI, qu'est-ce qui continue à vous motiver?....

(75) Si NON, qu'est-ce qui vous a découragé?.....

(76) Etes-vous satisfaits avec la méthodologie d'enseignement de l'Anglais telle qu'on vous l'apprend au cours de Didactique Spéciale? OUI / NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

(77) Arrive-t-il à vos élèves (ou à ceux que vous observez) d'utiliser (pendant les leçons d'Anglais) des mots, expressions, structures.. des autres langues qu'ils connaissent déjà? OUI / NON \*

(78) Si OUI, pensez-vous que cela est NATUREL et par conséquent INEVITABLE? OUI / NON \*

(79) Parmi les langues suivantes, indiquez les DEUX qui semblent être les plus utilisées dans ce sens par vos élèves.

(Ecrivez 1. à côté de la plus utilisée, et 2. à côté de la deuxième):

Ciluba/ Lingala/ Français/ Kikongo/ Kiswahili.

(80) Pour se faire comprendre, est-ce que vos élèves utilisent aussi:

a) des gestes: OUI /NON \*

b) des expressions du visage: OUI/ NON \*

c) des mimes: OUI / NON \*

(81) Est-ce qu'ils inventent des mots, expressions et structures nouveaux:

a) en se basant sur les langues qu'ils connaissent déjà? OUI / NON \*

b) en se basant sur le peu d'Anglais qu'ils connaissent déjà? OUI / NON \*

(82) Si vous avez répondu OUI aux questions (80) et (81), indiquez si OUI ou NON vous aviez constaté ce qui est dit ci-dessous:

1) La fréquence du recours aux gestes, expressions du visage, mimes et langues déjà connues:

a) Reste CONSTANTE c.à.d. ne change pas du début à la fin de l'année scolaire. OUI / NON \*

b) Va AUGMENTANT c.à.d. que plus les élèves apprennent, plus ils recourent aux gestes, mimes... OUI / NON \*

c) Va DIMINUANT c.à.d. que plus ils apprennent, moins en moins ils y recourent. OUI / NON \*

2) L'usage de mots, expressions, structures... anglais

a) Reste CONSTANT du début à la fin de l'année scolaire. OUI / NON \*

b) Va DIMINUANT c.à.d. que plus ils apprennent l'Anglais, moins en moins ils utilisent l'Anglais. OUI / NON \*

c) Va AUGMENTANT c.à.d. plus ils apprennent l'Anglais, plus ils utilisent des mots, expressions, structures...anglais. OUI / NON \*

(83) Parmi les propositions mentionnées au (82), indiquez celles qui décrivent les étapes que VOUS, en tant qu'élève et étudiant d'Anglais, aviez connues (et continuez peut-être à connaître). (Encerclez les lettres introduisant les propositions que vous choisissiez):

1) a) ..... b) ..... c)

2) a) ..... b) .....c)

(84) Je voudrais que l'examen d'Anglais (du secondaire à l'université) soit:

a) Complètement ECRIT: OUI/NON \*

b) Complètement ORAL: OUI/NON \*

c) ECRIT et ORAL: OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

(85) Je voudrais que les interrogations d'Anglais soient:

a) Complètement ECRITES: OUI/NON \*

b) Complètement ORALES: OUI/NON \*

c) ECRITES et ORALES: OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

(86) La façon actuelle de poser l'examen et les interrogations au cours d'Anglais m'encourage à tout faire pour essayer de parler cette langue. OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

(87) La nature (c.à.d. le contenu) des textes utilisés pour m'apprendre l'Anglais a une très grande influence sur ma motivation et ma persévérance à continuer d'étudier cette langue. OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

- Si vous avez autre chose à ajouter à ce qui vient d'être dit dans ce questionnaire, veuillez le faire ci-dessous.

FIN DU QUESTIONNAIRE  
MERCİ POUR VOTRE COLLABORATION

## 1.4.b.

## Summary of Data

\* = (Further) explications

S=30

## 1. Frequency and Percentage Counts

Table 18: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with 1/2/3 response mode.

Resp. Mode  Item No.	1		2		3	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
(1)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(2)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(3)	23	76.66	3	10	4	13.33
(4)	27	90	-	-	3	10
(5)	23	76.66	2	6.6	5	16.66
(6)	20	66.66	1	3.3	9	30
(7)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(8)	10	33.33	3	10	17	56.66
(9)	8	26.66	1	3.3	21	70
(10)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(11)	10	33.33	-	-	20	66.66
(12)	25	83.33	1	3.3	4	13.33
(13)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(14)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(15)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(16)	20	66.66	-	-	10	33.33
(17)	28	93.33	1	3.3	1	3.33
(18)	20	66.66	-	-	10	33.33
(19)	15	50	-	-	15	50
(20)	18	60	2	6.6	10	33.33
(21)	-	-	-	-	30	100
(22)	30	100	-	-	-	-
(23)	12	40	1	3.3	17	56.66
(24)	27	90	1	3.3	2	6.66
(25)	20	66.66	-	-	10	33.33
(26)	19	63.33	11	36.6	-	-
(27)	18	60	9	30	3	10
(28)	25	83.33	-	-	5	16.66
(29)	7	23.33	2	6.6	21	70
(30)	19	63.33	-	-	11	36.66





Table 20: Frequency and Percentage Counts: Items with OUI/ NON response mode.

Resp. Mode Item No.	Oui		Non	
	f	%	f	%
* (31)				
(32)	17	56.66	13	43.33
(33)	16	53.33	14	46.66
* (34)				
* (35)				
(36)	18	60	12	40
* (37)				
* (38)				
(66)	21	70	9	30
(67)	9	30	21	70
(68)	30	100	-	-
(69)	30	100	-	-
(70)	30	100	-	-
* (71)				
* (72)				
(73)	30	100	-	-
* (74)				
* (75)				
* (76)	9	30	21	70
(77)	30	100	-	-
(78)	30	100	-	-
* (79)				
(80)				
a)	30	100	-	-
b)	30	100	-	-
c)	30	100	-	-
(81)				
a)	30	100	-	-
b)	30	100	-	-
(82)				
1)				
a)	-	-	30	100
b)	-	-	30	100
c)	30	100	-	-
2)				
a)	-	-	30	100
b)	-	-	30	100
c)	30	100	-	-
* (83)				
* (84)				
a)	-	-	30	100
b)	-	-	30	100
c)	30	100	-	-
* (85)				
a)	-	-	30	100
b)	-	-	30	100
c)	30	100	-	-
* (86)	-	-	30	100
* (87)	12	40	18	60

## 2. Further Explications and Data

(31)

a) Anglais: 26 (86.66%); Français: 4 (13.33%)

b) Anglais: 30 (100%).

(34) Enseignement en Anglais: Ceci nous oblige à ne parler qu'Anglais. D'où cela nous aide dans notre apprentissage de cette langue.

(35) Monopolisation de la parole par les enseignants. La communication est unidirectionnelle: les enseignants parlent et les étudiants écoutent ou prennent des notes. Obligés de terminer ce qu'ils ont prévu (en conformité avec le programme officiel), les enseignants ne s'occupent pas assez de la compréhension des étudiants, de leurs sentiments, de leur façon d'apprendre....

(37) Obligation de parler Anglais et interdiction de recourir aux autres langues que nous connaissons, et aux autres moyens paralinguistiques qui pourraient nous aider à communiquer en cas de difficulté. D'où nous faisons tout pour n'utiliser que l'Anglais. Démonstration quasi permanente (par les enseignants) de l'importance de l'Anglais aujourd'hui, et dans l'avenir.

Ils répondent à beaucoup de questions qui leur sont posées.

(NON: Très peu d'occasions nous sont données pour parler en classe. Les enseignants monopolisent la parole.

(38) [30 (100%)]:

Qu'on nous donne beaucoup plus d'occasions de nous exercer en classe c.à.d. de parler.

Que les enseignants se préoccupent plus de ce que nous sentons quand nous essayons de parler Anglais; qu'ils soient capables de ménager nos sentiments en devenant plus tolérants, plus enclin à nous aider à trouver par nous-mêmes des solutions (avant de nous les donner).

(64)

[19 (63.33%)]: - Un bon enseignant doit connaître ses étudiants, i.e. connaître leurs points forts et faibles, et savoir comment améliorer les premiers et résoudre les problèmes posés par les seconds. En bref il doit être SENSIBLE à sa classe. classe

[23 (76.66%)]:

Un bon enseignant est celui qui accorde beaucoup plus d'heures et d'importance à la

conversation et aux débats avec ses étudiants, c.à.d. celui qui se préoccupe plus de l'aspect parlé de la langue.

(64)

Les 5 qualités les PLUS importantes:

15 (50%): (46), (47), (51), (58), (61).

5 (16.66%): (39), (41), (42), (45), (46).

6 (20%): (46), (47), (49), (54), (59).

4 (13.33%): (47), (54), (56), (58), (60).

Les 5 qualités les MOINS importantes:

19 (63.33%): (48), (50), (52), (57), (62).

11 (36.66%): (48), (50), (57), (62), (63).

(71)

11 (36.66%): Amour de l'Anglais.

19 (63.33%): Avoir un bon emploi + importance de l'Anglais.

(74)

19 (63.33%): Souci de mieux encore connaître l'Anglais.

30 (100%): Souci toujours grandissant d'avoir un emploi bien rémunéré, et avoir des facilités pour voyager dans le monde.

(75) - 30 (100%) se plaignent du manque de liberté d'expression.

(76)

OUI [9 (30%)]: On nous demande de n'utiliser que l'Anglais pour enseigner cette langue.

NON [21 (70%)]: L'enseignement trop basé sur la théorie. Ce qui se passe en classe (pratique, quand nous enseignons) est en grande partie contraire à ce qu'on nous apprend en méthodologie (ANGLAIS EN ANGLAIS SEULEMENT).

On nous demande de faire tout pour que les élèves soient actifs en classe, c.à.d. qu'ils participent aux leçons. Or la méthodologie est, dans son aspect fondamental, paradoxalement opposée à ce que les étudiants participent aux leçons. En fait, en nous demandant de n'utiliser que l'Anglais, cette méthodologie renie aux étudiants la possibilité de participer (parler) aux leçons.

(79)

1. Français: 22 (73.33%)

2. Ciluba: 8 (26.66%)

(83) 1) c : 30 (100%) and 2) c: 30 (100%)

(84), (85), et (86): Mêmes raisons que (60), (61) et 62) [Questionnaire 1], que (65), (66) et (67) [Questionnaire 2], et que (76), (77) et (78) [Questionnaire 3].

(85)

a) Mêmes justifications que (84 a)

b) Mêmes justifications que (84 b)

c) Mêmes justifications que (84 c)

(86) ...Car, n'insistant que sur l'aspect écrit de la langue, l'enseignement ne nous pousse pas à étudier et préparer les interrogos et examens pour le parler. Ainsi, il n'y a pas de pression pour parler afin d'avoir des points; pas de préoccupation pour parler la langue.

(87)

OUI: Contenu intéressant: influence positive sur motivation et persévérance.

NON: d'accord qu'un contenu intéressant influence positivement la motivation et la persévérance. Mais cette influence ne peut avoir lieu que quand l'étudiant veut/désire apprendre. D'où la volonté et le désir conditionnent cette influence du contenu. Sans désir, sans volonté, cette influence ne peut pas avoir un impact sur la motivation et la persévérance.

### 3. Extra Comments made by Some Participants

20 (66.66%):

L'aspect oral doit être accentué. D'où la méthodologie, les textes, examens, interrogos... doivent être orientés à amener les étudiants à s'exprimer facilement. Beaucoup de temps doit être consacré à l'oralité.

Examens et interrogos doivent viser plus l'oralité que les points. Ainsi, encourager et pousser les étudiants à faire tout pour parler.

23 (76.66%):

Apprendre aux étudiants l'Anglais pratique (courant) en combinaison avec l'Anglais livresque.

28 (93.33%):

Eviter de montrer aux étudiants qu'ils sont incompetents, que seul l'enseignant connaît, et encourager beaucoup les faibles pour qu'ils prennent des risques pour

parler.

27 (90%): Mettre l'accent sur la spontanéité et la volonté de parler, au lieu d'insister sur la perfection.

APPENDIX 2.

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## INTERVIEWS

## Contents

Personal Details sheet (is the same for all the teachers)

Personal Details sheet (is the same for all the inspectors)

Interview Guides and Schedules (are the same for all the teachers)

Interview Guides and Schedules (are the same for all the inspectors)

Interview Guides and Schedules (are the same for all the political educational authorities)

Summary of Personal Details

Interview Transcripts

Q (followed by a number)= Core Question/ Statement (number.....)

I (followed by a number)= Interviewee (number...)

Sin = Secondary question/ statement by the interviewer.

APPENDIX 2.1.

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## Teachers' Interviews

## CONTENTS

The 'Fiche Signalétique du Participant'(2.1.1.)

Interview Guide (2.1.2.)

Interview Schedule (2.1.3.)

Table 21: Summary of Teachers' Personal Details (2.1.4.)

Teachers' Interview Transcripts (2.1.5.)

    The ISP Teachers' Interview Transcript (2.1.5.1.)

    The Miabi Teachers' Interview Transcript (2.1.5.2.)

    The Cilenge Teachers' Interview Transcript (2.1.5.3.)

    The Mweneditu Teachers' Interview Transcript (2.1.5.4.)

    The Mbujimayi Teachers' Interview Transcript: Group 1 (2.1.5.5.)

    The Mbujimayi Teachers' Interview Transcript: Group 2 (2.1.5.6.)



## 2.1.1.

## FICHE SIGNALÉTIQUE DU PARTICIPANT

- (A) Age:.....ans.
- (B) Sexe: Masculin / Féminin \*
- (C) Ecole (où vous enseignez OFFICIELLEMENT).....
- (D) Année(s) d'études où vous enseignez:
- a) Secondaire: 1/2/3/4/5/6 \*
  - b) Supérieur: 1/2/3 \*
- (E) Activités extra-murales: (si vous enseignez dans une autre école)
- a) Ecole(s):.....
  - b) Année(s) d'études enseignée(s):
    - Secondaire: 1/2/3/4/5/6 \*
    - Supérieur: 1/2/3 \*
- (F) Etudes faites :
- a) Secondaires:
    - Nombre d'années:.....ans
    - Section :.....
    - Option :.....
    - Diplôme/Titre obtenu.....
    - Année d'obtention :19.....
  - b) Post-secondaires : OUI /NON \*
- Si OUI:
- Nombre d'années:.....ans
  - Section:.....
  - Option:.....
  - Diplôme(s)/Titre(s):.....
- (G) Expérience Professionnelle:
- a) Année début enseignement Anglais: 19.....
  - b) Nombre de:
    - Stages de perfectionnement à l'étranger:

- Recyclage au Zaïre:

Au Kasai Oriental:.....

Ailleurs:.....

(H) Langues parlées:

a) Zaïroises:

-Maternelle(s).....

-Autres :.....

b) Etrangères:.....

(I) Langues connues mais NON parlées :

a) Zaïroises :.....

b) Etrangères:.....

## 2.1.2.

## INTERVIEW GUIDE

The interview focuses on six main areas:

I. *Processus d'apprentissage et stratégies de communication*

- a) Rôle des langues connues (dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais)
- b) Moyens utilisés (dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais):
  - Gestes
  - Mimes
  - Références aux langues connues
- c) Pratique normale ou anormale?
- d) Circonstances et Raisons (pour moyens utilisés)
- e) Rapport Progression Apprentissage - Utilisation moyens dans (b)

II. *Les Facteurs Affectifs et Motivationnels*

- a) Etudiants: Façon de travailler
  - Motivation
  - Persévérance
  - Découragement...
- b) Influence de l'enseignant sur (a)
  - Façon d'enseigner
  - Attitude envers l'Anglais
  - Encouragement/ Décourage-t-il...?
- c) Influence de la société sur (a)
  - Attitude envers:
    - Langues Zairoises
    - Langues étrangères: (Français Vs Anglais)

III. *Méthodes d'enseignement de l'Anglais*

- a) Méthodes utilisées pour enseigner:
  - Grammaire
  - Vocabulaire
  - Lecture

### Conversation

- b) Réactions des étudiants (à ces méthodes)
- c) Méthodes utilisées - Méthodes apprises (quand étudiant)

Similitudes? Différences?

d) Conclusions:

(a) Vs (b) Vs (c)

Bonne Méthode d'enseignement

-au début (à + 3 mois)

-après

-avantages/ désavantages/ dangers

### IV. *Bon élève: Caractéristiques*

- a) des observations des étudiants
- b) expérience personnelle (quand étudiant)
- c) caractéristiques du bon étudiant (conclusion)

### V. *Genres: Interros, examens, & textes*

a) Interros et examen:

Genres préférés et Pourquoi.

Relation (Cause-Effet): Genres Int. & examen, et Motivation et Persévérance à communiquer en Anglais(?)

b) Textes:

Relation (C-E): Textes et Motivation + Persévérance à étudier l'Anglais.

Possibilité et Nécessité + résultats: Adaptation textes aux contextes zairois.

### VI. *Résultats Enseignement de l'Anglais*

a) Définition SUCCES / ECHEC

b) ELT (Succès / Echech?)

En Classe

Ville/Village...

Kasai Oriental

c) Eléments Succès/ Echech

d) Changements/ Améliorations (si Echech/ Succès)

e) Effets des changements/ améliorations sur

Personnes

- étudiants

- enseignants

- administrateurs
- pourvoyeurs des fonds

Matériel

*AJOUTES/ REMARQUES (par les interviewés)*

## 2.1.3.

## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. *Introduction*

## A. Introducing the interview:

\* Aims and Objectives (of the interview)

\* How the interview was to be conducted

## B. Collecting the Fiche Signalétiques

II. *Interview Session*

## (CORE QUESTIONS)

## SECTION I: PROCESSUS D'APPRENTISSAGE ET STRATEGIES DE COMMUNICATION

a) *Rôle des langues connues*

(1) Les langues que l'élève/ étudiant connaît déjà jouent un rôle dans son apprentissage de l'Anglais. Qu'en pensez-vous?

(2) Quelles langues d'après vous l'élève/ étudiant utilise-t-il beaucoup plus dans son apprentissage de l'Anglais? Pourquoi? Comment? Quand?..

b) *Moyens utilisés*

(3) Quels autres moyens les élèves/ étudiants utilisent pour se faire comprendre quand ils essaient de parler Anglais?... (Gestes, mimes, coups d'oeil...)

c) *Pratique normale ou anormale?*

(4) Pensez-vous qu'il est possible de bannir cette pratique chez les élèves/ étudiants? Explications.

d) *Circonstances et Raisons de (c)*

- (5) Les élèves/ étudiants recourent le plus à ces techniques et tactiques-là. Quand? Pourquoi?
- (6) Croyez-vous qu'utiliser ces techniques et tactiques est un signe de manque d'intelligence?

e) *Progression Apprentissage - Utilisation (moyens ci-haut)*

- (7) Si vous comparez la progression dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais ou de n'importe quelle autre langue apprise, que remarquez-vous? ....
- (8) Que pouvez-vous dire de la façon dont vos élèves/ étudiants utilisent les techniques et tactiques discutées ci-haut: rapport progression de l'apprentissage et moyens utilisés.
- (9) Quelles sont vos conclusions?...
- (10) Parlez-nous de votre propre expérience d'élève/ étudiant d'Anglais (en la comparant à ce qui précède): Différente? La même chose?...
- (11) Et aujourd'hui en tant que professeur d'Anglais: Comparaison avec ce qui précède....

**SECTION II.: FACTEURS AFFECTIFS ET MOTIVATIONNELS**

a) *Motivation, persévérance*

- (12) Qu'avez-vous constaté chez vos élèves/ étudiants en ce qui concerne leur façon de travailler en Anglais?

b) *Influence de l'enseignant*

- (13) En tant qu'ENSEIGNANT vous croyez-vous être un élément important qui pourrait influencer la façon de travailler des élèves/ étudiants?.....
- (14) Pensez-vous que votre façon d'enseigner a une certaine influence sur la façon de travailler de vos élèves/ étudiants et leur attitude envers l'Anglais? Explications.

c) *Influence de la société*

- (15) La société influence aussi la façon de travailler des élèves/ étudiants. Qu'en pensez-vous?
- (16) D'après vous quels sont les statuts des langues étrangères enseignées au Zaïre: aujourd'hui et demain? Et ici au Kasai Oriental?...

(17) Le statut des langues nationales Zairoises comparé à celui des langues étrangères enseignées au Zaïre.

(18) Langue internationale: aujourd'hui et demain? Raisons.

### SECTION III.: LES METHODES D'ENSEIGNEMENT DE L'ANGLAIS

(en relation avec ce qui précède.)

#### a) *Méthodes utilisées*

(19) Décrivez brièvement les méthodes que vous utilisez pour enseigner: la grammaire, le vocabulaire, la lecture et la conversation.

(20) A quel aspect de la langue donnez-vous la priorité pendant vos leçons: l'exactitude (ACCURACY) de ce qui est dit ou la spontanéité (FLUENCY) dans le parler?  
POURQUOI?

#### b) *Réactions des élèves/ étudiants*

(21) Comment est-ce que les élèves/ étudiants réagissent à ces méthodes?

#### c) *Méthodes utilisées - Méthodes apprises*

(22) Y a-t-il contradictions/ similitudes entre les méthodes que vous utilisez et celles qui vous ont été apprises au cours de Didactique Spéciale d'Anglais? Explications.

#### d) *Conclusions*

(23) Quelles sont vos conclusions quand vous considérez ce qui précède?...

(24) D'après tout ce qui précède, quelles sont les lignes maîtresses d'une bonne méthode pour l'enseignement de l'Anglais:

- Au début de l'apprentissage?

- Après?

Avantages/ Désavantages/ Dangers?

### SECTION IV: LES CARACTERISTIQUES DU BON ELEVE D'ANGLAIS



(25) D'après votre expérience d'élève/ étudiant et professeur d'Anglais, quels sont les traits du BON élève/ étudiant d'Anglais?

*SECTION V.: INTERROGATIONS, EXAMENS ET TEXTES*

a) *Genres Interros et Examens*

(26) Les interros et examens d'Anglais doivent être:

\* Complètement ECRITS: OUI/NON \*

\* Complètement ORAUX : OUI/NON \*

\* ORAUX et ECRITS: OUI/NON \*

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

b) *Effet: Genres Interros/ Examens sur Motivation et Persévérance des élèves à communiquer en Anglais*

(27) Le genre d'examen et interros encourage-t-il les élèves à essayer de parler en Anglais?

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

(28) Vos propositions et Comment les exécuter (en tenant compte des facteurs suivants):

.Nombre d'élèves

.Votre définition de Communiquer

.Temps et finances...

(29) Y a-t-il une Relation de Cause à Effet entre les textes utilisés et la Motivation/ Persévérance des élèves à continuer d'étudier l'Anglais? Un autre type de relation?

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

c) *Possibilité et Nécessite d'Adapter les textes aux Contextes Locaux*

(30) Est-il vraiment POSSIBLE, NECESSAIRE, et BENEFIQUE d'adapter les textes aux contextes PUREMENT ZAIROIS (et ou Africains) et de continuer à enseigner la langue Anglaise comme il faut?

-Justifiez votre réponse:.....

## SECTION VI.: ENSEIGNEMENT D'ANGLAIS AU KASAI ORIENTAL

## a) Définitions: SUCCES/ ECHEC

(31) Qu'entendez-vous par ECHEC et REUSSITE (en Anglais)?

b) *ELT: Réussite/ Echec (au Kasai Oriental)?*

(32) D'après vous, est-ce que l'enseignement de l'Anglais au Kasai Oriental est une réussite ou un échec?...

-Justifiez votre réponse.....

Si c'est un SUCCES: Eléments de succès et pourquoi.

Si c'est un ECHEC: Eléments d'échec et pourquoi.

(33) Si c'est un échec, quels sont les points qui nécessitent un un changement ou une amélioration?....

(34) Les changements et ou améliorations que VOUS proposez. (Explications).

(35) Parmi les éléments au (32), quels sont ceux qui peuvent être changés et ou améliorés à :

Court terme? (Explications)

Moyen terme? (Explications)

Long terme? (Explications)

(36) Quels éléments nécessitent un changement...URGENT?...

(37) Parmi ces éléments, quels sont ceux qui peuvent être manipulés à l'école par le professeur avec ou sans la permission de la direction? (Explications + comment, pourquoi, quand ?)

(38) En rapport avec ce qui précède, que proposez-VOUS comme changements/ améliorations en ce qui concerne:

a) l'enseignement et le stage pratique des futurs enseignants d'Anglais?

b) l'éducation permanente des enseignants d'Anglais?

c) *Effets des changements/ améliorations*

(39) Que pensez-vous des effets possibles des changements et améliorations proposés sur:

- a) les enseignants ?
- b) les administrateurs de cet enseignement, et les pourvoyeurs des fonds?
- c) le matériel didactique?
- d) les élèves/étudiants?

*AJOUTES/ REMARQUES (des interviewés)*

## 2.1.4.

Table 21: Summary of Teachers' Personal Details

Schools	Teachers	Sex	Degrees held	Prof. Exp. (years)	In-service Training (X)	
					At Home	Abroad
Second.	33	Male	29 G3A	2= 10 yrs	4 = 12x	N
			3 L2Engl.	2= 9 yrs	13 = 10x	O
			Lge+Lit.	1= 8 yrs	4 = 5x	N
			1LAtefl	8= 7 yrs	1 = 4x	E
				9= 6 yrs	5 = 3x	
				11= 5 yrs	4 = 2x	
ISP	5	Male	4 L2Engl.	2= 9 yrs	4 = 10x	1 =1x
			Lge+Lit.	2= 8 yrs	1 = 5x	in UK
			1 L2Engl.	1= 7 yrs		
			Ling.+ M.Sc.Ling			

X= Times

2.1.5.

TEACHERS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS

## 2.1.5.1.

## THE ISP TEACHERS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1:.....

I1: Je suis de votre avis. Mais j'ajouterais que quand l'étudiant ou l'élève a de l'intérêt pour la langue Anglaise, plus il l'apprend, de moins en moins il utilise les langues qu'il connaît déjà (Je l'interromps)

Sin: Cette question vient après. Merci. Et bien (m'adressant à I2), quel est votre avis?

I2: Le rôle dont vous parlez, est-il positif ou négatif?

Sin: Je ne sais pas. Mais ce qui m'intéresse pour le moment est de savoir si ce rôle existe.

I2: Bien sûr, bien sûr. Les langues que l'élève connaît déjà jouent un rôle dans son apprentissage de l'Anglais.

I3 (intervient): Je peux même ajouter que ce rôle est très important.

Sin: Et vous (I4 & I5), partagez-vous le même point de vue que les Citoyens (I2, I3 & I1)?

I4: Oui.

I5: En effet, quand quelqu'un commence à apprendre une langue, et s'il est déjà en possession d'une autre, cette dernière devient un point de repère, et son influence est à la fois positive et négative. Puis-je m'étendre un peu?

Sin: Pas pour le moment. Vous le ferez d'ici peu.

Q2:.....

I3: Le Français.

I2: C'est le Français.

I4: Le Français.

I5: Le Français.

I1: C'est le Français.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I1: Selon moi, l'étudiant considère le Français comme sa 1ère langue, et l'Anglais comme la 2e. Ainsi, il va toujours, disons la plupart des fois, se référer au Français pour mieux apprendre l'Anglais.

I2: Je crois que l'Anglais...bon...je crois que l'étudiant voit l'Anglais comme une 2e

langue pour lui. Et comme c'est une langue européenne, il croit souvent qu'il y a des structures semblables dans les deux langues. Alors il essaie de partir du Français pour apprendre l'Anglais.

I3: Je crois que, le Français étant la langue officielle de l'instruction ici chez-nous, la plupart d'élèves ont déjà fait beaucoup d'efforts pour l'acquérir. Ainsi, ils éprouvent plus de facilité pour l'utiliser.

I2 (intervient): Je pense qu'il y a aussi un autre élément: le Ciluba n'est pas bien étudié. Je crois que beaucoup d'élèves ne connaissent pas bien beaucoup de structures grammaticales de cette langue... Le Français, vous voyez, au secondaire... ils ont appris et acquis beaucoup de structures qu'ils comparent souvent aux structures anglaises.

Q3: .....

I3: Comme quoi par exemple?

Sin: Je ne sais pas. Mais ce qui m'intéresse pour le moment c'est de savoir s'ils utilisent d'autres moyens que les mots.

I2 (intervient, suivi de I1. Mais c'est I2 qui finalement prend la parole): Moi, je dirais que dans l'expression... quand un étudiant veut s'exprimer, s'il y a de mots qui lui font défaut, bon il peut utiliser les gestes, les mimes...etc...

I1: Oui. L'étudiant recourt souvent aux gestes, mimiques, et aussi expressions du visage, clins d'oeil, et autres moyens... pour s'exprimer dans le cas où son vocabulaire de la langue qu'il apprend n'est pas encore assez étendu... Ce qui est souvent le cas.

I5 (intervient): D'ailleurs, on constate une certaine évolution dans ce cas: c'est surtout pendant les premières étapes de l'apprentissage que les élèves recourent beaucoup plus à ces moyens-là.

Sin (je l'interromps): Cette question reviendra d'ici peu. Alors vous aurez l'occasion de vous étendre là-dessus. Les autres (I3 & I4), quelle est votre position?

I3: Je suis parfaitement d'accord avec ce que les Citoyens (I1, I2 & I5) viennent de dire.

I4: Moi également.

Q4:.....

I1: C'est une pratique normale et naturelle car...(I3 intervient)

I3: Vous voyez, par exemple les muets...Pour communiquer, ils utilisent les gestes...etc... Celui qui apprend une nouvelle langue peut être comparé, surtout au commencement de l'apprentissage, à un muet. Ainsi, pour se faire comprendre des autres, il doit faire

usage de gestes, expressions du visage,...Même quand on lui parle et qu'il ne semble pas comprendre, on utilise des fois ces mêmes artifices pour l'aider à comprendre... Et ça marche très souvent. D'ailleurs, ces moyens sont à la portée de quasi tout le monde. C'est la langue universelle naturelle par excellence... tandis que la nouvelle langue que l'élève apprend, je dirais les mots... de cette langue sont particuliers (à quelques exceptions près) à cette langue-là.

Sin: Quelles exceptions?

I3 (continue): Par exemple, il y a des mots qu'on trouve dans des langues différentes et qui se prononcent presque de la même façon et ont presque la même signification.

Sin: Bon. Et vous, (I2)?

I2: C'est très normal. Quand on a déjà maîtrisé une langue, on trouve des fois des structures semblables à celles de la langue qu'on étudie. Alors, je crois que c'est facile de communiquer dans ce sens-là. Quand on commence à apprendre une nouvelle langue, on doit nécessairement suppléer au manque de vocabulaire...etc... de cette langue par d'autres moyens. Dans ce cas, à part la ou les langues déjà connues, seuls les gestes, mimiques, expressions du visage, clins d'oeil sont les plus à la portée de l'élève. D'où il s'en sert à gogo.

Sin: Y a-t-il quelqu'un qui ne partage pas ce point de vue? (Ils secouent la tête).

Q5.....

I1: J'ai constaté que l'élève utilise ces techniques quand il lui est difficile de s'exprimer comme il faut ou de trouver des mots, structures .... qu'il faut... (I3 intervient).

I3: Surtout quand il ne peut pas exprimer facilement ce qu'il pense et veut exprimer. C'est alors qu'il se tourne vers ce qu'il connaît déjà mieux. Sachant ou ayant déjà l'impression que les structures françaises ressemblent à celles de l'Anglais, l'élève alors suit la ligne de la moindre résistance ou du moindre effort, c.à.d. le recours au Français.

I2: Quand l'élève ne trouve pas le mot anglais qu'il faut, il peut soit le remplacer par des gestes..., soit le remplacer par un mot français (prononcé soit en Français soit en Anglais), ou soit encore utiliser un autre mot anglais dont la signification est dans le même champ sémantique que le mot recherché.

Sin: Vous (I4 & I5), êtes-vous du même avis?

I4 & I5: Oui.

Q6:.....

I2: Pas nécessairement. On sent qu'il apprend. Peut-être si, après beaucoup d'années,



il continue à le faire: Oui, là on pourra dire qu'il n'est pas intelligent. D'ailleurs le mot intelligent n'est pas correct ici. Même dans ce cas, on ne peut pas facilement conclure que l'élève n'est pas intelligent. On pourrait dire peut-être qu'il n'est pas intéressé. Il y a tant de facteurs qui interviennent...(Je l'interromps en passant la parole aux autres).

I3, I1 & I4 : Oui, c'est ça. (I2 intervient et continue).

I2: Parce que ce n'est pas l'intelligence qui joue, mais l'intérêt... parce que quand on est intéressé, on peut faire beaucoup de progrès.

Sin: Est-ce votre opinion aussi, Citoyen (I5)?

I5: Oui. Même quand nous parlons dans nos langues maternelles, il nous arrive souvent d'utiliser des gestes...soit pour renforcer le message, soit pour le clarifier. Alors, il est plus que normal que cela arrive avec beaucoup plus de fréquences quand on apprend une langue qui n'est pas sienne. Je crois que la source de ce problème est la restriction des moyens à la disposition de l'élève. Eliminer cette restriction, on élimine presque aussi le problème.

Q7:.....

I4: Je crois qu'il y a régression: Plus on maîtrise la langue, plus cet usage diminue.

Sin: Les autres (I1, I2, I3, & I5)?

(Chacun à tour de rôle): Je suis du même avis.

Sin: Qu'est-ce qui fait qu'il y ait cette tendance à la régression?

I5: C'est que l'élève a, à ce stade, déjà acquis assez de matière de la nouvelle langue pour pouvoir s'exprimer plus ou moins facilement. Mais au début, il n'a que très peu de vocabulaire. D'où il recourt à ces moyens-là pour communiquer

I1 (intervient): Moi, je trouve un peu le contraire. Il y a progression, surtout quand l'élève oublie les mots de la nouvelle langue.

I3 (interrompt I1 et s'adresse à lui): Est-ce que ce sont les mêmes mots? (Silence de la part de I1, et I3 continue) Je crois que quand on avance dans l'apprentissage d'une langue, on s'enrichit

I1: Oui.

I3: Ce qu'on ignorait l'année passée, on le connaît l'année suivante. (J'interviens).

Sin: Par exemple, vous (I1), faisiez-vous usage de ces artifices quand vous étiez élève et étudiant?

I1: Bien sûr.

Sin (Je continue): Continuez-vous à le faire aujourd'hui de la même façon, c.à.d. aussi

régulièrement que quand vous étiez élève?

(Tout le monde rit, y compris I1 lui-même, et il dit) I1: Non. Maintenant ça a diminué.

Q8:.....

I4: Il y a régression. (Les autres le confirment aussi).

Q9:.....

I2: Tout ce que nous venons de dire est normal et c'est ce qui se passe.

Sin: Les autres, vous êtes d'accord avec cela? (Tous sont d'accord).

Q10:.....

I4: Mon expérience d'élève/ étudiant cadre avec ce que nous venons de discuter. Je crois que c'est le même cas avec mes collègues ici présents.

(Les autres hochent la tête).

Q11:.....

I5: Il y a toujours régression, beaucoup de régression.

Sin: Les autres, votre position?

(Les autres acceptent aussi qu'il y a régression en ce qui les concerne).

Q12:.....

I2: Les étudiants sont motivés quand ils commencent à apprendre l'Anglais. Mais, au fur et à mesure que le cours avance, beaucoup commencent à perdre de leur enthousiasme du début, et vers les derniers stades du cours, très peu d'entre eux au contraire deviennent de plus en plus motivés, plus persévérant. Ils font tout pour montrer qu'ils connaissent déjà la langue. Et ils sont les plus actifs, et se retrouvent souvent parmi ceux qui font de bons points.

I3 : Même parmi ceux qui ne sont pas actifs, ceux qui se sont découragés, il y en a qui font de bons points, mais n'osent presque pas participer dans les interactions orales.

Sin (à I5): Que dites-vous?

I5: Je suis complètement d'accord avec ce que les autres viennent de dire, et je crois que (I4 & I1) sont aussi du même avis (I1 & I4 le confirment). En bref, au début du cours, beaucoup d'élèves sont très intéressés, très motivés pour apprendre l'Anglais. Et ils font tout pour réussir. Mais beaucoup se découragent après et perdent ainsi toute envie d'étudier, même s'ils réussissent aux interros et examens.

Sin: Y a-t-il quelqu'un qui ne partage pas ce point de vue? (Personne).

Q13:.....

I1: Oui. L'enseignant a une grande influence sur la façon de travailler des élèves. Ils

suivent son exemple... s'il les encourage .....

Sin: Comment est-ce qu'il peut les encourager et les intéresser?

I2: Le moyen le plus simple c'est de leur expliquer, leur montrer l'importance de l'Anglais.

I1 (intervient): Ça c'est ce que nous faisons chaque jour, et d'ailleurs beaucoup d'élèves le savent déjà de par leur expérience de ce qui se passe aujourd'hui dans notre pays, et dans le monde. C'est pour cela que la plupart sont intéressés dès le début. Je crois que le problème est de trouver des solutions pour maintenir cet intérêt initial, le traduire en une motivation permanente.

I2 (intervient): C'est ce que j'allais dire. Je suis d'accord. Je crois l'une des solutions, si pas la plus importante, est de faire en sorte que notre façon d'enseigner puisse les encourager et inciter à avoir confiance en leurs abilities, qu'ils puissent le constater de par eux-mêmes... (J'interviens).

Sin: On en parlera d'ici peu. I5, que suggérez-vous?

I5: A part ce que nous leur disons chaque jour concernant l'importance de l'Anglais, je crois que nous devons leur donner l'occasion de se dire eux-mêmes qu'ils font du progrès, qu'ils ne perdent pas leur temps, que l'enseignant ne se fout pas d'eux. Et ce moyen n'est autre que leur permettre de s'exprimer, les écouter, les corriger sans les blesser dans leur amour propre...

I2 (intervient): Je crois que (I5) vient de toucher au point le plus important: l'étudiant qui est convaincu qu'il ne fait pas de progrès, et qu'il ne parviendra jamais à parler Anglais, qu'il perd son temps et celui des autres en classe... ne fera aucun effort pour parler, même s'il peut le faire pour réussir aux interrogations et examens.

Sin (à I4): Qu'en pensez-vous?

I4: Je suis d'accord avec eux. Et je peux même ajouter que si les élèves étaient encouragés à s'exprimer dès le départ, ils pourraient persévérer et, à la longue, améliorer leur rendement. Ceci pourrait les motiver encore plus. Donc, je pense que la façon d'enseigner a la plus grande influence sur les élèves.

Sin: Bien. Y a-t-il d'opposition à cette opinion, ou d'ajoutes à faire? (Aucune réaction).

Q14:.....

I5: Là où il y a motivation et intérêt, il y a persévérance, et l'attitude est toujours positive. Là où il y a découragement, réduction de motivation, l'attitude devient négative. La nature de l'attitude va de pair avec la nature de la motivation, de

l'intérêt.

Sin (aux autres): Est-ce votre opinion aussi?

(Réponse en chœur): Oui! Oui!

Q15:.....

I3: Bien sûr! La motivation et l'intérêt du départ sont les fruits de ce qui se fait et se dit dans la société. Les élèves constatent que l'Anglais devient de plus en plus important dans notre pays. D'où ils font tout pour avoir l'occasion de le connaître.

Sin (aux autres): Vous êtes tous d'accord?

(En chœur) Oui!

Q16:.....

I2: Je crois qu'aujourd'hui c'est le Français d'abord, l'Anglais ensuite. Mais dans un avenir très proche (le processus a déjà commencé) ce sera l'Anglais, puis le Français. Si le Français occupe cette position aujourd'hui, c'est seulement parce que c'est la langue officielle, parlée au pays depuis plus de 90 ans. S'il était introduit en même temps que l'Anglais, vous êtes du même avis que moi qu'il ne serait pas aussi prééminent.

Sin (aux autres): Même avis?

(En chœur): Oui.

Q17: .....

I3: C'est évident que ce sont les langues étrangères, en l'occurrence le Français et l'Anglais, qui jouissent du statut le plus élevé. Il faut voir seulement la place attribuée à ceux qui parlent ces langues ici chez-nous.

Sin (à I1): Est-ce votre avis aussi?

I1: Oui. (Même avis pour les autres).

Q18:.....

I4: C'est l'Anglais. (Même réponse pour les autres).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I2: Il n'y a qu'à voir comment l'Anglais domine le monde aujourd'hui. En se basant sur cette situation, il nous est facile de prévoir l'avenir: ce sera l'Anglais. (Régardant les autres interviewés) Je crois que c'est votre avis aussi.

(Les autres): Oui, bien sûr!

Q19:.....

Sin (à I4): Vous nous parlez de la grammaire; (à I2) Vous, c'est le vocabulaire; (à I3) Pour vous ce sera la lecture; (à I1) Ce sera la conversation.

I4: Pour moi, la leçon de grammaire comporte trois grandes parties: Introduction (des

points à enseigner), Practice & Control, et le Synthesis. La leçon est introduite par un Recall de la ou des leçons précédentes. La nouvelle matière est introduite pas à pas. Les points principaux sont écrits aux tableau. Les élèves répètent après le professeur. Dans la Practice & Control, il est demandé aux élèves d'utiliser les nouveaux points dans des phrases (allant de celles introduites par le professeur à celles produites par eux-mêmes). Le but est de voir s'ils ont compris. C'est durant cette étape que les élèves doivent se poser des questions entre eux, le professeur n'intervenant presque pas. Puis, la Synthesis consiste en la répétition (par les élèves) de leurs phrases et des celles du professeur. Les questions sont posées par tout le monde en classe. Le professeur écrit les phrases-clé au tableau. Et puis les élèves les copient dans leurs cahiers.

Sin: Y a-t-il quelqu'un qui le fait autrement? (Pas de réponse). Alors, I2?

I2: Ma leçon de vocabulaire est divisée comme celle de grammaire dont I4 vient de nous parler. Seulement, au lieu d'avoir des points grammaticaux, nous avons des mots et expressions, introduits dans des phrases (avec ou sans support, dépendant de la complexité des termes à introduire). En bref, la leçon se déroule presque comme celle de grammaire, avec la différence seulement dans les points à introduire. (Les autres acceptent que c'est la même méthode qu'ils utilisent).

Sin: I3 ?

I3: La lecture est divisée en cinq grandes parties, introduites par un rappel des points des leçons précédentes. La première partie est le Reading Aloud (par l'enseignant): il lit le texte à haute voix, et les élèves l'écoutent. La deuxième, c'est le Listening Comprehension Control: l'enseignant pose des questions générales aux élèves pour voir s'ils ont pu comprendre le message du texte. La troisième, c'est le Silent Reading (par les élèves): ils ouvrent leurs livres et lisent le texte silencieusement. Puis vient le Reading Comprehension Control: l'enseignant alors pose toutes sortes de questions aux élèves pour voir s'ils ont réellement compris le texte. Il les corrige. Et enfin c'est le Synthesis & Reading Aloud: les questions sur le texte ainsi que leurs réponses sont écrites au tableau; les élèves lisent et le texte dans leurs livres/ cahiers et les questions + leurs réponses au tableau. Le professeur corrige leur façon de lire. Si les questions et les réponses se trouvent dans les livres des élèves, alors on élimine le Synthesis et on se consacre seulement au Reading Aloud.

Il est à noter que la partie la plus importante est le Silent Reading (par les élèves) car la leçon a pour but de développer la capacité des élèves à comprendre ce qui est

écrit.

(Les autres font la même chose).

Sin: Et I1?

I1: La leçon de conversation est divisée en quatre grandes parties, introduites par un Recall-Introduction: le passage est lu à haute voix par le professeur; puis il pose des questions aux élèves pour voir s'ils ont compris. Puis vient la Memorization: le professeur relit le passage ligne par ligne, et les élèves répètent après lui. Le but ici est de permettre aux élèves de mémoriser le texte. Puis vient le Practice: L'enseignant demande aux élèves (groupe par groupe) de passer devant la classe et de parler entre eux, en suivant le modèle donné dans le texte. Puis enfin le Copying clôture la leçon: l'enseignant écrit le texte au tableau et les élèves le recopient dans leurs cahiers. (Si le texte est dans le livre, alors le Practice est allongé jusqu'à la fin de la leçon). (Même chose pour les autres).

Sin (à tous): Utilisez-vous ces mêmes méthodes aussi pour vos étudiants de l'ISP?

I5 (parlant au nom de tous): Non. Ici, la plus grande partie du travail est faite par les étudiants. Ils doivent nous poser des questions sur ce qu'ils ne comprennent pas. Nous, on introduit l'essentiel.

Sin: Quelqu'un a-t-il une remarque à faire? (Tous secouent la tête).

Q20:.....

I3: Moi, je fais tout pour que les élèves emploient correctement ce que je leur enseigne. Mais je leur demande aussi de parler couramment.

Sin (à I3): Donc, pour vous c'est l'exactitude qui doit primer?

I3: Oui. Parce qu'ils doivent parler le bon Anglais. S'ils ne parlent pas bien, ils ne peuvent pas se faire comprendre.

I2: Moi, je distingue trois étapes dans l'apprentissage: l'enfance, l'adolescence, et la maturité. Au début, j'insiste sur la spontanéité dans le parler. Cette insistance décroît plus les élèves progressent vers les autres stades. En même temps, je commence à accentuer l'exactitude. Mais malgré mon insistance sur la spontanéité durant la première étape, les élèves (en général) ne parviennent pas à s'exprimer comme il faut. Beaucoup semblent avoir peur, honte... de parler...

Sin (à I1, I4, & I5): Et vous?

I1: Je partage le point de vue de (I2). Mais, j'insiste sur le fait que l'insistance sur la spontanéité doit être de courte durée, disons les quatre ou six premiers mois du cours.

I4: Même chose que I2 et I1. Mais il faut étendre la période de la spontanéité à plus ou moins un an.

I5: Même chose que les autres.

Q21:.....

I1: J'ai constaté que seule une minorité d'élèves se trouve plus ou moins à l'aise, et participe plus ou moins activement aux leçons.

I2: En fait, c'est ça la plus grande épine dans ces méthodes: elles sont bonnes, et devraient donc réussir à enthousiasmer beaucoup d'élèves. Mais au contraire, la majorité s'y trouve mal à l'aise.

Sin (à I4 et I5): C'est aussi votre avis?

I4 (suivi de I5): Oui.

Q22:.....

I1: Bien sûr. Il y a contradiction. On nous demande d'éviter d'utiliser les langues que les élèves connaissent déjà, mais en réalité, les élèves se retrouvent plus à l'aise quand ils recourent à elles. On nous demande d'encourager les élèves, or nous les décourageons quand nous les obligeons à n'utiliser que l'Anglais (d'ailleurs qu'ils ne connaissent presque pas encore, surtout durant les premiers mois du cours).

I5 (intervient): D'ailleurs, nous ne pouvons même pas éviter ça: C'est pourquoi, moi (et je crois que les autres le font aussi) je ne suis pas tellement ce que j'avais appris en méthodologie.

Sin (aux autres): Etes-vous d'accord avec I5 ?

I2: Oui. Mais le problème c'est comment le faire tout en leur montrant qu'ils doivent faire tout pour parler Anglais.

I3: C'est ça le problème.

I1: Je crois que la solution c'est de suivre le chemin que les élèves eux-mêmes suivent quand ils apprennent (au lieu de leur imposer une démarche qui va à l'encontre de leur façon d'apprendre).

Sin (aux autres): Que dites-vous de la suggestion avancée par I1?

I2: Je crois que c'est ce qu'il faut faire. (Et les autres hochent la tête).

Q23:.....

I5: Je crois qu'il faut utiliser l'Anglais, mais avec de temps en temps un peu de traductions ou recours aux langues que les élèves connaissent déjà. Ceci pour débloquer les situations critiques pour les élèves, gagner du temps, et surtout les encourager à parler.

Sin (aux autres): Vous êtes d'accord?

Oui.

Q24:.....

I4: Comme nous venons de le voir, une bonne méthode serait de suivre le chemin que les élèves eux-mêmes suivent quand ils apprennent. Je crois que c'est ça, en bref.

Sin (aux autres): D'accord?

(En chœur): Oui.

Sin: Quels sont alors les avantages, désavantages, et dangers qu'il y a à appliquer ce dont vous venez de parler?

I2: Les avantages sont: Aider les élèves à mieux comprendre, c.à.d. éviter des confusions; les encourager à aller de l'avant, à toujours parler même avec des fautes; gagner du temps (surtout pour l'enseignant). Ceci concerne beaucoup plus les débutants.

Sin (à I3): Pouvez-vous en donner pour les élèves des classes supérieures?

I3: Pousser les élèves à n'utiliser que l'Anglais...

Sin (aux autres): Y a-t-il à ajouter? (Pas de commentaire)...Alors, les désavantages?

I1: Il y a risque que les débutants qui comprennent facilement en Anglais puissent s'ennuyer (quand on permet des traductions); de même, les élèves dans les classes supérieures (mais qui ne sont pas encore assez avancés) risquent de se décourager quand on utilise intensivement l'Anglais...

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord? (Hochements de tête).

Sin: Alors, les dangers?

I4: Le plus grand danger, je crois, c'est que certains des débutants risquent d'acquérir cette habitude de transiter par la traduction pour s'exprimer en Anglais...

Sin: Y a-t-il autre chose? (Silence, puis ils secouent la tête).

Q25:.....

I1: Le bon élève, en bref, est celui qui ne se gêne pas pour parler, poser des questions, celui qui fait tout pour découvrir et apprendre; celui qui est assidu...

I2: Je peux aussi ajouter que le bon élève est celui qui est motivé, intéressé et qui persévère dans ses études...

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord? Rien à ajouter? (Silence. Tout le monde se regarde).

Q26, Q27, & Q28:.....

I5: Oraux et écrits en même temps, même si l'idéal est l'oral seulement. Les élèves doivent apprendre et à parler, lire et écrire. Mais l'accent doit être mis sur l'oralité. (Les autres acceptent).



I2: Les textes dans les dialogues dans English For Africa le font. Mais, je crois que c'est le type oral seul qui pousse plus les élèves à faire tout par eux-mêmes pour essayer de parler la langue. Dans le cas présent, ceci est très faible car l'accent est mis sur le type écrit...

I3: Si beaucoup d'élèves ne parviennent pas à parler l'Anglais, (entre autres raisons) c'est à cause du type (écrit) d'interros et examens en vigueur. A qui la faute alors, aux enseignants ou au système éducatif?...

I1: C'est à l'enseignant, car c'est lui qui devrait prévoir et incorporer ce type d'activité dans sa méthodologie...

I2 (intervient): Non. C'est la faute du système éducatif. Il ne permet pas à l'enseignant de faire passer des interros et examens oraux. Voyez seulement le type d'examens d'Etat que les élèves sont obligés de passer!...

Sin: Alors, quels sont les avantages et désavantages des types écrit et oral?

I4: Avec les examens et interros écrits, on fait passer beaucoup d'élèves en très peu de temps; ils sont plus objectifs; ne pousent pas les élèves à se préparer pour l'oralité...

Sin (à I5): Et l'oral?

I5: Ça exige beaucoup plus de temps pour faire passer des interros/ examens ; très fatigant pour l'enseignant; plus subjectifs; mais pousse les élèves à se débrouiller pour parler. Il est clair que le type oral est beaucoup plus difficile à instaurer dans le système....

Sin: Mais, vous professeurs d'Anglais, pouvez-vous le faire à votre niveau?

I1: Bien sûr que nous pouvons le faire. Mais comment le faire quand nous ne sommes pas bien payés? Ce travail exige beaucoup d'énergie. Donc, nous pouvons le faire, mais nous ne sommes pas très motivés; et même si nous l'étions, nous ne pourrions pas vu que nous passons la plus grande partie de notre temps à chercher comment survivre! N'est-ce pas? (s'adressant aux autres).

(Les autres rient et acceptent).

Sin: Mais, qu'entendez-vous par communiquer?

I2: C'est partager les messages, se faire comprendre et comprendre les autres, par écrit, mais surtout quand on parle.

Sin: Y a-t-il à ajouter à cette définition? (Ils secouent la tête).

Q29:.....

I3: Plus ou moins: Quand il y a relation entre ce qu'on apprend et ce qu'on vit, bien sûr qu'il y aura de l'intérêt. Mais, il est bon de préciser que cette relation n'est pas

toujours claire, précise et directe. En d'autres termes, ce n'est pas nécessairement parce qu'on utilise tel ou tel autre texte que les élèves soit réussissent soit échouent...

Il y a autre chose...

Sin: Quoi par exemple?

I2: Par exemple l'intérêt qu'ont les élèves dans le cours, leur motivation, leur attitude globale...

Sin: Les autres, que dites-vous?

(Les autres): Nous partageons le point de vue qui vient d'être exprimé.

Q30:.....

I1: Possible: Non. Etant une langue étrangère, l'Anglais a des traits qui lui sont propres. Nécessaire et bénéfique: Non. On limiterait ce qu'on apprend aux élèves, tant du point de vue culturel que linguistique.

(Les autres hochent la tête ).

Q31: .....

I4: Réussite= communiquer en Anglais à la fin d'un cycle donné. Et l'échec est l'incapacité à communiquer.

Sin: C'est votre avis aussi? (Les autres acceptent).

Q32: .....

I4: C'est un échec.

I1: Un échec. (Même réponse pour les autres).

Sin: D'après vous, cet échec a-t-il une origine claire?

I3: Je crois que cet état des choses est surtout déterminé pendant les premières étapes du cours: ayant déjà acquis cette peur-là de parler, ayant déjà commencé à perdre de l'intérêt..., les élèves (la majorité) sont déjà psychologiquement préparés à ne pas faire de l'effort. Ce qui arrive après n'est que l'évolution normale de ce qui a été semé au début. (Les autres approuvent).

I1: Et c'est surtout la faute du système, même si on l'impute toujours aux enseignants.

I5: Je crois que le fait que cela soit imputé aux enseignants peut se justifier un peu car la plupart des variables qui entrent en jeu sont tissées autour d'eux. Ce sont eux qui semblent ne pas tout faire pour bien enseigner....

I2 (intervient): Vous semblez oublier que pour bien travailler, l'enseignant doit être bien payé. Mais, même s'il est bien payé, tant que le système met l'accent sur l'écrit, l'enseignant ne peut presque rien faire pour promouvoir la partie orale...

I3 (intervient): Il peut toujours le faire dans sa façon d'enseigner, même si les interrogations et examens restent écrits en grande partie...(Pas de commentaire. Ils se regardent. Ils semblent déjà fatigués).

Q33: .....

I1: Les changements que nous voudrions voir implanter sont: 1) De bons salaires et bonnes conditions de travail; 2) Restructurer les écoles et les équiper; 3) Education permanente des enseignants d'Anglais (séances d'animation, recyclages, bourses d'études). (Les autres hochent la tête).

Q34:.....

I5: Même chose que ce que I1 vient de dire. (Les autres acceptent).

Q35:.....

I2: A court terme: Bonnes conditions de travail et bonnes méthodes d'enseignement, restructuration et équipement des écoles. A moyen terme: Recyclage en dehors du pays. A long terme: Bourses d'études.

I4 (intervient): Je crois que notre pays a assez d'argent pour réaliser ces réformes en un temps record. Donc toutes ces réformes doivent être considérées à court terme.

I3 (intervient): Peut-être à court et moyen termes. Eliminons le long terme...(Tout le monde rit.)

Q36:.....

I5: 1) Il faut améliorer les salaires et 2) formation permanente des enseignants. (Les autres semblent fatigués. Ils hochent la tête).

Q37:.....

I2: Méthodes d'enseignement:

1) Avec la permission des autorités scolaires: Séances de recyclage par certains enseignants de la même école, ou des autres écoles.

2) Sans permission...: Chaque enseignant d'Anglais peut expérimenter de nouvelles méthodes ou approches et ce, à l'insu des autorités scolaires immédiates. Ceci est facile car il n'y a pas de méthode officielle imposée rigidement par le gouvernement.

Q38:.....

I4: a) Que l'enseignement soit basé sur ce qui se fait en classe et est faisable pour le bien des élèves. Que la théorie serve de guide pour arriver à une pratique réelle. Que le stage soit basé sur ces lignes maîtresses. b) Que les enseignants d'Anglais soient bien encadrés en permanence grâce aux: 1) sessions de recyclage (au pays et à l'étranger); 2) octroi des bourses d'études

(Les autres hochent la tête).

Q39:.....

I5: a) Bénéfiques pour les enseignants car ça va les encourager dans leur travail; b) Vu qu'il y a des implications financières pour implanter ces réformes, je suis sûr et certain qu'il y aura résistance voire même opposition de la part des administrateurs et pourvoyeurs des fonds; c) Très bénéfiques car la restructuration et l'équipement des écoles auront un impact positif sur l'équipement en matériels didactiques; d) De tous, ce sont les élèves qui profiteraient beaucoup plus de ces réformes car le résultat final sera l'amélioration de l'enseignement, dont eux sont les consommateurs. Et c'est ça le but même de l'enseignement.

## 2.2.5.2.

## THE MIABI TEACHERS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1:.....

I1: Je suis d'accord.

Sin: Qui n'est pas de cet avis?

I4: Qu'entendez-vous par jouer un rôle? Est-ce intervenir ou être utilisé par l'enseignant?...

Sin: C'est intervenir d'une façon ou d'une autre.

I4: Alors là je suis du même avis.

Sin: Donc tout le monde est d'accord?

(En chœur): Oui.

Q2:.....

I3: Je crois que c'est le Ciluba et le Français.

Sin: La plus utilisée?

I3: Le Français.

Sin: Et vous, I4?

I4: C'est le Français.

I1 & I2: Le Français.

I1: Parce ce qu'il y a beaucoup de ressemblances entre ces deux langues qu'il y a entre le Ciluba et l'Anglais.

Sin: Les autres?

I2: Je crois que c'est vrai. (Hochements de tête de I3 et I4).

Sin: Alors, comment et quand est-ce que l'élève recourt à cette langue?

I1: Je crois qu'il procède par comparaisons. Ceci arrive surtout quand il éprouve des difficultés pour s'exprimer en Anglais.

Q3:.....

I4: Les gestes, les changements d'expressions des yeux et du visage,...

I2: Les onomatopées...

Sin: Qui n'est pas d'accord? (Personne)

Sin: Qui veut ajouter quelque chose? (Personne).

Q4:.....

I3: Il n'est pas possible parce que c'est une pratique presque automatique,...

I4: D'ailleurs, la plupart des fois, on le fait sans même s'en rendre compte.

I1: Tout le monde recourt à ces techniques, mais d'une façon différente.

Sin: Façon différente?

I1: La fréquence d'utilisation diffère d'un individu à un autre,...

I4: D'ailleurs, bien que cela soit plus accentué chez ceux qui étudient une langue autre que la leur, cette pratique est utilisée par tout le monde.

Q5:.....

I2: Comme nous l'avons déjà dit, c'est surtout quand les élèves veulent s'exprimer en Anglais, mais n'ont pas encore bien maîtrisé la langue.

Q6:.....

I4: Non.

(Et les autres partagent le même point de vue)

Q7 & Q8:.....

I3: Que ce soit en Anglais ou en une autre langue, je crois que le processus est le même. Nous avons suivi la même voie, nos élèves suivent cette même voie, tout le monde qui apprend une autre langue suit la même voie...

Sin: Pouvez-vous expliquer un peu plus?

I2 (intervient): Je pense que ce qu'il veut dire est que quand on apprend une autre langue, on commence par recourir abondamment aux gestes... et langues que l'on connaît déjà...

Sin: Est-ce que ce recours reste constant du début à la fin de l'apprentissage?

I1: Non. Plus on maîtrise la langue, de moins en moins on recourt à ces techniques.

Sin: Qui n'est pas d'accord? (Personne).

Q9:.....

I1: Cet élément doit être inclus dans la méthodologie d'apprentissage des langues étrangères.

Sin: Ce qui veut dire..?

I1: Vu que c'est naturel et normal, nous devrions l'introduire dans la méthodologie des langues étrangères.

Sin: Un avis contraire? (Il n'y en a pas).

Q10 & Q11:.....

I2: Mon expérience est exactement comme ce que nous venons de dire.

Sin: Qui a eu une expérience différente? (Personne)

Q12:.....

I4: En général, les élèves ne travaillent pas comme il faut...

I2: Il y en a qui travaillent bien, mais c'est une minorité seulement.

Sin: Les autres, vous partagez le même avis?

(Ensemble): Oui.

Q13 & Q14:.....

I1: Oui.

I2: Bien sûr, car les élèves peuvent nous imiter, suivre ce que nous faisons, et surtout être influencés par ce que nous faisons et la manière dont nous le faisons...

I4: Je crois qu'ici c'est surtout notre façon d'enseigner qui peut les décider soit de faire tout pour réussir soit de négliger le cours...

I1: Je crois que cela arrive souvent à l'insu même de l'élève...

Sin (à I3): Pouvez-vous dire comment cela se passe?

I3: Comme I4 vient de le dire, la façon d'enseigner par exemple peut pousser l'élève à apprendre, comme ça peut le décourager et le pousser à ne plus faire d'efforts...

Sin: Mais leur attitude dans ce cas?

I3: Quand un élève se décourage, dans la plupart des cas, il lui arrive de commencer à haïr le cours; de même quand il est encouragé, il devient plus enthousiaste, plus concerné par ce qu'il fait...

I2: Il devient motivé, et son attitude devient de plus en plus positive.

Q15:.....

I2: Le milieu dans lequel l'élève vit est, je pense, celui qui le pousse le premier soit à faire ou à ne pas faire quelque chose...

I3: En effet, en général, c'est ce qui se passe dans la société, comment celle-ci juge un acte, un comportement... qui orientent l'élève vers telle ou telle autre chose...

Sin: Illustrez cela avec l'Anglais dans notre société...

I4: Tout le monde voit que l'Anglais devient de plus en plus important ici au Zaïre, et cela se voit aussi ici au Kasai Oriental. Ainsi, voyant cela l'élève va chercher à apprendre cette langue...

Sin: Par là vous voulez dire que l'élève est motivé quand il commence le cours d'Anglais?

I4: En général, oui.

Sin: Les autres, partagez-vous cette opinion? (Hochements de tête)

Q16 & Q17:.....

I3: Le Français et l'Anglais jouissent d'un statut plus élevé que nos propres langues nationales. Cela est vrai aujourd'hui et le sera aussi dans l'avenir...

Sin (aux autres): Etes-vous d'accord?

(En chœur): Oui.

Sin: Quelle langue entre l'Anglais et le Français semble dominer l'autre?

I4: Le Français. Mais seulement parce qu'il a une longue tradition ici au Zaïre. L'Anglais est en train de gagner du terrain et risque même, un jour, de menacer sérieusement la position du Français.

Sin: Même point de vue? (Les autres acceptent).

Q18:.....

I1: L'Anglais.

I4: L'Anglais. (Même avis pour I2 et I3).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: L'Anglais est la langue des relations internationales et commerciales; des sciences et technologie... Cela deviendra encore plus accentué dans l'avenir.

Sin: Avis contraire? (Aucun)

Q19:.....

I3: Grammaire: L'objectif est l'enseignement des structures grammaticales. Les nouvelles structures sont introduites individuellement, dans des courtes phrases. Elles sont écrites au tableau au fur et à mesure qu'elles sont introduites. Les élèves les répètent après le professeur. Puis, il leur est demandé de les utiliser dans leurs propres phrases afin de prouver qu'ils ont bien compris. Après cette étape, le professeur leur pose des questions et écrit les réponses types au tableau. Ce sont ces réponses que les élèves recopient dans leurs cahiers comme résumé-synthèse.

I2: La leçon de vocabulaire a comme objectif l'enseignement des mots et expressions. Le professeur procède comme pour la grammaire, surtout avec l'appui de supports visuels. Là où il n'y a pas moyen de le faire, surtout avec les mots abstraits, il recourt à l'explication.

Sin: Mais au cas où l'explication ne produisait pas les résultats escomptés?

I2: Il va tout faire pour que l'élève comprenne.

Sin: Ne recourt-il jamais aux équivalents des autres langues que les élèves connaissent déjà?

I2: Très, très rarement. Le principe est de tout expliquer en Anglais.

I4: En ce qui me concerne, il y a des fois où je donne la traduction, mais seulement



après que toutes les possibilités aient été épuisées.

I1: Moi, je n'utilise presque pas la traduction.

I3: Moi, je ne le fais pas. Je me concentre sur les élèves qui comprennent quand c'est expliqué en Anglais. Les autres n'ont qu'à aller consulter les dictionnaires après les leçons.

I1: La lecture vise la correction de la prononciation. Je lis le texte, phrase par phrase, paragraphe par paragraphe..., et les élèves lisent après moi. Puis, je leur pose quelques questions pour voir s'ils ont compris l'idée générale du texte. Puis, je leur demande de lire à haute voix (individuellement et aussi par petits groupes) et je les corrige.

Sin: C'est comme cela que vous aussi procédez?

I4: En grandes lignes, oui.

I2: Moi également.

I3: Moi aussi.

I4: La conversation a comme objectif la correction de la prononciation et la facilité du parler. Je distribue les rôles aux élèves et alors ils passent au tableau et s'entretiennent comme au théâtre.

Sin: D'où viennent les textes?

I4: Ce sont des textes du livre ou ceux que je leur donne pour mémoriser.

Sin: Est-ce qu'il leur est permis d'aller en dehors du texte ou d'y introduire d'autres éléments?

I4: Non.

I2: En ce qui me concerne, je tolère ça, mais il faut que le thème principal de la conversation soit maintenu.

I1: Moi je leur demande de ne reproduire que ce qui est dans le texte...

I3: Moi également.

Sin: Mais que faites-vous quand les élèves commettent des fautes ou quand ils oublient certains mots, certains passages?

I1: Moi, je corrige toutes les fautes, et je leur donne ce qu'ils oublient.

Sin: Même chose pour les autres? (I3 & I2 sont du même avis que I1).

I4: Moi, je ne corrige que les grandes fautes.

Sin: Grandes fautes?

I4: Les fautes de grammaire et certaines fautes de prononciation qui rendent la compréhension difficile.

Q20:.....

I2: Moi, c'est l'exactitude de ce qui est dit.

I3: Moi aussi.

I4: Moi également.

I1: Moi aussi. Mais, cela ne veut pas dire que je néglige la spontanéité. Mais, je pense qu'il ne peut pas y avoir bonne spontanéité sans exactitude.

Sin: Les autres, vous êtes du même avis?

(Les autres): Oui.

Sin: Pourquoi cet accent sur l'exactitude?

I3: Parce que les élèves doivent être initiés à s'exprimer correctement. Sans exactitude, on ne peut pas se faire comprendre.

Sin: Les autres? (Même point de vue).

Sin: Qu'entendez-vous par s'exprimer correctement?

I3: C'est employer correctement les règles de grammaire, les mots et expressions qu'il faut...(Les autres l'approuvent).

Q21:.....

I1: Beaucoup d'élèves ne parviennent pas à réellement participer aux leçons. Ils ne parlent ou ne veulent pas parler. Ils sont plus intéressés seulement à recopier ce qui est écrit au tableau.

Sin: Les autres, votre avis?

I4: Pour moi, c'est la même chose. Très peu d'élèves participent réellement aux leçons. Les autres semblent avoir peur, ou honte de parler, ou ne veulent carrément pas parler. (Même avis pour les autres).

Sin: Aviez-vous essayé une fois de changer de méthode?

I2: Une fois, j'avais autorisé les élèves à recourir un peu à la traduction, aux gestes.... Alors, l'atmosphère en classe s'était nettement améliorée. Presque tout le monde voulait parler. Mais, une fois que j'avais interdit cela, l'atmosphère était redevenue ce qu'elle était avant, c.à.d. presque pas d'activité.

I2: Moi aussi je le fais de temps en temps et je remarque la même chose, et en plus l'enseignement semble alors plus facile, plus animé et plus intéressant. (Les autres semblent aussi partager le même avis).

Q22:.....

I2: Il semble y avoir des contradictions surtout quand la méthodologie que nous avons apprise nous recommande de ne n'utiliser que l'Anglais pour enseigner l'Anglais à tous les niveaux, et en même temps nous demande de faire participer les élèves aux leçons!

I4: En effet, j'ai constaté que pour les premières années surtout, la pratique exclusive de cette méthode ne marche pas en général. Ça semble marcher pour une infime partie des élèves, mais pour la majorité, c'est le chaos: ils deviennent de plus en plus désintéressés, ne participent plus et semblent ne pas comprendre ce qu'on leur enseigne. (Avis partagé massivement par les autres).

Q23 & Q24:.....

I3: Je crois que notre approche méthodologique n'est pas tellement exacte vu qu'elle ne semble pas concilier la théorie à ce qui se fait réellement en classe: il faudrait qu'elle inclue aussi ce que les élèves font réellement quand ils apprennent une langue.

Sin: C'est à dire..?

I3: Accepter à ce qu'on utilise aussi les gestes et les langues que les élèves connaissent déjà pour leur faciliter l'apprentissage de la nouvelle langue, surtout durant les premières années du cours.

Sin: Et après?

I2: Je crois que là les élèves peuvent déjà commencer à s'habituer à ne plus recourir à ces langues et gestes.... Alors, on pourrait renforcer l'obligation qu'ils ont de n'utiliser que l'Anglais. Cela est aussi vrai pour les enseignants.

Sin: Les avantages, désavantages et dangers?

I1: Le grand avantage que je vois, surtout pour les débutants, est qu'ils auront le courage de parler comme ils le pourront, ils seront moins honteux et moins effrayés de parler, ils seront encouragés, intéressés et motivés. Le danger est qu'ils ne s'habituent trop à cette tactique au point de ne plus fournir l'effort qu'il faut pour parler en Anglais seulement.

I4: Je crois que cela peut être facilement évité si l'enseignant est assez vigilant. D'ailleurs, il y sera aidé par les élèves eux-mêmes puisqu'ils auront de moins en moins envie d'utiliser cette technique plus ils progressent dans leur apprentissage. (Les autres partagent le même point de vue)

Q25:.....

I1: Le bon élève en bref est celui qui fait tout pour apprendre, celui qui parle, pose des questions; celui qui n'a pas peur de commettre des fautes...

I4: Celui qui, parce qu'il parle, pousse le professeur à le corriger...

Sin: Y a-t-il autre chose? (Aucune remarque)

Q26:.....

I3: Oraux et écrits combinés car les élèves doivent savoir comment s'exprimer orale-

ment et par écrit. (Même réponse pour les autres).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I1: Normalement, tout devrait se faire oralement. Mais, cela n'est pas possible vu que ça nécessiterait beaucoup de temps, beaucoup de moyens financiers, peu d'élèves par classe, beaucoup plus d'enseignants et d'écoles.

I2: Surtout, vu que l'Anglais est une langue, le premier objectif est de le parler. Mais, dans le monde d'aujourd'hui, l'écrit est devenu aussi très important. C'est ainsi que tous ces deux aspects doivent être enseignés.

Sin: Mais sur lequel doit-on mettre l'accent?

I1: Le parler. (Tout le monde est d'accord)

Q27:.....

I1: Je ne crois pas. L'accent étant mis sur l'aspect écrit, les élèves ne fournissent assez d'efforts que pour maîtriser celui-ci.

I2: Comme I1 vient de le dire, ici chez-nous c'est l'aspect écrit qui est accentué dans les examens et les interros. D'ailleurs, je crois que c'est l'une des raisons pour lesquelles les résultats du côté oral sont très négatifs. (Les autres sont d'accord.)

I2: D'ailleurs on est en train de revoir le système d'examens d'Etat. On voudrait introduire l'examen oral pour les langues.

Q28:.....

I4: Il faudrait introduire le système d'interros et examens oraux. Cela demandera une réduction sensible du nombre d'élèves par classe,...

I1: Ce qui demandera une augmentation du nombre d'enseignants et d'écoles, et l'augmentation des moyens financiers pour implanter toutes ces réformes.

I3: L'accent sur l'aspect oral s'accompagne d'une réforme de la méthode d'enseignement.

I2: Tout ceci demande du temps et des fonds. Mais toutefois, on pourrait réformer la méthode d'enseignement sans beaucoup de frais et à court terme.

Sin: Comment?

I2: En recyclant les enseignants, en leur démontrant le bien-fondé de la nouvelle approche par rapport à ce qu'ils faisaient avant. (Les autres sont d'accord).

Sin: Qu'entendez-vous par communiquer?

I1: C'est parler et se faire comprendre des autres.

I4: C'est aussi comprendre ce qui est écrit et se faire comprendre par ce qu'on écrit. Mais toutefois, j'accepte que l'accent soit mis sur le parler vu que le but principal

dans l'étude d'une langue est de la parler.

Sin: Et le Latin?

I4: Non. Le Latin est une langue morte. Je parle des langues vivantes.

Q29:.....

I2: Oui. Un texte intéressant motive et encourage l'élève à persévérer. Un texte dénué d'intérêt agit dans le sens opposé.

I3: Mais, même dans des cas où les textes ne sont pas intéressants, l'élève peut toujours persévérer à étudier s'il veut réellement apprendre. (Les autres approuvent)

I1: Bien qu'un texte intéressant contribue à la motivation et à la persévérance de l'élève, il n'est toutefois pas déterminant. Ce qui compte le plus c'est la détermination, la volonté d'apprendre de l'élève.

Sin (aux autres): Etes-vous d'accord? (Hochements de tête).

Q30:.....

I4: Il n'est ni possible, ni nécessaire, ni bénéfique de le faire complètement. Si on le faisait, on réduirait l'Anglais et l'expérience que les élèves devraient acquérir.

I3: Mais toutefois, on peut adapter quelques textes ou en produire avec des contextes locaux. Ceci afin d'augmenter l'intérêt des élèves et leur persévérance à apprendre. Mais, adapter complètement n'est pas souhaitable. (Les autres partagent le même point de vue).

Q31:.....

I1: Un élève a réussi en Anglais quand, à la fin d'un cycle donné, il est capable de communiquer en cette langue. Quand il ne parvient pas à le faire, il a échoué. (Les autres sont d'accord)

Q32:.....

I2: C'est un échec. (Même position pour I1, I3 et I4).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce que la plus grande partie d'élèves ne parviennent même pas à se débrouiller comme il faut en Anglais.

I4: Un nombre de plus en plus grand parvient à maîtriser plus ou moins le côté écrit. Mais, pour le parler c'est toujours très très négligeable. (Les autres l'approuvent)

Sin: Qu'est-ce qui a contribué à cet état des choses?

I4: Je crois le système d'examens et d'interros...

I1: La méthodologie d'enseignement en général: elle décourage beaucoup d'élèves....

I3: Il ne faut pas oublier aussi le fait que les élèves n'ont pas beaucoup d'occasions

pour parler cette langue vu qu'elle n'est parlée qu'en classe et ce, pour des très courtes périodes pendant la semaine...

Q33 & Q34:.....

I1: Les conditions de travail des enseignants, en particulier les salaires.

I4: Adapter la méthodologie d'enseignement au processus qu'appliquent les élèves pour apprendre, surtout les débutants...

I3: Augmenter les heures d'Anglais...

Sin: Combien d'heures par exemple?

I3: De 5 à 10.

I1: Equiper les écoles en labos de langues, T.V. en circuit fermé...

I2: Comme nous l'avions aussi dit, réformer le système d'examens et interros: combiner l'oral et l'écrit, tout en accentuant le premier aspect...

I3: Diminution du nombre d'élèves par enseignant et par classe...

Sin: Quoi encore? (Pas d'ajoute).

Q35:.....

I2: A court terme: Les salaires et la méthodologie; moyen terme: réduction du nombre d'élèves par classe et équipement en livres...; et long terme: le reste.

I4: A court terme: il faudrait aussi ajouter (à ce que vient de dire I2) l'équipement en matériels didactiques de base tels que livres. Je suis d'accord pour les autres points.

I1: D'accord avec ce que les autres viennent de dire.

I3: D'accord aussi.

Q36:.....

I2: Les salaires, les méthodes d'enseignement, et recyclage des enseignants. (Les autres sont du même avis).

Q37:.....

I4: Les méthodes d'enseignement.

Sin (aux autres): D'accord? (Affirmation collective).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce que c'est ce que l'enseignant utilise chaque jour, c'est son outil. Il peut le changer, le remodeler autant de fois qu'il le veut, quand il le veut, et comme il le veut. (Les autres partagent le même point de vue).

Q38: .....

a)

I2: Ça doit être en ligne avec ce qui se passe quand les élèves apprennent, pas trop théorique.

I4: Moi je dirai qu'on doit enseigner autant de théories de l'enseignement des langues qu'il faut, mais puis montrer aux futurs enseignants pourquoi et comment les adapter aux réalités de leurs élèves, leurs milieux,... (Les autres approuvent).

b)

I3: Il faut organiser beaucoup de séminaires et séances de recyclage pour les enseignants afin qu'ils soient toujours à la page. I1: Il faut aussi des stages à l'étranger...(Tout le monde semble partager le même sentiment).

Q39:.....

a)

I3: Les enseignants seront encouragés et motivés. Leur travail deviendra plus aisé. (Les autres approuvent)

b)

I4: Ceux-ci d'habitude posent trop de problèmes.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I4: Parce qu'ils ne veulent pas dépenser l'argent pour que les autres soient à l'aise. (Les autres rient et l'approuvent).

c)

I1: Il y aura une amélioration et augmentation du matériel didactique. (Avis partagé par les autres)

d)

I2: Si tous ces changements sont implantés comme il faut, ce sont les élèves qui en bénéficieront le plus.

I4: D'ailleurs tout ce qu'on fait dans l'enseignement vise, à court, moyen ou long terme, l'amélioration de l'enseignement. (Tous sont du même avis).

## 2.1.5.3.

## THE CILENGE TEACHERS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1:.....

I1: Oui.

Sin: D'accord tout le monde? (Hochements de tête).

Q2:.....

I2: Le Français.

Sin: Une autre opinion?

(Personne).

Sin: Pourquoi le Français, comment et quand cela arrive-t-il?

I3: Parce que le Français et l'Anglais se ressemblent beaucoup.

Sin: Les autres?

I4: Effectivement, c'est parce que le Français ressemble à l'Anglais que l'élève va beaucoup plus l'utiliser.

Sin: I1?

I1: Je suis du même avis.

Sin: Donc tout le monde est d'accord?

(Hochements de tête).

Sin: Cela arrive-t-il toujours?

I3: Je crois que c'est surtout quand l'élève n'a pas encore maîtrisé l'Anglais.

Sin: Quand ça?

I2 (intervient): Surtout en 2e et 3e années.

Sin: Les autres, du même avis?

I1: C'est durant ces années que les élèves éprouvent beaucoup plus de difficultés pour s'exprimer en Anglais. Alors, ils vont chaque fois essayer de comparer les mots, structures... de ces deux langues...

I2: D'ailleurs, il arrive fréquemment que les élèves utilisent des mots, structures... du Français ou du Ciluba... pour essayer de combler leurs lacunes en Anglais. Sin: Qui ne partage pas cette position?

(Personne)

Q3:.....



I1: Les gestes,...

I3: Les hochements de tête, les coups d'oeil,...

I4: Les expressions de visage,...

Sin (à I2): Quoi encore?

I2: Je crois que c'est tout.

Q4:.....

I4: Non, car c'est une pratique qui est naturelle et normale.

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord?

(En chœur): Oui.

Q5:.....

I3: Nous l'avons déjà dit. C'est surtout durant les premières étapes de l'apprentissage quand, n'ayant pas encore assez d'éléments de la langue qu'il apprend, l'élève essaie de s'exprimer en cette langue.

Q6:.....

I1: Parce que cette pratique est inévitable, naturelle et normale; elle n'est pas un signe de manque d'intelligence. (Les autres sont d'accord).

Q7 & Q8:.....

I2: Ceci arrive à tout le monde qui apprend une langue qui n'est pas sa langue maternelle.

Sin: Ce recours est le même pour tous les élèves?

I3: Le processus est le même, mais la fréquence d'utilisation est différente...

Sin: Comment?

I3: Les débutants y recourent beaucoup plus que ceux qui ont déjà maîtrisé beaucoup plus d'éléments de la nouvelle langue.

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord?

(Ensemble): Oui.

Sin: Cela est aussi vrai pour vos élèves?

(Ensemble): Oui.

Q9:.....

I3: Nous ne devons pas exclure cet élément de notre méthodologie d'enseignement des langues étrangères.

Sin: Que voulez-vous dire?

I3: Que nous devrions suivre le même processus pour enseigner les langues.

Sin (regardant les autres): D'accord? (Tous le sont).

Q10 & Q11:.....

I1: La même chose.

I4: Même chose également. (La même chose pour les autres aussi).

Q12:.....

I3: La grande majorité ne travaille pas comme il faut.

Sin: En pourcentage, cela ferait combien à peu près?

I3: 80% à 85% .

I1: Moi, je dirais même 90% à 95%.

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord que la grande majorité ne travaille pas comme il faut? (Hochements de tête).

Q13 & Q14:.....

I4: Oui. C'est ce que fait l'enseignant et comment il le fait qui influence beaucoup la façon de travailler de l'élève...

I1: Il y a aussi ce qui se fait autour de lui en dehors de la classe...

Sin: Mais toutefois, vous acceptez que l'enseignant a une grande influence?

I1: Oui.

Sin (à I2 & I3): Etes-vous du même avis? (Hochements de tête).

Sin: Comment est-ce que cela peut se traduire en termes de motivation...?

I4: L'élève qui est intéressé par le cours devient de plus en plus motivé, et aime de plus en plus le cours.

Sin: Et celui qui ne l'est pas?

I3: C'est juste le contraire de celui qui est intéressé: il aboutit au découragement et finit par ne plus aimer le cours.

Sin: Qui ne partage pas ce point de vue? (Personne).

Q15:.....

I4: Oui, la société a une très grande influence. C'est elle qui donne à l'élève le premier intérêt, la première motivation...

I1: Par société, vous entendez aussi les parents, amis...?

Sin: Oui. Le milieu dans lequel évolue l'élève et tous les gens avec qui il est en contact.

I1: Dans ce cas là alors, c'est oui.

Sin: Comment cela arrive-t-il?

I3: C'est un conditionnement sociologique: le comportement qui est valorisé par la société devient valable pour l'individu; celui qui ne l'est pas ne le devient pas. Dans le

cas de l'Anglais ici chez-nous, vu que ceux qui connaissent cette langue sont valorisés par la société, l'élève cherchera aussi à l'apprendre afin d'être aussi valorisé par la société.

Sin: Avis contraire? (Aucun).

Sin: Vous voulez dire que quand l'élève vient commencer le cours d'Anglais, il est déjà intéressé, motivé?

(Ensemble): Oui.

I3: Pas tous, mais en général.

Q16 & Q17:.....

I2: Que ce soit aujourd'hui ou dans l'avenir, nous sommes contraints d'accepter les faits: le Français et l'Anglais sont et resteront toujours plus importants que nos langues nationales.

I1: Aujourd'hui, le Français est au-dessus de l'Anglais; mais, je suis sûr qu'il est en train de perdre du terrain. Dans l'avenir, l'Anglais pourrait l'égaliser.

I3: Je ne crois pas que cela puisse arriver car le Français est la langue officielle du Zaïre. Mais toutefois, j'accepte l'idée que l'Anglais deviendra de plus en plus important.

Sin: Un avis opposé? (Il n'y en a pas).

Q18:.....

I1: C'est l'Anglais. Il n'y a qu'à voir comment il est utilisé dans le monde: en commerce, en diplomatie, en sciences et technologie.

Sin: Les autres, vous êtes du même avis?

(Ensemble): Oui.

Q19:.....

(Même chose que ce qu'ont dit les enseignants de Miabi, sauf qu'un enseignant a beaucoup insisté sur le fait qu'il laisse passer la plupart des fautes qui n'interfèrent pas sérieusement avec la signification de ce qui est dit).

Q20:.....

I1: Moi j'insiste sur l'exactitude vu qu'il n'y a pas moyen de bien parler une langue sans être correct. (Excepté I4, les autres sont du même avis).

I4: Je ne nie pas que l'exactitude est importante. Mais, la spontanéité l'est également, car on peut connaître comment utiliser correctement les règles de grammaire, les mots, expressions... sans pour autant être capable de parler la langue. Donc pour moi, il faut insister sur tous les deux.

Sin: Du début à la fin du cours?

I4: Oui.

Sin: Mais l'accent sera mis sur quel aspect?

I4: Sur l'exactitude.

Sin: Y a-t-il à ajouter?

I3: C'est sur l'exactitude parce qu'on ne peut pas parler une langue sans être correct. (Excepté I4, tous les autres partagent cet avis).

I4: Pour moi, il faut aussi laisser les élèves s'exprimer durant les premières années du cours. Donc, il faut insister sur la spontanéité.

Sin: Comment et pourquoi?

I4: Il faut qu'ils n'aient pas peur de parler même avec des fautes. Si on insiste trop sur l'exactitude, on risque de les frustrer et de ne pas les encourager à parler. D'ailleurs, ils ne peuvent pas s'exprimer correctement pendant les premiers mois du cours, et cela nous le savons bien. Alors pourquoi leur demander l'impossible?

Q21:.....

I2: Très peu d'élèves participent aux leçons, et ce sont toujours les mêmes. Les 90% semblent mal à l'aise, honteux ou effrayés de parler. Ils deviennent actifs seulement quand il s'agit de recopier ce qui est écrit au tableau, et à la fin des leçons. (Même avis pour les autres )

Q22:.....

I1: Il y a contradictions surtout entre la méthodologie appliquée dans les premières années du cours et ce que j'ai remarqué sur le champs: la plupart d'élèves perdent le courage, ne se hasardent pas à parler, se désintéressent. Ils participent seulement dans les rares occasions où je me décide de tolérer qu'ils recourent aux gestes et langues qu'ils connaissent déjà. (Avis partagé par les autres).

Q23 & Q24:.....

I4: Il y a cette dimension du recours aux gestes et langues que les élèves connaissent déjà qui devrait être incorporée à la méthodologie que nous avons apprise.

I2: Il faudrait que le professeur et les élèves puissent y recourir chaque fois qu'ils en éprouveront le besoin. Ceci est surtout impératif durant les premières années du cours.

I3: Vu sous cet angle, le vrai danger est que les élèves ne s'habituent à recourir trop souvent et d'une manière injustifiée à cette technique. Mais l'avantage est plus bénéfique car les élèves s'habitueront, dès le début du cours, à parler sans crainte de commettre des fautes; ils seront encouragés à toujours essayer de parler.

Sin: Mais comment est-ce que le danger peut être minimisé?

I1: Le professeur doit être capable de détecter le moment opportun à partir duquel il devra commencer à décourager cette pratique. Il y sera d'ailleurs aidé par les élèves eux-mêmes. En effet, une fois qu'ils auront atteint un niveau acceptable de maîtrise de l'Anglais, ils commenceront de par eux-mêmes à utiliser plus l'Anglais que les autres moyens dont nous venons de parler. (Les autres approuvent).

Q25:.....

I2: Le bon élève est celui qui apprend plus par lui-même, c.à.d. celui qui cherche à parfaire son savoir à chaque instant, celui qui parle et fait tout pour parler. Ainsi, il pousse le profeseur à le corriger (et il se corrige aussi lui-même)...

I4: C'est aussi celui qui ne se décourage pas devant un échec, celui qui est toujours positif, toujours persévérant...

Sin: Autre chose? (Aucune remarque).

Q26:.....

I3: Le type oral-écrit parce que, en tant que langue vivante, l'Anglais doit être parlé et écrit. Mais, toutefois c'est la dimension orale qui doit être plus importante. (Avis partagé par tous).

Sin: Est-qu'il y a aussi un avantage pour le professeur et les élèves?

I1: Je crois que l'avantage serait surtout pour les élèves. Il leur serait possible d'être appréciés sur les deux aspects au lieu d'un seul qui pourrait se trouver être celui où ils sont faibles. Ainsi, la cotation pourrait être plus objective.

I4: En effet, la combinaison écrit-oral combine les forces de ces deux systèmes, et par conséquent atténue les influences négatives de leurs points faibles. (Les autres sont du même avis).

Q27:.....

I4: Oui. Si le genre est oral, il pousse les élèves à se préparer en conséquence. Et cela fait qu'ils font tout pour maîtriser l'aspect oral de la langue. Tandis que quand c'est écrit, c'est cet aspect qui est renforcé, et par conséquent les élèves négligent l'aspect oral.

I1: Je crois que les autorités l'ont aussi constaté car elles voudraient introduire le système oral dans les examens d'Etat pour les langues. (Les autres partagent le même avis).

Q28:.....

I2: Réduire le nombre d'élèves par classe, augmenter le nombre d'enseignants et

d'écoles afin que l'enseignement soit plus individualisé. Ceci nécessitera des fonds et du temps.

I3: Il faudrait aussi améliorer les conditions de travail des enseignants...

Sin: Y a-t-il autre chose? (Aucune).

Sin: Qu'entendez-vous par communiquer?

I4: Communiquer c'est se faire comprendre quand on parle et comprendre ce que les autres disent quand ils parlent...

I1: C'est aussi se faire comprendre par écrit et comprendre tout ce qui est écrit.

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord? (Hochements de tête).

Q29:.....

I2: Oui.

I1: Je suis du même avis. (Le même avis est aussi partagé par I3 et I4).

Sin: Cette relation, est-elle déterminante?

I3: Je ne crois pas...

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce qu'un élève peut toujours être motivé et persévérant même en l'absence de textes intéressants. Bien sûr un texte intéressant contribue à augmenter la motivation et la persévérance, mais il n'est pas le facteur principal.

Sin: Les autres, votre point de vue?

I2: Je crois que c'est vrai. (Même avis pour les autres).

Q30:.....

I1: Ce n'est pas possible car, étant une langue étrangère, l'Anglais a des réalités qui lui sont propres et qui devraient s'apprendre.

I3: Ce n'est pas nécessaire car on risquerait de tronquer la langue et enseigner un Anglais plutôt Zairois ou Africain.

I2: Ce n'est pas bénéfique pour la simple raison que, comme viennent de le dire I3 et I1, on réduirait l'expérience des élèves en ce qui concerne l'Anglais (l'Anglais comme langue internationale).

Sin: Y a-t-il à ajouter?

I3: Je crois qu'on pourrait toutefois adapter quelques textes aux contextes Zairois et Africains, ou voire même en écrire.

Sin: Pourquoi et comment?

I3: Surtout pour les débutants afin de les intéresser au cours. On peut écrire quelques textes en Anglais, mais où le contexte est Zairois ou Africain. Ceci pourrait aussi aider

les élèves à voir comment exprimer en Anglais les réalités Zairoises ou Africaines. (L'avis est partagé par tous).

Q31:.....

I4: Il y a réussite quand les élèves parviennent à communiquer en Anglais. Le contraire est l'échec.

Sin: Communiquer ici, est-ce la définition globale que vous aviez donnée il y a quelques instants?

I2: Je crois que oui, mais avec l'accent sur le parler. (Les autres sont aussi d'accord).

Q32:.....

I3: C'est un échec. (C'est l'avis des autres aussi).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I4: Très peu d'élèves parviennent à parler la langue, même d'une façon médiocre.

Sin: A quoi est-ce que cela est dû?

I1: Il y a beaucoup de facteurs. Par exemple le fait que les élèves n'ont pas beaucoup d'occasions pour faire la pratique; il y a aussi la méthode d'enseignement qui semble décourager un grand nombre...

I2: Aussi le système d'examens et interros qui ne pousse pas les élèves à s'appliquer pour parler la langue.

I2: Il ne faut pas oublier le fait que beaucoup d'élèves qui passent (tant en Anglais qu'ailleurs) ne le méritent pas. Beaucoup corrompent... et beaucoup d'autres facteurs que je ne voudrais pas citer ici mais que vous connaissez bien...

I4: Il ne faut pas non plus oublier le fait que ceux qui enseignent sont découragés par les conditions de travail et, par conséquent, ne fournissent pas ce dont ils sont capables.

Q33 & Q34:.....

I2: L'augmentation des salaires, celle des heures d'Anglais par semaine...

I4: Adapter les méthodes d'enseignement aux réalités des élèves et du milieu d'apprentissage...

Sin: Quoi par exemple?

I4: Les méthodes devraient être conçues sur le modèle de ce que font les élèves eux-mêmes quand ils apprennent, surtout les débutants...

Introduire le système d'examens et interrogations oraux; réduire le nombre d'élèves par classe...

Sin: Quoi encore?

I3: Le recyclage des enseignants, et l'équipement en livres...

Q35:.....

I4: A court terme, il faudrait majorer les salaires, réviser les méthodes d'enseignement plus l'instauration du système oral d'examens et interrogations; le recyclage des enseignants; équiper les écoles en livres. Le reste devrait être amélioré à moyen terme.

Sin: Pas de long terme?

I4: Non. Je pense que le Zaïre a assez de moyens pour le faire. C'est seulement de la mauvaise foi quand on ne le fait pas.

I2: Je crois que I4 a raison. Je suis de son avis.

I1: Je suis d'accord avec ce qu'il faut changer à court terme. Mais je crois que l'Etat ne pourrait pas changer à moyen terme les points qui nécessitent un très grand investissement des fonds.

Sin: Par exemple?

I1: L'équipement des écoles, et l'augmentation du nombre d'écoles et d'enseignants.

I2: Mais, ne pensez-vous pas que l'augmentation des salaires nécessite aussi un déblocage des fonds?

I1: Oui. Mais ça c'est très important pour que l'enseignement puisse dès le départ avoir la chance d'être amélioré... (J'interviens et mets fin à l'échange).

Q36:.....

I4: Augmentation des salaires et révision des méthodes d'enseignement.

Sin (aux autres): D'accord? (Hochements de tête).

Q37:.....

I1: La façon d'enseigner, parce ce que c'est le seul outil que l'enseignant peut changer à sa guise, quand il le veut et comme il le veut.

I3: Et ça ne nécessite l'engagement d'aucun frais.

Q38: .....

a)

I4: Il faut que les méthodes d'enseignement soient une conciliation des théories émises sur l'enseignement des langues et de ce qui se passe réellement chez les élèves quand ils apprennent. Le stage doit être la pratique réelle de ceci. (Les autres sont d'accord).

b)

I2: Il faut que les enseignants soient régulièrement recyclés (grâce aux conférences, séminaires, stages...).

I3: Il faut qu'ils soient ravitaillés en livres en permanence.. (Tout le monde est



d'accord.)

Q39:.....

a)

I4: Les enseignants seront plus motivés dans ce qu'ils font, et le feront de bonne foi. (Les autres partagent le même point de vue).

b)

I1: La plupart de problèmes qui se posent dans l'enseignement sont initiés par les pouvoirs publiques. Ils font montre de beaucoup d'opposition quand il s'agit de débloquer des fonds pour améliorer les conditions des autres. Et dans le cas présent, ils le feront également. (Les autres rient en signe de confirmation).

c)

I2: Le matériel didactique sera amélioré et augmenté. (Les autres approuvent).

d)

I3: Si tous (ou la majeure partie de ces changements) sont implantés, ils amélioreront l'enseignement. Et, ce sont les élèves qui en profiteront le plus. (Les autres sont d'accord).

## 2.1.5.4.

## THE MWENEDITU TEACHERS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1:.....

I1: Ça joue un rôle très important.

I2: Oui. Parce que des fois elles aident les élèves à trouver les réponses aux questions posées en Anglais.

I3: Non, ça ne joue aucun rôle, sauf pour les élèves qui recourent à la traduction.

Sin (Je re-explique la question): Les langues que l'élève connaît ne l'aident-elles pas à comprendre l'Anglais et communiquer en cette dernière langue?

I3: Quand j'enseigne la grammaire, par exemple, les élèves ont tendance à comparer les structures de l'Anglais à celles du Français. Même en vocabulaire. Mais ceci ne marche toujours pas.

Sin: Est-ce que ça doit toujours marcher?

(Tous): Pas toujours. (Rires)

I4: Des fois ça marche, des fois ça ne marche pas.

Sin: Avec quelle langue surtout?

Tous: Le Français.

I1: Moi, j'en ai encore fait l'expérience il y a trois jours. Ma conclusion est que les élèves semblent surmonter plus ou moins facilement et rapidement leurs difficultés de comprendre l'Anglais quand ils recourent au Français. Ils comparent mentalement les structures, mots... de ces deux langues pour trouver là où il y a similitudes. Et celles-ci constituent les lignes de moindre résistance.

I2: Cela se fait même au niveau des sons... (Il n'y a que I3 qui semble ne pas partager le même point de vue que les autres).

Q2:.....

I4: Le Français. (Même réponse pour I1, I2, et I5).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I5: Parce que c'est le Français qui est utilisé dans l'enseignement au Zaïre.

I2: Ainsi l'élève est amené à presque oublier sa langue maternelle quand il se trouve dans une situation analogue d'instruction.

I1: C'est aussi parce que la façon d'apprendre l'Anglais est presque la même que celle utilisée pour apprendre le Français. D'où, il se trouve plus à l'aise avec cette dernière

langue (pour apprendre l'Anglais).

I4: Je crois que c'est surtout grâce aux nombreuses ressemblances qu'il y a entre ces deux langues...

I5: En fait, l'Anglais et le Français ont presque les mêmes structures, mêmes mots, mêmes expressions, mêmes concepts... et ceux-ci sont exprimés presque de la même façon.

I3 (qui n'était pas d'accord jusque-là): Là, j'accepte. Le Français et l'Anglais sont très rapprochés. I1 (à I3): Donc, vous acceptez aussi qu'il est plus facile pour l'élève de transférer les réalités du Français en Anglais, et vice-versa?.

I3: Oui.

Sin: Quand est-ce que l'élève utilise ce transfert?

I2: Quand il a des difficultés pour trouver les mots, structures,... qu'il faut dans la langue qu'il apprend. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q3:.....

I3: Oui. Les gestes...

I1: L'imitation, les mimes,...

I2: Les hochements de tête, coups d'oeil...

Q4:.....

I4: On le leur dit, mais ce n'est pas possible. (Les autres acceptent).

Sin: Pourquoi ce n'est pas possible?

I4: Parce que c'est naturel, normal, surtout pour les débutants...

I1: Pour moi, ce n'est pas naturel, surtout quand on traduit. Mais en ce qui concerne les gestes, c'est normal.

Sin (J'éclaircis la question): Est-il naturel et normal que celui qui connaît déjà une ou d'autres langues et qui en apprend une nouvelle recourt à celle(s) qu'il connaît déjà pour apprendre (d'une façon ou d'une autre) cette nouvelle langue?

I2: Oui. Cela se fait souvent au niveau du subconscient, involontairement...

I1: Ce n'est pas naturel car l'élève se trouve dans une situation qu'il ne connaît pas. Donc, il va tout d'abord recourir à ses expériences.

Sin: Vous suggérez que la façon dont l'Anglais est enseigné à l'école n'est pas naturelle?

I1: Oui.

Sin: Es-ce la situation où se trouve l'élève ou la façon dont l'apprentissage se fait?

I1: Les deux. Mais le recours à ce qu'on connaît déjà est normal et naturel. (Tous

sont d'accord).

Sin (à I1): Alors, vous êtes d'avis que le recours aux expériences passées est naturel et normal?

I1: Oui. Je n'avais pas bien compris la question. (Tout le monde rit).

Q5:.....

I3: Quand la situation n'est pas concrète.

Sin: Concrète?

I3: Par exemple quand il s'agit de notions abstraites, de contextes qui ne sont pas explicites, clairs...

I1: Des obstacles.

Sin: Ces obstacles se trouvent à quel niveau?

I5: Presque tous les niveaux de la langue, mais très visibles dans la prononciation, le vocabulaire, et la grammaire. (Les autres sont d'accord. Je repète la Q5).

I4: Surtout dans les classes de 2e, 3e, et 4e.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I2: Je crois que c'est parce que les élèves n'ont pas encore une connaissance poussée de l'Anglais. En 5e et 6e, ils recourent moins à ces techniques car leur connaissance est déjà assez élevée. (Les autres sont du même avis).

Q6:.....

I3: Non, car c'est normal et naturel.

I2: J'ajouterais que c'est par manque de maturité dans cette langue-là.

I1: L'élève se trouve devant un problème qu'il doit résoudre: il le fait avec les moyens à sa disposition. (I4 et I5 sont aussi du même avis que les autres).

Q7, Q8, & Q9:.....

I5: Au niveau élémentaire, on recourt plus aux gestes et langues qu'on maîtrise déjà... Ce recours diminue plus on maîtrise la nouvelle langue. (Avis partagé par les autres).

I4: Même si ceci est normal, il ne faudrait pas que l'élève exagère...

I3: Mais, il est souvent inconscient...

I2: Mais, c'est très normal.

Q10:.....

I1: Le même cycle, et je le suis encore.

Sin: Encore?

I1: Oui. Je continue toujours à utiliser ces techniques-là, même si c'est à un degré très réduit. Maintenant, je recours plus à l'Anglais lui-même. (Les autres sont du

même avis).

Q12:.....

I2: Au niveau de 2e et 3e, les élèves font un effort parce qu'ils sont encore motivés. En 4e, mais surtout en 5e et 6e, beaucoup commencent à se désintéresser. Peut-être parce qu'ils ne réussissent pas comme ils le croyaient...

I4: J'ai aussi constaté la même chose. Au début, les élèves semblent être plus motivés... Mais au fur et à mesure que le cours progresse, cet intérêt semble s'amenuiser. (Les autres partagent cette opinion).

Sin: Qu'est-ce qui les décourage?

I3: La finalité du cours, peut-être. Les filles se désintéressent plus rapidement. Pour elles, c'est le mariage qui compte. Pour les garçons, c'est autre chose. Ils se désintéressent moins rapidement, dépendant des objectifs de chacun, de sa volonté d'apprendre.

Sin: Est-ce que la réalisation de cette finalité ne dépend pas de la réussite au cours?

I3: Bien sûr. C'est pour cela que même quand ils se désintéressent, beaucoup font toujours tout pour avoir la moitié aux examens et interrogations.

Sin: Alors, où réside leur désintéressement?

I1: Je crois que c'est au niveau du parler, de la participation volontaire.

Sin: Vous voulez dire qu'à ce niveau-là, ils apprennent la langue malgré eux? (Tous acceptent).

I5: Ils le font pour pouvoir passer de classe.

I4: Pas tous. Il y en a qui deviennent plus intéressés et finissent même par opter pour les études en Anglais au niveau universitaire. Mais, bien sûr ils sont très minoritaires. (Tous acceptent).

Q13 & Q14:.....

I2: Oui. (Les autres sont d'accord).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I4: Les élèves imitent les enseignants dans leur façon de parler, d'agir...

I1: La façon d'enseigner surtout influence directement la façon de s'appliquer des élèves. S'ils échouent, et sont convaincus qu'ils ne pourront pas réussir, ils se désintéressent de ce cours..

Sin: Tous finissent-ils par se décourager ainsi?

I3: Oh, non. Il y en a qui, malgré l'échec, font toujours des efforts pour apprendre. Mais ils sont très peu nombreux. (Les autres approuvent).

I5: Le climat dans lequel l'apprentissage se fait est aussi d'une très grande influence. Il doit être amical; les élèves doivent se sentir en sécurité, à l'aise; ils doivent sentir en leur enseignant un ami qui les comprend et sait comment les soulager quand ils en ont besoin. Quand l'enseignant se met très au-dessus des élèves, les submerge de son autorité, ils deviennent frustrés...

Sin: Ami?

I4: Sur qui ils peuvent compter...

I3: Ceci peut se manifester dans sa façon de les corriger (indirectement), les laisser s'exprimer à leur façon avant de les corriger; les corriger en faisant tout pour ne pas les blesser dans leur amour propre... (Les autres rient, d'où ils sont d'accord).

Q15:.....

I4: Une influence très importante.

I3: Oui.

I2: J'ai même vu un père qui encourageait son fils à pouvoir apprendre l'Anglais afin qu'il puisse l'emmener avec lui à l'étranger pour faire ses affaires. (Les autres sont d'accord).

Q16 & Q17:.....

I1: Le Français semble l'emporter ici chez-nous. Mais dans l'avenir, l'Anglais deviendra (d'ailleurs il l'est déjà) de plus en plus important.

Sin: Combien important?

I3: Pas jusqu'à supplanter le Français (vu que cette langue a une très longue tradition ici chez-nous), mais toutefois à menacer sérieusement sa position.

I5: Si ces deux langues étaient introduites en même temps, et si elles jouissaient des mêmes conditions d'utilisation, je ne crois pas que le Français pouvait occuper cette position.

I4: Ces deux langues sont bien sûr plus importantes que nos langues nationales. Il n'y a qu'à voir quelle langue nous utilisons officiellement, quand nous nous adressons entre nous... (Les autres hochent la tête).

Q18:.....

I2: C'est l'Anglais. (Même avis pour les autres).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I1: C'est la langue la plus utilisée dans le commerce international, dans l'aviation, la diplomatie...

I4: En technologie et sciences...

I5: Dans les conférences internationales, à l'ONU. Ceci le sera aussi dans l'avenir. (Pas d'objection de la part des autres).

Q19:.....

I3: La grammaire: En general, je donne des exemples types et, à partir d'eux, les élèves déduisent les règles. Le but est d'enseigner des structures grammaticales...

Sin: Vous ne comparez jamais certaines structures de l'Anglais et du Français?

I3: Non.

Sin: Et les élèves?

I3: Je crois qu'ils le font, mais sans que je ne sois au courant.

I5: Le vocabulaire: J'utilise du matériel concret, des gestes... La traduction dans les cas extrêmes.

Sin: Cas extrêmes?

I5: Quand les notions sont très difficiles et ou inconnues des élèves, et qu'il n'y a pas moyen de les concrétiser.

Sin: Vous n'autorisez jamais les élèves à faire ces traductions?

I5: Non.

Sin: Et comment se déroule la leçon?

I5: La même chose que celle de grammaire, avec la seule différence qu'on introduit des mots et expressions.

I2: La lecture: L'enseignant lit le texte, puis il pose des questions de compréhension générale. Puis vient l'exploitation du texte: les élèves lisent silencieusement un paragraphe... et l'enseignant leur pose des questions plus détaillées. Cette session peut continuer jusqu'à la fin de la leçon, ou elle peut être suivie (si les questions détaillées sont épuisées) de la lecture à haute voix par les élèves. Dans ce cas, ils lisent soit individuellement, soit par petits groupes. Le rôle de l'enseignant est de corriger les fautes de prononciation, de prosodie...

Sin: Quel est l'objectif de cette leçon?

I2: La compréhension du texte. Mais on en profite toutefois pour corriger la prononciation.

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord?

I1: Pour moi, le but est de corriger la prononciation, la prosodie. La compréhension est secondaire. (I3 est aussi de cet avis).

I1: La conversation: J'introduis les phrases-clé autour desquelles sont bâties les idées générales du texte. Puis, je lis le passage, phrase par phrase. Les élèves les répètent

après moi, et les mémorisent. Puis vient la présentation: les élèves reçoivent chacun un rôle, et présentent le dialogue. Le jour suivant, on continue. Cette fois-ci, les élèves sont autorisés à introduire des phrases de leur choix, selon leur compréhension.

Sin: Et s'ils le font lors de la première présentation?

I1: Ils ne sont pas autorisés à le faire. Cette fois-là, ils ne reprennent que les phrases du texte original.

Sin: Que faites-vous s'ils ne parviennent pas à les reproduire, mais comprennent toutefois le sens?

I1: Je les leur donne.

Sin: Vous ne permettez pas aux autres élèves qui se les rappellent de le faire?

I1: Seulement rarement, car s'ils le font chaque fois, cela pourrait se transformer en désordre... (Les autres font de la même façon).

Q20:.....

I4: La spontanéité.

I3: L'exactitude: Je vise à ce qu'ils parlent correctement. D'où, je ne dois pas laisser passer des fautes.

I2: La spontanéité en premier lieu, l'exactitude après: S'il n'y a pas de spontanéité, les élèves ne parviendront jamais à s'exprimer couramment, même s'ils connaissent toutes les règles... et savent comment les appliquer.

Sin (à I3): Et si l'élève ne parvient pas à se corriger, ou à trouver le mot... qui convient, mais a compris le sens?

I3: Là, je laisse passer.

Sin: Y a-t-il de danger quand l'enseignant insiste trop sur l'exactitude?

I5: Oui. Beaucoup d'élèves risquent de haïr et l'enseignant et le cours, et risquent ainsi de finir par se désintéresser et se décourager.

Sin (aux autres): Etes-vous d'accord? (Tous acceptent)

Sin: Et si vous leur donnez beaucoup d'occasions de s'exprimer...?

I1: Ils seront contents, encouragés de parler et intéressés par le cours.

Q21:.....

I4: Très peu d'élèves semblent s'adapter et participer aux leçons. Beaucoup assistent seulement.

Sin: Assistent?

I4: Oui. Ils sont là seulement parce qu'ils sont obligés par le système. (Avis partagé par tous).



Q22:.....

I3: Les deux. On nous avait appris à ne pas tolérer des fautes de la part des élèves. On nous sanctionnait sévèrement pendant le stage... Mais, en réalité, nous nous voyons aujourd'hui obligés de le faire... Sans cela, nous serions les seuls à parler pendant les leçons...

I4: Il y a des classes où la méthodologie que nous avons apprise s'applique sans trop de mal; mais il y en a d'autres où nous devons aller à l'encontre de beaucoup de techniques que nous avons apprises...

Sin: Quelles classes?

I4: En 2e, 3e et voire même 4e, c'est relativement impossible d'appliquer strictement le *English in English only* comme méthode d'enseignement. Nous devons recourir à beaucoup de traductions et surtout les gestes... En 5e et 6e, c'est relativement facile. (Les autres sont du même avis).

Q23 & Q24:.....

I5: En règle générale, on doit enseigner l'Anglais en Anglais seulement. Mais, on doit adapter cette approche aux réalités des élèves: les débutants ont beaucoup besoin de traductions et de gestes, tandis que les élèves avancés en ont moins besoin. Les deux approches de cette même méthodologie devraient refléter cette différence.

Sin: Qui traduisent?

(Tous): L'enseignant.

Sin: Et après?

I2: Encourager les élèves à n'utiliser que l'Anglais.

I4: Même dans ce cas, il faudrait de temps en temps tolérer le recours aux gestes et langues que les élèves connaissent déjà.

I2: Non. Je crois qu'il faut tout faire pour qu'ils n'en fassent pas usage.

I3: Le grand avantage est pour les débutants: cette méthode les encourage et les pousse à parler sans honte et sans peur.

I5: Le danger est qu'ils ne s'y habituent trop et continuent à l'appliquer même dans les classes supérieures, ou d'une manière inconsidérée.

I1: Je ne crois pas qu'ils le fassent jusqu'à ce niveau-là: s'ils maîtrisent la langue comme il faut, ils ne sentiront pas le besoin d'en utiliser. Et cela se fait automatiquement. S'ils continuent à le faire, c'est qu'il y a quelque chose qui ne va pas...

I3 Cela peut être aussi la faute de l'enseignant. A partir d'un certain niveau, il doit faire sentir à ces élèves que ce recours n'est plus normal, et donc pas toléré...

Sin: (à I2, I4, et I5): Votre point de vue? (Ils sont du même avis).

Q25:.....

I4: Au niveau de 2e, 3e et début 4e, c'est celui qui imite son enseignant.

Sin: Imiter?

I4: Celui qui prend son enseignant comme modèle: parler et agir comme lui. En 4e, 5e, et 6e, c'est celui qui s'adonne à la lecture, qui cherche des occasions pour pratiquer son Anglais...

I2: Il faut ajouter aussi celui qui fait tout pour parfaire son expression et habilité en Anglais écrit.

I1: C'est aussi celui qui pose de questions, qui répond en classe, celui qui fait tout pour parler en Anglais. Bref, celui qui persévère même en présence de facteurs qui le découragent...

Q26:.....

I2: Ecrits et oraux. (Tous partagent ce point de vue).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I4: Parce que, étant une langue, l'Anglais est destiné à être parlé et écrit...

I3: Moi, je préférerais que ce soit oral en 2e et 3e, puis oral-écrit en 4e, 5e et 6e...

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Au début, les élèves devraient être initiés à l'oralité seulement. Ainsi, il leur serait un peu moins difficile d'apprendre que si on leur enseignait les deux aspects à la fois.

Sin ('a I2): Pourquoi mélange oral-écrit?

I2: En général, sans tenir compte de niveau, il faudrait apprécier les capacités des élèves dans les deux aspects. Il y en a qui sont plus doués dans l'un que dans l'autre. Si on se concentrait sur un aspect seulement, on défavoriserait ceux qui y sont moins doués.

I5: Je suis d'avis qu'il faudrait maintenir le système mixte oral-écrit à tous les niveaux car les élèves doivent parler et écrire la langue.

Sin: Mais normalement, quel système devrait être d'application?

I4: Oral-écrit. (Tous sont d'accord).

Sin: Lequel devrait primer sur l'autre?

I3: L'oral.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce que l'Anglais est une langue et, ainsi, est avant tout destiné à être parlé. C'est seulement compte tenu des exigences du monde contemporain que l'aspect écrit

est devenu assez important. (Tous acceptent, sauf I1 qui semble encore convaincu que c'est l'écrit car dit-il, la langue étant enseignée sur base de documents écrits, c'est cet aspect qui devrait primer).

Q27:.....

I5: Non, car ça accentue l'aspect écrit.

I3: Si les examens et interrogations étaient oraux, les élèves se prépareraient en conséquence: ils feraient tout pour parler. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q28:.....

I4: Diminuer le nombre d'élèves (plus ou moins 25) et ainsi augmenter le nombre de classes.

I1: Communiquer, c'est parler....

I2: C'est saisir les idées exprimées par les autres et pouvoir y répondre.

Sin: Répondre oralement ou par écrit?

I2: Les deux, mais surtout oralement.

I3: L'Etat n'a pas de moyen... Il y a même un service (Le CECOPER) qui est chargé de supprimer certaines écoles...

I5: Non. L'Etat a tous les moyens qu'il faut. Ceux-ci sont utilisés à d'autres fins. (Le reste d'interviewés est d'accord avec ce dernier point de vue).

Q29:.....

I2: Oui, surtout avec les textes où les contextes sont locaux. (Les autres approuvent).

Sin: En d'autres termes, vous voulez dire que beaucoup d'élèves doivent réussir parce que les contextes leur sont familiers?

I2: C'est un facteur important.

Sin: Le plus important?

I2: Non.

Sin: Quel est alors le plus important?

I3: C'est la volonté de l'élève à apprendre. Avec ou sans contextes zairois ou africains, l'élève qui veut réellement apprendre y parvient toujours dans la plupart des cas. (Les autres sont du même avis)

Q30:.....

I4: Pas possible car l'Anglais est originaire d'un autre contexte, d'une autre culture... (Tous approuvent)

I3: pas nécessaire car les élèves seront bornés. (Les autres acceptent)

I5: Pas bénéfique parce que les élèves doivent aussi acquérir les traits de la culture

anglaise, quitte à les intégrer dans la leur. S'ils ne le font pas, ils seront très limités dans leur acquisition... (Les autres sont d'accord).

Q31:.....

I2: Echec: L'élève n'est pas capable d'appliquer (surtout oralement) ce qu'il a appris.

I1: L'élève qui n'est pas capable de comprendre la matière qui lui a été enseignée et de l'appliquer aux réalités de son environnement...

I3: Celui qui n'arrive pas à maîtriser la matière qui lui a été enseignée...

Sin: C'est à dire?

I3: Qui ne parvient pas à parler et (dans une certaine mesure) à écrire pour communiquer avec les autres qui parlent la même langue... (Les autres sont d'accord avec ces différents points de vue).

I5: La réussite est l'opposé de l'échec.

Q32:.....

I4: C'est un échec. (Même avis pour I3 et I5).

I1: C'est une réussite.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I1: Parce que beaucoup d'élèves (par exemple de mes classes) essaient toujours de me parler en Anglais...

I2: C'est une réussite...

Sin: Quand vous considérez le nombre total de ceux qui ont appris cette langue, maintenez-vous toujours votre position?

(I3, I4 et I5 sont toujours pour l'échec. I1 et I2 changent d'avis et optent aussi pour l'échec).

Sin: Qu'est-ce qui fait que très peu d'élèves parviennent à (se risquer à) parler en Anglais?

I5: Je crois que c'est surtout et avant tout la honte et la peur que les autres se moquent d'eux s'ils viennent à commettre des fautes... (Tous sont d'accord).

Q33, Q34 & Q35:.....

I4: Créer beaucoup de centres de langues, faire tout pour motiver les élèves, les pousser à toujours prendre des risques pour s'exprimer en Anglais...

I3: L'enseignant doit leur montrer que c'est en parlant qu'ils apprendront à parler...

I2: Il faudrait que la motivation soit grande dans le milieu...

Sin: Vous voulez dire qu'il n'y a pas d'élément motivateur dans notre société?

I2: Il y en a. Mais il faudrait l'augmenter...

I4: Moi, je vois qu'il y en a et que ça grandit de plus en plus: de plus en plus de gens de la rue font beaucoup d'efforts pour apprendre l'Anglais. (Tous les autres sont du même avis)

Sin: Alors, qu'est-ce qu'on peut changer à court, moyen et long termes?

I5: A court terme: Il faudrait faire en sorte que la façon d'enseigner puisse motiver plus et pousser les élèves à s'exprimer librement...

I2: Oui. Il faudrait que nos méthodes d'enseignement puissent entraîner les élèves à ne plus avoir peur ou honte de parler...

Sin (à I1 et I4): Et vous? (Ils partagent le même avis que I5 et I2).

I1: Il ne faut pas oublier l'amélioration des salaires... (Tous rient et approuvent).

I3: En effet, nos conditions de travail sont très médiocres. Ce qui ne nous motive pas beaucoup à fournir le meilleur de nous-mêmes...

I1: A moyen terme: Il faudrait améliorer l'infrastructure scolaire...

Sin: C'est à dire?

I1: Approvisionner les écoles en livres et autres matériels didactiques.

I4: Il faudrait aussi réduire le nombre d'élèves par classe et par enseignant, augmenter le nombre d'écoles et d'enseignants...

I5: A long terme: Il faudrait restructurer complètement le système d'enseignement en tenant compte des points traités à court et moyen termes. (Les autres sont d'accord).

I2: Il faudrait aussi multiplier et varier les les séances de recyclage des enseignants et les stages à l'étranger.

Q36:.....

I1: Je crois que c'est la méthodologie, la majoration des salaires, et l'équipement en matériels didactiques de base... (Tous approuvent).

Q37:.....

I4: C'est la méthode qu'il utilise pour enseigner... Parce que c'est le seul outil à sa disposition qu'il est le seul à manipuler à chaque instant. Donc qu'il peut facilement façonner à ses caprices et convictions, quand il le veut et comme il le veut...

I3: D'ailleurs, nous ne sommes pas régis d'une manière rigide en ce qui concerne la méthodologie... (Tous approuvent).

Q38:.....

a)

I2: Il faudrait que ceci soit une application réaliste des théories de l'enseignement aux réalités des élèves, c.à.d. comment ils apprennent, comment ils réagissent...

I5: Que les théories soient enseignées, mais elles doivent être modelées sur les réalités de l'environnement où l'enseignement a lieu et celles de ceux qui en bénéficient. (Tous sont d'accord).

b)

I4: Multiplier et varier les séances d'animation pédagogiques et de recyclage, les conférences...

I3: Introduire et appliquer le système de stage de formation tant au Zaïre qu'à l'étranger.

Q39:.....

a)

I1: Ces réformes, surtout celles de la méthodologie, la majoration des salaires et l'éducation permanente des enseignants produiront de très bons résultats.

b)

I3: Vu que ces réformes nécessitent en général un déblocage de fonds, il est plus que certain que les pouvoirs politico-administratifs feront montre de beaucoup de résistance et d'opposition.

c)

I4: Bien sûr, il y aura une amélioration de l'équipement en matériels didactiques..

d)

I2: Les élèves sont ceux qui pourraient bénéficier le plus de ces changements. (Tous hochent la tête).

Sin: Quelqu'un voudrait-il ajouter quelque chose? (Personne).

## 2.1.5.5.

## THE MBUJIMAYI TEACHERS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT: GROUP 1

Q1:.....

I1: Oui. Les élèves prennent leurs langues maternelles comme point de repère, point de départ.

Sin: Les langues maternelles seulement?

I2: Même les autres langues qu'ils connaissent déjà. (Tous sont d'accord, exceptés I5 et I9).

I5: Moi personnellement, je pense que ces langues (comme nous l'avions appris) empêchent l'élève de bien apprendre l'Anglais.

Sin: N'y a-t-il pas, à côté de cette influence négative une positive c.à.d. qui aiderait l'élève (d'une façon ou d'une autre) à apprendre?

I9: Oui. Il y a toujours interférence des langues que l'élève connaît déjà et celle qu'il apprend. Celle-ci peut être positive ou négative.

I5: Oui. Je suis d'accord.

Q2:.....

I3: Cela dépend des individus. Il y en a qui utilisent deux... langues à la fois, et ceux qui n'en utilisent qu'une seule.

Sin: Mais laquelle est la plus utilisée?

I3: Le Français. (Tous sont d'accord).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I6: Parce qu'à l'école, il apprend tout en cette langue...

I8: Une autre raison: vu que l'élève a été instruit par le biais du Français, il éprouve des difficultés pour exprimer certaines idées en sa langue maternelle. C.à.d. que dans le contexte de l'instruction, il se trouve plus à l'aise avec le Français. D'où en apprenant l'Anglais, il s'appuiera beaucoup plus sur le Français que sur sa langue maternelle. Il comparera les structures, mots, expressions, sons,... de ces deux langues et, à l'occasion, les utilisera les unes à la place des autres...

I10: La raison la plus importante est que l'Anglais s'apparente beaucoup plus au Français qu'aux langues maternelles des élèves. D'où il y a beaucoup de ressemblances entre elles à presque tous les niveaux: les concepts, la grammaire, le vocabulaire, la forme linguistique, la phonologie..etc... D'où il leur est plus facile de transférer les

éléments du Français en Anglais.

I7: Les élèves le font surtout quand ils n'ont pas encore bien maîtrisé l'Anglais. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q3:.....

I4: Les gestes, les mimiques...

I1: Les expressions du visage, les clignements d'yeux, les rires... (Tous sont d'accord).

Q4:.....

I7: C'est une pratique normale et naturelle. Tout le monde utilise le langage gestuel. Il est le plus naturel et le plus universel.

I9: Même quand on maîtrise bien une langue (même sa langue maternelle), on en fait toujours usage... (Tous approuvent).

Sin: Ce que vous venez de dire, est-il aussi valable en ce qui concerne le recours aux langues déjà connues?

I5: Oui. Cela est inévitable. Dans les cas les plus subtiles, ça se fait au niveau du subconscient.

I8: Ce serait une utopie même d'essayer de bannir cette pratique. (Tous sont du même avis).

I10: Mais, toutefois, à un certain niveau d'apprentissage, il faudrait essayer de décourager les élèves de trop y recourir, c.à.d. les encourager à recourir plus à l'Anglais.

I3: Si on essayait de bannir complètement cette pratique, les élèves (surtout les débutants) ne pourraient jamais (oser de) s'exprimer. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q5:.....

I2: Surtout les débutants. (Tous approuvent).

I1: Parce que l'apprentissage est basé sur la technique de l'essai-erreur. C'est grâce aux essais et aux erreurs commises que l'élève se corrige et progresse..

I3: Il y a progression dans tout apprentissage qui réussit. Au début, on ne connaît presque rien et on a beaucoup de mal à s'exprimer. On essaie alors de surmonter cet handicap en recourant aux gestes et à ce qu'on connaît déjà. Plus on maîtrise la nouvelle langue, de moins en moins on sentira le besoin de recourir à ces artifices... (Tous sont du même point de vue).

Q6:.....

I7: Bien sûr que non. C'est normal et naturel. Tous ceux qui ont appris une autre langue sont passés, d'une manière ou d'une autre, par là...(Tous partagent cet avis).



Q7:.....

I8: Comme nous l'avons dit, il y a progression et régression: Plus on maîtrise la nouvelle langue, de moins en moins on recourt aux gestes et langue(s) qu'on connaît déjà. Moins on la maîtrise, plus on recourt à ces moyens-là. (Tout le monde est d'accord).

Q8 & Q9:.....

I4: Tout le monde suit la même voie.

I5: Oui. Mais il y en a qui suivent des raccourcis c.à.d. qui passent plus rapidement d'une étape à une autre. Mais en gros, nous appliquons tous le même principe. (Tous approuvent)

I9: Alors les conclusions que nous

ns tirer s'ont: Il faudrait essayer de modeler les méthodes d'enseignement des langues sur le processus naturel d'apprentissage tel que l'appliquent ceux qui apprennent...

Sin: C.à.d.?

I9: Encourager les élèves (surtout les débutants) à s'exprimer tant bien que mal... en adaptant notre façon d'enseigner sur leur façon d'apprendre...

I6: Toutefois, il ne faudrait pas que l'enseignant fasse de la traduction et du recours aux gestes... une méthode. Ça doit être des moyens seulement pour atteindre un objectif.

I8: Il ne devrait pas traduire lui-même. Il devra demander aux autres élèves de le faire pour ceux qui sont bloqués...

I3: Mais, il est important que dès le début, l'enseignant encourage les élèves à s'exprimer en utilisant le peu d'Anglais qu'ils connaissent déjà. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q10 & Q11:.....

I5: J'ai suivi et continue à suivre cette voie. Aujourd'hui, vu que je maîtrise un peu plus l'Anglais, je recours beaucoup plus à cette langue qu'aux autres moyens dont nous avons parlés. Quand je recours à ces artifices-là, c'est plus involontairement que sciemment. (Tous sont du même avis).

Q12: .....

I10: En général, très peu d'élèves travaillent comme il faut.

Sin: Réellement?

I10: Qui travaillent parce qu'ils le veulent... Beaucoup travaillent pour avoir les points qu'il faut pour passer de classes...

I7: Oui. En réalité, s'il n'y avait pas les points, beaucoup auraient abandonné le

cours.

Sin: Quand?

I7: Surtout vers les 4e, 5e et 6e.

Sin: Pourquoi pas avant?

I7: Parce qu'à ces niveaux (1e, 2e, 3e et début 4e) beaucoup semblent intéressés et motivés pour apprendre l'Anglais. Et ils font beaucoup d'efforts dans ce sens.

I4: Je crois que c'est surtout au début du cours. Mais plus le cours avance, plus beaucoup commencent à perdre de leur courage, de leur intérêt et motivation. (Les autres sont d'accord).

Sin: Pourquoi ceci arrive-t-il?

I3: Je pense que beaucoup d'élèves, qui au départ sont intéressés, se découragent peut-être parce qu'ils échouent et ne parviennent pas à réussir là où ils l'espéraient.

I1: Peut-être parce qu'ils deviennent convaincus qu'ils ne parviendront jamais à parler comme ils le croyaient...

I6: Peut-être parce que, ayant honte de commettre des fautes, ils n'osent plus se risquer à s'exprimer... (Les autres sont du même avis).

Sin: En bref, les élèves travaillent-ils comme il faut?

I1: Les débutants en général s'appliquent beaucoup plus. Mais, très peu d'élèves dans les classes supérieures s'appliquent, ceux qui parviennent à aimer le cours et à y réussir. (Les autres partagent le même avis).

Q13 & Q14:.....

I3: Oui. Ce que je fais, comment je le fais, et mon attitude générale envers le cours... influencent les élèves et déterminent aussi leur propre attitude envers l'Anglais. Ceci est en termes généraux. Il y a toujours des Exceptions.

I8: La façon d'enseigner surtout conditionne la façon de travailler et l'attitude des élèves... Ça les pousse soit à aimer le cours, soit à le haïr, et à se comporter en conséquence.

Sin: Quelles conséquences, par exemple?

I8: Le découragement, le désintéressement, la démotivation...

I9: La persévérance, l'augmentation de la motivation, de l'intérêt, de la volonté de continuer à apprendre.... (Les autres approuvent).

Q15:.....

I5: Oui.

I10: Oui. Dans notre cas par exemple, l'importance de l'Anglais est visible et tous les

élèves en sont relativement conscients. D'où ils commencent le cours déjà intéressés...

I4: D'ailleurs, c'est ce qui fait que beaucoup sont très enthousiasmés quand ils commencent le cours... (Tous approuvent).

Q16, Q17 & Q18:.....

I6: Aujourd'hui, c'est le Français. Demain ce sera le Français et l'Anglais.

Sin: Une seule!?

I6: C'est difficile de le dire. Le fait est que l'Anglais est en train de gagner du terrain en importance. Même s'il n'est pas parlé par beaucoup de Zairois, il devient de plus en plus présent dans la vie active...

I1: En effet, même s'il ne parvient pas à égaler le Français (d'ailleurs il ne le pourra pas vu que cette dernière langue est notre langue officielle et d'instruction depuis plus d'un siècle), il est toutefois en train de lui damer le pion là où le Français avait le monopole... (Les autres acceptent).

I3: Dans ce même ordre d'idées, ces langues étrangères jouissent d'un statut plus élevé que nos langues nationales... (Tous sont d'accord).

I7: Mais au niveau international, c'est l'Anglais qui est aujourd'hui la langue internationale, et le sera encore pour longtemps...

Sin: Pourquoi?

I9: C'est la langue qui est utilisée en commerce, en diplomatie, à l'ONU...

I10: Dans l'aviation, la marine, en sciences et technologie...

I3: Tout le monde semble accepter cette situation, mêmes les Russes et les Chinois... (Tous approuvent).

Q19:.....

I2: Le vocabulaire: On introduit les mots, expressions... oralement dans de courtes phrases où leur signification est claire. Les élèves les repètent après le professeur. Celui-ci les écrit ensuite au tableau, en dehors de tout contexte. Il se sert du matériel concret et des gestes pour introduire ces mots et expressions... Puis, il pose des questions aux élèves pour voir s'ils ont compris. Ensuite ceux-ci se posent des questions entre eux dans ce même but. Puis après, l'enseignant repose les questions et écrit les réponses au tableau. C'est le texte constitué par ces réponses qui sera copié par les élèves dans leurs cahiers.

Sin: Et les mots abstraits?

I2: Si c'est très difficile, je procède par explications, illustrations, comparaisons...

Sin: En quelle langue?

I2: En Anglais.

Sin: Vous ne recourez jamais à la traduction soit par les élèves soit par vous-même?

I2: Très, très rarement. (Les autres sont d'accord, sauf...)

I4 (qui ajoute): Moi, j'y recours beaucoup de fois... (I7 et I10 partagent son opinion).

I3: La grammaire: En gros, j'utilise la même méthode que celle qu'on vient de décrire pour le vocabulaire, sauf que les items sont des structures et particules grammaticales, des verbes,... (Les autres appliquent la même méthode).

Sin: Vous arrive-t-il de recourir à la comparaison?

I3: Oui. Surtout quand les élèves n'ont pas bien compris. Je compare les structures... introduites par d'autres similaires déjà étudiées.

Sin: Jamais avec celles des autres langues connues des élèves.

I3: Je l'évite car ce sera de la traduction.

Sin: Vous êtes contre la traduction?

I3: Oui. (Tous rient. I1, I7, I9 et I10 le supportent. Les autres reconnaissent qu'ils le font occasionnellement).

Sin: En gros, vous tous vous utilisez cette méthode? (Hochements de tête).

I10: La lecture: Le but est d'enseigner la prononciation. L'enseignant lit tout le texte et les élèves suivent. Puis il leur pose quelques questions de compréhension générale. Puis les élèves lisent silencieusement le texte (paragraphe par paragraphe) et l'enseignant leur pose des questions plus détaillées... Quand c'est terminé, les élèves commencent à lire à haute voix (soit par petits groupes, soit individuellement) et l'enseignant les corrige.

Sin: Le texte est nouveau ou déjà connu des élèves?

I10: Ça dépend des niveaux. Dans les années initiales, les textes comprennent surtout des items déjà vus pendant les autres leçons. Dans les classes supérieures, on y ajoute beaucoup de nouveaux mots...

Sin: D'où viennent les textes?

I10: Des livres d'élèves ou l'enseignant les conçoit et les leur donne un ou deux jours avant la leçon.

Sin: Que faites-vous quand un élève ne parvient pas à prononcer comme il faut mais semble comprendre le sens de ce qu'il lit ou dit?

I10: Je le corrige jusqu'à ce qu'il le fasse bien.

Sin: Et s'il n'y parvient pas?

I10: Je laisse tomber et continue avec les autres.

Sin: Tout le monde est d'accord?

I7: Oui, sauf en ce qui concerne le but de la leçon de lecture et la place de la lecture orale. Pour moi, le but c'est la compréhension. (I3 et I8 sont d'accord avec lui). Moi je continue avec les questions détaillées jusqu'à la fin.

Sin: Jamais de lecture orale?

I7: Oui. Quelquefois quand je termine les questions et qu'il reste quelques minutes avant la fin de la leçon.

Sin: D'habitude combien de minutes?

I7: Plus ou moins cinq. (I3 et I8 sont encore d'accord avec lui).

I5: La conversation: L'objectif est la correction de la prononciation et de la prosodie. (Tous approuvent). J'introduis le dialogue en le lisant phrase par phrase et tout en écrivant les mots- et structures-clé au tableau. Puis après, les élèves les lisent pour les mémoriser. Puis je les efface du tableau. Je fais alors passer les élèves au tableau pour exécuter le dialogue.

Sin: Comment?

I5: Ils doivent reproduire le texte original, avec les mots-clé.

Sin: Et s'ils ne parviennent pas soit à prononcer correctement certains mots, soit à se rappeler d'autres, soit s'ils remplacent certains par des mots des langues qu'ils connaissent déjà, mais dont la signification est la même qu'en Anglais?

I5: Je leur montre comment prononcer jusqu'à ce qu'ils réussissent. Dans les deux autres cas, je les leur donne.

Sin: Supposons que, malgré vos insistances, les élèves n'y parviennent toujours pas, mais montrent qu'ils comprennent le sens, et remplacent ces mots-là par des équivalents Anglais?

I5: S'ils ne parviennent pas à prononcer, je laisse tomber. Mais pour la première exécution, ils sont obligés de reproduire seulement le dialogue original. C'est seulement lors de la deuxième exécution (qui a lieu à la leçon suivante) qu'ils sont autorisés à introduire des mots... de leur choix.

I8 (intervient): Pour moi, je laisse passer certaines fautes de prononciation, surtout quand elles n'interfèrent pas avec la signification de ce qui est dit. Et j'autorise, je tolère et même encourage que les élèves introduisent d'autres mots..., expriment les idées à leur façon... dès la première exécution... (I1 et I7 partagent son opinion).

Sin: Alors, combien d'exécutions?

I8: Une seule. (Appuyé par I1 et I7).

Sin: Pourquoi combiner cela?

I7 (intervient): Pour gagner du temps, et surtout permettre aux élèves de s'exprimer plus ou moins librement comme ils en ressentent le besoin...

Q20:.....

I3: L'exactitude. (Appuyé par tous sauf I5, I7, et I8).

I7: Moi, c'est la spontanéité parce qu'il faut encourager les élèves à s'exprimer librement dès le début. (Appuyé par I5 et I8).

I1: Non. Ils ne peuvent pas s'exprimer librement sans être corrects dans ce qu'ils disent et comment ils le disent.

Sin: Ceux qui sont pour l'exactitude, pensez-vous qu'il est possible aux élèves ou à nous tous ici présents de parler Anglais correctement? (Tous rient et secouent la tête).

Sin: Alors? (Pas de réponse). Corrigez-vous les élèves chaque fois qu'ils commettent des fautes?

I4: On essaie, mais pas chaque fois.

Sin: Que peut-il arriver si vous le faites chaque fois?

I8 (intervient): Les élèves ne pourraient pas s'exprimer...Ils seront frustrés, découragés.

Sin: Est-il possible de parler Anglais sans être complètement correct? (Tous acceptent. Mais I9 intervient).

: Il faut toutefois qu'il y ait de sens dans ce qui est dit, et que la forme soit aussi acceptable.

Sin: Peut-il y avoir de sens dans une phrase où il y a, par exemple, quelques fautes de prononciation?

I9: Oui.

Sin: Alors? (Rires). Ceux qui sont pour la spontanéité, pourquoi cette option?

I8: Surtout durant les premières étapes de l'apprentissage, il est très important et crucial que les élèves aient confiance en leurs propres capacités de maîtriser et parler la langue qu'ils apprennent... Sans cela, beaucoup ont très peu de chance de progresser comme il faut et réussir après.

I7: En fait, si on les interrompt chaque fois qu'ils commettent des fautes ou très souvent, ils perdront confiance en eux-mêmes, seront frustrés et ne pourront pas avoir l'occasion de s'exprimer librement... Or c'est en s'exprimant qu'on apprend à s'exprimer!

I5: Comme nous l'avions dit il y a quelques instants, les débutants rencontrent (et c'est tout à fait normal) beaucoup de difficultés quand ils veulent s'exprimer. Maîtriser une langue demande du temps et de la patience. Si on insiste trop sur l'exactitude dès le début du cours, c'est qu'on prend les élèves pour des gens qui connaissent déjà la langue. Or cela n'est pas le cas! (Tous se regardent et personne n'intervient).

Q21:.....

I9: Ces méthodes visent avant tout de faire parler les élèves et de les faire participer aux leçons. Dans ce sens, le rôle du professeur serait de leur faciliter cette tâche. Mais c'est juste le contraire qui se produit.

I5: En effet, même si certains élèves parviennent tant bien que mal à y arriver, la grande majorité est en général amorphe, semble effrayée ou honteuse de prendre part aux échanges...

I7 Même pendant la soi-disant Application-Control stage, où seuls les élèves devraient parler, c'est toujours l'enseignant qui fait presque le tout, qui dirige les opérations, qui prend l'initiative.

Sin: Est-ce que vous essayez de passer l'initiative aux élèves?

I10: Oui. Mais c'est toujours un petit groupe d'élèves qui parvient à le faire, mais pour un très court instant.

Sin (aux autres): C'est aussi votre expérience? (Ils approuvent).

I3: J'ai constaté qu'au début (pendant le premier mois à peu près) beaucoup d'élèves lèvent le doigt pour répondre, cherchent à participer. Ce n'est qu'après que le problème commence réellement. (Tous sont du même avis. I2 et I4 insistent que cela commence même un peu plus tôt, vers la deuxième ou troisième semaine après le début du cours).

Sin: Et dans les classes supérieures?

I4: C'est le même scénario, mais cette fois avec presque un caractère de permanence.

Sin: C.à.d.?

I4: Il se forme visiblement trois groupes: le plus petit, celui des élèves qui participent presque toujours; le suivant, un peu plus grand que le premier, est constitué par ceux qui participent sporadiquement; et enfin le plus grand, celui des ceux qui assistent seulement. (Tous rient).

Q22:.....

I6: Oui. En général, nous devrions enseigner l'Anglais en Anglais et faire en sorte que les élèves soient des acteurs à part entière. Mais en pratique, ce qui arrive est

qu'ils deviennent plus passifs et l'initiative retombe et repose presque entièrement sur l'enseignant...

I8: Il y a similitudes surtout quand on nous demande d'enseigner l'Anglais en Anglais. Contradictions quand nous sommes supposés éviter que les élèves recourent aux gestes et langues qu'ils connaissent déjà, et en même temps on nous demande de les faire participer entièrement. Ça ne marche pas!

I1: En fait, avec ces méthodes, c'est l'enseignant qui a presque le monopole de la parole et de l'initiative.

I7: On note un peu de changement quand on tolère que les élèves s'expriment librement, en utilisant ce qu'ils ont à leur disposition. Donc en faisant presque ce qui nous a été déconseillé de faire. (Tous approuvent bruyamment).

Q23 & Q24:.....

I5: Les conclusions sont évidentes. Si nous voulons réussir à faire participer les élèves aux leçons et à les entraîner à s'exprimer librement, nous devons suivre ce qu'ils font réellement quand ils apprennent, surtout durant les étapes initiales de l'apprentissage...

I7: Nous devons les encourager à apprendre et à perséverer...

I10: Donc, une bonne méthode doit reposer sur ces réalités.

Sin: Les mêmes réalités pour les débutants et ceux dans les classes supérieures?

I10: En gros, oui. Il y aura toujours une différence dans ce sens que la pression de l'enseignant sur les élèves pour qu'ils utilisent plus l'Anglais deviendra de plus en plus forte et visible plus ils acquièrent de la maîtrise en cette langue.

I9: Les avantages sont plus psychologiques, et contrebalancent les désavantages et dangers, surtout pour les débutants. Une fois qu'ils sont habitués à s'exprimer librement, ils le feront toujours et de plus en plus. Et par conséquent, ils apprendront encore plus comment s'exprimer...

I4: Le danger est que certains ne fassent du recours aux moyens paralinguistiques et des langues qu'ils maîtrisent mieux une habitude, une technique permanente...

I9 (intervient): Je ne crois pas. Enfin il y a toujours ce risque à courir, mais sa fréquence est minime car si les élèves progressent normalement, ils ne sentiront pas le besoin de toujours recourir à ces moyens-là. Rappelez-vous qu'ils le font par manque de maîtrise en Anglais. (Hochements de tête).

Q25:.....

I3: Le bon élève est celui qui apprend volontairement ses leçons, qui y trouve du



plaisir et s'exprime librement quel que soit son niveau.

I6: C'est celui qui ne se décourage pas, même en face de l'échec; qui persévère et ne semble jamais satisfait de son niveau.

I8: C'est celui qui pose beaucoup de questions, qui cherche à toujours connaître.

I10: C'est celui qui fait tout pour parler en Anglais que ce soit en classe ou en dehors.

I9: C'est celui qui réussit au cours.

Sin: C.à.d.?

I9: Celui qui parvient à avoir les points requis pour passer de classe. (Les autres semblent ne pas partager ce point de vue. Alors j'interviens).

Sin: Qu'entendez-vous par réussir?

I9: D'après les recommandations gouvernementales, c'est avoir les 50% des points.

Sin: Mais, d'après vous, en tant qu'enseignant?

I9: C'est réussir à maîtriser la matière enseignée et le démontrer en parlant. Mais aussi avoir les 50% des points.

Sin: Parler seulement?

I9: Aussi en écrivant. Mais ceci est secondaire.

Sin: Alors, est-il possible qu'un élève réussisse sans toutefois avoir les 50% des points?

I9 (hésitant): Oui. (Les autres rient. Je lui promets que nous débattons le problème un peu plus tard).

Q26:.....

I7: Ecrit-oral. (Même chose pour les autres).

Sin: Mais avec l'accent sur quel aspect?

I3: Oral. Mais ceci n'est pas possible car il y a trop d'élèves et trop peu de temps.

I5: Même si on en avait, ce ne serait toujours pas réalisable vu que l'Etat favorise le type écrit.

Sin: Pourquoi l'accent devrait être mis sur l'oral?

I3: Parce que l'objectif principal de tout apprentissage de langue est de parler. Ecrire est secondaire.

I6: Mais aussi important aujourd'hui. (I3 approuve).

Sin: Pourquoi oral-écrit?

I1: Pour pouvoir juger des capacités des élèves dans ces deux aspects. Il y a des élèves qui sont forts soit dans l'un soit dans l'autre, soit dans les deux. Se concentrer sur un seul de ces aspects serait défavoriser ceux qui y sont faibles.

I6: Il y a aussi la cotation. C'est pour être moins subjectif. Le système oral comporte

des faiblesses telle que l'effet du halo. Pour combattre ce sentimentalisme et ses conséquences dans la cotation, il est indiqué de combiner l'oral à l'écrit, ce dernier étant plus objectif...

I9: Il y a aussi le fait qu'apprendre une langue aujourd'hui implique la maîtrise de tous les deux aspects (oral et écrit). D'où, il faut entraîner les élèves dans tous ces deux aspects. (Tous sont d'accord).

27:.....

I3: Non. (Même réponse pour les autres).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I5: Parce que l'aspect écrit (qui est plus accentué dans notre système d'enseignement) pousse les élèves à maîtriser plus l'orthographe que le parler.

I1: D'ailleurs, c'est l'une des raisons (je crois) pour lesquelles beaucoup d'élèves réussissent à avoir les points qu'il faut pour passer de classe, mais sans toutefois être capables de parler comme il faut.

I8: Si le système était mixte, avec un peu plus d'accent sur l'oralité, les élèves se verraient plus obligés à exceller dans cet aspect, et à se préparer en conséquence. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q28:.....

I10: Il faut introduire le système oral. Ainsi, diminuer le nombre d'élèves par classe et par enseignant. (Tous sont d'accord).

I2: Communiquer c'est se faire comprendre en parlant et comprendre les autres quand ils parlent. C'est aussi le faire par écrit. Mais c'est le parler qui est primordial. (Tous approuvent, même I9).

Sin (à I9): Alors, est-il possible de réussir sans pour autant avoir les 50% des points?

I9: Oui. (Tous rient).

I2: Le type oral d'examens et interrogations exige beaucoup de temps pour s'occuper de tous les élèves, et beaucoup de fonds car il faudrait augmenter le nombre de classes et d'enseignants (conséquences de la diminution du nombre d'élèves). (Tous sont de cet avis).

Q29:.....

I1: Oui et non. Oui, car les textes intéressants augmentent la motivation et l'intérêt, et poussent les élèves à persévérer. Non car, même en l'absence de tels textes, les élèves qui veulent réellement apprendre apprennent et réussissent.

Sin: En bref, y en a-t-il ou pas?

I1: Il y en a, mais ce n'est pas déterminant. (Tous partagent cette opinion).

Q30:.....

I10: Il n'est pas possible car l'Anglais comporte d'autres aspects, d'autres traits culturels qu'on ne trouve pas chez-nous... Essayer de le faire (ce qui est déjà une gageure) serait borner les élèves, restreindre le champ de ce qu'ils doivent connaître. (Tous sont d'accord).

I8: Il n'est pas nécessaire. Toutefois, on peut concevoir des textes aux contextes africains ou zairois, pour encourager, motiver et intéresser surtout les débutants. Mais ces textes devraient être utilisés ensemble avec ceux aux contextes autres qu'africains et zairois.

I4: Il n'est pas tellement bénéfique. Mais, comme viennent de le dire I8 et I10, on peut toujours le faire quelques fois. (Pas de commentaire de la part des autres).

Q31: .....[ Déjà répondu: cfr Q25 et Q27).

Q32:.....

I1: C'est un échec parce que le nombre de ceux qui parviennent à s'exprimer tant bien que mal en Anglais est très négligeable, comparé à celui de tous ceux qui ont appris cette langue. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q33 & Q34:.....

I3: Comme nous l'avions dit, il y a l'aspect méthodologie qui nécessite des changements dans le sens de motiver, encourager et intéresser plus les élèves à toujours apprendre, à toujours s'exprimer en Anglais...

I7: Ceci nécessite un investissement des fonds, car il faudrait multiplier le nombre de classes et d'enseignants.

I8: Il faudrait aussi équiper les écoles en labos de langues et autres matériels didactiques tels que livres de maître et d'élèves..

I9: Aussi les salaires et l'augmentation d'heures de cours. On peut tout changer et ne pas complètement réussir à améliorer substantiellement la situation si les enseignants ne sont pas plus motivés pour appliquer les réformes en question. En plus, il faudrait les recycler chaque fois, leur organiser des séances d'animation pédagogiques, des conférences et les envoyer en stage, afin qu'ils puissent toujours être à la page. Il faudrait aussi augmenter les heures de cours pour que les élèves puissent avoir un peu plus de temps et d'occasions pour pratiquer ce qu'ils apprennent. (Tous rient et sont d'accord).

Q35 & Q36:.....

I4: A court terme: La majoration des salaires et l'amélioration de la méthodologie d'enseignement.

I6: Et les séances de recyclage et d'animation pédagogiques.

I5: A moyen terme: La réduction du nombre d'élèves par classe et l'augmentation de celui d'enseignants et d'écoles, plus le reste (sauf les stages à l'étranger qui devront être à long terme).

I7 (intervient): Je crois que, à part ce que vous venez de proposer à court terme, les autres points devraient être exécutés à moyen terme. Il y a beaucoup d'argent dans ce pays, mais il est mal utilisé. (Tous rient).

Sin: Pensez-vous qu'il est possible de changer la méthodologie dans le sens que vous avez suggéré, et de l'appliquer aux classes nombreuses telles qu'on les a actuellement? Je dis ceci car vous venez de proposer le changement de méthodologie à court terme et la réduction du nombre d'élèves à moyen terme.

I10: Oui, il est possible. Bien sûr que les résultats ne seront pas à 100% ce qu'ils devraient être si l'enseignant avait affaire à peu d'élèves. Mais ce serait beaucoup mieux qu'actuellement.

I1: Si l'on veut que ces deux points soient exécutés en même temps c.à.d. à court terme, ce sera très difficile car les pouvoirs publics poseront des problèmes d'argent et cela prendra trop longtemps. Avec la méthodologie, il n'y a presque pas d'implication budgétaire.

Sin: Mais la majoration des salaires?

I1: Je crois que l'Etat pourrait toujours nous tromper avec 1 ou 2% (comme il en a l'habitude) et promettre une augmentation progressive, ou un système de primes d'encouragement. (Tous rient).

Sin: Alors, quels sont les changements qui vous semblent être urgents?

I2: L'amélioration de la méthodologie et des salaires. (Tous sont d'accord)

Q37:.....

I3: L'amélioration de la méthodologie.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce que c'est le seul outil que l'enseignant utilise presque à son gré: donc, il peut le transformer, l'adapter quand il le veut, comme il le veut. (Tous sont de cet avis).

Q38:.....

a)

I4: Ceci doit être conforme à ce qui se passe réellement en classe, et non pas basé principalement sur des théories. (Tout le monde est d'accord).

b)

I6: Comme nous venons de le dire, il faudrait que nous soyons toujours à la page dans notre domaine. Donc, nous devrions avoir beaucoup de conférences, de séances d'animation pédagogiques. (Tous approuvent).

Q39:.....

a)

I2: Si les salaires sont majorés et les conditions de travail améliorés, les enseignants seraient plus motivés pour travailler.

b)

I5: C'est l'Etat qui pose toujours des obstacles pour implanter des réformes dans le système, surtout si elles nécessitent des fonds. Dans ce que nous venons de proposer, l'amélioration de la méthodologie peut s'exécuter sans trop de retard, seulement si on ne l'associait pas tellement à ces aspects-là qui nécessitent des fonds.

c)

I7: Si tout est bien implanté, ça amènera une amélioration dans l'équipement en matériels didactiques.

d)

I8: Enfin, ce sont les élèves qui profiteront le plus si tous ces changements étaient réalisés. L'enseignement est conçu pour les élèves, et tout ce qui s'y fait est orienté vers l'amélioration de l'apprentissage. (Il n'y a pas d'objection de la part des autres).

## 2.1.5.6.

## THE MBUJIMAYI TEACHERS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT: GROUP 2

Q1 & Q2:.....

I3: Oui, surtout les langues maternelles.

I5: Ça dépend des cas. Je crois qu'il y a des fois ou même une autre langue que la langue maternelle est utilisée plus souvent que cette dernière.

Sin: Cas?

I5: Par exemple, dans notre cas, je crois que les élèves prennent plus le Français comme point de repère.

Sin: Les autres, votre point de vue? (Tous sont d'accord, excepté I3 qui insiste que c'est sont les langues maternelles).

I3: Je crois qu'au début de leur apprentissage, les élèves recourent beaucoup plus à leurs langues maternelles.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce qu'ils s'y trouvent plus à l'aise qu'en Français.

Sin: Et après?

I3: Après, quand ils maîtrisent plus le Français, ils y recourent plus.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce qu'il y a beaucoup de ressemblances entre ces deux langues.

I6 (intervient): Moi, je crois que même au commencement, le Français est le plus utilisé car les notions que nous enseignons au début sont déjà plus ou moins maîtrisées (en Français) par les élèves. Vu que ces deux langues ont beaucoup plus en commun, les élèves s'appuieront sur ces ressemblances pour apprendre l'Anglais.

I9: Bien, il y aura toujours des fois où ils utiliseront aussi leurs langues maternelles. Mais, je suis d'accord avec I6 que le Français le sera plus. (Tous sont du même avis, même I3).

Sin: Pourquoi et quand cela se fait-il?

I4: Quand les élèves rencontrent des obstacles qu'ils ne parviennent pas à surmonter avec les moyens de l'Anglais, alors ils recourent au Français, au Ciluba....

I1: Ils le font soit en utilisant carrément les mots ou structures de ces langues, soit en les adaptant à l'Anglais, soit en les prononçant en Anglais.

I10: Soit en utilisant des mots Anglais mais avec des règles... anglaises... (Tous

partagent cette opinion).

Q3:.....

I5: Les changements de l'expression du visage, des yeux, les gestes...

I8: Les mimiques,.... (Tous sont d'accord).

Q4 & Q5:.....

I3: Non. Mais on peut toujours essayer.

Sin: Même si on essayait, peut-on y arriver complètement?

I3: Non.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I3: Parce que ça se fait plus au niveau du subconscient que du conscient.

I7: Etant normale pour ceux qui apprennent une nouvelle langue, cette pratique ne peut pas être bannie.

I9: Comme nous l'avions dit, les élèves y recourent surtout quand ils sont en difficulté pour s'exprimer en Anglais.

I2: C'est quand leur connaissance de l'Anglais n'est pas encore assez large. Mais plus celle-ci s'agrandit, de moins en moins ils recourent à ces moyens. (Tous sont d'accord).

Sin: Est-ce qu'ils parviendront à ne jamais plus y recourir?

I1: En principe oui. Mais en pratique, ils ne cesseront jamais. Seulement les fréquences de recours seront si minimales qu'on croiera que ça n'existe pas. Mais en fait, ça existe.

I10: Oui. Même les natifs d'une langue donnée utilisent toujours des gestes... quand ils s'expriment dans leur langue.

Sin: Mais les langues apprises?

I10: Ce sera la même chose: quel que soit le niveau de maîtrise de la langue apprise, on ne peut malheureusement pas ne pas s'empêcher (d'une manière ou d'une autre) de considérer les langues qu'on connaît déjà mieux. (Tous sont du même avis).

Q6, Q7 & Q8:.....

I2: Non, car c'est une pratique naturelle, normale, et inévitable pour ceux qui apprennent une autre langue. (Tous approuvent).

I9: Dans ce sens, nous tous suivons cette même voie.

Sin: Vous tous?

I9; Je veux dire tous ceux qui apprennent une autre langue: nous les enseignants, nos élèves...

Sin: Si vous suiviez la même voie, vous pourriez maîtriser la langue d'une même façon et avec une même rapidité!

I6 (intervient): Le principe est le même. Mais la rapidité d'apprentissage et le passage d'une étape de l'apprentissage à une autre une autre différent.

Sin: C'est à dire?

I6: Il y a d'autres facteurs qui interviennent qui font que tel élève se trouve plus à l'aise avec telle ou telle autre notion et dans un tel ou tel autre climat qu'un autre élève. Mais, le principe de base, c.à.d. la voie est la même.

Sin: C.à.d.?

I6: Moins on connaît la langue qu'on apprend, plus on recourt aux gestes et langues qu'on connaît mieux. Plus on connaît cette langue, de moins en moins on y recourt. Ceci s'applique à tous ceux qui apprennent une langue autre que la leur. (Tous partagent ce point de vue).

Q9:.....

I8: Nous ne devrions pas interdire aux élèves de suivre la voie naturelle et normale d'apprentissage, comme beaucoup de méthodes le font.

Sin: C.à.d.?

I8: Beaucoup de méthodes (y compris celles que nous utilisons) nous recommandent de ne pas recourir aux langues que les élèves connaissent déjà, de ne pas beaucoup utiliser les gestes ni permettre aux élèves d'en faire autant. Nous devrions au contraire suivre comment les élèves apprennent et adapter notre enseignement à cela.

Sin: C'est à dire leur permettre d'utiliser tout ça?

I8: Oui.

I4 (intervient): Si on le faisait, ils finiront par trop y recourir que ce ne sera pas de l'Anglais qu'ils finiront par apprendre...

I8: Il ne faut pas leur laisser toute latitude de le faire. Il faudrait leur faire sentir dans ce qu'on fait et comment on le fait que cette pratique est seulement tolérée, et qu'ils doivent faire tout et vite pour en diminuer sérieusement la fréquence d'utilisation.

I4: Là, je suis d'accord avec vous.

Sin: A tous les niveaux?

I4: Je crois qu'au début, il faudrait être plus tolérant car les élèves ne maîtrisent pas encore assez bien la langue. Dans les classes supérieures, il faudrait l'être de moins en moins.

Sin: Les autres? (Ils sont d'accord). Pourquoi?



I7: Parce que si on est très exigeant au début, on risque de pousser les élèves au mutisme, ce qui pourrait après se transformer en découragement, mépris et désintéressement.

Sin: Et quand on le fait?

I2: Les élèves sont encouragés à s'exprimer, découvrant ainsi leurs faiblesses et leurs forces. Ce qui permet à l'enseignant de les bien corriger.

Sin: Et comment devrait se faire cette correction?

I9: Je crois qu'au début surtout, il faudrait tout faire pour ne pas blesser l'amour propre des élèves. C.à.d. il ne faudrait pas les corriger ouvertement, et leur faire sentir qu'ils ne connaissent rien et qu'ils ne pourraient pas maîtriser la langue.

I1: Comme nous l'avions dit, quand ils auront maîtrisé assez de l'Anglais, il ne sentiront pas le besoin de recourir souvent aux gestes et langues qu'ils connaissent déjà mieux. Ainsi, c'est au professeur de savoir comment s'y prendre. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q10 & Q11:.....

I10: En ce qui me concerne, j'ai suivi et continue encore à suivre cette même voie.

Sin: Tu continues?

I10: Oui, car j'apprends toujours. (Les autres partagent aussi ce point de vue).

Q12:.....

I4: Beaucoup d'élèves ne travaillent pas comme il faut. Beaucoup sont découragés et semblent se désintéresser du cours. (Les autres sont d'accord).

I1 (intervient): Mais toutefois, il y en a qui travaillent comme il faut et font tout pour continuer à réussir.

Sin: Continuer à réussir?

I1: Oui, car ceux qui montrent de l'intérêt pour le cours sont ceux qui, dans la plupart des cas, réussissent aux interros et examens, et parviennent tant bien que mal à essayer de s'exprimer.

I7: Il y en a qui ne réussissent pas aux interros et examens, mais qui se débrouillent assez bien dans le parler. Ils montrent aussi beaucoup d'intérêt dans le cours, mais sont très peu nombreux. (Les autres acceptent ces points de vue).

Q13 & Q14:.....

I3: Oui. La façon d'enseigner et l'attitude de l'enseignant envers le cours et les élèves... contribuent beaucoup à la façon de travailler des élèves et leur attitude générale envers le cours et l'Anglais.

I5: En effet, un enseignant très autoritaire dans sa façon de corriger, par exemple, va

frustrer beaucoup d'élèves faibles, voire même ceux qui sont forts dans le cours.

I6: Comme nous l'avons vu, la façon d'enseigner peut soit encourager les élèves soit les décourager.

Q15:.....

I5: Oui. Ceci se remarque surtout à l'attitude qu'ont les débutants. Ils commencent le cours avec vigueur, intérêt... Ils sont motivés par ce qu'ils voient dans la société: ceux qui connaissent l'Anglais commencent à être beaucoup plus considérés que ceux qui ne connaissent que le Français. Ainsi, ils viennent au cours déjà motivés.

Sin: Tous?

I5: La plupart. (Tous sont d'accord).

Sin: Alors, comment se fait-il qu'ils ne réussissent pas tous?

I9: Je crois que cette motivation du départ est tuée chez la plupart par les réalités de la classe.

Sin: C.à.d.?

I5: Il y en a qui se découragent à cause des enseignants, leurs façons d'enseigner, de corriger..., leur attitude générale envers les élèves...

I2: Il y en a aussi qui trouvent que l'Anglais est plus difficile à apprendre à cause des différences entre les façons de prononcer et d'écrire les mots. (En général, tous sont de ces avis).

Q16, Q17 & Q18:.....

I7: Il est évident que ceux qui connaissent le Français ou l'Anglais sont mieux vus ici chez-nous. Mais celui qui connaît toutes ces deux langues l'est encore plus que celui qui ne connaît que le Français. Nos langues nationales ne font presque pas de poids vis-à-vis de ces deux langues étrangères.

Sin: Mais entre ces deux langues, laquelle semble être supérieure à l'autre ici chez-nous?

I10: C'est le Français. Mais seulement parce qu'elle est notre langue officielle et d'instruction, et est liée à notre histoire. Elle est plus utilisée. Mais l'Anglais, malgré son histoire très récente ici chez-nous, jouit déjà d'un statut qui semble menacer de plus en plus celui du Français.

I9: Mais dans le monde, c'est l'Anglais qui est la langue internationale et il le sera encore dans les années à venir.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I8 (intervient): Parce qu'il est la langue des échanges commerciales, de l'ONU, des

sciences et technologie... Et le progrès de beaucoup de nations au monde semble passer par la connaissance de cette langue. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q19:.....

I6: Le vocabulaire: La matière à enseigner est introduite grâce aux gestes... et objets concrets. Elle est introduite oralement, et les élèves répètent après le professeur. Puis celui-ci écrit les mots... (un à chaque étape) au tableau et les souligne, ainsi de suite jusqu'à ce que tous les items programmés sont introduits. Puis vient le contrôle et l'application. Le but ici est de voir si les élèves ont bien compris ce qui a été enseigné. L'enseignant pose des questions et les élèves doivent répondre en utilisant les items enseignés. Puis, ils se posent des questions diverses entre eux dans le but que le professeur puisse voir s'ils sont capables d'utiliser ce qu'ils ont appris dans d'autres situations. Le rôle du professeur ici est de constater et quelques fois de corriger (au cas où les élèves n'y parviennent pas eux-mêmes). A la fin de cette phase, l'enseignant repose des questions aux élèves et écrit certaines réponses-clé au tableau qui constitueront le texte que les élèves recopieront dans leurs cahiers. (Les autres utilisent aussi cette même méthode).

Sin: Utilisez-vous les gestes et objets concrets pour tous les mots...?

I1: Non. Pour certains mots abstraits, moi j'utilise les équivalents Français, ou des explications en Anglais.

I8: Moi, je recours très rarement à la traduction. J'explique seulement.

Sin: Et si les explications ne suffisent pas?

I8: Alors, je laisse tomber, quitte à l'élève d'aller se débrouiller après pour comprendre. (Six disent ne pas utiliser la traduction; quatre le font très rarement. Mais tous n'autorisent pas les élèves de recourir soit aux gestes soit aux langues qu'ils connaissent déjà).

I10: La grammaire: J'applique la même méthode que pour le vocabulaire, sauf que les items à introduire ici sont des structures grammaticales. (Tous font la même chose, et la même division est aussi observée ici en ce qui concerne l'usage du recours aux gestes... et éléments des langues que les élèves connaissent déjà).

I4: La lecture: Le professeur lit une fois le texte et les élèves suivent, leurs livres fermés. Puis l'enseignant leur pose quelques questions de compréhension générale. Puis, ils ouvrent leurs livres et lisent silencieusement (paragraphe par paragraphe) et l'enseignant leur pose chaque fois des questions plus détaillées. Après, il y a deux possibilités: quand le texte est long, je continue avec les questions jusqu'à la fin de

la leçon. Si le texte est court, et si les questions sont épuisées avant la fin de la leçon, alors je demande aux élèves de lire par petits groupes ou individuellement à haute voix, et je les corrige. (Tous appliquent la même méthode, sauf qu'il y a des différences sur la dernière partie).

I3: Moi, je fais toujours la lecture à haute voix, quelle que soit la longueur du texte.

Sin: C.à.d.?

I3: Je fais toujours en sorte que le texte soit assez court pour que les questions se terminent avant la fin pour me permettre de faire la lecture à haute voix. (Appuyé par I1, I5, I7, I9 et I10. Les autres appuient I4).

Sin: Quel est l'objectif de la leçon de lecture?

I10 (appuyé par I1, I3, I5, I7, I9): C'est d'enseigner la prononciation.

I8 (appuyé par I2, I4 et I6): C'est de voir si les élèves comprennent ce qu'ils lisent et ce qui leur est lu.

Sin: Alors, corrigez-vous les fautes de prononciation?

I2: Oui, quand elles interfèrent sérieusement avec la signification de ce qui est lu. C.à.d. quand elles empêchent les élèves de comprendre. Dans les autres cas, on laisse passer. (Avis partagé par ceux de son groupe).

I1: En ce qui me concerne, je corrige toutes les fautes que je décèle. (Appuyé par ceux de son groupe).

Sin: Alors, est-ce que les élèves parviennent à lire comme il faut, c.à.d. à verbaliser sans problème?

I1: Certains, oui.

Sin: Et que faites-vous quand ils n'y parviennent pas?

I9: On leur montre comment le faire.

Sin: Et s'ils n'y parviennent toujours pas?

I9: Alors, je laisse tomber.

Sin: Qu'est-ce qui peut arriver si on insiste trop sur la prononciation?

I6 (intervient): Les élèves risquent de ne plus parler.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I8: Parce que (comme nous l'avions dit avant) ils ne peuvent pas ne pas commettre de fautes: c'est très normal et inévitable. Alors, si on veut qu'ils parlent sans faute, c'est qu'on leur demande l'impossible. D'où ils finiront par ne plus oser ouvrir la bouche! (I1, I3, I5, I7, I9 et I10 ne répondent pas et semblent embarrassés. Les autres semblent s'en réjouir).

I6: La conversation: Le but est de corriger la prosodie et d'encourager les élèves à s'exprimer. Je lis le texte et écris tous les mots-clé au tableau. Puis, les élèves les lisent. Puis, je leur distribue les rôles. Ils passent au tableau et essaient de répliquer le dialogue original. Je tolère qu'ils utilisent d'autres mots, expressions... tant que la signification originale est là. J'interviens seulement pour corriger la prononciation, et surtout la prosodie quand la signification est menacée. Cela va jusqu'à la fin de la leçon.

I5: Moi, je procède comme vient de le dire I6, mais je divise la leçon en deux grandes mini-leçons: la première va jusqu'au moment où les élèves passent au tableau pour faire le dialogue. Les élèves repètent les mots au tableau dans le but de les mémoriser. Ils les utilisent alors pendant la première présentation. Ils ne sont pas autorisés d'utiliser d'autres mots... exceptés ceux introduits par l'enseignant. La deuxième mini-leçon consiste en la présentation du dialogue par les élèves, mais cette fois-ci il leur est permis d'introduire ce qu'ils désirent, mais tout en gardant la signification originale. (I1, I3, I7, I9 et I10 l'appuient. Les autres partagent le point de vue de I6).

Q20:.....

I1: L'exactitude, parce qu'on ne peut pas parler et se faire comprendre sans être exact. (Appuyé par I3, I5, I7, I9 et I10).

I8 (appuyé par I2, I4 et I6): La spontanéité. Car tout d'abord, il faut que les élèves se sentent à l'aise pour parler. Deuxièmement, vu qu'ils ne peuvent pas parler sans commettre d'erreurs, leur demander de le faire (en insistant sur l'exactitude) est très dangereux puisque ça pourrait les pousser au mutisme. Et les conséquences sont très significatives.

Sin: Peut-on parler librement sans être exact, et se faire comprendre? (Tous acceptent).

Sin: Pouvons-nous parler correctement Anglais, c.à.d. sans commettre de fautes? (Tous secouent la tête)

Q21: .....

I10: Comme nous l'avions dit, très peu d'élèves parviennent à travailler comme il faut. La majorité d'élèves est amorphe.

I6: Or, ces méthodes visent à ce que les élèves puissent être plus actifs que les professeurs!

Q22:.....

I10: Oui et non. Oui, quand on nous demande de ne pas autoriser les élèves à recourir

aux gestes et langues qu'ils connaissent déjà, et en même temps on voudrait qu'ils puissent participer pleinement aux leçons. Ce qui ne semble pas se marier. Dans ce sens, il y a contradiction avec ce qui se passe réellement en classe, et chez les élèves. Il y a similitude quand on nous demande d'enseigner l'Anglais en Anglais.

I6: En fait, on devrait tolérer le recours aux gestes et langues que les élèves connaissent déjà, surtout durant les premières années de l'apprentissage. Ceci n'empêcherait pas les élèves de maîtriser la langue.

I2: Donc, il y a et contradiction et similitude entre la théorie et la pratique comme nous la vivons en classe. (Tous acceptent).

Q23 & Q24:.....

I8: Si beaucoup d'élèves échouent, c'est parce qu'on leur demande (surtout au début) de faire ce qu'ils ne peuvent pas encore faire à ce niveau-là. S'exprimer en Anglais en faisant abstraction aux gestes et langues qu'ils connaissent déjà. Si nous voulons renverser la situation, nous devrions essayer d'adapter nos méthodes d'enseignement à ce que font les élèves quand ils apprennent.

I1: Dans ce sens, on ne les frustrerait pas.

Sin: Est-ce que les élèves font la même chose à tous les niveaux?

I1: Non. Comme nous l'avons dit, ce sont les débutants qui recourent plus à ces moyens-là vu qu'ils ne maîtrisent pas encore bien la langue. Plus ils le font (c.à.d. plus ils progressent et passent d'un niveau à un autre) moins ils y recourent, et plus ils s'appuient sur l'Anglais pour étudier cette langue. (Tous sont d'accord).

I7: Donc, une bonne méthode d'enseignement devrait tenir compte de ces réalités.

I5: Il y a des dangers à adopter cela, mais les avantages sont plus importants. Le vrai danger est que les élèves ne fassent de ces techniques-là une habitude difficile à s'en défaire et qu'ils ne continuent à les appliquer plus tard même là où ce n'est pas vraiment nécessaire.

I9 (intervient): Mais, si le professeur est assez psychologue et sait comment s'y prendre pour commencer à décourager cette pratique au moment opportun, ce danger sera évité.

I4 (intervient): D'ailleurs, les élèves eux-mêmes (ceux qui progressent normalement) le feront d'eux-mêmes une fois que leur maîtrise de la langue grandit. Donc, l'enseignant n'aura qu'à les motiver un peu pour qu'ils le fassent. (Tous partagent ces avis).

Sin: Alors, les avantages?

I2: C'est surtout pour les débutants. L'avantage majeur est que cette approche en-

courage les élèves à s'exprimer, à découvrir leurs points forts et faibles. En s'exprimant librement, ils pourront se corriger et se faire corriger par l'enseignant; ils seront encouragés et aimeront le cours. (Tous approuvent).

Q25:.....

I3: Le bon élève est celui qui parle librement, qui pose des questions, qui étudie ses leçons.

I7: Celui qui cherche toujours à connaître plus, qui n'attend pas que l'enseignant le pousse à apprendre.

I5: Celui qui ne se décourage pas quelle que soit la situation, qui a toujours confiance qu'il réussira à maîtriser la langue...

I1: Aussi celui qui satisfait aux interros et examens.

Sin: Peut-on échouer aux examens et interros, mais tout de même réussir à s'exprimer en Anglais?

I1: Oui. Il y a des élèves qui s'expriment même mieux que ceux qui réussissent aux examens, mais qui ne parviennent pas à avoir les points qu'il faut aux examens et interros.

Sin: Alors, d'après vous, qui est celui qui réussit: est-ce celui qui a les points mais ne s'exprime pas, ou celui qui s'exprime mais n'a pas les points qu'il faut?

I1: Je crois que c'est celui qui s'exprime et qui a les points.

Sin: Mais entre les deux?

I1: En tant qu'enseignant, et vu l'objectif du cours, c'est celui qui réussit à s'exprimer, même s'il n'a pas les points. Mais, comme l'élève doit passer, je crois qu'il a aussi besoin de points.

I9: C'est ça le grand problème: la réussite est comprise différemment par les enseignants et les autorités scolaires.

Sin: Mais, s'il vous était donné de définir les conditions de réussite et d'échec en Anglais?

I9: Pour moi, ce serait celui qui s'exprimerait qui réussirait.

I6: ... Et écrirait assez bien. Ecrire n'est pas aussi important que parler, mais il est le deuxième objectif. Donc, on devrait accorder 70% à l'expression et 30% à l'orthographe. (En grandes lignes, tous sont d'accord).

Q26:.....

I2: Oraux-écrits. (Les autres sont du même avis).

Sin: Pourquoi?

I10: Comme viennent de le dire I6 et I9, réussir dans une langue, c'est pouvoir la parler et l'écrire. Mais, le plus important est de pouvoir la parler car c'est ça l'objectif principal. Ecrire une langue est secondaire, mais également important, surtout dans ce siècle et pour nous.

I6: Aussi, il faudrait tester les élèves sur tous ces deux aspects. Ceci pour donner la chance à tous de pouvoir réussir.

I4: Combiner l'oral et l'écrit est aussi important en ce qui concerne la cotation. Les deux types se complètent et se renforcent, pour le bien des élèves. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q27:.....

I10: Non. Il pousse les élèves à plus maîtriser l'aspect écrit de la langue. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q28:.....

I4: Nombre d'élèves: Il faut introduire le type oral-écrit et ainsi, réduire le nombre d'élèves par enseignant et par classe. (Tous sont d'accord).

I2: Communiquer: C'est parler et écrire la langue, mais l'accent est sur le parler.

I8: C'est se faire comprendre quand on parle (ou écrit) et comprendre les autres quand ils parlent (ou écrivent).

Sin: Même considération pour les deux aspects?

I8: Non. Le parler est plus important. (Les autres sont d'accord).

I5: Le temps et les fonds: La réduction du nombre d'élèves demande un investissement des fonds dans ce sens qu'on devra augmenter le nombre de classes et d'enseignants. Donc on devra construire d'autres écoles et engager d'autres enseignants, équiper ces écoles-là... Et ceci demande du temps.

I7: Mais, ça peut se faire même sans fonds. On peut toujours instituer les examens oraux-écrits et demander aux enseignants d'en faire l'application immédiate, en attendant qu'on réduise le nombre d'élèves et résolve les problèmes y relatifs. (Les autres sont d'accord, mais insistent sur le fait que les résultats seront moins meilleurs que si on appliquait toutes ces réformes en même temps).

I7: Vous savez aussi bien que moi que là où il y a argent, notre gouvernement semble toujours prendre tout son temps. Si nous voulons commencer à améliorer l'enseignement de l'Anglais, nous pouvons commencer dès maintenant (en attendant que les fonds soient disponibles).

Q29:.....



I3: Oui. Quand les textes sont intéressants, ils augmentent la motivation et l'intérêt des élèves. Ainsi, ils persévèrent.

I6 (intervient): Mais, même quand les textes ne sont pas très intéressants, les élèves qui veulent réellement apprendre persévèrent toujours. Mais, ce que vous venez de dire est, dans une certaine mesure, correct.

Sin: Dans une certaine mesure?

I6: Oui. On peut toujours utiliser des textes intéressants pour renforcer l'intérêt des élèves. Mais, ceci est secondaire. Le plus important est que les élèves aient déjà de la motivation au départ et qu'elle soit soutenue. (Pas de commentaire des autres).

Q30:.....

I5: Il n'est ni possible ni tellement nécessaire ou bénéfique. Pas possible car on limiterait ce que les élèves devraient apprendre...

I9: Nécessaire: Pour les débutants, il est plus ou moins nécessaire car ça pourrait renforcer leur intérêt pour le cours. Mais en général, ce n'est pas très nécessaire...

I8: Bénéfique: Pour renforcer la motivation, surtout des débutants. Mais si on doit le faire pour tous les textes, alors ce serait très néfaste car on réduirait le champ de ce que les élèves devraient apprendre...

Sin: Alors, peut-on le faire?

I6: Oui, mais en partie seulement, et pour un temps bien déterminé.

Sin: Quel temps?

I6: Surtout au début. Il est toutefois important que les textes ou le contexte soit en partie africain ou zairois et puissent être utilisés en combinaison avec ceux où il est plus international, et anglais. (Tout le monde semble d'accord).

Q31:.....: (Déjà répondu: voir Q26).

Q32:.....

I10: En général, quand on considère le nombre de tous ceux qui apprennent l'Anglais et ceux qui parviennent à y communiquer avec satisfaction, on voit que c'est un échec. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q33, Q34, Q35 & Q36:.....

I4: L'adaptation des méthodes d'enseignement à la manière que les élèves apprennent réellement est ce qu'il faut faire d'urgence. A cela, il faudrait ajouter l'encouragement des enseignants en ce qui concerne leurs salaires et les conditions de travail en général. La réduction du nombre d'élèves par enseignant, l'augmentation du nombre d'enseignants et de classes peuvent se faire à moyen terme, et le reste à long terme.

I9: Comme l'a dit I4, je crois que l'amélioration de la méthodologie et des conditions de travail des enseignants est très impérieuse. Le reste peut se faire après, car ça demande beaucoup de fonds.

Sin: En quoi particulièrement la méthodologie doit-elle être améliorée?

I5: En l'adaptant à ce que font les élèves quand ils apprennent. Ceci pour les motiver, les encourager et les pousser à dévoiler ce dont ils sont capables. Ainsi on pourrait bien les corriger, et eux-mêmes pourraient aussi se corriger et progresser. Ne dit-on pas que la meilleure façon d'apprendre à parler est de parler?

I3: Il faut aussi équiper les écoles en livres de base. Ceci peut se faire à court terme vu que ça ne nécessite pas d'énormes fonds. (Tous sont d'avis que l'approche méthodologique et la majoration des salaires sont les deux aspects qui nécessitent un changement urgent).

I10: Il faudrait aussi songer à augmenter les heures de cours par semaine, pour permettre aux élèves de s'exercer beaucoup plus. (Tous sont approuvent).

Q37:.....

I7: La méthode d'enseignement car c'est ça son seul grand outil de travail. En plus, il est le seul à l'utiliser. D'où, il peut le transformer à sa guise, l'adapter à ses convictions, comme il le veut, quand il le veut... (Les autres partagent le même avis).

Q38:.....

a)

I2: L'enseignement et le stage pratique des futurs enseignants d'Anglais doivent inclure la théorie et son application réaliste aux réalités de la classe. En bref, les futurs enseignants doivent être capables d'interpréter les diverses situations où ils seront et savoir y adapter les théories apprises. (Tous approuvent).

b)

I5: Les enseignants doivent avoir beaucoup d'occasions de se recycler et d'apprendre (grâce aux séances de recyclage, aux conférences, séances d'animation pédagogique, stages...) afin qu'ils soient toujours à la pointe de ce qui se passe dans l'enseignement. (Tous sont d'accord).

Q39:.....

a)

I8: Si l'on appliquait les réformes proposées comme il faut, elles auront un impact positif sur la façon de travailler de l'enseignant: il sera plus motivé par son salaire, les conditions de travail et aussi par la satisfaction personnelle des résultats que son

enseignement aura.

b)

I1: Comme on doit s'y attendre, les administrateurs et pourvoyeurs des fonds essayeront par tous les moyens de bloquer ces réformes vu que ça nécessite des fonds. Ils pourraient se montrer plus conciliants sur celles qui n'exigent pas beaucoup de fonds.

c)

I10: Si ces propositions sont bien introduites, elles amélioreront l'infrastructure scolaire.

d)

I7: Si tout se fait comme proposé, les conditions d'apprentissage se trouveront améliorées et, le tout pour le bien des élèves. (Il n'y a pas d'objection: tout le monde partage ces points de vue).

## APPENDIX 2.2.

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### Inspectors' Interviews

#### CONTENTS

The 'Fiche Signalétique du Participant'(2.2.1.)

Interview Guide (2.2.2.)

Interview Schedule (2.2.3.)

Table 22: Summary of Inspectors' Personal Details (2.2.4.)

Interview Transcripts (2.2.5.)

    The Mwenditu Inspector's Interview Transcript (2.2.5.1.)

    The Miabi Inspector's Interview Transcript (2.2.5.2.)

## 2.2.1.

## FICHE SIGNALÉTIQUE DE L'INTERVIEWE

(A) Nom et postnom:.....

(B) Age:.....ans

(C) Sexe: Masculin/ Féminin \*

(D) Etudes faites :

-Secondaires:

a) Nombre d'années:.....

b) Section:.....

c) Option:.....

d) Diplôme/Titre:.....

e) Année d'obtention: 19....

-Post-secondaires: OUI / NON \*

(si OUI)

a) Institution(s):.....

b) Nombre d'années:.....

c) Section:.....

d) Option:.....

e) Diplôme(s)/Titre(s):.....

(E) Expérience professionnelle :

a) Profession avant d'être nommé inspecteur d'Anglais:.....

b) Nombre d'années dans cette profession:.....

c) Année de nomination comme inspecteur d'Anglais : 19...

d) Nombre approximatif de stages de :

-Perfectionnement à l'étranger:.....

-Recyclage au Zaïre:

. Au Kasai Oriental:.....

. Ailleurs :.....

e) Nombre approximatif de conférences, réunions et séances de recyclage TENUES

(en matière d'enseignement de l'Anglais):

. Conférences:.....

- . Réunions :.....
- . Séances de recyclage:.....
- (F) Langue(s) maternelle(s):.....
- (G) Langues parlées ( moins les langues maternelles):
  - a) Zairoises:.....
  - b) Etrangères:.....
- (H) Langues connues mais NON PARLEES:.....

## 2.2.2.

## INSPECTORS' INTERVIEW GUIDE

The interview focuses on six main areas:

1. *Processus d'apprentissage et stratégies de communication*

a) Rôle des langues connues (dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais)

b) Moyens utilisés (dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais):

\* Gestes

\* Mimes

\* Références aux langues connues

c) Pratique normale ou anormale?

d) Circonstances et Raisons (pour moyens utilisés)

e) Rapport: Progression Apprentissage/ Utilisation moyens dans (b)

2. *Facteurs Affectifs et Motivationnels*

a) Etudiants: Façon de travailler

\* Motivation

\* Persévérance

\* Découragement...

b) Influence de l'enseignant sur (a)

\* Façon d'enseigner

\* Attitude envers l'Anglais

\* Encouragement/ Découragement-t-il...?

c) Influence de la société sur (a)

\* Attitude envers:

-Langues Zairoises

-Langues étrangères: (Français Vs Anglais).

3. *Méthodes d'enseignement de l'Anglais*

a) Méthodes utilisées pour enseigner:

\* Grammaire

- \* Vocabulaire
- \* Lecture
- \* Conversation
  - b) Réactions des étudiants (à ces méthodes)
  - c) Méthodes utilisées / Méthodes apprises (quand étudiant): (Similitudes? Différences?)
  - d) Conclusions:
- \* (a) Vs (b) Vs (c)
- \* Bonne Méthode d'enseignement: 1) -au début (à + 3 mois); 2) -après et 3) -avantages/ désavantages/ dangers.

#### 4. *Genres: Examen/ Interros, et Textes*

- a) Interros et Examen:
  - \* Oraux? Ecrits? Oraux-Ecrits?
  - \* Relation (C-E): Type Examen/ Interro et Motivation/ Persévérance des étudiants à essayer de communiquer en Anglais?
- b) Textes:
  - \* Relation (C-E): Textes et Motivation et Persévérance des étudiants à essayer de communiquer en Anglais?
  - \* Autre relation?
  - \* POSSIBLE, NECESSAIRE et BENEFIQUE:
    - Adapter textes aux contextes purement Zairois, et continuer d'enseigner COMME IL FAUT l'Anglais (Langue + Culture)?

#### 5. *Bon enseignant : Caractéristiques*

Définition du BON enseignant par:

- a) les étudiants
- b) l'inspecteur (quand étudiant)
- c) l'inspecteur (quand inspecteur)

#### 6. *Résultats: Enseignement de l'Anglais*

- a) Définition SUCCES / ECHEC
- b) ELT (Succès / Echech?)
- \* En Classe



\* Ville/ Village...

\* Kasai Oriental

c) Eléments de Succès/ Echec

d) Changements/ Améliorations/ Innovations (si Echec/ Succès)

e) Effets des changements/ améliorations/ innovations: (Résistance, Opposition, Allégeance...)

\* sur Personnes (étudiants, enseignants, administrateurs, et pourvoyeurs des fonds)

\* sur Matériel

f) Pourquoi y a-t-il résistances, oppositions, allégeance?

g) Comment venir à bout de ces résistances, oppositions?

*AJOUTES/ REMARQUES (par les interviewés)*

## 2.2.3.

## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. *Introduction*

## A. Introducing the interview:

- \* Aims and Objectives (of the interview)
- \* How the interview was to be conducted

## B. Collecting the Fiche Signalétique

II. *Interview Session*

## (CORE QUESTIONS)

## SECTION I: PROCESSUS D'APPRENTISSAGE ET STRATEGIES DE COMMUNICATION

a) *Rôle des langues connues..*

(1) Les langues que l'élève/ étudiant connaît déjà jouent un rôle dans son apprentissage de l'Anglais. Qu'en pensez-vous?

(2) Quelles langues d'après vous est-ce que l'élève/ étudiant utilise beaucoup plus dans son apprentissage de l'Anglais? Pourquoi? Comment? Quand?..

b) *Moyens utilisés...*

(3) Quels autres moyens les élèves/ étudiants utilisent-ils pour se faire comprendre quand ils essaient de parler Anglais?... (Gestes, mimes, coups d'oeil...)

c) *Pratique normale ou anormale?*

(4) Pensez-vous qu'il est possible de bannir cette pratique chez les élèves/ étudiants? (Explications).

d) *Circonstances et Raisons de (c)*

(5) Les élèves/ étudiants recourent le plus à ces techniques et tactiques-là: Quand? Pourquoi?

(6) Croyez-vous qu'utiliser ces techniques et tactiques est un signe de manque d'intelligence? Pourquoi?

e) *Progression Apprentissage/ Utilisation moyens ci-haut*

(7) Si vous comparez la progression dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais ou de n'importe quelle autre langue apprise, que remarquez-vous? ....

(8) Que pouvez-vous dire de la façon dont les élèves/ étudiants utilisent les techniques et tactiques discutées ci-haut: (Rapport progression de l'apprentissage et moyens utilisés)

(9) Quelles sont vos conclusions?...

(10) Parlez-nous de votre propre expérience d'élève/ étudiant d'Anglais (en la comparant à ce qui précède): Différente? La même chose?...

(11) Et aujourd'hui en tant qu'inspecteur d'Anglais: Comparaison avec ce qui précède....

## SECTION II.: FACTEURS AFFECTIFS ET MOTIVATIONNELS

a) *Motivation, persévérance...*

(12) Qu'avez-vous constaté chez les élèves/ étudiants en ce qui concerne leur façon de travailler en Anglais?

b) *Influence de l'enseignant...*

(13) En tant qu'INSPECTEUR croyez-vous que le professeur est un élément important qui pourrait influencer la façon de travailler des élèves/ étudiants? (Explications).

(14) Pensez-vous que la façon d'enseigner a une certaine influence sur la façon de travailler des élèves/ étudiants et leur attitude envers l'Anglais? Pourquoi?

c) *Influence de la société*

(15) La société influence aussi la façon de travailler des élèves/ étudiants. Qu'en pensez-vous?

(16) D'après vous, quels sont les statuts des langues étrangères enseignées au Zaïre: Aujourd'hui et demain? Et ici au Kasai Oriental?...

(17) Le statut des langues nationales Zaïroises comparé à celui des langues étrangères enseignées au Zaïre.

(18) Langue internationale: Aujourd'hui et demain? Raisons.

### SECTION III.: LES METHODES D'ENSEIGNEMENT DE L'ANGLAIS

(en relation avec ce qui précède.)

a) *Méthodes utilisées*

(19) Décrivez brièvement les méthodes utilisées par les enseignants pour enseigner: La grammaire, le vocabulaire, la lecture, et la conversation.

(20) A quel aspect de la langue les professeurs donnent-ils la priorité pendant les leçons: L'exactitude (ACCURACY) de ce qui est dit ou la spontanéité (FLUENCY) dans le parler? POURQUOI?

b) *Réactions des élèves/ étudiants...*

(21) Comment est-ce que les élèves/ étudiants réagissent à ces méthodes?

c) *Méthodes utilisées Vs Méthodes apprises*

(22) Y a-t-il contradictions/ similitudes entre les méthodes que vous observez et celles qui vous ont été apprises au cours de Didactique Spéciale d'Anglais? Explications.

d) *Conclusions*

(23) Quelles sont vos conclusions quand vous considérez ce qui précède?

(24) D'après tout ce qui précède, quelles sont les lignes maîtresses d'une bonne méthode d'enseignement de l'Anglais:

- Au debut de l'apprentissage?
- Apres ?
- Avantages/ Désavantages/ Dangers?

#### *SECTION IV: GENRES D'INTERROS/EXAMEN, et TEXTES*

(25) Quel type d'interrogation/ examen voudriez-vous voir instaurer dans l'enseignement de l'Anglais? (Oral? Ecrit? Oral-Ecrit?) Pourquoi?

(26) Y a-t-il une relation entre le type d'interro/ examen posé en Anglais et la motivation/ persévérance des étudiants à essayer de communiquer en cette langue?

-Quel type de relation?(C-E,...?)

(27) Y a-t-il une relation entre le genre (=contenu) de textes utilisés pour enseigner l'Anglais et la motivation des étudiants à essayer de parler cette langue? (Expliquez-vous)

(28) Croyez-vous qu'il est POSSIBLE, NECESSAIRE, et BENEFIQUE d'adapter ces textes aux contextes PUREMENT Zairois? -Expliquez-vous.

*SECTION V. : LES CARACTERISTIQUES DU BON ENSEIGNANT D'ANGLAIS.*

(29) Définitions du bon enseignant d'Anglais d'après :

- \* les élèves/ étudiants
- \* vous (quand étudiant)
- \* vous (comme inspecteur d'Anglais)

*SECTION VI: ENSEIGNEMENT D'ANGLAIS AU KASAI ORIENTAL.*

a) *Définitions: REUSSITE/ ECHEC*

(30) Qu'entendez-vous par ECHEC/ REUSSITE (en Anglais)?

b) *ELT: Réussite ou Echec (au Kasai Oriental)*

(31) D'après vous, est-ce que l'enseignement de l'Anglais au Kasai Oriental est une réussite ou un échec? (Justifiez votre réponse).

Si c'est un SUCCES: éléments de succès, et pourquoi.

Si c'est un ECHEC: éléments d'échec, et pourquoi.

(32) Si c'est un échec, quels sont les points qui nécessitent un changement ou une amélioration?

(33) Les changements et améliorations que VOUS proposez. (Explications)

(34) Parmi les éléments au (31), quels sont ceux qui peuvent être changés et ou améliorés à :

Court terme? (Explications)

Moyen terme? (Explications)

Long terme? (Explications)

(35) Quels éléments nécessitent un changement URGENT?

(36) Parmi ces éléments, quels sont ceux qui peuvent être manipulés à l'école par

le professeur avec ou sans la permission de la direction? (Explications + comment, pourquoi, quand ?)

(37) En rapport avec ce qui précède, que proposez-VOUS comme changements et améliorations en ce qui concerne:

- a) l'enseignement et le stage pratique des futurs enseignants d'Anglais?
- b) l'éducation permanente des enseignants d'Anglais?
- c) les stages de perfectionnement et de recyclage des inspecteurs d'Anglais?
- c) *Effets des changements/ améliorations*

(38) Que pensez-vous des effets possibles des changements et améliorations proposés sur:

- a) Les individus: (Résistance, allégeance...): les enseignants, les les administrateurs de cet enseignement et pourvoyeurs des fonds, et les élèves/ étudiants?
- b) Le matériel didactique?

(39) Quel est d'après vous le rôle de l'inspecteur d'Anglais?

Pensez-vous l'avoir réalisé? -Pourquoi?

(40) En tant qu'inspecteur, êtes-vous disposé d'accepter des propositions valables de changement (des pratiques pédagogiques) de la part des enseignants et ou préfets?

-Justifiez votre réponse.

(41) Etes-vous disposé de laisser les enseignants et ou préfets libres d'expérimenter de nouvelles approches pédagogiques dans leurs classes? -Pourquoi?

*AJOUTES/ REMARQUES (par les interviewés)*

FIN DE L'INTERVIEW.

## 2.2.4.

Table 22: Summary of Inspectors' Personal Details

Degrees & Exp.			Number of		
Degrees held	Profess. Exp. as		In-service Training		In-service Training to Teachers
	Teacher	Inspect.	At home	Abroad	
G3A (all)	1=11 yrs	1= 3yrs	3	-	35
	1= 9 yrs	1= 2yrs	2	-	33



2.2.5.

THE INSPECTORS' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS

## 2.2.5.1.

## THE MWENEDITU INSPECTOR'S INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1:.....

I: En principe, elles ne jouent pas un rôle parce que quand nous enseignons l'Anglais, nous faisons abstraction de ces langues-là qu'il connaît déjà. Mais en réalité, d'une façon ou d'une autre, ça joue un rôle.

Q2:.....

I: Ça dépend des niveaux d'études. Pour les premières années (3e et 4e par exemple), c'est souvent le Français qui joue un plus grand rôle.

Sin: Comment?

I: Ça dépend de la formation du professeur: il y en a qui font des traductions, et ne donnent pas l'occasion aux élèves de parler en Anglais. D'où les élèves les imitent. Pendant les leçons d'Anglais, seul l'Anglais devrait être parlé. Mais beaucoup de professeurs font le mélange Anglais - Français.

Sin: Mais même si le professeur exigeait que seul l'Anglais soit parlé pendant les leçons d'Anglais, ne croyez-vous pas que les langues que les élèves connaissent déjà peuvent jouer, même indirectement, un rôle dans leur apprentissage de l'Anglais?

I: Bien sûr que oui. Ça joue un rôle. Mais c'est au professeur de tout faire pour que cela ne se fasse pas.

Sin: D'après vous, cet état de choses peut être évité?

I: Non.

Sin: Expliquez-vous un peu.

I: Ce que je veux dire est que l'Anglais soit donné seulement en Anglais, que l'élève s'habitue à penser directement en Anglais, sans recourir aux autres langues qu'il connaît déjà.

Sin: Donc, selon vous, l'Anglais doit être appris en Anglais seulement?

I: Oui. Mais toutefois, je reconnais que l'élève recourt souvent aux langues qu'il connaît déjà, surtout quand il rencontre des difficultés pour s'exprimer. Ça je ne le nie pas.

Q3:.....

I: Ils peuvent se servir des objets, des images, des gestes, expressions du visage et d'autres moyens qui ne sont pas verbaux.

Q4 & Q5:.....

I: Même quand il maîtrise déjà la langue, l'élève utilise souvent ces moyens (surtout les gestes) pour renforcer ou clarifier le message qu'il veut exprimer. Mais il y a d'autres gestes qu'il utilise surtout en cas de difficulté.

Sin: Mais la plupart des fois?

I: La plupart des fois, c'est par manque de termes, d'expressions...

Sin: Alors, cette pratique, est-elle normale c.à.d. naturelle ou anormale et donc ne devrait pas exister?

I: Elle est naturelle et normale.

Sin: Alors, croyez-vous qu'il est possible de la bannir chez les élèves?

I: Non. Si on essayait de le faire, on rendrait l'élève muet puisque, manquant de termes... de la nouvelle langue, il ne saurait pas s'exprimer. Non, ce n'est pas possible car, même si on le faisait d'une manière directe (c.à.d. interdire cette pratique en classe), l'élève ne pourrait pas s'en passer car, qu'il le veuille ou non, il lui arrivera beaucoup de fois de réfléchir tout d'abord en les langues qu'il connaît déjà avant d'exprimer l'idée en Anglais.

Q6:.....

I: Non, ce n'est pas un signe de manque d'intelligence. C'est par manque de maîtrise de la nouvelle langue.

Q7 & Q8:.....

I: Ça dépend de l'intérêt que l'élève a dans le cours.

Sin: Supposons que l'intérêt soit bon.

I: Il y a progression.

Sin: Progression, comment?

I: C'est à dire au fur et à mesure qu'il maîtrise la langue c.à.d. qu'il élargit son vocabulaire, sa grammaire..., il va diminuer le recours aux autres moyens dont j'ai parlés ci-haut.

Q9:.....

I: On ne peut pas bannir cette pratique-là, surtout dans les premières étapes de l'apprentissage. Il faut seulement qu'il y ait progression. A un certain niveau, quand on sent que les élèves commencent déjà à se débrouiller comme il faut c.à.d. qu'ils ont atteint un niveau acceptable, alors seulement on pourra commencer à insister directement pour qu'ils n'utilisent que l'Anglais. Cet encouragement doit déjà commencer même au début, mais d'une façon indirecte, c.à.d. qui ne risque pas de blesser les

élèves psychologiquement.

Q10:.....+ Sin: Quand vous étudiez l'Anglais, est-il arrivé une fois que votre professeur d'Anglais vous avait intimé directement l'ordre de cesser de recourir aux gestes et langues que vous connaissiez déjà et de ne commencer à utiliser que l'Anglais?

I: Non. C'est impossible.

Sin: Mais comment cela s'était-il fait pour vous?

I: C'était arrivé spontanément, avec l'habitude. Quand j'avais élargi mes connaissances en Anglais, je ne sentais plus le besoin de recourir aux autres moyens que les ressources fournies par l'Anglais. En bref, mon recours aux autres moyens s'amenuisait automatiquement au fur et à mesure que je maîtrisais l'Anglais.

Sin: Donc, votre apprentissage de l'Anglais était-il différent ou la même chose que celui des élèves que vous observez pendant vos inspections?

I: Même chose.

Q11:.....

I: J'ai constaté que les élèves à tous les niveaux d'études ont toujours tendance à recourir aux gestes et langues qu'ils connaissent déjà.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Je crois que c'est la faute des professeurs, car ils continuent à traduire, même en 6e.

Sin: Alors, d'après vous, qu'est-ce que les enseignants devraient faire à ces différents niveaux?

I: Interdire progressivement cette pratique: en 3e et 4e, elle est indispensable. En 5e et 6e, elle doit diminuer au profit d'une expression libre et spontanée.

Q12:.....

I: Ils ne travaillent pas comme il faut. En général, il y a désintéressement.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: C'est causé par les professeurs. Ce sont eux qui découragent les élèves car la plupart ne sont pas bons.

Sin: Qu'entendez-vous par bon professeur?

I: C'est celui qui connaît bien le niveau de ses élèves, qui connaît bien la matière et qui connaît bien le but qu'il poursuit.

Sin: Prenons un enseignant qui connaît très bien sa matière, mais qui interdit à ses élèves de recourir aux moyens dont nous avons parlés il y a quelques instants.

I: Il n'est pas bon vu qu'il décourage les élèves à s'exprimer. Le bon c'est celui qui les encourage à s'exprimer, à commettre des fautes pour qu'il puisse les corriger.

Q13:.....

I: Oui, l'enseignant est un élément important.

Q14:.....

I: C'est la façon d'enseigner qui fait qu'on aime ou n'aime pas le cours.

Sin: Comment? Qu'entendez-vous par façon d'enseigner?

I: Par exemple, un enseignant qui utilise un bon matériel didactique (images, objets concrets...) et qui fait tout pour que ses élèves utilisent chaque fois les mots... qu'ils ont déjà appris pour ainsi s'exprimer, pas à pas. Les élèves seront intéressés vu qu'ils parviendront plus ou moins facilement à s'exprimer librement...

Sin: Quelle sera par exemple la réaction d'un élève très intéressé par le cours qui, au début du cours, se voit interdire par l'enseignant tout recours aux gestes et langues qu'il connaît déjà?

I: Il sera découragé, et finira par ne plus aimer le cours.

Q15:.....

I: Oui. Ici chez-nous par exemple, les élèves voient chaque jour que l'Anglais est important, ils voient comment ceux qui connaissent cette langue parviennent plus facilement à se trouver du bon travail... Donc, c'est cette influence de ce qui se passe autour d'eux qui les pousse initialement à vouloir étudier l'Anglais.

Sin: Avez-vous aussi constaté qu'il y a beaucoup d'écoles d'Anglais ici chez-nous?

I: Oui. C'est exactement parce que la communauté veut apprendre cette langue que ces écoles commencent à bourgeonner un peu partout. Qu'on veuille le reconnaître ou non, l'Anglais est en train de conquérir notre pays, il est en train de devenir la langue la plus importante au monde. Pour se trouver un bon boulot, il faut connaître l'Anglais.

Q16:.....

I: Aujourd'hui, le Français continue à l'emporter, non pas parce qu'il est plus important, mais parce qu'il a des racines plus solides vu qu'il est parlé dans ce pays il y a plus d'un siècle. Mais demain, je suis sûr que l'Anglais, s'il ne parvient pas à supplanter le Français, parviendra toutefois à l'égaliser.

Q17:.....

I: Parmi les langues Zairoises, c'est le Lingala qui semble émerger (pour des raisons plutôt politiques). Mais, plus que le Français, l'Anglais semble attirer la curiosité

des gens; leur envie de parler cette langue est évidente. En bref, ce sont les langues étrangères qui jouissent du statut le plus élevé.

Q18:.....

I: C'est l'Anglais dans tous les deux cas. Les gens se voient contraints d'apprendre cette langue vu son importance grandissante: voyages dans le monde, contacts avec d'autres peuples. Celui qui connaît l'Anglais trouvera toujours sa voie où qu'il soit au monde.

Q19:.....

I: Vocabulaire: Usage d'objets concrets, d'images et autres supports visuels... pour enseigner de nouveaux mots...

Sin: Pas de traduction?

I: En 3e et 4e: Non, car il y a risque d'interférence avec les langues que l'élève connaît déjà. C'est ainsi qu'on fait tout pour matérialiser les notions enseignées.

Sin: Peut-on trouver de support visuel pour tous les mots... qu'on enseigne?

I: Non. Par exemple quand on enseigne des notions abstraites.

Sin: Alors, que fait-on?

I: On essaie de passer par la traduction.

Grammaire: On place les structures (une à la fois) dans des phrases-clé où leur signification est claire. Puis, on les place dans d'autres contextes. Elles sont écrites au tableau, soit soulignées soit écrites en craie de couleur...

Sin: Recourt-on à des règles similaires déjà apprises ou des autres langues que les élèves connaissent déjà?

I: Il y a des enseignants qui le font. Mais c'est mauvais, car il y a des différences entre les langues.

Lecture: L'objet de cette leçon est d'insister sur la prononciation. On y va paragraphe par paragraphe, partie par partie. Pas de lecture en chœur, mais individuelle, car on peut plus facilement corriger les élèves.

Sin: Supposons que, malgré tous les efforts du professeur, un élève qui comprend la question qui lui est posée et connaît la réponse, ne parvient pas à prononcer correctement un ou deux mots. Que fait le professeur alors?

I: En 3e et 4e, il faut insister en montrant à l'élève la position des différents organes de la parole.

Sin: Mais si ça ne marche pas?

I: On laisse tomber tout en demandant à l'élève d'aller s'exercer à la maison, car on

ne doit pas perdre le temps avec un seul individu.

Conversation: Cette leçon est donnée seulement après celles de grammaire, vocabulaire et lecture. On répartit les rôles entre les élèves et ils essaient de reproduire le dialogue...

Sin: Et s'il arrivait que certains élèves ne parviennent plus à se rappeler certains mots, expressions... et à la place utilisent ceux des langues qu'ils connaissent déjà, ou les gestes?

I: Le professeur va les aider en les leur donnant.

Sin: En Anglais?

I: Oui.

Sin: Quel est l'objet de la leçon de conversation?

I: C'est tout d'abord la compréhension de ce qui est dit dans le dialogue; la prononciation vient en seconde position vu que presque tous les mots, expressions...ont déjà été vus.

Sin: Et en 5e et 6e ou beaucoup de textes sont inconnus à l'avance?

I: L'accent est sur l'expression c.à.d. la prononciation. Mais la compréhension n'est toutefois pas négligée.

Q20:.....

I: C'est l'exactitude, puisqu'on peut parler spontanément mais avec des erreurs.

Sin: Au début du cours?

I: C'est la spontanéité au début afin que le professeur parvienne à détecter les fautes et les corriger. En 5e et 6e c'est l'exactitude.

Sin: Supposons que le professeur insiste sur l'exactitude en 3e et 4e?

I: La classe sera passive: Les élèves ne pourront pas s'exprimer vu qu'ils n'auront pas encore maîtrisé assez de structures de la nouvelle langue. D'où ils pourront facilement se décourager et perdre le goût du cours.

Q21:.....

I: Quand ces méthodes sont intelligemment exploitées, il y a réussite dans le travail. Les supports visuels doivent être adaptés et appropriés aux différents contextes, sinon c'est la foire. Les méthodes aussi doivent être adaptées à l'âge et aux niveaux des élèves.

Sin: Comment peut-on les adapter à l'âge...?

I: Ici, je fais allusion au recours aux différents moyens dont j'ai parlés il y a quelques instants. En effet, la fréquence d'utilisation de ce recours doit dépendre du niveau et

de l'âge de l'élève concerné.

Q22:.....

I: Il y a similitudes et contradictions. Similitudes pour les classes avancées et contradictions surtout pour les premières années de l'apprentissage. On nous avait toujours enseigné de n'utiliser que l'Anglais, et de ne recourir en aucun cas à d'autres langues que les élèves connaissent déjà.

Q23 & Q24:.....

I: En 3e et 4e: tolérer le recours aux gestes et langues que l'élève connaît déjà; procéder lentement avant de n'exiger que l'Anglais.

Les avantages: l'élève voit ce qu'on lui apprend...

Sin: Mais du point de vue motivation?

I: Le recours dont nous parlons est comme du matériel didactique: Ça aide l'élève à comprendre plus facilement, ce qui l'encourage et le motive encore plus.

Les désavantages: Il peut y en avoir. Mais le plus important qui est aussi le danger le plus sérieux est que l'élève risque de s'habituer à recours-là au point d'en faire une technique permanente d'apprentissage. Mais je suis sûr que si le professeur applique la méthode comme il faut, ce risque ne se réalisera pas.

Q25:.....

I: Oral-écrit.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Normalement, tous les examens et interrogations devraient être à l'oral. Mais vu les classes nombreuses que nous avons, et le manque de moyens nécessaires pour réformer notre système d'enseignement de façon qu'il y ait peu d'élèves par classe, ..

Sin: Pourquoi normalement?

I: Parce que l'Anglais est une langue, et l'objectif principal de tout apprentissage d'une langue vivante est de parvenir à faire parler les élèves.

Q26:.....

I: Oui. Le système d'examen et interrogations oral pousse les élèves à parler la langue. L'écrit les pousse au contraire à maîtriser l'orthographe. Cette relation façonne la motivation des élèves vers un but précis.

Q27:.....

I: Il y en a. Ceci est évident puisqu'on n'enseigne pas tous les textes du livre comme ils sont: on les adapte aux contextes afin d'augmenter la motivation et l'intérêt des élèves.



Q28:.....

I: Possible: Non, parce que l'élève est appelé à entrer en contact avec des gens d'autres cultures, vu que l'Anglais est de plus en plus la langue internationale par excellence.

Nécessaire: En partie oui, surtout pour les classes inférieures. Mais au fur et à mesure que les élèves progressent, il serait dommage d'essayer de le faire: On limiterait leur vue d'ensemble.

Sin: Mais en général?

I: En général, ce n'est pas nécessaire.

Bénéfique: Non, car on limiterait ce que les élèves devraient apprendre. Les réalités Zairoises ne sont pas propres à tous les pays.

Q29:.....

I: En tant qu'inspecteur: Le bon enseignant d'Anglais est celui qui arrive à un bon résultat, celui qui parvient à faire parler Anglais aux élèves.

En tant qu'étudiant: C'est celui qui parvenait facilement à faire acquérir la matière aux élèves...

Sin: Qu'entendez-vous par ça?

I: Celui qui faisait comprendre la matière aux élèves, c.à.d. celui qui parvenait à inculquer aux élèves le goût et la facilité de s'exprimer en Anglais.

Pour la plupart des élèves que j'ai observés, le bon enseignant est celui qui donne beaucoup de points. Mais, il y a une minorité pour qui le bon enseignant est celui qui parvient à les initier à parler Anglais, même s'il ne donne pas beaucoup de points.

Q30:.....

I: Il y a échec si, à la fin d'un cycle donné, les élèves ne parviennent pas à s'exprimer en Anglais. Ceci est aussi valable pour les leçons: on dira que la leçon a échoué quand les élèves ne sont pas actifs c.à.d. quand ils ne participent pas, quand ils ne répondent pas aux questions, ne parlent pas. Ce qui est la preuve qu'ils n'ont pas compris.

Il y a réussite quand c'est le contraire qui se produit.

Q31:.....

I: dans l'ensemble, c'est un échec.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Compte tenu des résultats que nous avons lors de nos inspections et compte tenu aussi du nombre réel de ceux qui parviennent, à la fin du cycle secondaire, à s'exprimer en Anglais.

Q32 & Q33:.....

I: Tous les enseignants se plaignent qu'ils ne sont pas bien payés. Donc, pour commencer, le gouvernement devrait améliorer les salaires. Ce problème est général pour notre pays. Mais, je crois qu'en ce qui concerne l'enseignement de l'Anglais comme tel (mis à part les salaires), c'est le côté méthodologique qui nécessite des changements. Comme je l'ai dit avant, il y a divergence (surtout pour la méthode utilisée dans les premières années d'Anglais) entre ce qui se fait et ce qui devrait réellement se faire. La méthodologie doit essayer de concilier les deux approches. Les changements en méthodologie en amèneront d'autres.

Sin: Par exemple?

I: La diminution du nombre d'élèves par classe, ce qui implique une augmentation du nombre de classes et du nombre d'enseignants... Mais, ceci pourra toujours être fait après.

Q34 & Q35:.....

A court terme: Amélioration des salaires et changement de la méthodologie d'enseignement.

Moyen et long termes: Restructuration du système scolaire + toutes les conséquences qui en découleront. Mais je crois que ce sont les changements à court terme qui sont les plus urgents. S'il n'y a pas moyen de majorer les salaires, l'état pourrait toujours instituer des primes d'encouragement pour les professeurs.

Q36:.....

I: C'est la méthodologie. Le professeur est capable de le faire lui-même, sans engagement de fonds, n'importe quand, et quand il le veut.

Q37:.....

I: a) Adapter la méthodologie (surtout pour les premières années) à ce que les élèves font réellement quand ils apprennent au lieu d'initier les futurs enseignants d'Anglais à une méthodologie qui va presque à l'encontre de la voie naturelle et normale suivie par les élèves.

b) Organiser des séminaires et séances de recyclage pour que les enseignants soient toujours informés de ce qui se fait et se passe en enseignement des langues. Ainsi, ils auront l'occasion d'élargir leurs connaissances.

c) Les inspecteurs devraient être en contact entre eux, et avec des milieux spécialisés en enseignement de l'Anglais afin qu'ils puissent améliorer leurs expériences, qu'ils sont appelés à partager avec les enseignants.

Q38:.....

I: a) Les individus: Les enseignants: L'application des réformes serait difficile si les enseignants ne sont pas, d'une manière ou d'une autre, motivés. Il faudrait les convaincre que ce qu'ils sont appelés à faire est mieux que ce qu'ils faisaient avant. Il y aura résistance surtout s'il y a augmentation de l'effort à fournir sans une amélioration des salaires ou la garantie d'une récompense dans ce sens.

Les administrateurs et pourvoyeurs des fonds: Ceux-ci se sont toujours opposés à l'amélioration des conditions de travail des autres, et je suis sûr et certain qu'ils le feront encore.

Les élèves résistent et s'opposent très peu ou jamais car tout ce qui est fait l'est à leur avantage. En outre, ils sont plus soumis.

b) Quand une réforme est implantée d'une bonne façon en enseignement, le côté matériel didactique est aussi restructuré dans le sens de l'amélioration.

Q39:.....

I: Au départ, son rôle est de corriger les fautes en vue d'améliorer la pratique éducative, et faire tout pour que les instructions officielles soient appliquées.

Sin: Même si les instructions contredisent ce qui devrait normalement se faire?

I: En tant qu'hommes du domaine, les inspecteurs sont habilités d'interpréter et corriger les instructions, mais ils sont alors tenus d'en informer leurs supérieurs.

Donc le rôle de l'inspecteur est de contrôler l'enseignement et contribuer à son amélioration.

Je pense l'avoir réalisé, si pas pleinement, toutefois d'une manière satisfaisante. Après chaque inspection, je discute toujours avec l'enseignant. Je considère ses points de vue, et lui montre les erreurs qu'il aurait commises, et la façon de les éviter et ou de les corriger.

Q40 & Q41:.....

I: Je suis très bien disposé. L'essentiel est que le professeur atteigne le but opérationnel c.à.d. qu'il arrive à faire parler les élèves. Si ce but est atteint, c'est qu'il y a quelque mérite dans la méthode. Et il est de mon devoir de l'apprécier à sa juste valeur, et d'en faire profiter les autres aussi. C'est dans ce sens que je suis disposé à laisser les enseignants expérimenter de nouvelles approches pédagogiques. D'ailleurs, ce rôle leur est reconnu officiellement. C'est pour cela qu'il y a sur la fiche d'inspection une rubrique intitulée Imagination Pédagogique.

Il n'y a pas de règles absolues en enseignement de langues vivantes. D'où, il nous est demandé d'avoir l'esprit souple et critique...



## 2.2.5.2.

## THE MIABI INSPECTOR'S INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1:.....

I: Elles jouent un très grand rôle, surtout pour les débutants.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Parce que c'est leur unique point de référence en ce qui concerne la langue parlée.

Q2:.....

I: Je crois que c'est le Français, et aussi la langue maternelle.

Sin: Laquelle entre ces deux est la plus utilisée?

I: Le Français: Parce qu'il a beaucoup plus de traits communs avec l'Anglais. Les élèves font souvent recours à cette langue quand ils éprouvent des difficultés pour s'exprimer. Ceci est très fréquent pendant les premières années de l'apprentissage.

Q3:.....

I: Comme nous tous, ils utilisent aussi des gestes, expressions de visage et clins d'oeil...Bref ils utilisent aussi des moyens paralinguistiques.

Q4:.....

I: Non, car c'est presque automatique, inconscient et involontaire. C'est naturel et normal. Tout le monde en fait usage. Mais la différence avec ceux qui apprennent une nouvelle langue est qu'ils y recourent beaucoup plus, surtout s'ils n'ont pas encore bien maîtrisé la langue.

Q5:.....

I: Comme je l'ai dit, c'est surtout quand ils sont dans l'incapacité de s'exprimer en utilisant la nouvelle langue.

Q6:.....

I: Non, ce n'est pas un manque d'intelligence. C'est un moyen pour surmonter les obstacles de communication quand on n'a pas encore tous les atouts qu'il faut pour utiliser seulement la nouvelle langue.

Q7 & Q8:.....

I: On remarque que ça commence par un recours assez élevé à ces moyens. Ceci va en diminuant plus on maîtrise la nouvelle langue. Donc, plus on progresse dans la nouvelle langue, de moins en moins on recourt à ces moyens-là.

Q9:.....

I: Mes conclusions sont que tout ce dont je viens de parler est naturel, inévitable, et voire même nécessaire surtout durant les premières étapes de l'apprentissage. Essayer de les bannir (ce qui est presque impossible) et on réduit la plupart d'élèves au silence.

Q10:.....

I: Mon apprentissage d'Anglais a suivi cette même voie. Tout le monde suit cette voie, même s'il y a des différences dans la rapidité d'acquisition de la nouvelle langue.

Q11:.....

I: En tant qu'inspecteur, d'abord en ce qui me concerne moi-même: vu que j'ai déjà maîtrisé beaucoup de structures, mots....de l'Anglais, mon recours à ces moyens est très minime. Les élèves que j'ai observés recourent aussi à ces moyens, avec la différence que ceux qui ont déjà acquis beaucoup plus que les autres en font de moins en moins usage.

Q12:.....

I: Très peu travaillent comme il faut. La majorité semble être désintéressée, découragée, et manque de motivation. Si ce n'était pas pour les points, je crois que cette majorité aurait déjà abandonné.

Q13 & Q14:.....

I: Oui. Il l'est. En fait quand les élèves se découragent et se désintéressent du cours ( comme je viens de le dire ), l'une des causes les plus indiquées est l'enseignant. Pas tellement en tant qu'individu, mais surtout la manière qu'il s'y prend pour enseigner, c.à.d. sa méthode en général.

Sin: Pouvez-vous expliquer un peu plus?

I: L'enseignant qui parvient à motiver ses élèves, qui parvient à les intéresser au cours, à les encourager, (ce qui implique des dimensions psychologiques telles que une bonne compréhension de la nature des élèves, leurs faiblesses et forces...) est celui qui réussit dans son travail. Les élèves qui sont découragés, démotivés et désintéressés finissent d'habitude par ne plus aimer le cours. Ce qui les pousse à ne plus fournir l'effort qu'il faut pour réussir.

Q15:.....

I: Oui. C'est ce que l'élève voit autour de lui qui le détermine, le pousse à faire telle ou telle chose. Ici chez-nous, il n'est plus un secret aujourd'hui que l'Anglais ouvre de nouvelles possibilités à ceux qui le parlent. Donc, c'est à cause de ça que beaucoup de gens veulent l'apprendre. Ils commencent le cours avec enthousiasme. Ce qui arrive après est le résultat d'autres facteurs tel que la méthodologie d'enseignement dont je

viens de parler.

Q16 & Q17:.....

I: Les langues étrangères enseignées ici chez-nous jouissent d'un statut plus élevé que nos propres langues nationales. Et, se basant sur aujourd'hui, je peux dire crainte d'être contrédict que cela sera encore plus dans l'avenir.

Q18:.....

I: C'est l'Anglais, aujourd'hui et demain. Il suffit de voir comment cette langue se retrouve presque partout au monde, le nombre de gens qui l'utilisent, la fréquence de son utilisation dans les échanges commerciales, dans les arènes internationales, en technologie et sciences... Et son influence grandit du jour au lendemain.

Q19:.....

I: Grammaire: Les structures à enseigner sont introduites oralement dans des courtes phrases-clé qui en donnent la signification. Les élèves les répètent après le professeur. Celui-ci les écrit au tableau, soit en craie de couleur, soit soulignées. Après, les élèves sont appelés à les utiliser dans d'autres contextes par montrer qu'ils ont compris. Après, le professeur écrit la synthèse au tableau, et les élèves l'écrivent dans leurs cahiers.

Vocabulaire: Les mots et expressions sont introduits surtout grâce aux supports visuels. Là où c'est difficile, on monte un scénario ou on essaie de démontrer la signification du terme ou de l'expression. Puis, la leçon se poursuit comme dans le cas de celle de grammaire.

La lecture: Le but principal est de corriger la prononciation. Le professeur lit phrase par phrase, et les élèves l'imitent, soit en petits groupes, soit ensemble, soit individuellement. Le rôle du professeur est de les corriger. Le texte est soit tiré du livre, soit donné aux élèves (qui l'écrivent dans leurs cahiers) un ou deux jours avant la leçon.

La conversation a comme but de donner l'occasion aux élèves de pratiquer oralement ce qu'ils auraient déjà appris. Le texte est soit tiré du livre, soit composé par le professeur et, dans ce cas, il est remis aux élèves bien avant la leçon. Les rôles sont partagés entre eux, et alors ils exécutent le dialogue après l'avoir mémorisé.

Q20:.....

I: L'exactitude et après la spontanéité. Parce que les élèves doivent être tout d'abord initiés à bien parler la langue. Quand ils parlent bien, ils peuvent aussi parler couramment.

Q21:.....

I: En vérité, très peu d'élèves participent réellement aux leçons. Ils répondent aux questions, ils se portent volontaires pour lire, parler... La majorité est très amorphe, et semble n'attendre que la sonnerie annonçant la fin des leçons.

Q22:.....

I: Quand on observe le tout avec un esprit critique, on découvre qu'il y a contradiction surtout entre ce qu'on nous avait appris comme méthode d'enseignement pour les premières années d'Anglais. En fait, il nous avait été recommandé de ne jamais permettre aux élèves de recourir aux langues qu'ils connaissent déjà, et de n'utiliser que l'Anglais pour enseigner l'Anglais: La méthode directe. Et on nous avait recommandé de tout faire pour que les élèves participent aux leçons. Mais, quand je vois ce qui se passe, c'est juste le contraire. C'est très difficile de faire participer la majorité de la classe; s'il faut atteindre ce but, on doit nécessairement aller à l'encontre de ces recommandations-là. En ce qui concerne les classes supérieures, il y a plus de similitudes que de contradictions.

Q23 & Q24:.....

I: Les conclusions sont évidentes: il faudrait que la méthode d'enseignement ne soit pas en contradiction avec ce que les intéressés c.à.d. les élèves font réellement pour apprendre. Ainsi, il faudrait que le recours aux langues qu'ils connaissent déjà et aux moyens kinésiques soient, non pas encouragés, mais plus tolérés chez les débutants.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Surtout pour les encourager à s'habituer à parler. Ce n'est qu'en parlant qu'ils pourront apprendre à s'exprimer. Le seul danger que je vois est que les élèves risquent de trop s'habituer à recourir à ces moyens-là. Mais, il peut bien être évité si les élèves voient bien qu'il leur est permis d'en faire usage que dans des cas d'extrême nécessité. D'ailleurs, je suis sûr qu'il n'y aura même pas besoin de leur dire d'en diminuer la fréquence. Comme je l'ai dit, cela se fera automatiquement quand ils auront atteint un certain seuil de maîtrise de l'Anglais.

Q25:.....

I: Mélange oral et écrit.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Pour apprendre aux élèves à s'exprimer oralement et par écrit. Ils ont besoin de développer tous ces deux aspects de la langue. Mais toutefois, la plus grande partie devrait être consacrée à l'oral.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Parce qu'on apprend une langue avant tout pour la parler.

Q26:.....

I: Oui. Quand l'accent est mis sur l'aspect oral, les élèves font tout pour développer leurs capacités orales. Quand c'est sur l'écrit (comme c'est le cas ici chez-nous), c'est le contraire qui arrive. C'est ainsi que (entre autres raisons) beaucoup d'élèves ne parviennent pas à s'exprimer.

Q27:.....

I: Oui, mais pas une grande. En effet, quand le texte est intéressant, il augmente (dans une certaine mesure) la motivation des élèves. Mais, le tout en général dépend de la volonté des élèves à apprendre à s'exprimer. Quand cette volonté y est, même en l'absence de textes intéressants, les élèves parviennent toujours à réussir à parler.

Q28:.....

I: Il n'est ni possible, ni bénéfique ni nécessaire de le faire. D'abord on ne peut pas le faire complètement. Tout ce qu'on peut faire c'est peut-être adapter certains textes, en écrire d'autres avec des contextes zairois ou africains, et de les utiliser en même temps que ceux des auteurs anglais ou anglophones. Ce n'est pas tellement nécessaire car l'Anglais doit être appris avec comme objectif principal son utilisation dans le monde. C'est peut-être nécessaire de le faire comme je viens de le dire seulement pour motiver les élèves débutants. Si on le faisait complètement, on détruirait la chance d'appartenir à cet ensemble qui est le monde.

Q29:.....

I: En tant qu'inspecteur: Le bon enseignant, en bref, est celui dont la plupart d'élèves parviennent à s'exprimer en Anglais. Ceci implique beaucoup de facteurs dont certains ont été mentionnés ci-haut: connaître les élèves, les comprendre et les apprécier à leur juste valeur.

En tant qu'étudiant: C'était celui qui donnait beaucoup de points et qui connaissait sa matière.

Pour la grande partie des élèves que j'ai observés, le bon enseignant d'Anglais est celui qui donne beaucoup de points et qui connaît sa matière. Très peu disent que c'est celui qui les fait travailler afin qu'ils parviennent un jour à parler Anglais.

Q30:.....

I: Il y a échec quand le but principal de l'enseignement n'est pas atteint. Il y a réussite quand ce but est atteint: faire parler les élèves.

Q31 & 32:.....



I: C'est un échec, parce que le nombre de ceux qui parviennent réellement à parler Anglais est très négligeable.

Comme je l'ai dit, l'échec a comme source surtout l'application d'une mauvaise méthodologie et aussi le manque de motivation de la part des enseignants: ils sont mal payés. Ceci nous concerne tous. Il y a aussi le système d'examens et interrogations en vigueur qui n'est pas pour encourager les élèves à parler la langue.

Q33:.....

I: Que nous tous (enseignants, inspecteurs...) soyons bien payés, que la méthodologie d'enseignement soit révisée et adaptée à ce qui devrait normalement se faire; que le nombre d'élèves par classe soit réduit afin de permettre à l'enseignant de s'occuper de tous les élèves. Ceci implique une augmentation du nombre de classes et d'enseignants...

Q34:.....

I: Les salaires et la méthodologie devraient être améliorés à court terme. Puis viendraient les autres changements.

Sin: Mais êtes-vous convaincu que l'Etat peut revoir les salaires à court terme?

I: Oui. C'est question de bonne volonté seulement.

Q35:.....

I: C'est l'amélioration des salaires et de la méthodologie.

Q36:.....

I: C'est l'amélioration de la méthodologie: Ça ne demande pas de fods, pas d'infrastructure spéciale...L'enseignant peut le faire quand il le veut. Mais le seul investissement que cela nécessite est que l'enseignant soit motivé et convaincu que ce qu'il faisait avant n'était pas ce qu'il fallait faire.

Q37:.....

I: a) L'enseignement et le stage des futurs enseignants d'Anglais doivent être en conformité avec ce qui se passe réellement quand quelqu'un apprend une nouvelle langue. Dans ce même sens, les enseignants déjà en fonction devraient être souvent recyclés (séminaires, conférences, stages de formation ...) afin qu'ils continuent à enrichir leurs connaissances. Il en est aussi de même pour les inspecteurs.

Q38:.....

I: a) Les individus: Les enseignants seraient mieux disposés à implanter ces changements s'ils sont motivés et s'ils sont convaincus de l'opportunité de ces changements. Ils vont résister et s'opposer dans le cas contraire.

Les pourvoyeurs des fonds et administrateurs sont ceux qui s'opposent le plus, surtout

quand l'argent entre en jeu. Et je suis sûr qu'ils le feront aussi dans le présent cas.

Quant aux élèves, ils s'opposent et résistent rarement.

b) Si ces changements sont appliqués comme il faut, cela doit aussi toucher le côté matériel didactique.

Q39:.....

I: Le rôle de l'inspecteur d'Anglais est de contrôler ce que font les enseignants d'Anglais et les aider à résoudre les problèmes auxquels ils sont confrontés et aider ainsi à l'amélioration de cet enseignement. Ceci implique aussi le contrôle pour voir si les directives officielles sont bien appliquées.

Sin: Et si les directives vont à l'encontre d'un bon enseignement?

I: L'inspecteur doit être critique et souple, pas aveugle. Il est là pour le bien de l'enseignement d'Anglais. S'il lui arrive d'interpréter et de changer certaines de ces directives, il lui est demandé d'en informer ses supérieurs.

Je pense avoir réalisé ce rôle d'une façon satisfaisante.

Q40 & Q41:.....

I: Je suis bien disposé. Et ceci nous est recommandé par nos supérieurs et notre métier. Nous ne sommes pas des agents de police pour qui tel ou tel autre comportement est bon ou mauvais. Nous sommes là pour apprécier comment les directives sont appliquées. Là où il y a un élément nouveau, il est de notre devoir de l'apprécier et de voir dans quelle mesure il peut soit contribuer soit nuire à la pratique éducative. Dans le cas où il est valable, nous devons en informer les instances supérieures afin qu'elles puissent voir comment en faire une large diffusion. C'est dans ce sens que je suis disposé à encourager les enseignants à expérimenter de nouvelles approches. C'est de cette façon qu'on pourra améliorer notre enseignement.

## APPENDIX 2.3.

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### Political Educational Authorities' Interviews

#### CONTENTS

Interview Guide (2.3.1.)

Interview Schedule (2.3.2.)

Table 23: Summary of Political Educational Authorities' Personal Details (2.3.3.)

Interview Transcripts (2.3.4.)

    The Mbuji-Mayi Polit. Educat. Authority's Interview Transcript (2.3.4.1.)

    The Kinshasa Polit. Educat. Authority's Interview Transcript (2.3.4.2.)

### 2.3.1. INTERVIEW GUIDE

The interview focuses on four main areas:

#### I. *Objectifs et Raisons de l'enseignement du Français et de l'Anglais au Zaïre*

1. Pourquoi enseigner les langues étrangères?
2. Pourquoi l'Anglais et le Français?
3. Leur statut: actuel et futur?

#### II. *Etat de l'enseignement de l'Anglais: actuel et futur*

1. Définition REUSSITE/ ECHEC.
2. Anglais: Réussite/ Echec.
3. Eléments de Réussite/ Echec.
4. Genres: Interros, Examen, et Textes:

##### \* Interros et Examen:

- Oraux? Ecrits? Oraux-Ecrits?
- Relation Genre/ Motivation et Persévérance à communiquer en Anglais.

##### \* Textes:

- Possibilités, Nécessité adaptation aux contextes Zairois/ Enseignement (Langue et Culture)

#### III. *Innovations/ Améliorations/ Changements dans l'enseignement de l'Anglais*

1. Innovations/ Améliorations/ Changements:
  - \* Court terme
  - \* Moyen terme
  - \* Long terme
2. Innovations/ Améliorations/ Changements URGENTS:
  - \* Faciles à implanter?
  - \* Gouvernement:
    - disposé?

- moyens nécessaires?

\* Quand, Comment...introduire.

\* Innovations/ Améliorations/ Changements venant d'en haut ou d'en bas?

#### *IV. Réactions aux Innovations/ Améliorations/ Changements*

1. Expérimentation nouvelles théories et pratiques

2. Oppositions/ Résistances et leurs sources, causes, raisons, et façons d'en venir à bout.

*AJOUTES/ REMARQUES (par les interviewés)*

## 2.3.2.

## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

A. *Personal Details*

1. Quel est votre poste?
2. Depuis quand l'occupez-vous?
3. Que faisiez-vous avant d'occuper ce poste?

B. *Core Questions*I. *Objectifs et Raisons de l'enseignement du Français et de l'Anglais*

1. Pourquoi enseigner les langues étrangères au Zaïre?
2. Pourquoi avoir choisi le Français et l'Anglais?
3. Statut de ces deux langues: actuel et futur? Pourquoi?

II. *Etat actuel et futur de l'enseignement de l'Anglais*

4. Qu'entend le gouvernement par Réussite et Echec en Anglais? (Ecrire, parler, comprendre, lire...?)
5. L'enseignement de l'Anglais ici: Est-ce un échec ou une réussite? Pourquoi?
6. Si Echec/ Réussite: éléments  
Si Réussite: améliorations possibles?  
Si Echec: changements/ innovations...possibles?
7. Genres examen, interros, et textes:
  - a) Quel type d'examen/interro voudriez qu'il y ait en Anglais? (Oral, écrit, ou oral-écrit?)
  - b) Y a-t-il une Relation de Cause à Effet entre le type d'examen/ interro et la motivation des étudiants à communiquer en Anglais? Une autre relation?

## 8. Textes:

Est-il POSSIBLE, NECESSAIRE, et BENEFIQUE d'ADAPTER le contenu des textes aux contextes purement Zairois, et de continuer d'enseigner l'Anglais comme il faut (Langue + Culture)?

III. *Innovations/ Améliorations/ Changements*

## 9. Améliorations, changements et innovations:

- a) A court terme?
- b) A moyen terme?
- c) A long terme ?

10. Si oui à (9), lesquels sont URGENTS? Pourquoi?

11. Parmi les changements/ améliorations/ innovations urgents, lesquels peuvent être facilement introduits? Pourquoi?

12. Le gouvernement est-il disposé à introduire ces innovations/ changements/ améliorations ? Explications.

13. QUAND et COMMENT peut-il les introduire?

14. Le gouvernement a-t-il les moyens nécessaires pour introduire ces innovations/ changements/ améliorations? Explications.

15. Le gouvernement peut-il permettre, accepter et considérer des suggestions venant des autorités locales et individus concernés par l'enseignement? Explications.

16. Et vous, êtes-vous disposé à considérer des suggestions venant des écoles? (Des préfets et enseignants). Pourquoi?

IV. *Réactions aux innov./ changements/ améliorations*

17. Pouvez-vous autoriser un enseignant d'expérimenter de nouvelles théories et pratiques pédagogiques, avec ou sans le consentement de son préfet? Pourquoi?

18. Pourquoi pensez-vous qu'il y a toujours RESISTANCE et OPPOSITION quand on veut apporter des modifications dans un système, par exemple l'enseignement?

19. Citez les sources possibles de résistance/ opposition au changement en enseignement. Explications.

20. Rangez ces sources dans l'ordre décroissant. Expliquez le pourquoi de de cet

arrangement.

21. Comment peut-on venir à bout de ces résistances et oppositions?

*AJOUTES/ REMARQUES (par les interviewés)*



## 2.3.3.

Table 23: Summary of Political Educational Authorities' Personal Details.

Degrees held	Functions + P. Exp. (Yrs)	
	Past	Present
1= L2 French Lge+Lit.	Régéd. (Equateur) 2 yrs	Régéd. (East. Kasai) 2yrs
1= L2 Engl. Lge+Lit.	Régéd. (Kivu) 3 yrs	Régéd. (Kinshasa) 4 yrs

2.3.4.

THE POLIT. EDUCAT. AUTHORITIES' INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS

## 2.3.4.1.

## THE MBUJIMAYI POLIT. EDUCAT. AUTHORITY'S INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1:.....

I: Je pense que l'enseignement des langues étrangères dans notre pays (comme dans les autres pays en voie de développement) a comme objectif de nous ouvrir sur le monde extérieur, de nous mettre en contact avec les pays technologiquement plus développés, afin que nous puissions profiter des bienfaits de la technologie.

Q2:.....

I: Je crois qu'actuellement le Français, et maintenant de plus en plus l'Anglais sont les deux langues universellement acceptées comme langues de communication dans les arènes internationales, dans les échanges commerciales, technologiques...

Q3:.....

I: Actuellement, je pense que l'Anglais est en train de supplanter et surclasser le Français. De plus en plus, il est en train de s'imposer réellement comme la langue la plus importante. Dans l'avenir, bien que le Français continuera à garder un peu de son emprise sur les anciennes colonies françaises, l'Anglais finira par complètement s'imposer comme langue internationale.

Q4 & Q5:.....

I: Globalement, il m'est difficile de donner une réponse catégorique à une telle question parce que les moyens utilisés pour l'enseignement de cette langue diffèrent d'un milieu à un autre, selon qu'on est dans une institution financièrement puissante pour pouvoir s'équiper ou qu'on est dans une qui n'en a pas. C'est ainsi qu'il y a des milieux où l'on remarque par exemple l'état défectueux du parler c.à.d. qu'il y a échec du côté parler. C'est le cas de Mbuji mayi et du Kasai Oriental. On peut avoir des professeurs qualifiés, mais qui ne parviennent pas à communiquer les mécanismes du parler avec précision et à la perfection. Il faut avoir des moyens, des labos de langues...suivre individuellement chacun des locuteurs pour pouvoir le corriger... Donc, l'échec se situe dans le parler c.à.d. qu'on peut avoir bien maîtrisé les règles de grammaire, connaître la conjugaison, avoir un vocabulaire fourni..etc..., mais ne pas être capable de les utiliser pour le parler, faute de pouvoir disposer d'un exemple phonique, auditif... Donc, même si je n'ai pas fait un constat d'échec, il y a toutefois lieu de dire (vu le nombre initial de tous ceux qui apprennent l'Anglais et le nombre final de ceux qui

réellement parviennent à se débrouiller pour parler) qu'il y a échec.

Q6:.....

I: Prenons le cas de Mbujimayi, car doté d'un ISP. Il y a moyen d'arriver à une amélioration de l'enseignement d'Anglais dans ce sens que si on collaborait avec l'ISP qui (comme tout enseignement supérieur et universitaire, a la vocation populaire) pourrait organiser des séances de labos pour les élèves et professeurs d'Anglais du secondaire, des séances de recyclage et de formation continue pour les enseignants...

Q7:.....

a).....

I: L'Anglais est une langue. Le système d'examen qui est en train de s'asseoir ici chez-nous (le choix multiple) ne devrait pas être étendu à l'enseignement des langues. Mais malheureusement il l'est. Pour moi, l'examen doit être du type traditionnel: des questions ouvertes qui obligent l'interrogé à réfléchir, à construire des phrases, à disserter, à rédiger... plutôt que de lui proposer des réponses desquelles il doit choisir une seule. Pour l'apprentissage d'une langue, ce genre d'examen n'est pas bon car il n'aide pas l'élève à acquérir la langue.

Sin: Donc, quel type proposez-vous: l'oral, l'écrit ou le mélange oral-écrit?

I: Oral-écrit.

Sin: Pourquoi?

I: Ecrit: Pour voir à quel degré l'élève maîtrise les règles de grammaire et de l'orthographe.

Oral: Pour voir à quel degré il arrive à prononcer, à parler correctement. Ceci est aussi valable pour les interrogations.

b).....

I: Oui. Il y en a effectivement. Quand l'examen ou l'interrogation consiste en un choix multiple (comme c'est le cas actuellement), les élèves mettent l'accent sur les règles de grammaire, l'orthographe, sans faire d'efforts pour maîtriser le parler qui, pour moi, est le plus essentiel.

Q8:.....

I: Non, je ne pense pas. Quand nous étudions le Français (la littérature, l'histoire française), on n'a par exemple jamais altéré les textes de Voltaire, Baudelaire... Nous étudions tout en Français comme il nous parvient, pour mieux nous pénétrer de l'esprit qui prévalait à l'époque... Il n'a jamais été question d'altérer ou adapter cela. On ne peut pas, par exemple, adapter les livres de Jean Paul Sartre au contexte Zairois ou Africain sans en changer le fond. Ce qui n'est pas conseillé. Ce que nous pourrions

faire c'est de choisir des textes qui ne dépassent pas trop l'élève. Nous pourrions aussi élaborer, à côté des textes des auteurs anglais ou anglophones, des textes qui nous retrempe dans notre contexte afin que nous puissions parvenir à l'exprimer dans la langue nouvelle que nous apprenons. Mais il n'est pas conseillé d'adapter tous les textes au contexte Zairois ou Africain (ce qui est d'ailleurs impossible).

Q9, Q10, Q11, & Q12: .....

I: Je situerais ma réponse sur le plan économique car tout ceci suppose un engagement des fonds. Je pense qu'à court terme, les stages et les nouvelles méthodologies de l'enseignement de l'Anglais pourraient intervenir plus efficacement et sans beaucoup trop de moyens financiers, vu que notre pays est en crise financière. L'ISP et le Candip pourraient organiser des stages de formation, des séminaires de formation continue, des séances de recyclage... L'idéal serait de faire cela sur une très grande échelle, diffuser massivement les moyens didactiques... Mais cela est impossible pour le moment vu l'étendue de la tâche, le nombre d'écoles, le nombre de ceux qui dispensent et ceux qui reçoivent l'enseignement....

Sin: Mais, d'après vous, s'il y avait de l'argent, pensez-vous que le gouvernement serait disposé à innover l'enseignement de l'Anglais?

I: Oui. Ça entre dans les options fondamentales coulées sous forme de décisions d'Etat du Comité Central du M.P.R. Avant l'Equateur et le Kasai Oriental, j'étais à plusieurs reprises Chef de Cabinet du Commissaire d'Etat à l'E.P.S., et membre de la Commission Nationale de la Réforme de l'E.P.S. (et je le suis encore). Donc, la réforme est en chantier, et je sais que l'enseignement de l'Anglais y occupe une position qui n'est pas négligeable. Ceci parce que tout le monde est d'avis que l'Anglais est devenu tellement important qu'il n'y a plus moyen pour nous de nous développer sans concours extérieur. Donc, la volonté politique y est déjà. Mais ce sont les moyens qui font encore défaut.

Q13 & Q14:.....

I: Les pouvoirs politiques ont constaté que l'enseignement en général est en baisse. Alors ils ont fait appel à tous ceux qui y sont impliqués de proposer des solutions. Donc, ils voudraient que les solutions soient initiées par la base. Eux les étudieront, et les décisions qui en découleront devront être exécutées par la base. Ce qui est positif est que ces décisions seront initiées par la base, c.à.d. par ceux-là mêmes qui sont sur le terrain, ceux-là mêmes qui s'occupent directement de l'enseignement (enseignants, autorités éducatives régionales...)

Q15 & Q16:.....

I: Justement. Dans le cadre de la réforme dont je viens de parler, notre devoir est de consulter tous ceux qui sont de l'enseignement (à tous les niveaux) et de récolter leurs avis, suggestions... que nous transmettons aux autorités du sommet. Et ce sont ces critiques, ces appréciations, ces suggestions... qui constitueront la base sur laquelle seront élaborées les décisions finales qui devront être exécutées par la base.

Q17:.....

I: Plutôt que de condamner cet enseignant-là (qui appliquerait une méthode nouvelle dont les résultats seraient bons), nous constituerons une commission (inspecteurs, d'autres enseignants, membres du Bureau Pédagogique de la Division de l'E.P.S.) qui ira assister à quelques leçons données par cet enseignant-là. Si réellement les résultats sont positifs, et si tout cela est en conformité avec le programme officiel en vigueur, alors nous serons très contents d'avoir obtenu quelque chose de positif pour notre enseignement. Nous ferons alors des propositions que nous soumettrons à l'instance supérieure afin qu'elles soient considérées dans la réforme.

Q18:.....

I: Non. Je pense que la résistance aux réformes est retrouvée chez les individus qui s'estiment incapables de suivre le changement, ou qui pensent qu'ils seraient dépassés par lui, par l'innovation. Ce sont le conservatisme et l'incapacité à s'adapter au changement qui sont les sources réelles des résistances et oppositions.

Q19:.....

I: Le conservatisme d'abord. Le conservatisme est un problème de générations. Chaque génération croit que ce qu'elle a fait ou fait est plus valable que ce qu'a fait ou fait une autre génération. Il y a peut-être aussi les intérêts des groupes. Certains groupes défendent certaines façons d'agir ou de faire pour des raisons (surtout matérielles ou de prestige) qui leur sont propres. Mais je ne vois pas ce cas s'appliquer ici chez-nous. D'où, je suis d'avis que c'est le premier cas qui est le plus important ici chez-nous.

Sin: Ne pensez-vous pas que le côté rémunération pourrait aussi pousser les gens à résister ou à s'opposer à des changements?

I: Bien sûr que oui. Surtout quand la réforme requiert une augmentation de l'effort à fournir dans le travail, mais sans une augmentation parallèle de salaire. Oui, les résistances qu'on pourrait rencontrer dans ce cas peuvent se manifester sous les formes suivantes: soit on néglige carrément la tâche, soit qu'on l'exécute mais en la baclant,

soit qu'on refuse de l'exécuter tout simplement (ce qui est très rare). Mais, est-il que, d'une manière ou d'une autre, on finit toujours par ne pas exécuter la tâche comme il se doit.

Q20:.....

I: Les sources de résistance et d'opposition se situent à tous les niveaux. Chez les pouvoirs publics, chez les enseignants, chez les élèves. Mais la plus importante d'elles est celle manifestée par les enseignants: sans leur concours, leur bonne volonté, il ne peut pas y avoir d'enseignement, même s'il y a de bonnes méthodes, de bons salaires, de bons élèves....En deuxième position viennent les pouvoirs publics car ce sont eux qui pourvoient les fonds et les autres moyens matériels qui facilitent l'enseignement. En plus ils ont souvent le droit de regard et de veto sur ce qui se fait dans l'enseignement. Enfin viennent les élèves. Leurs résistances et oppositions sont conditionnées par ce que font les pouvoirs politiques, et surtout les enseignants.

Q21:.....

I: Les solutions tiennent d'abord à l'argent. Le premier remède serait d'améliorer les salaires des enseignants. Mais ceci est très improbable vu la conjoncture économique extrêmement dure que traverse notre pays. Le deuxième remède (et celui réalisable dans les conditions où nous nous trouvons) et peut-être la plus importante est d'améliorer les méthodes d'enseignement afin qu'elles soient réellement adaptées à ceux qui apprennent; ceci afin qu'ils puissent avoir le courage, la détermination, et l'envie d'étudier. Ainsi, vu dans cet angle, les enseignants sont (à côté des élèves) les plus susceptibles à déterminer les résultats finals de l'apprentissage. Pour qu'ils mènent à bien leur tâche, il faudrait qu'ils soient convaincus que ce qu'ils font ou qu'on leur demande de faire est valable pour eux, et bon pour les élèves. A partir d'eux, on pourrait facilement atteindre les élèves et les instances supérieures.

## 2.3.4.2.

## THE KINSHASA POLIT. EDUCAT. AUTHORITY'S INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Q1.....

I: Parce que, pour survivre dans le monde d'aujourd'hui (surtout pour nous pays en voie de développement) il faut être en contact avec les autres pays, surtout ceux qui ont une avance en technologie, sciences... C'est pour profiter des inventions, découvertes... faites par ces pays-là.

Q2:.....

I: Ici chez-nous, le Français (à cause du passé colonial) semble avoir le dessus sur l'Anglais. Mais cette dernière langue est en train de faire des progrès inouis et, je suis sûr que d'ici moins de dix ans, elle deviendra, si pas plus importante, mais peut-être aussi importante que le Français. Dans les échanges internationales, c'est l'Anglais qui est la plus importante.

Q3:.....

I: Comme je viens de le dire, le Français est en train de perdre du terrain. L'Anglais est en train de s'imposer. D'ici quelque temps, même dans les ex-colonies françaises, l'Anglais finira par prendre le dessus.

Q4 & Q5:.....

I: Quand nous considérons le nombre de tous ceux qui étudient l'Anglais et celui de ceux qui parviennent à le parler plus ou moins d'une façon acceptable, nous sommes inévitablement forcés de conclure qu'il y a échec. Mais nous devons toutefois accepter le fait qu'il y a aujourd'hui beaucoup plus de Kinois qui écrivent et comprennent ce qui est écrit en Anglais, même s'ils ne sont pas capables de parler cette langue comme il faut. Ceci s'explique par le fait qu'il y a de plus en plus de sociétés qui exigent que leurs travailleurs soient capables de comprendre ce qui est écrit en Anglais. Mais d'une façon générale, il y a échec.

Q6:.....

I: Ici à Kinshasa, la plupart de ceux qui étudient (élèves, étudiants...) et beaucoup d'enseignants d'Anglais suivent aussi des cours d'Anglais. Il y a beaucoup de rencontres, conférences, séminaires sur l'Anglais. Et beaucoup de gens y participent. Il y a aussi les Centres Culturels Anglais et Américain qui donnent aussi des cours accélérés d'Anglais. Ça coûte très cher, mais beaucoup d'élèves, enseignants... font



tout pour les suivre. Mais malgré ça, le taux de participation (comparé au nombre total de ceux qui apprennent l'Anglais) n'est pas élevé. Ainsi, on pourrait améliorer l'enseignement de l'Anglais en utilisant de bonnes méthodes d'apprentissage dans les écoles, en initiant les enseignants aux nouvelles méthodes et découvertes et inventions faites dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères.

Q7:.....

a).....

I: Vu que l'objectif principal de tout enseignement de langue est de parvenir à faire parler les élèves, je crois qu'il n'y a qu'une voie: C'est l'examen oral et les interrogatoires oraux. Mais ceci est plutôt très difficile vu le nombre d'élèves, le temps imparti à l'enseignant, les structures scolaires... et aussi les autres besoins des temps modernes. En fait, l'époque moderne n'exige pas seulement de parler la langue, mais aussi de la lire et de l'utiliser par écrit. C'est pour cette raison qu'il faudrait aussi coupler le type écrit à l'oral. Donc, pour moi, il faut une combinaison oral-écrit, mais avec l'accent de plus en plus marqué sur l'oral. Ainsi, on pourra contrôler si l'élève maîtrise tous les deux aspects de la langue.

b).....

I: Oui. En fait, s'il y a plus d'échec aujourd'hui du côté parler, la faute est en grande partie imputable au système d'interrogatoires et examens qui ne pousse pas les élèves à cultiver cet aspect-là. Le seul aspect sur lequel l'accent est mis dans le système actuel est l'écrit. Ainsi, les élèves ne fournissent pas l'effort qu'il faut pour exceller dans le parler. Oui, la relation de cause à effet existe bel et bien.

Q8:.....

I: Je ne vois pas comment on pourrait adapter des textes exprimant une culture donnée à un milieu exprimant une autre culture! Si jamais on parvenait à le faire, alors les traits culturels initialement exprimés ne seraient plus tous de cette culture-là. Donc, une partie des réalités linguistiques de la langue serait aussi perdue. Ce qu'on peut faire (et on le fait déjà), c'est de concevoir, à côté de ces textes-là, d'autres textes qui expriment les réalités de la culture de ceux qui apprennent. Ainsi, ils pourraient voir comment exprimer leurs réalités dans la langue qu'ils apprennent (en comparant cette façon de faire à celle utilisée par les natifs de la langue). Donc, il n'est ni possible, ni bénéfique ni même souhaitable d'adapter complètement aux contextes Zairois et Africain le contenu des textes.

Q9, Q10, Q11, & Q12:.....

I: Je crois que l'Etat voudrait bien améliorer l'enseignement de l'Anglais en particulier, et tout l'enseignement en général. Mais ce sont les possibilités financières qui lui manquent. Mais toutefois, à court terme (car ne demandant pas un engagement de fonds), l'initiation des enseignants aux nouvelles méthodes d'enseignement et par conséquent l'organisation des séminaires et des séances de recyclage, de formation ici au pays sont les mieux indiquées.

Sin: Et à moyen et à long termes?

I: Je crois l'amélioration des conditions de travail (y compris les salaires) devrait venir en deuxième position, et la restructuration du reste après.

Sin: Le reste? Quoi par exemple?

I: La diminution du nombre d'élèves par classe, qui devra s'accompagner d'une augmentation du nombre d'écoles et d'enseignants...etc... Ceci est à vraiment long terme car, comme vous le voyez, ça suppose beaucoup de moyens financiers et beaucoup de temps pour concevoir et implanter.

Q13 & Q14:.....

I: Nous avons constaté qu'il y a en général une baisse dans le niveau de l'enseignement ici chez-nous. Donc les instances supérieures du pays cherchent à réformer tout le système. Elles ne veulent pas imposer des solutions toutes faites, qui proviendraient par exemple d'une imitation du système d'un autre pays. D'ailleurs, presque tout le système en application jusqu'à présent est en grande partie copié d'un autre pays. Et c'est l'une des raisons pour lesquelles (nous supposons) il y a crise. Ce que l'Etat voudrait implanter maintenant est un système conçu dans le pays, par ceux-là mêmes qui s'occupent de l'enseignement. Ce sont eux qui, finalement, connaissent ce qui va et ce qui ne va pas. Ainsi, on voudrait que les suggestions viennent de la base de la hiérarchie scolaire (enseignants, directeurs, inspecteurs...). Ces suggestions seront étudiées par le sommet et formulées en recommandations et décisions à exécuter par la base.

Q15 & Q16:.....

I: Comme je viens de le dire, pour minimiser les chances de rejet de la réforme, nous voudrions qu'elle soit basée sur les suggestions, critiques... de ceux qui réellement s'occupent de l'enseignement. C'est ainsi que nous avons le devoir de les écouter et de transmettre leurs critiques, suggestions et appréciations aux autorités centrales.

Q17:.....

I: C'est dans ce sens que nous sommes supposés considérer tout ce qui nous arrive de

nos collaborateurs et de leurs collaborateurs. Ainsi, l'enseignant qui utiliserait une nouvelle approche devrait être consulté, son approche appréciée (sur le champs et en théorie) par une commission que nous mettrons sur pieds. Si les résultats de l'enquête sont positives, alors nous les acheminerons à la commission de réforme pour étude.

Q18:.....

I: Comme dans toute entreprise humaine, il y a résistance et opposition au changement là où l'individu se voit menacé par le changement. Cette menace peut être le fait que l'individu ne se sent pas capable de s'adapter au changement, ou qu'il essaie de protéger certains intérêts. Dans l'enseignement, la résistance et l'opposition au changement suivent cette voie aussi. Ce sont ceux qui se sentent menacés qui résisteront et s'opposeront.

Q19:.....

I: Je crois la plus grande source (et je crois elle est la synthèse des autres sources) est le besoin de garder le statu quo, soit par peur du nouveau, soit pour sauvegarder des intérêts, soit pour ces deux combinés.

Sin: Pensez-vous que la rémunération peut aussi être une source de résistance?

I: Oui. Surtout si le changement augmente le travail à faire, mais pas le salaire. Mais comme je viens de le dire, même ce cas peut être expliqué par la volonté de garder le statu quo: pas d'augmentation de salaire, mieux vaut continuer à faire ce qu'on a toujours fait.

Q20:.....

I: Tous ceux qui sont impliqués dans une activité sont susceptibles de faire montre de résistance et d'opposition. Les enseignants, les autorités politico-administratives, les parents, les élèves. En bref tous ceux qui ont un rôle à jouer dans l'enseignement. Mais d'après moi, les enseignants occupent le sommet car ce sont eux qui (avec les élèves) font l'enseignement (même si chez-nous on semble ne pas l'accepter). Car sans eux, il n'y a pas d'enseignement. Cela est aussi vrai pour les élèves. Mais, l'enseignant est plus car il se trouve localisé entre le pouvoir politique et les élèves. Puis vient le pouvoir politique car c'est lui qui donne les fonds. Et enfin, viennent les élèves, les parents...

Q21:.....

I: La première solution est de mettre l'enseignant à l'aise: augmenter son salaire, le mettre dans de bonnes conditions pour le motiver, l'encourager à travailler, à fournir le meilleur de lui-même. Ceci est difficile vu la crise économique que traverse notre

pays. Mais, même si cela était fait, ce ne serait pas une garantie pour le succès. En effet, l'enseignant peut être motivé, peut donner le meilleur de lui-même mais ne pas toujours réussir si les élèves ne sont pas motivés, intéressés. Le seul moyen de les intéresser est de leur permettre de voir de par eux-mêmes qu'ils font du progrès, qu'ils sont capables ... et qu'à la longue ils réussiront. S'ils n'ont pas cette conviction, ce sera peine perdue. Et le meilleur moyen (et je pense l'unique) de le faire est d'utiliser des méthodes d'enseignement qui leur permettent de tirer de telles conclusions. Ceci passe inévitablement par l'enseignant qui lui est celui-là même qui devra utiliser ces méthodes-là. Pour qu'il le fasse de bonne foi, il faudrait qu'il soit convaincu que ce qu'on lui demande de faire ou ce qu'il fait est valable, et est bon pour ses élèves. Donc dans notre situation actuelle, il faudrait commencer par chercher à implanter des méthodes d'enseignement qui répondent réellement aux aspirations et des enseignants et des élèves.

APPENDIX 3.

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## MISCELLANEOUS

## Contents

Fig.1: The 4 Zairean National Languages (3.1.)

Fig.2: The 4 Major Localities Where the Fieldwork Was Conducted (3.2.)

Fig.3: Zairean Education System (3.3.)

Table 24: The *Cycle d'Orientation* Curriculum (3.4.)

Table 25: Secondary Schools That Participated in the Investigation (3.5.)

Table 26: All the Schools That Participated in the Investigation (3.6.)

Table 27: Types and Number of Observed Lessons (3.7.)

The *Fiche de Préparation* (3.8.)

Table 28: Schools, Levels, Number and Types of Observed Lessons (3.9.)

Table 29: Number (per School & Form) of Participants in Observed Lessons (3.10.)

Table 30: Total Numbers (per Group & Lesson Type) of Participants in Observed Lessons (3.11.)

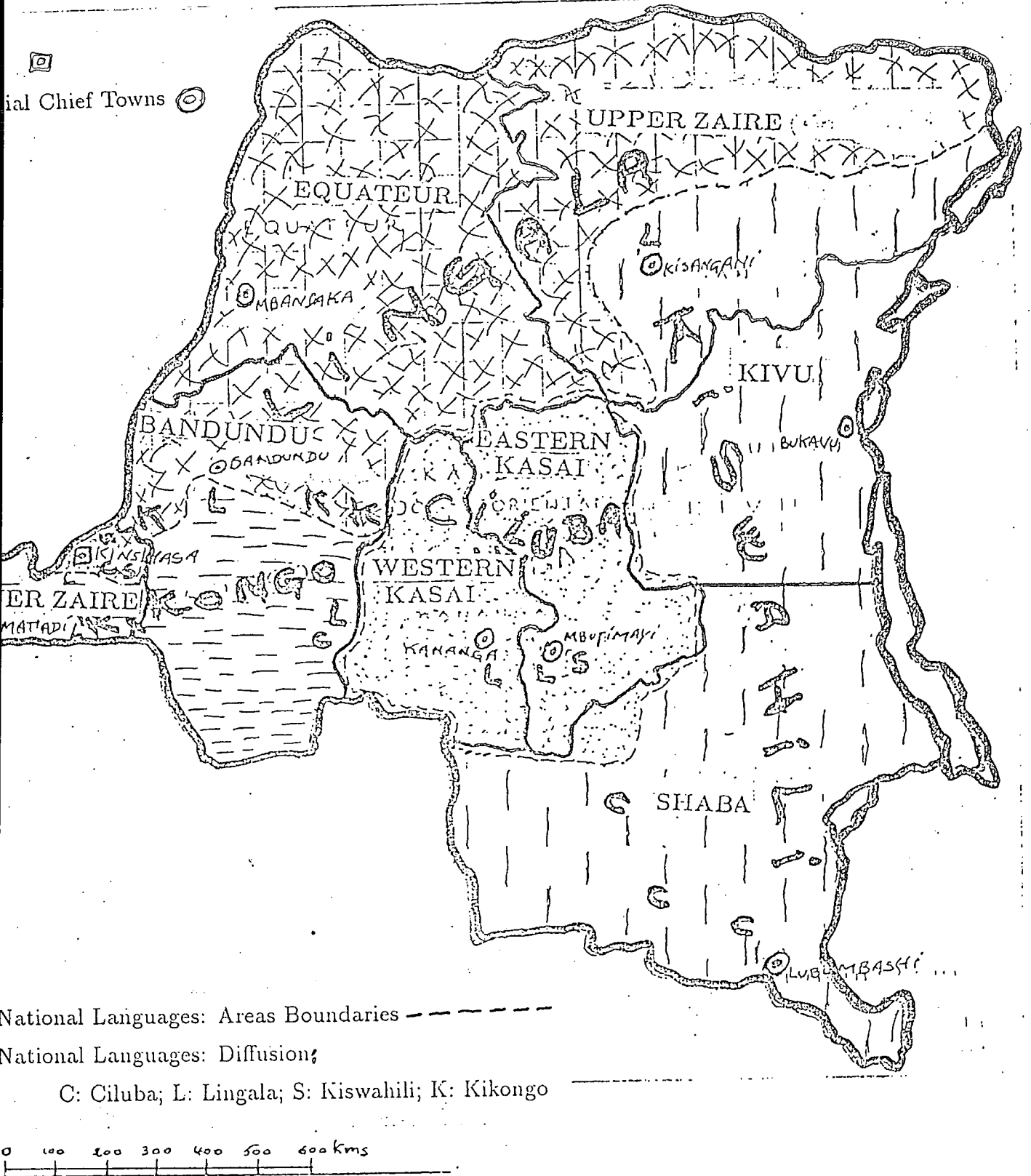
Table 31: Participants We Talked To After Observing Lessons (3.12.)

Table 32: Compared Summaries of Data of Items 39 to 63 of Q.2, Q.3, and Q.4 (3.13.).

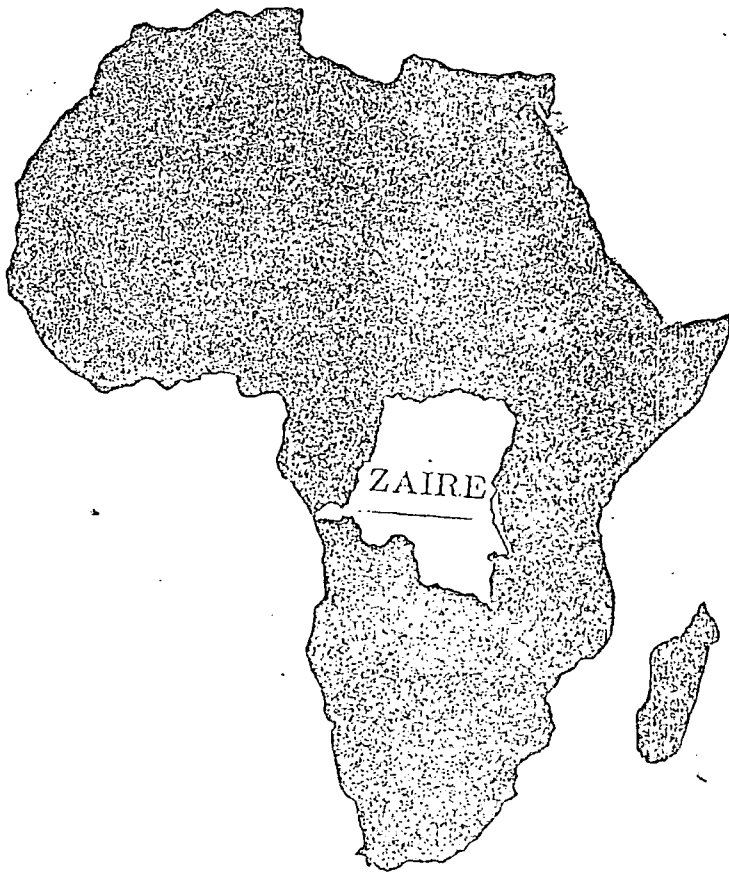
Fig.4: Pictures of Two of the Schools We Worked With (3.14.).

3.1.

Fig.1.: The 4 Zairean National Languages  
(Source: Acct-Cerdotola, 1983).

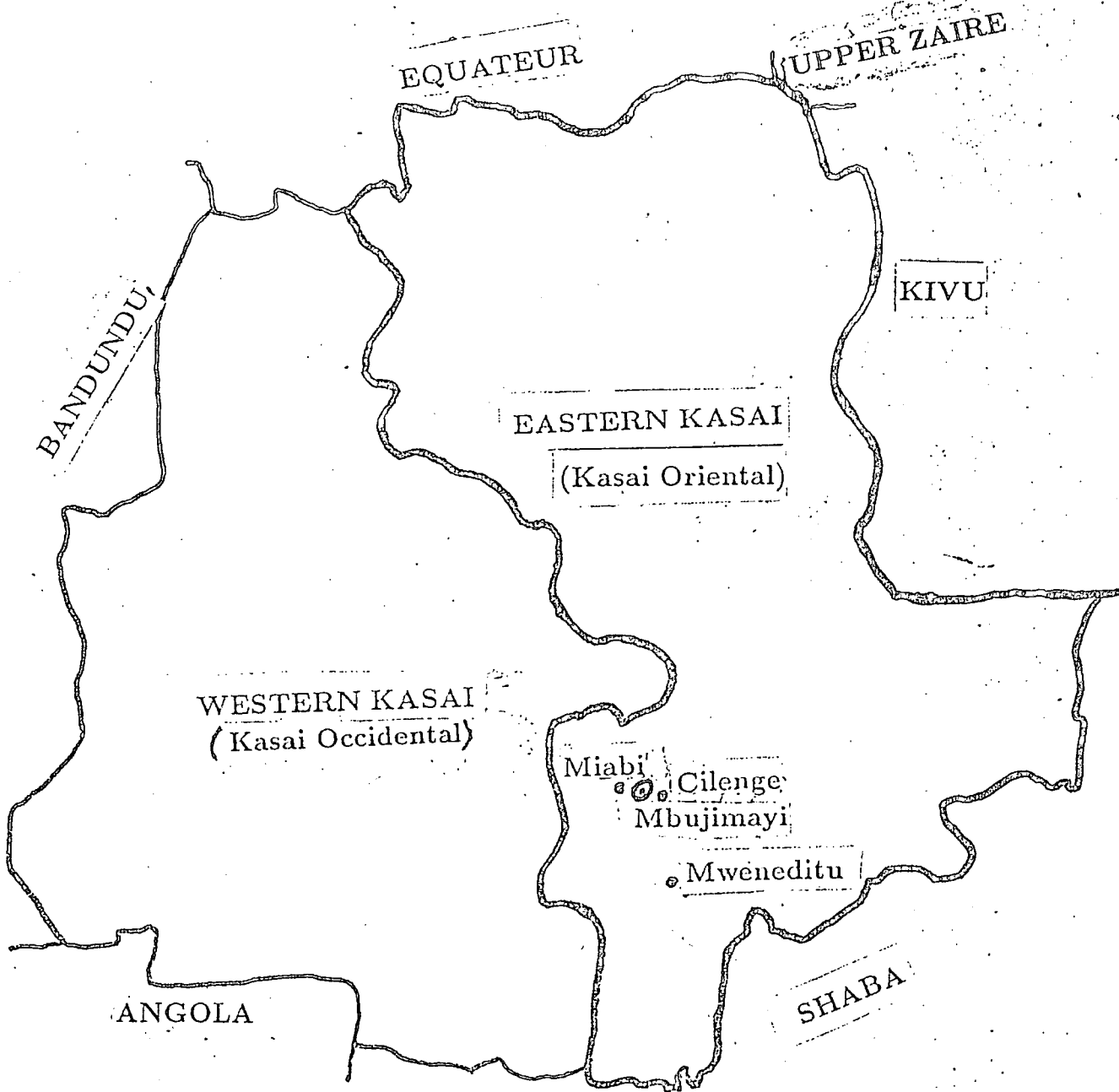


ZAIRE (in Africa)



3.2.

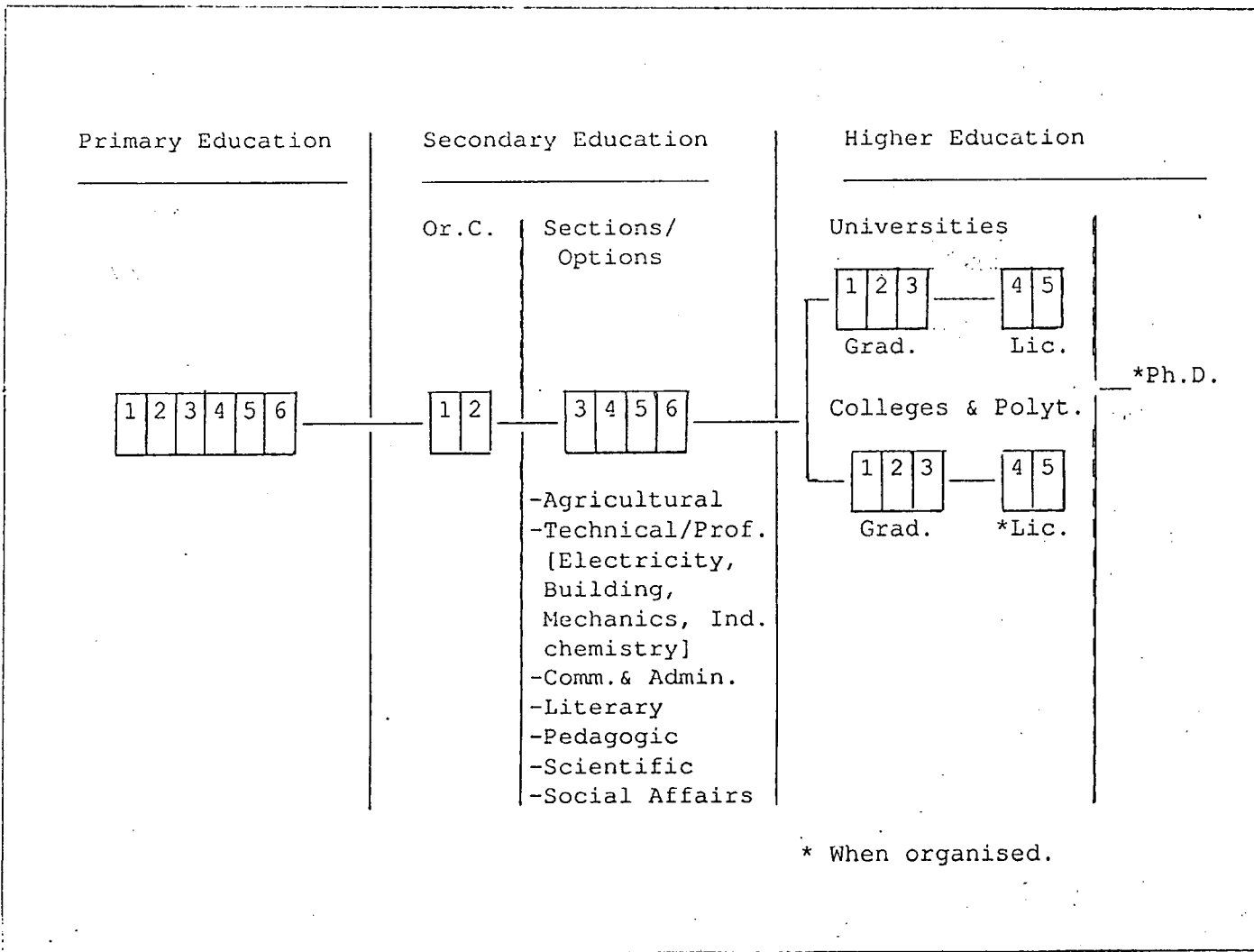
Fig.2.: The 4 Major Localities Where the Fieldwork was Conducted





3.3.

Fig.3.: Zairean Education System



## 3.4.

Table 24: The Cycle d'Orientation Curriculum  
 (Source: Georis & Baudouin, 1965:96).

Matières	1e Année	2e Année
Religion/ Morale	2	2
Education Civique	1	1
Français	10	8
Anglais	-	-
Histoire	2	3
Mathématiques	7+	6
Sciences Naturelles	2	2
Géographie	2	3
Technologie	1	3+
Education Physique	2+	2+
Musique	0+	0+
Dessin	2	2

1000?

## 3.5.

Table 25: Secondary Schools That Participated in the Investigation.

Localities	Schools selected		School/sex				Totals
	Regular	Evening	Regular			Evening	
			M	F	MX	MX	
Mbujimayi	12	2	1	3	8	2	14
Cilenge	2	-	-	1	1	-	2
Miabi	2	-	-	1	1	-	2
Mweneditu	2	-	-	1	1	-	2
	18	2	1	6	11	2	20

## 3.6.

Table 26: All the Schools That Participated in the Investigation

	Localities	Number of schools
Secondary schools	Mbujimayi	14
	Miabi	2
	Mweneditu	2
	Cilenge	2
Univ. + Coll. of H. Education	Mbujimayi (ISP)	1



## 3.8.

## Fiche De Préparation

Nom:..... Fiche No.:.....  
 Branche:..... Date:.....  
 Classe:..... Heure:.....

## I. SUJET DE LA LEÇON: (Type and Title of lesson)

- a) *Manuels et Documents consultés*: (Books and other written material used to prepare the lesson)
- b) *Matériel didactique*: (Teaching aids used)
- c) *Objectifs (généraux et spécifiques) de la leçon*: (General & specific aims of the lesson)

## II. PLAN &amp; PROJET DU DEROULEMENT DE LA LEÇON DANS LE TEMPS:

(Actual lesson plan, and time devoted to each part)

- a) *Rappel*: (Recall)
- b) *Introduction*:
- c) *Développement*:
- d) *Synthèse*:

## III. TACHES IMPOSEES AUX ELEVES:

(What the learners write in their class diaries for the next lesson(s))

- a) *Leçon*:
- b) *Devoir*:
- c) *Autres Tâches*:

## 3.9.

Table 28: Schools, Levels, Number and Types of Observed Lessons

Schools	Observed Lessons			
	Voc.	Gramm.	Reading	Convers.
Dibwa	-	3rd (1)	4th (1)	5th (1)
	-	-	-	6th (1)
Mulemba	2nd (1)	-	3rd (1)	-
	3rd (1)	-	5th (1)	-
Musungula	-	2nd (1)	2nd (1)	3rd (1)
	-	-	-	4th (1)
Mwanjadi	4th (1)	4th (1)	6th (1)	2nd (1)

## 3.10.

Table 29: Number (per school &amp; form) of Participants in Observed Lessons

Schools	Number of Students				
	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Dibwa	-	45	45	41	40
Mulemba	40	40	-	40	-
Musungula	45	45	40	-	-
Mwanjadi	42	-	39	-	33
Totals	127	130	124	81	73

## 3.11.

Table 30: Total Numbers (Per Group and Lesson Type) of Participants in Observed Lessons

Group	Vocabulary	Grammar	Reading	Conversation
1	119	129	130	127
2	-	-	73	81

## 3.12.

Table 31: Participants We Talked to After Observing Lessons

Schools	Forms	Lessons	Students	Teachers
Mwanjadi	2nd	Gramm.	5	1
Dibwa	2nd	Vocab.	5	1
Musungula	3rd	Conv.	5	1
Mulemba	4th	Read.	5	1



## 3.13.

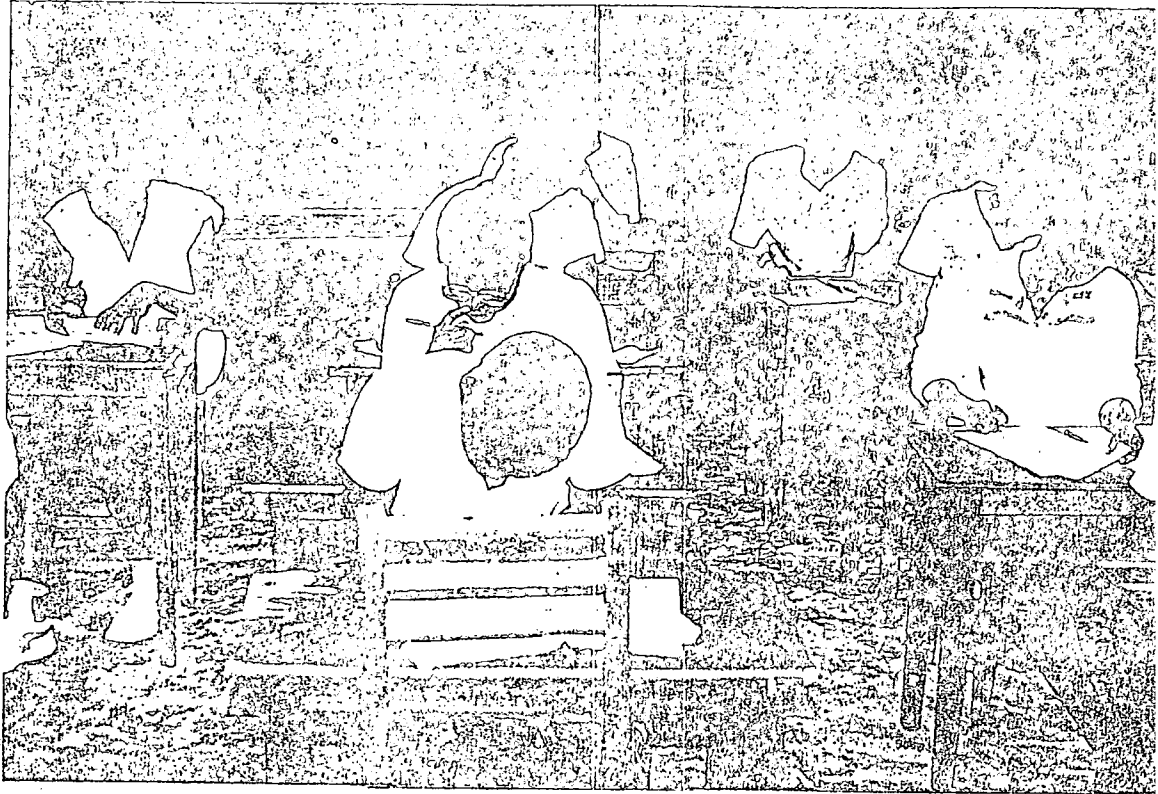
Table 32: Compared Summaries of Data of Items 39 to 63 of Q.2, Q.3, and Q.4

Items	Important			Not Important		
	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q2	Q3	Q4
39	100	93.30	100	-	-	-
40	100	100	=50	-	-	=50
41	100	60	100	-	-	-
42	100	93.30	100	50	50	50
43	-	-	-	94.44	80	66.66
44	-	-	-	100	53.30	70
45	100	80	83.33	-	-	-
46	100	93.30	93.33	-	-	-
47	100	80	96.66	-	-	-
48+50	-	-	-	94.09	69.95	88.33
49+51	97.91	96.65	100	-	-	-
52	-	-	50	51.38	60	50
53	-	-	-	93.05	86	90
54	97.22	100	96.66	-	-	-
55	100	100	100	-	-	-
56	100	100	100	-	-	-
57	-	-	-	96.52	100	96.66
58	79.16	100	90	-	-	-
59	100	100	96.66	-	-	-
60	98.61	100	100	-	-	-
61	100	93.30	100	-	-	-
62+63	-	-	-	59.02	70	89.99

3.14.

Fig.4: Pictures of Two of the Schools We Worked With

Girls during a questionnaire session (Cilenge).



Two of ISP buildings (Mbujimayi)

