PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REBUPLIC OF ALGERIA

MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

Frères Mentouri Constantine1 University

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English Language

Towards a more Democratic Model to English Language Curriculum

Development through Task−based Action Research:

The Case of Secondary School Teachers of the Wilaya of Sétif

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctorat ES-Sciences in Applied Linguistics

By Miss. Ikhlas GHERZOULI

Board of Examiners

Chairman: Pr. Hacene SAADI   **Pr. Frères Mentouri Constantine1 University**

Supervisor: Pr. Abdelhak NEMOUCHI   **Pr. LBM Oum El Bouaghi University**

Examiner: Pr. Said KESKES   **Pr. ML. Debaghine Sétif2 University**

Examiner: Pr. Ryad BELOUAHEM   **Pr. Frères Mentouri Constantine1 University**

Examiner: Dr. Charif BENBOULAID   **MCA M. Benboulaid Batna2 University**

Academic Year 2017-2018

Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this thesis is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at this or any other institution.

Ikhlas GHERZOULI

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my wonderful family. I dedicate this thesis to my father who taught me that education is the way to a brighter future. I dedicate this work to my mother for her enormous contribution to getting me where I am. I dedicate this thesis to my sisters, Ibtissem, Imen, Ahlem, and my brother Isaak, who have been supportive friends on this arduous journey. I also dedicate my degree to my lovely nephews Barae and Tayem. I would not have achieved my doctoral degree without the strength and love of my family.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

In the 21st century, the need for countries around the world to circumnavigate through the impact of globalization with more responsive school curricula was evident. In Algeria, curriculum reform of the year 2003 was an effort towards this end. In view of the crucial role that teachers play when involved in curriculum reforms, the study seeks to recommend a model to curriculum development that seeks to involve teachers by combining top-down government mandates with bottom-up teachers-based initiatives. More explicitly, the study aims at exploring and identifying perceptions, views and concerns of secondary school English language teachers' on their implementation of Curriculum 2003 for English language teaching. The study also aims at revealing barriers to their autonomy and involvement in curriculum development in order to pave the way for a deeper understanding and planning towards such an involvement. Ultimately, the definitive purpose of the investigation was to illustrate how teacher action research can be encouraged in schools to allow for teachers' initiatives to supply top-down attempts to develop curricula. The critical paradigm was the conceptual framework guiding the present research with data availed through a questionnaire survey for secondary school English language teachers at Sétif province and asynchronous email interviews with five national education inspectors of secondary schools. Proportional stratified random sampling provided the 156 participants of the study. Quantitative data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS 23.0 whereas the process of analysis for qualitative data was built upon the techniques of thematic analysis. The findings advocated the existence of imbalanced power relation between the government and teachers with the former controlling and dictating curriculum from the centre as well as excluding teachers from the whole process of curriculum development. Though the good intentions of the curriculum 2003 are acknowledged, these were constrained by a multitude of curriculum, instructional, organizational, and institutional factors. Several concerns to be considered for teacher training and support also evolved from analysis of teachers' perceptions of the curriculum reform and implementation. The findings and recommendations of this research are expected to alert both teachers and policy makers to consider seriously and acknowledge the delicate role that teachers should play and the status quo they should have in curriculum development. The findings of the study have also implications for policy makers, who can either encourage or discourage curriculum reforms and therefore possibly affect the sustainability of the teaching power and overall education effectiveness.

Key to Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACC: Administrative Coordination Council

AFD: AgenceFrançaise de Development (French Agency of Development)

BA: Bachelors of Arts

BAC: Baccalaureate Exam

BEF: Brevet d'Enseignement Fondamental (Basic Education Certificate)

BEG: Brevet d'Enseignement Général (Certificate of General Education)

BEM: Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen (Middle School Certificate)

BEPC: Brevet d'Etudes du Premier Cycle du Second Degré (Middle School Leaving Certificate)

BS: Bachelors of Science

BSC: Brevet Supérieur de Capacité (professional teacher certificate)

BT: Brevet de Technicien (Technical Aptitude)

BTS: Brevet de Technicien Supérieur (Technical Expertise)

CAMEMD: Le Centre d'Approvisionnement et de Maintenance en Equipements et Matériels Didactiques (The Supply and Maintenance Centre for Equipment and Training Materials)

CAP: Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique(teaching certificate)

CAP: Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle (Vocational Aptitude Certificate)

CAPEF: Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Fondamental (Middle School Teaching Certificate)

CAPEM: Certificat D'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Moyen (Middle School Teaching Certificate)

CAPES: Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Secondaire (secondary school teaching certificate)

CBA: Competency-Based Approach

CC: Class Council

CCGP: Certificat de Culture Générale et Professionnelle(General Culture Certificate)

CCGP: Certificat de Culture Générale et Professionnelle (General and Professional Culture Certificate)

CEP: Certificat d'Etudes Primaires (Primary School Leaving Certificate)

CFA: Centre de Formation d'Apprentis (Apprenticeship Centres)

CFEI: Certificat de Fin d'Etudes d'Instructeur (Certificate of Completion)

CFPS: Certificat de Formation Professionnelle Spécialisée (Specialized Vocational Training)

CLA: Conseil des Lycées d'Algérie (Council for Secondary Schools in Algiers)

CLS: Comité pour les Libertés Syndicales (Committee for Trade Unions' Freedom)

CMP: Certificat de Maitrise Professionnelle (Vocational Expertise Certificate)

CNA: Le Centre National d'Alphabétisation (National Centre for Literacy)

CNAPEST: Conseil National Autonome des Professeurs de L'Enseignement Secondaire et Technique (National Autonomous Council of Secondary and Technical Education Teachers)

CNDP: Le Centre National de la Documentation Pédagogique (National Centre for Educational Documentation)

CNEF: Le Conseil National de l'éducation et de la formation (National Council of Education and Training)

CNEG: Centre National d'Enseignement Généralisé(National Centre for Generalised Education)

CNFCE: Centre National de la Formation des Cadres de l'Education (National Centre for Training of Education Managers)

CNIIPDTICE: Le Centre National d'Intégration des Innovations Pédagogiques et de Développement des Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication en Education

(National Centre for Integration of Educational Innovation and Development of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs))

CNP: Conseil National des Programmes(National Council of Programmes)

CNP: Commission Nationale des Programmes (National Committee of Programmes)

CNPLET: Le Centre National Pédagogique et Linguistique pour l'Enseignement de Tamazight (The National Pedagogical and Linguistic Centre for the Instruction of Tamazight)

CNR: Commission Nationale des Réformes (National Commission for Reforms)

CNRSE: Commission Nationale de Réforme du Système Educatif (National Commission for Reform of the Educational System)

DE: Director of Education

DEA: Diplome d'Etudes Approfondies (Diploma of Advanced Studies)

DEP1: Diplôme d'Enseignement Professionnel du Premier Degré (Basic Vocational Studies Diploma)

DEP2: Diplôme d'Enseignement Professionnel du Second Degré (Higher Vocational Studies Diploma)

EN: Ecoles Normale (Normal Schools)

ENS: Ecoles Normales Supérieures (teacher training colleges)

ENSEP: Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Enseignement Polytechnique

ENSET: Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Enseignement Technologique

FLN: National Liberation Front

FNAPE : Fédération Nationale des Associations des Parents d'élèves (National Federation of Parents of Students)

GC: Guidance Council

GI: General Inspectorate

GIP: General Inspectorate of Pedagogy

GSD: Groupes de Spécialité par Discipline (Subject-based teams)

ICT(s): Information and Communication Technology (ies)

IFCE: Instituts de Formation en Cours d'Emploi(in-service teacher-training institutes)

IFPM: Institut de Formation et de Perfectionnement des Maitres de l'école fondamentale (Institute of Teacher Training and Development)

IN: Inspector

INFPE: L'Institut National de Formation et de Perfectionnement des Personnels de l'Education (National Institute for the Training of Educational Personnel)

INRE: *L'Institut National* de *Recherche en Education* (National Institute of Research in Education)

IPN: L'Institut Pédagogique National (National Pedagogical Institute)

ITE(s): Institut(s) de Technologie de l'Education (Institutes of Education)

L: Lycée

LMD: License-Master-Doctorate

M: Municipality

MC: Multiple Choice

MEF: Maitre d'Enseignement Fondamental (primary school teacher)

MEN: Ministère de l'Education Nationale (Ministry of National Education)

MESRS: Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research)

MFEP: Ministère de la Formation et de l'Enseignement Professionnels (Ministry of Vocational Training and Education)

ONAEA: Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Education des Adultes (National Office for Adult Literacy and Education)

ONEC: Office National des Examens et Concours (The National Board of Examinations and Contests)

ONEF: L'Observatoire National de l'Education et de la Formation (National Observatory of Education and Training)

ONEFD: l'Office National d'Enseignement et de la Formation à Distance (National Office for Education and Distance Learning)

ONPS: Office National des Publications Scolaires (National Office for School Publications)

PARE: Programme d'Appui de l'UNESCO à la Réforme du Système Educatif (Programme of Support for the Reform of the Algerian Educational System)

PCSC: Programme Complémentaire de Soutien à la Croissance Economique (Programme for the Support of Economic Growth)

PEF: Professeur d'Enseignement Fondamental (middle school teacher)

PES: Professeur d'Enseignement Secondaire (secondary school teacher)

RD&D: Research, Development and Diffusion model

SCE: School Council of Education

SD: Standard Deviation

SDC: School Disciplinary Council

SEEDS: Strategic English Educational Development for Schools

SNAPEST: Syndicat National Autonome des Professeurs de L'Enseignement Secondaire et Technique (National Autonomous Union of Secondary and Technical Education Teachers)

St.: Statement

T: Teacher

TPD: Teacher Professional Development

TOC: Target Oriented Curriculum

UFC: Université de la Formation Continue (University of Continuing Education)

UNEFP: L'Union Nationale de l'Education et Formation du Personnel (The National Union of Education and Training Staff)

UNPEF: Union Nationale des Personnels de l'Education et de la Formation (National Union of Education and Training Personnel)

USAID: United States Agency for International Development

VET: Vocational Education and Training

Z: Zone

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Structure of the Algerian School System post to 2003

Appendix B: Structure of the Algerian School System prior to 2003

Appendix C: Central Administration of the Ministry of Education

Appendix D: Teachers Questionnaire

Appendix E: Inspectors Interview Questions

Appendix F: Secondary Schools of Sétif Province

Table of Contents

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Background to Algerian Educational Reforms

Post to independence in 1962, education and training of citizens in Algeria have become a consistently high priority for the government. As a result, the country lived a series of different education reforms right after independence. The most significant reform was that of Higher Education in 1971. The reform sought to mobilise the full potential of Algerian universities to support the ambitious economic, social and cultural transformation and development of the newly independent country. The 1971 reform was characterised by a change of teaching and learning methods, assessment modes, teaching contents, and management of universities to better respond to the country's needs. A modular scheme was introduced, new specialities, options and modules were created, and the academic year was prolonged and divided into two semesters. Nevertheless, the French organisation of studies remained in effect. Education was carried out following three cycles: a three-year post-baccalaureate diploma, a Diploma of Advanced Studies (*Diplome d'Etudes Approfondies (DEA)*), and a Third Cycle Doctorate (*Doctorat de Troisième Cycle*). This reform was replaced by another one in 1999 because it depended on political power, a top-down feature inherited from the French colonial system (Saad, Zawdi, Derbal & Lee, 2005).

The 1999 reform aimed to support the Algerian transition from a centralised to a free market economy. This fact prompted revision of the role of universities as regards provision of science and technology through teaching and research activities in an attempt to challenge globalisation (Saad et al., 2005). The reform also aimed to build a higher education system that would be driven not only by the objective of increasing quantity of output, but also the objective of enhancing credibility (Saad et al., 2005). The reform revolved around three main themes: democratisation, Arabisation and Algerianisation, without losing sight of the scientific and technological orientation of tertiary education this time, plus a return to the faculty system (Inter-ministerial Order of August 03, 1999).

The Algerian tertiary education framework is currently following the French uniform structure of degrees, which is known as the License-Master-Doctorate (LMD) system. This reform came into being since 2004 (Executive Decree N° 04-371 of November 21, 2004) and was designed to align Algerian Higher Education with international standards. The new degree framework is the one of the European Bologna Process, with a bachelor degree of three years, a two-year masters and a three-year doctorate (Executive Decree N° 08-265 of

August 19, 2008). The 2004 reform aimed at promoting students' mobility, providing them with the knowledge, skills and competencies required for the labour market, and lifelong learning (Saad et al., 2005).

Parallel reforms were also enacted in basic education. The first reform, so-called the fundamental school was applied in 1976. The reform targeted reconstruction of the school system structure and remodelled the years of schooling on a 6+3+3 basis (six years for primary school level, three years for middle school level and three years for secondary school level). The secondary education reform aimed also to create three branches of education; link basic and higher education; develop the evaluation system (Ordinance n° 76-35 of April 16th, 1976); and develop curriculum in terms of content, teaching methods and teacher training (World Bank, 1993).

Basic education in Algeria has not significantly changed since 1970. The government recognized that the fundamental schooling system was overwhelmed by quality and efficiency problems under *Mostefa Lachref* ministry. The system was marked by lack of facilities, trained teachers, and teaching materials; confusion and rigidity caused by differing educational philosophies; and large classes. Also, the phenomenon of high repetition and mass dropouts because of mass schooling was inherent. The plain causes have not been researched. Nevertheless, the government has categorized the early stated problems into institutional and instructional problems (World Bank, 1993).

In 2000, Algerian authorities felt the need to reform the education system, which was described as being 'doomed' by president *Abdelaziz Bouteflika* prior to his election as a president. The president began the massive task of reforming the educational system when he appointed 170 members of educators and politicians on May 13, 2000, to set up the 'National Commission for Reform of the Educational System' (*Commission Nationale de Réforme du Système Educatif*, known by its French initials as the CNRSE). The commission worked on its mission to outline the main thrusts of the reform for nearly a year. In mid-March 2001, it handed in its full report to the Algerian president (CNRSE, 2000). On August 13, 2003, Ordinance N° 03-08, that amended and completed the 1976 ordinance, was subsequently passed by the government to apply the new reforms.

A comprehensive curriculum review for each discipline, including the English language, was therefore carried out, the result of which was a new competency-based

curriculum. The English language curriculum forms the main agenda of the present study in an attempt to establish how it was conceived, managed, and implemented. The curriculum will be referred to as 'Curriculum 2003' (year of its implementation) throughout the whole thesis. By adopting the Competency-Based Approach (CBA), the Algerian authorities sought to achieve a new vision about teaching and learning English as a means to respond to global needs for communication and modernization. While stressing the importance of the teaching of foreign languages in Algeria, President *Abdelaziz Bourteflika,* in his official appointment of the CNRSE, declared (as cited in Ferhani, 2006) that:

> '… The mastery of foreign languages has become inevitable. To teach pupils, at an early age, one or two other widely spoken languages, is to equip them with the necessary assets to succeed in the world of tomorrow. As everybody knows, this can easily be accomplished by integrating the teaching of foreign languages into the various cycles of the educational system. This integration serves, on the one hand, to allow direct access to universal knowledge and promote openness on other cultures. On the other hand, it serves to ensure the necessary links between the various levels and fields of secondary education, vocational training and higher education'. [The researcher's own translation from French]

2. Statement of the Problem

Algerian public education policy is planned and monitored by the Ministry of National Education. The head of the ministry is the Minister of National Education, one of the highest ranking officials in the cabinet. The minister draws up policies and plans for national education; and draft relevant rules and regulations (Executive Decree N° 94-265 of September 06, 1994, Article 01). Besides, the minister determines the curriculum of each level of education (primary, middle and secondary) and establishes the methods and teaching schedules on the basis of National Council of Programmes (*Conseil National des Programmes (CNP)*) proposals (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008, Article 28). The CNP is charged with overhauling programmes in all disciplines. The curricula, as set and implemented by the ministry, constitute the official and mandatory reference framework for the set of educational activities in public as well as private education in the country (Article

29). Composition, functions and powers of the CNP are laid down by law (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008).

The country had realised the centrality of its curricula soon after independence by establishing a national pedagogic institute (*Institut Pédagogique National (I.P.N)*) in December 1962 by Decree N° 62-166 of December 31, 1962 (www.inre-dz.org). Efforts exerted at the ministry level resulted in the development of many textbooks for all schools levels in all subjects including that of English as a foreign language. Though, curriculum elaboration in Algeria is carried out by national competences, adoption of any textbook, at any level, will not take place without prior approval of the minister (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008, Article 91). Subject-based teams (*Groupes de Spécialité par Discipline (GSD)*) work on the curricula's proposals; nevertheless, final decisions regarding the scope and contents of curricula remain with the Ministry of Education (Executive Decree N° 15-307 of December 6, 2015).

The hierarchy of power, which is firmly entrenched in Algeria's education system, obliges a top-down process of curriculum development. Authorities or their representative institutions (top) author and transmit policy prescriptions to schools (bottom), and schools curricula become nation-wide and mandatory once they are approved by the ministry. Inspectors hold full responsibility for supervising and ensuring the implementation of curricula in schools (Executive Decree N° 12-240 of May 29, 2012 amending and completing Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008). At schools, neither local nor regional variations are permitted, and teachers are required and strictly enforced to comply with the national curricula as well as the ministerial instructions (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008, Article 20). Despite the traditionally hierarchical organisation of the Algerian educational system, the governmental good intentions and efforts in the aforementioned education reforms in general, and curriculum 2003 in particular are highly acknowledged.

In her efforts to further support the 2003 educational reform's ability to survive, the Algerian government was determined and extended the reform via the 2005-09 Programme for the Support of Economic Growth (*Programme Complémentaire de Soutien à la Croissance Economique (PCSC)*). The PCSC programme aimed at raising admission rates for secondary schools and higher education institutions. The programme included construction and modernization of education infrastructure as well (OBG, 2008). Nevertheless, the 2003 reform was strongly contested and criticized by national experts, teachers, unions and parents

(Bedouani-Kernane, 2013). Teachers nationwide voiced their dissatisfaction and objections about the overall education reform as well as their socio-professional demands. Teachers' resistance appeared in many forms ranging from body language to sit-ins and strikes on sidewalks

On April the 20, 2003, teachers prompted their first strike (after the reform) with a sit-in protest in front of the Presidential Palace in Algiers. The strike call, which was originally instigated by the National Autonomous Council of Secondary and Technical Education Teachers (*Conseil National Autonome des Professeurs de L'Enseignement Secondaire et Technique (CNAPEST)*) and the Council for Secondary Schools in Algiers (*Conseil des Lycées d'Algérie (CLA)*), received a favourable response. Thus, roughly 380.000 teachers and public education sector supporting employees gathered and held a demonstration to protest the then minister's (*Boubekeur Benbouzid*)-led education reforms (Belgacem, 2003). In a statement submitted to *Liberté* (a national newspaper), the CNAPEST threatened to boycott all final tests, including the Baccalaureate (BAC) exam if the government fails to dialogue with striking teachers and resolve their grievances (Tahraoui, 2003).

The demands pressed by the agitating teachers' included a call for teachers' participation in educational reforms; a 100% salary hike (Benalia, 2003b); a reduction of the retirement age to 25 years of service; and a reconsideration of tenured teachers' status (Belgacem, 2003). On account of the government refusal to present any offer to the striking teachers, many students, especially those in exam years, were affected by the walkout. The strain caused by the rotating strikes pushed dozens of students in Algiers, on the morning of their mock BAC Exam, to stage a sit-in outside the Academic Inspectorate headquarters to protest their situation. The students called for either an organization of two sessions for the BAC examination, or a total postponement of the examination dates (Lokmane Khelil, 2003a).

The conflict between the government and teachers became intensely more heated after *Benbouzid*'s 'resign or be fired' menaces. Teachers were accused by the government of carelessly treating their students like collateral damage and were urged to go back to their classrooms to get the courses started off without a hitch. Moreover, they were directed to obey and resume work in 48 hours. Failure to respect the ultimatum, May, 21, 2003, would automatically result in their sacking (Benalia, 2003a; Graïne, 2003; Merkouche, 2003). *Benbouzid* declared (as cited in Benalia, 2003a), in this vein, that failure to show up as

expected *'will simply be regarded as job abandonment… teachers will then be sacked without delay'*. To this end, *'a directive containing a number of legal details will be sent to schools heads immediately so that the law will be applied with all due rigour'*, he further asserted.

In a meeting with trade unions' representatives and the National Federation of Parents of Students (*Fédération Nationale des Associations des Parents d'élèves (FNAPE)*), *Benbouzid* reminded his audience that the CLA is in an illegal strike position as announced by the court of Algiers verdict of April, 23, 2003 (Benalia, 2003a). Nevertheless, with resilience that characterizes secondary school teachers; the strike has been declared to last for an undetermined period until teachers' voices are heard and their demands are met. Still, winds blow counter to what ships desire. The teachers' strike which has gone crescendo was cancelled by the unions because of a destructive earthquake that struck northern Algeria on May, 21, 2003 (Rouha, 2003). The 7.2 magnitude earthquake caused 2300 deaths, more than 12000 injuries and extensive property damage, and was the worst to hit the country since 1980 (Abachi, 2013).

With no deals yet in place, teachers planned to follow through on their threat to start a series of rotating strikes after summer holidays. At the top level, Algerian officials' rebuffed their entire overture at dialogue. Teachers' anger continued to mount and recurrent strikes were therefore organized on September, 17, 18, and 19, and then, 27, 28, and 29, 2003, before resorting to unlimited strikes (Bebbouchi, 2003a; Belgacem, 2003; Graïne, 2003). Moreover, the strike actions, which were initially limited to the capital per se, spread across many other cities (Annaba, Constantine, Sétif, Oran); thus, threatening the education process of the whole country (Afroun, 2003a; Bebbouchi, 2003b; Fattani & Bebbouchi, 2003).

On October, 5, 2003, the CLA staged a sit-in and declared 'October the 5th' a National Teachers Dignity Day. The CLA aim was to mobilize support for teachers and commemorate teachers' trade unions. Teachers vowed on that day to continue their fight until concrete steps are spelled out to deal with their impeding demands (Afroun, 2003b). However, teachers' commitment to the achievement of their rights steered the government to invoke emergent excessive restrictions on the right to strike. As resistance mounted between the two sides, police forces intimated and arbitrarily arrested 13 secondary school teachers in Algiers for alleged illegal demonstration. According to journalists, the teachers were just participating in a peaceful protest in front of their respective schools to press their demands (Chih, 2003; Lokmane Khelil, 2003b).

As conflicts between the government and teachers became even more intense, a committee for trade unions' freedom (*Comité pour les Libertés Syndicales (CLS)*) was born. The committee incorporated different autonomous associations, amongst which were the CLA and CNAPEST. The committee initiated, in one of its meetings, a national petition urging the government to cancel immediately and without conditions its arrests, suspensions and dismissals of teachers that followed the protest strikes. The CLS also called on the government to open a genuine dialogue to meet the requests put forward by the CLA and CNAPEST (Chih, 2003). Yet, after more than six months of bargaining the two sides remained far apart (Afroun, 2003c; Arezki, 2003; Lokmane, 2003).

The strike that hit Algeria in the school year 2003 paralysed the entire education sector at the time. Being the longest strike the nation has ever witnessed, the nine weeks work stoppage created a national conflict and marked a high point in contemporary Algeria (Naïm, 2003). With the danger of strike looming, and to ensure learning in all schools takes place without further interruption, the government threatened once again to sack striking teachers and replace them with unemployed new graduates as soon as *Benbouzid'*s ultimatum expires (Abdoun, 2003; Belaïdi, 2003a; Sebti, 2003). The heads of secondary schools, in their meeting with chiefs of the Inspectorate were instructed to apply all the measures indicated in the Ministerial Circular N° 1120 issued in November, 24, 2003. Nevertheless, despite all threats dissident teachers continued their strike (Belaïdi, 2003b; Mammeri, 2003a).

On December, 2, 2003, the next day after the ultimatum expiry, the government replaced teachers who did not comply with university graduates and took 16 union leaders to court (Belaïdi, 2003c; Rachidou, 2003; Takheroubt, 2003). To show solidarity with the dismissed teachers, dozens of secondary school students across the country left their schools and expressed their discontent with protest actions over the government's bullying measures. The students held banners and shouted slogans such as 'give us back our teachers' (Afroun, 2003d; Amir, 2003; Bebbouchi, 2003c) and 'no year off; no substitute teachers' (Boumediène, 2003). The government, in the meantime, stated that it was handling the matter and that classes resumed work as normal in most schools. This fact was confirmed by the trade unions' declaration to call off the strike the next day (Afroun, 2003e; Mammeri, 2003b).

To mitigate on the effects of the strike, *Benbouzid*, in his meeting with the FNAPE, exposed a make-up plan for the missed courses and directed that the school term be shifted by several weeks to ensure that students are not adversely affected by the work stoppage of their

teachers. The school year did not start as scheduled and was to run for 28 weeks, with a 4 to 8 days trimester break. As regards National Examinations, these were pushed back to July 10, 2004. Teachers resumed teaching to the relief of the government, students and their parents' anxiety over their fate of education. However, the confrontation between the government and unions was not over as unions' officials have pledged to resort to their protest actions if the government ignores their earlier stated demands (Afroun, 2003e).

The CNAPEST and CLA officials harshly criticized *Benbouzid's* make-up plan for the missed months. The unions' officials objected the fact that the make-up plan was drawn up by some bureaucrats of the ministry (as they avowed) rather than teachers and pedagogues. Also, they opposed the duration of the plan, which according to them, should differ from one school to another since the schools affected have not joined the strike at the same time (Afroun, 2003f). Despite the tentative deals that ended by sending students back to schools, the two sides kept blaming one another, and the threat of strike actions has become a yearly fixture. Though shorter than the strike of 2003, Algeria continued to witness general strikes in 2004 (Amir, 2004; Belaïdi, 2004), 2005 (Djadi, 2005), and 2006 (Abachi, 2006; Amir, 2005; 2006; Ammara, 2006, Houadef, 2006).

In 2006, the government set up new mechanisms to speed up the process of educational reform. This time, *Benbouzid*'s department targeted the management of educational institutions by introducing the 'performance management of educational institutions project'. *Benbouzid* highlighted that, through this project, the government aims to involve all stakeholders in the education policy. In this vein, he (as cited in Fattani, 2006) argued that '*through this project, everybody is now involved in the reform, and school councils' meetings will be open to students, parents and teachers'*. He further added, *'we are convinced, more than ever, that we cannot succeed in our reform process without the involvement of teachers, students and society. Benbouzid* concluded the same talk by saying: *'the strike does not make a future'*, addressing the trade unionists (Fattani, 2006)

In the same year, 2006, the Ministry of Education conducted a series of studies as an initial assessment of the 2003 reform project (MEN, 2006). The studies revealed no alignment between curricula, textbooks, teaching and classroom assessment methods, as well as a poor teachers' training. The studies displayed also that the educational reform was not clear and understood by teachers, students, parents and the society in general (Tawil, 2006). However, those studies tackled neither teacher's displeasure with reforms, nor solutions to uncover the

root causes of their resistance. The gap between the government and teachers remained so wide throughout the years; thus, the reform continued to get the blame and more similar strike actions, over the same demands were organized yearly.

National teachers' strikes were a major blow to public education and the government efforts to improve the quality of education in the country. In 2008, fifty-five contract teachers went on hunger strike for 40 days to protest against casualization of the teaching sector, where contract or casual teachers outnumbered permanent teachers in many cases. Teachers were also protesting over the non-payment of salaries and salary arrears. Some of them were owed more than three years back pay (Afroun, 2008; Bedar, 2008; Brahimi, 2008; Chebbine, 2008; Ouyahia, 2008; Salama, 2008). The government obstinate refusal to speak with teachers (Amir, 2011) only fueled the teachers' determination to continue the strike and deepened the crisis. The strike was only forced to end because of the deterioration of striking teachers' health conditions, but teachers were not integrated. Nevertheless, national competitions started to consider the years of teaching experience that teachers accumulate since then.

In 2009, national strike actions resulted in a three-week lockout of all schools in all educations levels (Adel, 2009; Amir, 2009; Bedar, 2009; Benhocine, 2009; Bentahar, 2009; Bouabdellah, 2009; Boulahbal, 2009; Djama, 2009a; 2009b; Djekhar, 2009; Madani, 2009; Mekla, 2009; Mokrani, 2009; Senouci, 2009; Skander, 2009; Touahria, 2009; Zitouni, 2009). About 90% of secondary school teachers were on strike amongst teachers of other levels. The strike was considered *'the best observed strike since 2003'*, by Meziane Meriane, the head of the National Autonomous Union of Secondary and Technical Education Teachers (*Syndicat National Autonome des Professeurs de L'Enseignement Secondaire et Technique (SNAPEST)*) (as cited in, Lowe, 2009). Teachers' complaints were primarily over inflation that has wiped out their pay increases. Despite the salary increase of 2008, the problem, according to Meriane, was that huge inflation has absorbed all the increases, and that teachers' and the SNAPEST want maintenance of living standard for all civil servants (Lowe, 2009).

The unhappy history of Algerian public education seems to be set to repeat itself every year. In 2010, the CNAPEST, the SNAPEST, the CLA and the National Union of Education and Training Personnel (*Union Nationale des Personnels de l'Education et de la Formation (UNPEF)*) rejected a new proposed pay rise and called for a general strike, provoking students and parents fears that the school year will be lost entirely (Afroun, 2010; Amir, 2010; Aoudia, 2010; Bedar, 2010; Bsikri, 2010; Semmar, 2010; Zerrouki, 2010). Teachers' averred to

prolong their sitting-down strike and vowed not to be cowed by sack threats issued by their government (Zouaghi, 2010). Nevertheless, this time, the government made a bold decision to sack all the striking teachers if they defy orders to resume work, and a decision to hire 50.000 relief teachers was the first phase of the strategy (Blidi, 2010). Indeed, the government sacking measures forced to end teachers' strike at the end (Makedhi, 2010).

National teachers' rotating strikes crippled Algerian schools again in 2011 as government attempts to calm the situation failed (Cheballah, 2011; Irnatene, 2011; Oulebsir, 2011c). The ministry announced a raise in qualification allowance from 25% to 40% and from 30% to 45%. Other measures sustaining public education workers included allowances for laboratory and administrative staff, namely a 25% technical service allowance and a 10% hardship premium of primary pay. It was also announced that a premium of 15% of primary pay, known as the school support and remedial class allowance, would be paid to all teachers of the national education sector and backdated to January, 1, 2008. Unions, however, maintained that the announced steps felt short of their demands, which also related to housing, retirement and benefits (Smati, 2011).

In another related development five hundred contract teachers, who were sacked after their contracts expired, were on hunger strike outside the Presidential Palace in Algiers. The striking teachers called for their integration into the civil servants' scheme (Djouadi, 2011). They claimed that they would rather die with dignity than continue to work under conditions they described as miserable (Akkouche, 2011; Ghezlaoui, 2011). Algerian police impeded the striking teachers from assembling near the heavily guarded presidential compound. Some teachers were even beaten back by the truncheon-wielding police, and others were detained (Oulebsir, 2011b). The government yielded in to teachers' demands and agreed to integrate all causal teachers at the end, effectively bringing to an end a crippling five-week strike (Oulebsir, 2011a).

In March 2013, the CLA declared in one of its reports that the reform has 'failed'. Similarly, in a report issued by the SNAPEST, the union argued that the reform was 'not fully implemented' (Mansour, 2013). The CLA, CNAPEST and teachers staged a strike to call for class-size reduction, eradication of ideology in classrooms, curriculum reform, opening schools up to 'universal knowledge', encouraging children's self-expression and 'a return to technical education' (Ait Ouarabi, 2013; Arab, 2013; Benkeddada, 2013; Djama, 2013; Hamed, 2013a; 2013b; Mansour, 2013).

The trade unions put a temporarily halt to their strike action and asked teachers to resume work, waiting for a response from the government (Rédha, 2013). In the meantime, the then minister of education *Abdelatif Baba Ahmed* was working with representatives of various stakeholder groups to enhance the quality of the work done in the already existing reform. The meeting was the first of its kind. Baba Ahmed's government was looking to formalize interaction with local administrators as well as teacher unions and parental associations (White, 2013). *Baba Ahmed* stated that '*improving teaching quality through the involvement of all of the relevant players is among the priority objectives for the education sector*' (White, 2013). Yet, this initiative faded away as soon as Baba Ahmed quitted the ministry.

In early 2014 widespread teachers' strikes paralyzed education for a month (Mokrani, 2014; Rahmani, 2014; Remaci, 2014). The National Union of Education and Training Staff (*l'Union Nationale de l'Education et Formation du Personnel (UNEFP)*), the CNAPEST, and the SNAPEST demands revolved around proper contract of basic education teachers, a consideration of their professional expertise and allocation of pedagogical grants to them (EI, 2014). The government reacted harshly to the strike, threating once again to sack teachers who took part in the protest and declaring the strike illegal. The FNAPE pleaded to save the school year, and asked the government and teachers to avert the strike (Benkeddada, 2014; Lounes, 2014). The strike finally ended after five weeks of struggle (Ferrag, 2014).

In 2015, a one month strike left biggest part of Algeria's school education paralysed (Safta, 2015). After several months of negotiations, current Minister of National Education *Nouria Benghebrit* and trade unions finally agreed to find a peaceful solution to their continuous conflicts (Bersali, 2015). The peaceful relationship with teachers, that raised parents' hopes for positive change, was a good sign for a fresh start to the school year 2015. School textbooks were made available to all schools by the National Office for School Publications and unions promised to guarantee a full year without strike; these two factors made 2015 a special year for students, parents, and the government (Sadoun, 2015). Moreover, *Benghebrit* decided to put some aspects of the 2003 reform under scrutiny (Akkouche, 2015).

In a two days conference with teachers, pedagogues, researchers, national and international experts, and students' parents associations, *Benghebrit* decided to carry out a diagnosis of the 2003 reform. The initiative to review the reform timed with graduation of the

first generation of the 2003 reform. In her speech at the opening ceremony of the conference, *Benghebrit* (as cited in, Akkouche, 2015) stated: *'today, we have reached a stage of maturity which would allow us to review the reform and open a wide debate'*. *Benghebrit's* national plan for education reform evaluations 2015-2030 aims to bring stability to the national education sector above all. According to her, this might be achieved through the quest for durable solutions to ban school violence and attrition. Interest, according to her, must also be directed towards science and technology, the place of languages in curricula, digitization of teaching resources, and training of supervisory and evaluation staff (Akkouche, 2015).

The aim of the conference, according to the then Prime Minister *Abdelmalek Sellal,* is not to end with a new reform, but to sustain the educational reform long enough through continuous improvements. In this respect, the prime minister asserted (as cited in, Akkouche, 2015): *'we are not going to launch every ten years a new reform'*. The prime minister indicated that his government intends also to review the conditions under which private lessons take place (Akkouche, 2015). Further, *Sellal* called on pedagogues to review the duration of the BAC examination and to think about reinstatement of a professional BAC certificate. Using an angry tone, the prime minister argued that unlimited strikes exist only in Algeria, something which he considers *'unacceptable and intolerable'* (Akkouche, 2015).

The Algerian educational reforms scenario as illustrated here proved that the quest for an effective education system that best addresses Algeria's development agenda has always been at the core of the country's policy making efforts. This fact justifies the number of reforms the country has experienced between the year of independence and 2015. The reforms' initiatives were like a Ferris wheel, what went up at a time came down later. Though seriously targeting improvements in curriculum and instruction, those reforms initiatives faced resistance and were often judged to have ended with mixed results (White, 2013). Moreover, the Algerian national education sector manifested chronic weaknesses that were mostly due to the disruptive teachers' strikes and successive protests.

Ahmed Khaled, president of the FNAPE, declared (as cited in, Lounes, 2014) explicitly that '*repeated teachers' strikes over the past ten years have had a negative impact on learning efficiency and have led to a dramatic decline in students' performance'*. Teachers' strikes were also amongst the *'contributing factors to educational wastage rate and plagiarism in final examinations', Khaled* further added (Lounes, 2014). According to some

observers, teachers' and students' strikes and sit-ins symbolize failure of the Algerian education system (Bedouani-Kernane, 2013).

Indeed, the 2003 reform has not encouraged teachers' involvement nor has it informed the public adequately and sought appropriate teachers' and public support. It was carried out from the beginning without consultation with teachers, trade unions, students and parents. *Mohamed Chérif Belkacem*, Director General of the Graduate School of Management, explained at a forum on education that, '*the lack of negotiation and dialogue have led to a total failure of all reforms of the system*' (as cited in, Bedouani-Kernane, 2013). Thus, the present study recommends a reconsideration of the importance of involving all educational stakeholders in general and teachers in particular in the process of curriculum change.

Teachers, as major stakeholders in education, are not involved in the process of planning reforms in Algeria. Due to this marginalization, a sense of ownership might be lacking. The call to involve teachers in curriculum development as well as recognition of their importance as vital participants of successful educational reform is well established in literature (Etim & Okey, 2015; Fastier, 2016; Mokua, 2010; Mosothwane, 2012). The importance of teachers to adapt already provided materials, if teachers are to be adaptive to learners' context and needs has also been stressed in literature (Bell & Gower, 2011; Galton, 1998). An educational system that adapts a learner-centred teaching approach should therefore involve teachers in the process of curriculum reforms (Galton, 1998). This rule applies to Algeria since Curriculum 2003 places greater emphasis on a complete move away from a teacher-centred approach to a one in which the teacher is seen as a facilitator of learners' autonomy (Riche, Arab, Bensemmane, Ameziane, & Hami, 2005).

The researcher argues that a curriculum can only be effectively implemented if teachers are part of the whole processes of development. The researcher made the case that receiving a new curriculum for implementation by teachers in a top-down setting is a risk-taking exercise. Without self-autonomy and freedom, teachers cannot be entrusted with the work of promoting learners autonomy (Barfield et al., 2002). This implies that teachers themselves need to embrace autonomy to cope. The researcher also problematized the notion of receiving a new curriculum by interrogating the ways or methods of its dissemination, implementation, the degree of knowledge and skills of teachers and their concomitant perceptions and attitudes towards the implementation of Curriculum 2003.

To develop an effective model for teacher involvement in the Algerian curriculum development process, the researcher in this work departs with the idea that teachers should be action researchers within the ground of their own classrooms. Already used in different contexts, action research proved to be a valuable tool to promote curriculum especially in centralized settings (Johnson, 2006; Manfra, 2009) and empower teachers in the twenty-first century (Fandino, 2010). By observing and investigating their practices systematically, and understanding and transforming their circumstances critically, teachers will gain ownership of their territories. Ownership will break existing compliance to top-down decisions and open space for self-updating and contentment.

3. Research Questions

The afore-mentioned discussion gave rise to the following questions which guided the collection and analysis of data in this study:

1. What are secondary school English language teachers' views on Curriculum 2003 reform?
2. What factors inhibit or enhance teachers' ability and/or desire to implement the Curriculum 2003 reform?
3. How does Curriculum 2003 reform marginalize teachers?
4. Granted that teachers' perspectives from the classroom level makes them suitable nominees to lead the curriculum, is every teacher fit to be involved in the curriculum development process?
5. What is the best balance of government and teachers' roles and responsibilities in curriculum development to improve curriculum?

4. Hypotheses and Assumptions

Inspired by critical theorists, the researcher hypothesises that policies lacking participation and ownership of teachers are less likely to be developed or sustained. Throughout this work, the present researcher will be assuming that:

- Teacher action research was essentially the tool for teacher involvement in curriculum development (Eliot, 1997) and should continue to be so.

– Teacher involvement in curriculum development through action research is a key factor to guarantee an effective implementation of curriculum reform.

– Sustainable curriculum development should build on both top-down and bottom-up strategies of reforms.

5. Research Aims and Objectives

The main thrust of the present critical research is not only to explore and describe the implementation of the Algerian English language Curriculum 2003 reform and the current situation of marginalized teachers. The present research aims also at changing this situation for the better. While acknowledging the importance of different stakeholders, this research stresses upon the need for secondary school English language teachers active involvement in curriculum development and the need to give them autonomy to modify and implement. The study is structured around four general aims and one specific objective.

Aims

– The study aims to: contribute to the on-going literature on world education reforms. Besides, literature stressing the prominence of teachers' involvement in curriculum development is missing in Algeria; clearly a respectable amount of studies on this issue is required.

– Explore and identify perceptions, views and concerns of teachers on their implementation of Curriculum 2003 for English language teaching;

– Reveal barriers to teachers' autonomy and involvement in curriculum development. Barriers needs to be uncovered in order to pave the way for deeper understanding and planning towards the involvement and subsequent participation of teachers in the development of English language curriculum;

– Illustrate how teacher action research can be encouraged in schools to allow for teachers' initiatives to supply top-down attempts to develop curricula.

Objective

– To recommend a task-based action research model to curriculum development that seeks to combine top-down government prescriptions with bottom-up school-based initiatives; thus, ensuring the maintenance of national standards, and providing flexibility for teachers to take account of their classroom teaching needs in designing

curriculum. Structural top-down reform may be superficial without teachers' appropriation. By the same token, bottom-up reform is impossible without planned intervention. Viable policies need therefore to build on the advantages of both forms of change.

6. Preview Methodology

The study employed a mixed methods approach for data collection and its conduction engaged two groups of participants. A survey was conducted to discover Algerian secondary school English language teachers' perceptions of the intended curriculum and uncover the factors intervening with and affecting their implementation activities and autonomy in the classroom. Besides, five National Education inspectors (secondary school level) were interviewed in terms of the intended Curriculum 2003, teachers' implementation of it, and teacher education. The methodology underlying the study will be discussed in more details in Chapter 3.

7. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study can be seen through different aspects. First, though there is no academic theory which claims to be a panacea for the limitations which may be due to top-down reforms, it is a matter of convenience to introduce teachers to a democratic model to curriculum development. This model, as stated earlier, intends to combine top-down and bottom-up strategies. It is also intended that the model will empower teachers to produce and disseminate new ideas and cooperate in school, local and national curriculum development groups to evaluate and develop curriculum. The findings of this research aim to be significant as it is expected they might help elevate teachers' interest and awareness on their involvement in curriculum development and enable them to realize the need to engage in collaborative participatory curriculum initiatives.

Second, the study aims to be significant in alerting national education authorities on the need to move away from prescriptive and directive curriculum practices to a more participatory strategy seeking to engage teachers in a meaningful way. Empirical evidence related to the Algerian context, as discussed earlier, indicates that even though decisions taken at the top level of the political-administrative hierarchy are important, teachers often make or break public action. Generally, teachers are unaware of policy measures until the implementation stage. It is at this stage that all the bargaining and conflicts occur. So far,

there were no signs of research that links teachers who exercise autonomy through action research with curriculum development in Algeria. This applies whether the concern is curriculum development or just planning or design, thus, the present thesis is fully original and positively contributes to education in Algeria.

Last but not least, this research was timely for two reasons. On the one hand, the findings will provide evidence-based understanding of the challenges the teachers faced in implementing the Curriculum 2003 and will, hopefully, help reformers view curriculum change from teachers' perspectives and discern how best to prepare and assist teachers for the curriculum change process. This information will persuade, on the other hand, other relevant stakeholders to take appropriate measures to address future matters as a similar scenario of reforms is currently being planned, which coincided with the time the present researcher was finishing her manuscript. Thus, it is hoped that this study will lead to implementable recommendations regarding further developments of English language curricula in Algeria.

From the researcher's personal perspective, this study stemmed from two broad but interrelated interests. The first interest, an intrinsic one, was derived from the researcher's teaching experience. Having served as a lecturer at the Department of English Language and Literature, at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine Sétif 2 University, and once a teacher at middle school level; the teaching job, which took place under the LMD and 2003 reforms, entailed both developing curriculum for the subjects taught at university and implementing the Curriculum 2003 at middle school. As a university teacher, the researcher found that when using a curriculum she designed herself; she was the owner of her teaching and she became passionate about experiencing her students' learning. This was not the case when she strictly complied with curriculum and textbooks as a middle school teacher. The researcher's first interest coupled with an extrinsic interest in Algerian educational reforms progress to enhance the education system's standards.

8. Limitations and Scope

Six sets of issues surfaced while conducting this research and challenged the whole process:

- The study was confined to secondary education schools in Algeria, in one city 'Sétif'. Though implementation and management of educational change in all Algerian schools is influenced and governed by the same legislation and instructions led by the

central level; Algeria remains a vast country that includes forty-eight cities with geographical, economic and cultural differences. The situation in one city, at one education level may not therefore be generalized to other education levels, in other cities of the country.

– Additionally, the research was undertaken in an Algerian context and by an Algerian researcher – with no intention to be a comparative study. The Algerian context, though un-obviously discussed in comparison to foreign contexts, was presented to back up the researchers' convictions only.

– Translation also challenged this research. Being a multilingual country, most secondary data about Algeria were originally in French or Arabic. For research purposes, rendering them in English relied on the multilingual capacity of the researcher. While some Algerian researchers prefer to quote original texts alongside their translated versions, this study shuns this technique for redundancy, but tries to convey meaning as exactly as possible in instances of translation.

– Methodologically, the sample size was another concern. As this research investigated the real-time implementation of Curriculum 2003 reform, it gained data from 156 secondary school teachers and five inspectors. Its findings might not necessarily be able to present the whole population of the Algerian public secondary schools. The results are not thorough or extensive enough for wider application. Nevertheless, the study committed to present valid and reliable findings of how teachers at those schools implemented the reform.

– The research was limited by reliance on quantitative descriptions of teachers' experiences rather than using interviews or observations in addition. This is because the sampling strategy has not allowed for these methods to be employed in this research. The validity of the study was limited in general to the reliability of the instruments used.

– Lastly, by the time this thesis is submitted, its findings regarding the implementation of the Curriculum 2003 reform might be out of date for the policy and schools. However, the indirect and indefinite ramifications involving implementation of change in the present study could be useful for the 2016-2017 reforms attempts.

– Though the researcher believes a change in the title (Action research instead of task-based action research) of the work is imperative to a better reflection of the content of the study; this was not possible due to bureaucratic constraints.

9. Clarification of Key Terms

Some of the key concepts used in this study may not imply the same meaning to the reader and the writer. Though the origins of terms within the literature review chapter are provided, in order to avoid misunderstanding, these concepts are briefly clarified below.

Action research in schools refers to a variety of evaluative, investigative, and analytical research methods designed to diagnose organisational, academic, or instructional problems and weaknesses to develop practical solutions to address them quickly and efficiently. Action research may also be applied to curricula that are either experiencing problems or simply because educators want to learn more about and improve them. Educational action research can be engaged by a single teacher, a group of colleagues, schools, or the entire education staff.

Bottom-up reform is a decentralised reform strategy that starts with practitioners inside a school (teachers) rather than from top-down mandates (ministry of education).

Change is described as innovation or reform, which is an attempt to improve practice in relation to certain desired objectives. Change, innovation and reform will be used interchangeably in this work.

Curriculum, in this study, refers to lessons and content taught in a school as well as the guides, books, and materials that teachers use in teaching their learners.

Curriculum development, in this study, involves all aspects from design, dissemination, implementation to evaluation.

Task-based action research is a kind of evaluation (micro-evaluation) of language teaching materials. Language teaching materials are generally task based (this applies to Algerian English language secondary school textbooks).

Teacher involvement, for the purposes of this study, refers to teachers actively engaging in all phases of curriculum development at the school, city and national levels of the Algerian education system.

Top-down reform policy (formulation and implementation) is a centralised clear-cut system of command and control- from the government (top) to the project, which concerns the people who will implement it (teachers).

10. Thesis Content

The thesis is structurally organised into five chapters. Each chapter begins with an overview of what is included in the given chapter and ends with a summary. This introduction has briefly outlined the background, purpose and significance of the study. Chapter 1 provides a general background to the Algerian educational system. This will enable the reader to conceptualize the context in which the participants lived and worked. Chapter 2 provides the theoretical framework for the thesis, introducing and discussing key concepts that help to inform the study. It includes a literature review on curriculum development, curriculum policy and its implementation; a description of the roles of the major stakeholders; an overview of factors that facilitate or inhibit curriculum innovation; and what makes a democratic curriculum development. Chapter 3 describes the methodology employed in this study. Chapter 4 presents, analyzes, integrates and compares themes that emerge from participants' survey and interviews. In Chapter 5, the researcher answers the research questions and offers implications, recommendations and areas for further research.

CHAPTER 1

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

Including context means providing the reader with situation, a background picture of where the piece of information came from and what or who is involved. A critical understanding of curriculum development in Algeria requires therefore an appreciation of the context within which the study is conducted. The Algerian educational system in general and curriculum development in particular are influenced by the economy, cultures and political history of the nation. This chapter, by giving an overview of Algerian education system, attempts to inform the reader about the context in which the participants worked, and hence to build a conceptual picture of the background surrounding the data and findings. The chapter describes the nature, general structure and funding of the system. It also examines the constitutional provisions and legal framework of national education, discusses the nature of the current implemented curriculum reform, and gives a picture of teacher education and training.

1. 2. Education in Algeria

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria is a sovereign country in North Africa on the Mediterranean coast. Its capital is Algiers, located in the country far north. The official languages of Algeria are Modern Standard Arabic and Tamazight, and Islam is the predominant religion in the country. The territorial administration of Algeria is the institutional and administrative organization of its areas. The Algerian territory is administratively divided into three levels: *Wilayas*, *Daiiras* and *Baladiyahs*. There are 48 *Wilayas* (provinces, cities) in Algeria, and each *Wilaya* consists of several *Dairas* (districts) (Law N° 84-09 of February 4, 1984).

In accordance with the composition of the Government, Education in Algeria is within the scope of several high-level Government institutions. The main governmental ministries responsible for education in the country are: the MEN, the Ministry of Vocational Training and Education (*Ministère de la Formation et de l'Enseignement Professionnels (MFEP)*) and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (*Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique* (MESRS)). The three ministries act as one unit, however, each of which administers and manages the sector under its authority according to

given structures and modalities laid down in the pertinent legal texts. Though the MEN is the national executive body of the Algerian government responsible for overseeing instruction of the Algerian people; the three ministries together execute the Government's mandate of ensuring a system which secures quality education and provision for all Algerian citizens (www.education.gov.dz).

Five other ministries support the Government's efforts in implementing and improving education in the country. The Ministry of Religious Affairs and Endowments aims to ensure promotion of Islamic education and culture. The Ministry of National Solidarity, the Family and the Status of Women takes responsibility of the educational, social and professional integration and autonomy of persons with disabilities. The Ministry for Youth Affairs and Sports overlooks physical education and facilitates youth building. The Ministry of Health, Population and Hospital Reform is the leading agency on school sanitation and hygiene. Finally, the Ministry of Justice aims to secure and maintain the nation's legal order and thereby safeguards citizens' rights to education. Also, Student Parents Associations may play a key role in the development of education in the country by providing material and moral support to education in schools.

1.3. Profile of Algerian National Education System

1.3.1. Inspirations for National Education in Algeria

Algeria was inspired by a number of national desires and ideologies to begin the establishment of its public educational system. The first inspiration came from the Proclamation of the National Liberation Front, of November 1, 1954. This proclamation called for the restoration of Algerian sovereignty and democracy within an Islamic framework. The second stimulation came from the Soummam Congress, which was held on August 20, 1956, and led to recovery of national sovereignty (www.infpe.edu.dz).

The third inspiration came from the Tripoli Congress of June 1962. In that congress Algerian leaders instigated talks about socialism, collectivization and a state-planned economy. Leaders formed a political bureau led by *Ben Bella*, who was named President and promulgated a socialist constitution where the National Liberation Front (FLN) became the only political party. The fourth inspiration came from the adoption of the Charter of Algiers by the 3rd Congress of the FLN on April 16-21, 1964. The charter's aims were to reshape the FLN, the organization that led Algeria to independence, into a party that would become the

engine of social and economic revolution; and to sharpen the ideologies and strategies of the revolution (www.infpe.edu.dz).

The Algiers charter of 1964 remained until 1976 the official statement of Algeria's political and ideological orientation. On June 27, 1976, the referendum adopted a new National Charter, which reaffirmed Algeria's commitment to socialism and the FLN's role as the only political party; and recognized Islam as the country's religion, a fact that inspired education in Algeria as well. The sixth inspiration came from a referendum enrichment of the National Charter (which was approved in 1976 referendum) that was held in Algeria on January 16, 1986. The seventh and eight inspirations came from all the Algerian constitutions ideologies and the Ordinance of April 16, 1976, which organized education in the country (www.infpe.edu.dz).

1.3.2. Structure of National Education

Algerians are guaranteed access to free education at all levels if they qualify by passing the previous cycle. Formal education is typically divided into four educational stages covering: pre-primary, primary, middle, and secondary level. Primary and middle levels are often referred to as 'Basic', 'Fundamental' or 'Elementary' level. The basic cycle is compulsory and has very high attendance. Progression from one level to another is controlled by continuous assessment and exams. The Algerian school system has been redesigned over the last decade from a 6+3+3 (primary/middle school/secondary) architecture, to the current 5+4+3 which was instituted in 2003 (Ordinance N° 03-09 of August 13, 2003; Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008).

The pre-primary education, which is a common practice in Algeria, is the initial stage of education designed primarily to introduce young children to a school-type environment. This stage is non-compulsory and comprises Kindergartens and pre-school classes. Children between the ages of three and five go generally to nurseries, whereas those of five or six go to pre-school classes prior to their commencement of compulsory education at public primary schools. Pre-primary education aims to effect a smooth transition from home to school. It aims to foster children's comprehensive and balanced development as well. It allows children to build social skills, creativity and intelligence which may make a base for their future education (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008; Executive Decree N° 08-287 of September 17, 2008).

Basic education is the largest stage in Algerian national education and provides all children aged from six to fifteen with a common educational foundation. The first basic education level, that is the primary level, and that lasts five years comprises two cycles. Being the initial stage of compulsory education, primary education aims basically to create, establish and offer opportunities to all children to enhance their personal development, acquire skills and knowledge relating to literacy, numeracy, creativity and communication. The successful conclusion of primary education is marked by a primary school certificate. Holders of this certificate are permitted to enter the middle school level (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008).

The third cycle, middle school level, which comprises four years, offers enrichment courses to broaden pupils' knowledge and allow them to learn through different experiences. This type of education acts as a transition, moving pupils from childhood, and introducing them to social skills, mastery of knowledge, and techniques that will be further developed in secondary schools. Learners undergo a national examination called *Brevet d'Enseignement Fondamental (BEF)* (Basic Education Certificate) at the end of this cycle to progress to the secondary level. BEF was also changed in 2003 to *Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen (BEM)* (Middle School Certificate). Pupils who will not be admitted to secondary school may either pursue vocational training or seek employment once they reach the age of sixteen (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008).

Secondary education lasts three years and is non-compulsory. It has four types of objectives: general objectives, such as development of the student's ability for curiosity, critical thinking, creativity, autonomy, socialization and general studies. Methodology objectives include study skills, know-how, and scientific thinking. As to mastery of languages, this includes mastery of the mother tongue language, plus two other foreign languages at least. Finally, scientific and technology objectives encompass development of the student's ability for inquiry and rational judgment (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008; MEN, 2005).

Secondary education currently begins with a foundation year, known as the common core (*tronc commun*), which is a one year study, supporting a further two years of study. As such, course content is organized into two core curricula (Science and technology, and Letters) in the first year and splits into different branches of education starting from the second year. For Science and Technology, the branches offered are: mathematics; management and economy; experimental science; and technical mathematics. Technical

mathematics includes four options: electrical engineering, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, and process engineering. For Letters, the second year provides two options: Foreign Languages; and Letters and Philosophy (CNP, 2009).

Prior to 2005-06, Secondary education used to start with a foundation year, which was divided into three sections- Letters, Sciences and Technology- each supporting a further two years of study. Each branch included several streams and led to the baccalaureate in that specialty: the *BAC of secondary education* (secondary education and specialized education) or the *technical BAC* (technical/vocational secondary education) (Ordinance N° 76-35 of April 16, 1976; see appendices A and B for a comparison between the old and new structure of Algerian school system). In order to access university, learners have to pass the Baccalaureate Examination.

Students who pass their BAC are referred by the MEN in conjunction with the MESRS to enroll and graduate in a given field. Graduation in a typical subject is decided upon learners' choice and obtained marks in the BAC exam (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008). One should note that all education in Algeria is exam-based, and examinations are part and parcel of the education process of learners wishing to pursue their studies. Learners who are not successful at either the BEM or BAC exams can still achieve a qualification at a lower level. They can either enroll at apprenticeship centres (*Centre de Formation d'Apprentis (CFA)*) to gain a vocational qualification, or engage in distance learning.

The vocational education and training (VET) sector in Algeria operates as a subsector of the national education system and is governed by Law N° 08-07 of February 23, 2008, as well as a set of regulations of September 20, 2008. These are: Executive Decree N° 08-293, introducing model regulations for VET institutes; Executive Decree N° 08-294, setting up lower and higher level vocational training diplomas; and Executive Decree N° 08-295, establishing vocational training and CFAs. The main objectives of the sector are to deliver workplace specific skills and knowledge to train a qualified labour to serve national economy, and convert workers in the course of employment. The sector provides basic vocational training, including apprenticeships (pre-service) and in-service training as well as formal vocational education. The VET covers a wide range of careers and industries, including trade and office work, marketing, hospitality and technology. Qualifications range from certificates to diplomas.

Formal vocational education offers science and technology courses that lead to certification, and in-service training courses that aim to develop workplace skills. Basic vocational training is designed to provide trainees with basic qualifications, practical skills and specific knowledge required for trades. There are three methods of pre-service training: distance education; on-site training that runs full time in a vocational training centre; and apprenticeships that run between a training centre and the host workplace (Law N° 08-07 of February 23, 2008). In-service vocational training extends generally over a short period of time (from 10 to 20 days). This kind of training runs both onsite and offsite.

Prior to 2004, distance education was offered at the National Centre for Generalised Education (*Centre National d'Enseignement Généralisé (CNEG)*). Nowadays, the CNEG services are guaranteed by the National Office for Education and Distance Learning (*l'Office National d'Enseignement et de la Formation à Distance (ONEFD)*). The CNEG statute was amended by Executive Decree N° 04-342 of November 04, 2004, to become what is called nowadays the ONEFD. The activities and courses offered at the ONEFD are controlled and organised by regional centres. Distance education at the ONEFD aims to provide an effective alternative path to wider opportunities in education and allow citizens to pursue knowledge for personal growth and development (Executive Decree N° 01-288 of September 24, 2001).

Both formal vocational education and basic vocational training lead to certificates issued by the MFEP. The first cycle (two years) of formal vocational education leads to Basic Vocational Studies Diploma (*diplôme d'enseignement professionnel du premier degré (DEP1)*). The MFEP issues this propaedeutic diploma as proof that the final examination at the end of the first cycle has been successfully completed. The second cycle (also two years) leads to Higher Vocational Studies Diploma (*diplôme d'enseignement professionnel du second degré (DEP2)*). Holders of the DEP2 are allowed to pursue a complementary training of 18 months to qualify as a senior technician in a given field (Executive Degree N° 08-294 of September 20, 2008; Ministerial Decree N° 83 of September 28, 2009).

Basic vocational training and formal vocational education leads to five types of certification. Specialized vocational training (*certificat de formation professionnelle spécialisée (CFPS)*) is the first level of professional training that qualifies a specialized worker. Vocational aptitude certificate (*certificat d'aptitude professionnelle (CAP)*) is the second level of professional training that qualifies a qualified worker. Vocational expertise certificate (*certificat de maitrise professionnelle (CMP)*) is the third level of professional

training that qualifies a highly skilled worker. Technical aptitude (*brevet de technicien (BT)*) is the fourth level of professional training that qualifies technicians; and technical expertise (*brevet de technicien supérieur (BTS)*) is the last professional training level (Executive Degree N° 09-345 of October 22, 2009).

Individuals, amongst whom those who do not obtain their BAC exam, may enroll in any centre for Continuing Education throughout the national territory. The University of Continuing Education (*Université de la Formation Continue (UFC)*), which is located in Algiers was created in 1990 (Executive Decree N° 90-149 of May 26, 1990). Also, in 1990 regional Centres of Continuing Education were established in other nineteen provinces (Executive Decree N° 90-150 of May 26, 1990). The UFC institutions offer open-enrollment courses, degrees and certificates in an array of subject areas, including foreign languages to the general public fulfilling eligibility criteria (Executive Decree N° 90-149 of May 26, 1990).

School attendance of children with disabilities and chronic illnesses, which is enshrined in the Algerian Constitution, was also set out in law (Law N° 08-04 of February 23, 2008, article 14). To promote inclusive education practices for the disabled children, the national education sector, in connection with hospitals and other establishments work to provide special needs education to the highest possible standard, with correct support and resources for those children. The MFEP also offers work and specialized training opportunities for children with disabilities at the level of its regional centres.

Amongst the promising efforts to support education for children with disabilities in Algeria, the government issued a number of legal texts. The inter-ministerial Decree of March 13, 2014, set out measures for the establishment of special classes for children with disabilities. The joint Circular of December 3, 2014, addressed to executive directors of Wilayas, set out the procedures to be followed to facilitate a smooth access of children with disabilities to schools, and to adapt educational activities to suit the needs of disabled children. Finally, the Ministerial Circular of December 17, 2014, was set out to ensure implementation of the provisions laid by the two aforementioned legal texts (www.education.gov.dz).

Furthermore, in an attempt to accommodate the educational needs of learners in hospitals for long-stays, the Algerian government has established classes in hospitals and pediatric centres to help children stay connected with regular school activities and reduce

difficulties during school reentry. During the school year 2013-14, 36 classes for disabled children were established in nine provinces. The number of children who benefited from this programme reached 464 (275 primary school children and 189 middle school pupils). Similarly, many classes for children with visual impairments, hearing impairments, dual sensory impairment (deaf-blindness), and children with motor disabilities were established in twelve provinces; and 63 classes for autistic children and children with mild mental retardation were opened in nine provinces (www.education.gov.dz).

1. 3. 3. Administrative Organization of National Education

The Algerian educational system is highly centralized and organized, and the ministry of education, as stated in the General Introduction, governs all actions relative to the education of individuals at all levels. The centralized role of the ministry covers provision, evaluation, orientation, communication, resourcing and staffing of schools, planning, cultural, sports and social activities, and legal studies and personnel. The ministry sets the legal texts for establishment of schools and prescribes curricula. Under the ultimate authority of the minister, the central administration of the MEN (see Appendix C) is comprised of the Secretary General, the Head of Cabinet, the General Inspectorate of Pedagogy, the General Inspectorate, plus ten Central Directories (Executive Decree N° 09-318 of October 6, 2009).

The Secretary General organizes work documents and information related to the secretariat and is assisted by three Directors of Studies. Attached to the Secretary General are the Mailing and Communication Office and the Internal Security division. The Head of Cabinet, who is assisted by eight officers and six assistants, is responsible for the preparation and organization of the minister's governmental, local and international activities. He is also in charge of monitoring the implementation of reforms, education action plans and social issues (Executive Decree N° 09-318 of October 6, 2009).

The General Inspectorate (GI), which was created in 1995 (Executive Decree N°. 95-82 of March 15, 1995), is an institution in charge of inspecting, controlling and evaluating public as well as private educational institutions' activities. Besides, the GI is in charge of inspection of the administrative and financial activities of public institutions. The GI is directed by an Inspector General who is assisted by ten inspectors. The Inspector General is a member of the GI body of civil servants, generally of a high level, charged with a nationwide mission to inspect national education services and report annually to the minister of education regarding those services (Executive decree N° 10-228 of October 2, 2010).

The General Inspectorate of Pedagogy (GIP) is in charge of monitoring and evaluating education and training in public and private educational institutions. The GIP is headed by an Inspector General who is assisted by 15 inspectors. The GIP transmits at the end of each school trimester an evaluation report on its activities to the minister of education (Executive decree N° 10-229 of October 2, 2010). As regards inspectors, these latter supervise and monitor, from a pedagogical and an organizational perspective, the way schools operate. They participate in the evaluation of the education system as well. They are required to submit to the GI a report about the totality of tasks realized, along with any observations or recommendations aiming to improve the quality of education (Executive decree N° 10-228 of October 2, 2010). Decisions and recommendations issued by inspectors are transmitted to the Central Directories.

The Central Directories of education comprise: Directorate of Fundamental Education; Directorate of General and Technical Secondary Education; Directorate of Development of Teaching and Learning Materials; Directorate of Training; Directorate of Assessment and Forecasting; Directorate of Human Resources Management; Directorate of Infrastructure and Equipment; Directorate of Financial and Material Resources Management; Directorate of Legal Studies and Cooperation; and Directorate of Sports Activities, Cultural and Social Action (Executive Decree N° 09-318 of October 6, 2009). The MEN is also supported and complemented by Directorates of Wilayas, as well as three national institutes, five centres and four offices.

The Directorates of Wilayas' primary task is to interpret the policies then facilitates their implementation, and hence allocates the necessary infrastructure and services to support education. Each Directorate is headed by a Director of Education (DE). The DE has executive oversight and administration rights, and reports to the *Wali* (Head of the province). Each Directorate includes a number of offices, which goes from three to six offices depending on the amount of assigned missions to each office (Executive Decree N° 90-174 of June 9, 1990; Executive Decree N° 05-404 of October 17, 2005, modifying the former decree). Coordination between the supervisory body (inspectors, principals of schools) and the directorates of Wilayas is carried out at the regional level in four 'regional conferences' and at the national level in 'national conferences' (Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008).

The three national institutes supporting the MEN are: National Institute for the Training of Educational Personnel; National Institute of Research in Education; and Institutes of Teacher Training and Development. The five centres are: National Committee of Programmes; National Pedagogical and Linguistic Centre for the Instruction of Tamazight; Supply and Maintenance Centre for Equipment and Training Materials; National Centre for Educational Documentation; and National Centre for Integration of Educational Innovation and Development of Information and Communication Technologies. The four national offices are: National Office of School Publications; National Office for Education and Distance Learning; National Board of Examinations and Contests; and National Office for Adult Literacy and Education (www.education.gov.dz). These are discussed successively in the following paragraphs.

The National Institute for the Training of Educational Personnel (*L'Institut National de Formation et de Perfectionnement des Personnels de l'Education (INFPE)*) is an administrative public institution established in 2000. The institute was created upon modification of the statute of the National Centre for Training of Education Managers (*Centre National de la Formation des Cadres de l'Education (CNFCE)*) that existed since 1981 (Decree N° 81-125 of June 20, 1981). The institute is responsible for the training of inspectors, school principals and other administrative staff; and the continuing education for the working staff of different national education sectors (Executive Decree N° 2000-35 of February 7, 2000).

The National Institute of Research in Education (*l'Institut National de Recherche en Education (INRE)*), which is a restructuration of the former National Pedagogical Institute (*l'Institut Pédagogique National (IPN)*) was founded in 1996. The institute is a public administrative body in charge of educational research, implementation mechanisms, preparation, publication, selection, evaluation and monitoring procedures for textbooks, and extra didactic and teaching materials approval. The institute carries out research about any aspect of education and publishes its findings (Decree N° 96-72 of January 27, 1996). Inter-ministerial Order of January 14, 2009, emphasized that the INRE can establish regional annexes (Inter-ministerial Order of January 14, 2009 completing Inter-ministerial Order of February 28, 1998).

The Institute of Teacher Training and Development (*Institut de Formation et de Perfectionnement des Maitres de l'école fondamentale (IFPM)*) is a public administrative

body granted legal managerial and financial autonomy. The IFPM conducts research in education at both the national and international level. The institute is entrusted to organise and participate in scientific meetings, study days, and national and international conferences and seminars. The IFPM aims to set up a data bank to store and disseminate all information and documents related to educational research. There are ten IFPMs, located in: Algiers, Sétif, Oran, Constantine, Bechar, Tiaret, Saida, Mostaganem, Mascara, and Blida (Executive Decree N° 04-343 of November 4, 2004)..

The CNP, as stated in the General Introduction, is a standing body which directly assumes responsibility for the curriculum. The CNP reviews and makes recommendations to the Minister of Education on curricula proposals for any addition, expansion, deletion, or modification to the core curricula. The CNP is basically in charge of issues relative to education; notably, the congruence between component-specific and global oversight of the education system. The CNP seeks better insurance of the nation's education standards achievement, as well as the overall design of teaching and learning (Executive Degree N° 15-307 of December 6, 2015).

The National Pedagogical and Linguistic Centre for the Instruction of Tamazight (*Le Centre National Pédagogique et Linguistique pour l'Enseignement de Tamazight (CNPLET)*), created in 2003, is an administrative body responsible for the development of the teaching of Tamazight. The CNPLET main tasks are to introduce, revive and promote Tamazight. The CNPLET attempts to enlarge its current plans to ensure the teaching of the Tamazight language and culture nationwide. This is carried out through increasing the number of qualified Tamazight language teachers through continuous training, and publication of textbooks in Tamazight (Executive Decree N° 03-470 of December 2, 2003). In 2007, an inter-ministerial order reorganized the functions of the centre (Inter-ministerial Order of February 25, 2007).

The Supply and Maintenance Centre for Equipment and Training Materials (*le centre d'approvisionnement et de maintenance en équipements et matériels didactiques (CAMEMD)*), created in 1986, is a body responsible for procurement and maintenance of basic supplies and equipment (Decree N° 86-291 of December 9, 1986). In 1988, an Inter-ministerial Order organized the CAMEMD into three main sub-directories: a sub-directorate of Studies, Experimentation and Training; a sub-directorate of Equipment and Government

Procurement Budget; and a sub-directorate of Equipment and Maintenance (Inter-ministerial Order of January 24, 1988).

The National Centre for Educational Documentation (*le Centre National de la Documentation Pédagogique (CNDP)*) was created in 1992. The CNDP activities were actually conducted starting from September 13, 1995. The centre produces and distributes written and computerized books and documents related to teaching to schools. Distribution of teaching materials at the CNDF level usually takes the form of sales, loans or memberships (Executive Decree N° 92-243 of June 9, 1992). The CNDP heads a network comprising regional centres for educational documentation. These centres are located respectively in eight provinces (www.education.gov.dz).

The National Centre for Integration of Educational Innovation and Development of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) (*Le Centre National d'Intégration des Innovations Pédagogiques et de Développement des Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication en Education (CNIIPDTICE)*), which was created in 2003, aims to develop studies, conduct research, and disseminate educational reforms. The CNIIPDTICE aims also to integrate new ICTs in education to advance learning opportunities for individuals at the national level (Executive Decree N° 03-471 of December 2, 2003).

The National Office for School Publications (*Office National des Publications Scolaires (ONPS)*) is a commercial and industrial schoolbook publishing agency, which was created after reorganization of the former National Pedagogical Institute in 1990. The agecy is responsible for the printing, publication, production and distribution of school textbooks, manuals, journals, local teaching documents, adapted or translated foreign documents and other teaching materials (Executive Decree N° 90-11 of January 1, 1990). Post to the 2003 reform, publication at the ONPS stretched to public and private editors.

The National Board of Examinations and Contests (*Office National des Examens et Concours (ONEC)*) is a public administrative body that was created in 1989 by Executive Decree N° 89-94 of June 20, 1989. The office organizes the three final examinations for primary, middle and secondary education. The office offers an online pre-registration for all students intending to undertake a final exam to manage the data flow. The ONEC prepares also the annual professional exams and contests (www.onec-dz).

The National Centre for Literacy (*Le Centre National d'Alphabétisation (CNA)*) was created in 1964 by Decree N° 64-269 of August 31, and transformed to a National Office for Adult Literacy and Education (*Office National d'Alphabétisation et d'Education des Adultes (ONAEA)*) in 1995. The office is responsible for designing and implementing educational programs to eradicate illiteracy. The office aims also to enable adults to acquire the necessary basic literacy skills to function in today's society, and promote ongoing training in support of literacy (Executive Decree N° 95-143 of May 20, 1995; Executive Decree N° 10-130 of April 29, 2010).

The educational reform of 2003 led to the creation of a National Council of Education and Training (*Le Conseil National de l'éducation et de la formation (CNEF)*) to improve the quality and efficiency of education and training. The CNEF primary aim is to assist and advice the government on instruction matters related to school improvement (Presidential Decree N° 03-407 of November 5, 2003). Article 102 of the law organising education in Algeria (2008) precised that the CNEF is the main body for consultation and coordination representing different staffs of the education sector, social partners and other concerned national bodies (Law N° 08-04 of January 23, 2008).

Also in 2003, the National Observatory of Education and Training (*L'Observatoire National de l'Education et de la Formation (ONEF)*), an administrative counseling structure, was established. The ONEF collects data, conduct extensive surveys and evaluate trends in both education and training in Algeria (Presidential Decree N° 03-406 of November 5, 2003). The ONEF is assigned to organize or supervise scientific events, conferences, seminars or study days at the national level. In 2008, the government fixed the ONEF internal organisation. The ONEF currently comprises six departments: Monitoring and Foresight Department; Department of Studies and Analysis; Programme Evaluation and Quality of Educational Performance Department; Department of Cooperation, Statistics, Documentation and Communication; Department of Administration and General Resources; and Department of Regional Antennas (Inter-ministerial Order of October 19, 2008).

1. 3. 4. Administrative Organization of Secondary Education

Secondary school education is the bridge between the primary and tertiary levels of education in Algeria. This type of education takes place in secondary schools. A secondary school in Algeria might also be known as a *Lycée* (French word). A *Lycée* is akin to high school or Sixth Form College in the British context. A *Lycée* usually provides educational

instruction for students during the period from ages 15 to 18. Secondary schools in Algeria are mandated for all children without charge, and funded in whole by the government. At the secondary school's level, the institution is governed by legal means. The legal means are constituted of legal texts, rules and instructions. Respect of national policy is translated in the application of these documents, which will allow the education system to achieve its missions.

The school is headed by the Head of School (School Principal). The principal has managerial and pastoral duties. He is responsible for all areas of educational leadership. This includes the education and welfare of all students, the management of staff and staff welfare development, financial management of the school, and management of the school property. The Head of School is responsible for ensuring school provision. He is the budget holder, following entrusted authority. The Head works in collaboration with a Director of Studies (Deputy-Head or Assistant Principal), a Bursar, Education Advisor and Secretaries to form the administrative staff (Ministerial Order N° 91-176 of March 2, 1991; Executive Decree N° 10-230 of October 2, 2010; Executive Decree N° 12-240 of May 29, 2012).

The Director of Studies (so-called in French *censeur/ directeur des études*) assists the principal in leading and managing education and pedagogy in the school. The Bursar (so-called in French *l'intendant*) is responsible for the strategic management of school finances. The Education Advisor (*conseiller de l'éducation*), which is a disciplinary post, helps to set and maintain a high standard of behaviour necessary for the smooth running of the teaching and learning processes. The Advisor aims at getting students to respect authority, and observe and obey the legal means of the school. Principals and assistant principals are responsible for meeting with teachers and parents to help keep students' behaviour under control (Ministerial Order N° 91-154 of February 26, 1991; Ministerial Order N° 91-829 of November 13, 1991; Ministerial Order N° 91-171 of March 2, 1991).

The administrative staff of secondary schools includes also a Librarian and a school guidance counselor. The Librarian is responsible for resource and information provision and management. The school guidance counselor helps teens experiencing difficulty with school, family, friends, or other areas of life (CNRSE, 2000; Executive Decree N° 10-230 of October 2, 2010). The secondary school is also administered by a Board of Guidance and Management, and five Pedagogical and Administrative Councils (School Council of Education (SCE); Class Council (CC); Administrative Coordination Council (ACC); Guidance Council (GC); and a School Disciplinary Council (SDC)). Composition and

missions of the Pedagogical and Administrative Councils are fixed by the minister of national education (Executive Decree N° 10-230 of October 2, 2010).

The Board of Guidance and Management comprises the Principal (president); the Director of Studies (vice-president); an officer in charge of school management and accounting; an education senior advisor or education advisor; senior advisor for guidance and educational and vocational guidance; three teachers' representatives elected by their peers; three elected representatives for education assistants, administrative and labour personnel; the president of parents association or his representative; and three students' representatives from delegates of classes (one for each level) elected by their peers. The Board's meetings are organized to debate issues and problems around school budget draft; administrative and management accounts; school's plans; general organization and physical school environment; acceptance of gifts and bequests; and any measures aiming to improve the school and achieve its set goals (Executive Decree N° 10-230 of October 2, 2010).

The SCE reads and discusses the school's financial means to understand the implications for goals and activities in the school's improvement plan; and provide administrative and financial support. The council discusses library acquisitions and adoption of the calendar of the school year and school hours in line with current legislation (Ministerial Order N° 91-172 of March 2, 1991). The CC deals with all pedagogical issues relating to the running and life in the school, notably the school orientation of each student, and whether the student should repeat the year (Ministerial Order N° 91-157 of February 26, 1991).

The ACC is an advisory body that provides ideas and opinions relevant to the functioning and quality of school life to help the principal (Ministerial Order N° 91-156 of February 26, 1991). The GC is responsible for the financial management of the school. The council prepares and votes on the school budget to provide students and staff with the best possible study and working conditions (Ministerial Order N° 91-151 of February 26, 1991). The SDC duty is to device measures to help students avoid and shun any engagement in the activities of the breach of discipline (Ministerial Order N° 91-173 of March 2, 1991).

Secondary schools in Algeria are divided into: general schools and technical schools. In both types of schools, each curriculum subject is usually taught by a different secondary school teacher. Teachers usually teach several different age groups. There are three types of general secondary school teachers, these are: a secondary school teacher, a form teacher, and a teacher trainer. The role of the secondary school teacher involves preparing and delivering

lessons to his/her classes; managing students' behavior in the classroom and on school properties. This role also includes marking exams and maintaining records of students' progress and development; updating subject knowledge; participating in in-service training as part of continuing professional development; participating in school's meetings, councils and invigilation; and participating and organizing extracurricular activities, such as outings and social activities (Ministerial Order N° 91-153 of February 26, 1991; Executive Decree N° 12-240 of May 29, 2012, completing and modifying Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008).

A form teacher (*professeur principal* in French) takes prime responsibility for the class s/he is in charge of by ensuring that work and behavior standards remain high. The form teacher cares for students and monitors their progress; encourages students' involvement and commitment; and provides a diagnostic feedback for the principal about students' learning progress and behavioural development. A form teacher plays a special part in keeping learners on track with curriculum and school requirements (Ministerial Order N° 91-177 of March 2, 1991; Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008; Executive Decree N° 12-240 of May 29, 2012, completing and modifying the latter decree).

Each class in secondary schools has a form teacher, and each school has a teacher trainer. The teacher trainer delivers training to student teachers in teacher training colleges. S/he participates in regular in-service training and educational conferences; and helps in the evaluation of education and curricula. The teacher trainer liaises with inspectors to issue recommendations for educational development. All secondary school teachers are required to teach 18 hours per week (Executive Decree N° 12-240 of May 29, 2012, completing and modifying Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008).

There are two types of secondary technical school teachers: a workshop manager (*chef d'atelier*) and a team leader (*chef de travaux*). The workshop manager assists secondary school teachers in the organization of practical learning and generates a suitable environment for ICTs handling. A team leader has an initiating, coordinating and developing role concerning ICTs and their use by learners. Both workshop managers and team leaders perform their job in secondary schools and are timetabled for 22 hours per week (Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008).

Each group of teachers teaching the same subject is supervised by a Teacher Coordinator (*responsable de matière*). The coordinator organizes, coordinates, and monitors

meetings between teachers of the same subject matter. S/he is responsible for driving the programme of the subject, and ensuring its consonance with national educational objectives and policies. The coordinator assists in the selection of instructional materials for the school, and recommends teaching techniques and the use of different technologies. The coordinator ensures implementation of an exemplary curricular programme and assessment, and enhances complementarity between subjects. S/he identifies and coordinates, with inspectors, opportunities for professional growth for teachers. The coordinator communicates, on a monthly basis, with the principal (Ministerial Order N° 91-174 of March 2, 1991).

1. 3. 5. National Education Funding

Algeria is one of the countries that allot a significant portion of its national budget to education. About 20 % of the government total core spending is on public education. Education is the second after National Defense amongst national budgetary priorities. Operating grants for various fiscal years devoted to the MEN have never suffered from budgetary restrictions. According to the Official Gazettes of Algeria (see table 1.1); annual allocations for the operating budget for the period extending from 2003 to 2016 have continued to increase (with a slight decrease in 2011 and 2013). The Government prioritizes education to ameliorate the quality and performance of learning; and to rehabilitate and develop infrastructure of schools and educational institutions.

Table 1.1
Capital Expenditures on Education from 2003 to 2016

Year	Capital	Source
2003	186.105.928.000	Law N° 03-05 of June 14, 2003
2004	186.620.872.000	Law N° 03-22 of December 28, 2003
2005	216.908.890.000	Ordinance N° 05-05 of July 25, 2005
2006	222.455.012.000	Ordinance N° 06-04 of July 15, 2006
2007	268.969.543.000	Ordinance N° 07-03 of July 24, 2007
2008	280.543.953.000	Law N° 07-12 of December 30, 2007
2009	378.552.936.000	Ordinance N° 09-01 of July 22, 2009
2010	662.916.579.000	Ordinance N° 10-01 of August 26, 2010
2011	569.317.554.000	Law N° 11-11 of July 18, 2011
2012	778.093.508.000	Ordinance N° 12-03 of February 13, 2012
2013	628.664.041.000	Law N° 12-12 of December 26, 2012
2014	696.810.413.000	Law N° 13-08 of December 30, 2013
2015	746.643.907.000	Law N° 14-10 of December 30, 2014
2016	764.052.396.000	Law N° 15-18 of December 30, 2015

1.4. Constitutional and Legal Framework of the Algerian Education System

Prior to the country's independence in 1962, Algeria was governed under the French constitutional rule and education was reserved almost exclusively for children of French nationals. It was only during the 1840s that the French administration began to transform the Algerian educational system by approving establishment of Arab Offices (*Bureaux Arabes*) in 1844 (Ageron, 1991). Staff members of these offices spoke Arabic and served as a link between the Algerian population, Europeans, and the French colonizers. In 1848, French leaders established academies in Algeria and began to inspect Algerian schools as a means to impose direct control. During the 1850s, a new policy for indigenous (the locals) population was set up by Napoleon III. The policy resulted in the emergence of the first indigenous schools, though with French curricula and foreign teaching methods (Vermeren, 2009).

In 1879, Jules Ferry ordered several missions to study the question of indigenous education in Algeria. His laws which established free primary education (1881), then mandatory and laic (secular) education through the abolition of religious classes (1882) were extended to Algeria. Nevertheless, the Jules Ferry laws have been applied only to French citizens till the institution of two more decrees by the French government in February 1883, and in October 1892, which generalized education and made it obligatory in Algeria. French administrators refused these decrees and denied literacy to Algerian Muslims. In 1895, indigenous schools, four *'medersas'* for the instruction of both Muslim and republican servants in Islamic affairs, and a university in Algiers were finally established (Chaher, 2008; Colonna, 1975; Gordon, 1978).

In the immediate aftermath of independence, and in an attempt to fill up the legislative vacuum in Algeria, the government decided to restrict itself to the application of French education laws (Law N° 62-157 of December, 31, 1962), along with minor reforms under the Algernization process. The education law reforms included creation of the IPN in 1962, creation of a body of educational advisors, a body of primary school advisors, and a body of trainers in 1963 (Chaher, 2008). Moreover, two decrees were passed by the Algerian government in 1963, one aimed to upgrade the civil service and the other was to create the BAC Certificate. In 1964, the government issued a decree to establish more schools (Chaher, 2008). Nevertheless, it was only with the application of Order N° 76-35 of April 16, 1976, that education and training in Algeria has been organized.

Likewise, post independent Algerian parliament adopted many constitutional reforms. The first Algerian constitution was adopted in 1963, and then promulgated in 1976. The 1976 constitution emphasized the importance of socialism and restoration of political institutions to their primacy over the military establishment. The third constitution was approved in 1989; another one was embraced in 1996 to allow the formation of different political parties, and then amended in 2008. The current constitution is a revised version of 2008 brought by Law N° 16-01 of March 6, 2016. Nevertheless, articles 1, 2, and 3 (chapter one) of all constitutions, emphasize the Arabic, Islamic and Tamazight (included via Law N° 02-03 of April 10, 2002) identity of Algeria. The right to a free and compulsory education under the conditions set by law is recognized by all Algeria's constitutions. Also, the highly centralized control of Algerian education is codified in all those constitutions.

Although all Algerian constitutions have recognized Arabic as a national and official language of the state, it was until the 1991 that the Arabization law was implemented in the country (Ordinance N° 96-30 of December 21, 1996, amending and completing Law N° 91-05 of January 16th, 1991). The law required governmental and educational functions to be conducted in Arabic. The aim behind the Arabization policy was, according to the government, to meet Algeria's Arab-Islamic heritage and reinforce the nation's strategic position within the Arab world (Malley, 1996; Mize, 1978).

Algeria depended greatly on France in many sectors, such as science and technology (Hayane, 1989), though it claimed political autonomy. The country was particularly characterized by a bilingual educational system. In this system, the French language was the teaching tool of science and technology, whereas Arabic was used in the teaching of social sciences. Nevertheless, Algerian curricula, especially those of social and human sciences, and law were cleared-out from any colonial offensive ideas. Furthermore, French was abolished from all educational administrations and these latter were replaced by Algerian ones.

The post-independence period between 1962 and 1965, during the presidency of *Ahmed Ben Bella*, was marked by a series of educational alterations. Due to teacher shortage, the Ministry of Education, which was created in 1963, appointed 31.000 teachers to compensate for the lack. One category of the hired teachers consisted of expatriates from Middle East and French speaking countries; whereas the other category consisted of Algerian teachers of Arabic and French languages. Algerian teachers' were provided with three

teaching jobs for their recruitment and retention; these were *monitor (moniteur)*, *instructor (instructeur)* and *teacher* (*instituteur*) ranks (Law N° 64-230 of August 10, 1964).

To qualify as monitors, holders of primary school leaving certificate (*Certificat d'Etudes Primaires (CEP)* were required to sit for an aptitude exam to get the job. To qualify as instructors, applicants had to be holders of middle school leaving certificate (*Brevet d'Etudes du Premier Cycle du Second Degré (BEPC)*), who were required to prepare a General Culture Certificate *(Certificat de Culture Générale et Professionnelle (CCGP))* and take a one or two months maximum training period prior to their recruitment. As regards the 'teacher' rank, BAC holders were required to take one year training in teachers' training schools, so called *Ecoles Normales Supérieures (ENS)* prior to their retention (Law N° 64-230 of August 10, 1964).

In an effort to supply the country with more local teachers and support them to ensure provision of quality teaching, the Algerian government initiated a rapid quantitative process of recruitment and training for Algerian citizens. The first systematic measurement taken by the then president *Ahmed Ben Bella* was to increase the nation's capacity to train teachers. Thus, a plan to open 30 Normal Schools (*Ecoles Normale (EN)*) at least in the whole country was set forth. Teachers training took the form of internships, study days and distance learning courses. The admitted candidates, upon their graduation from the Normal Schools, were required and expected to teach in public schools for a period of ten years as they obtain their state qualification. Nevertheless, the schools limited capacity afforded training to only 300 teachers per school (Law N° 64-230 of August 10, 1964).

Primary school teachers (monitors), who were offered teaching positions on the basis of their primary school leaving certificate were referred to teach either the Arabic or French language. To the best knowledge of the present researcher, this fact depended basically on the type of institution they pursued their schooling in. Teachers who studied in traditional institutions (*Zaouia* or *Koranic schools*) were sent to teach Arabic. However, they taught the French language monitors whom schooling was pursued in public colonial schools where French was the unique language of instruction.

During the 1970s, under the presidency of *Houari Boumediene*, most significant reforms took place. The reforms comprised the 1971 Higher Education reform and the 1976 Basic Education reform. The 1970s reforms included abolishment of all private education (Article 7, ordinance N° 76-35 of April 16, 1976). Formerly, the private education was the

dominion of foreign institutions and schools often run by Roman Catholic missions. Vocational education at the secondary level received great attention as part of the 1970s changes. The vocational provision was designed to suit the requirements of industry and agriculture in the country. Vocational skills were therefore taught to provide employment and work experience for as many young people as possible (Ordinance N° 76-35 of April 16, 1976).

During the period extending from the 1980s to the 1990s, under the presidency of *Chadli Bendjedid*, the Arabization process was predominant. Economically speaking, the country adopted a process of economic privatization. The privatization process aimed to reduce state control and encourage private and foreign investment. Algeria has adopted a number of legal texts to facilitate transnational corporations and foreign direct investment inflows. Chief to these laws is the Law N° 86-14 of August 19, 1986 on Foreign Oil and Gas Investments (Law N° 82-13 of August 28, 1982; Amendment Law N° 86-14 of August 19, 1986).

Politically speaking, the country abandoned its one-party rule, paving the way for a multiparty system for the first time since independence. This step towards democracy was the result of the constitutional revision of February 1989. The revision deprived the FLN of its hegemonic status and gave room to the creation of many political parties (Constitution of 1989, article 40). By the end of 1990, over thirty political parties existed in Algeria. The new constitution removed commitment to socialism embodied in the preceding constitutions. The constitution also guaranteed freedom of expression and, within limits, the right to strike (Presidential Decree N° 89-18 of February 28, 1989).

On January 1991, a law on the generalized use of the Arabic language in Algeria was passed (Law N° 91-05 of January 16, 1991). Arabic became the main language of instruction for all curriculum subjects in Algeria. French was considered and taught as a foreign language from year four at the primary level. English was taught starting from the second year of middle school level. The law on the generalized use of Arabic, suspended in July 1992, was then re-launched in 1996 (Ordinance N° 96-30 of December 21, 1996).

Algerian educational reforms were frozen in 1992 as a result of the unexpected civil war. This war broke out when the government cancelled her parliamentary elections. Islamists were set to win an absolute majority of the seats in the National Popular Assembly in those elections. The army cancellation of the electoral process forced the then President *Chadli*

Bendjedid to resign and a new leadership was formed with *Mohammed Boudiaf*. The army backed the government and declared a state of emergency and the country entered a phase of political and economic turbulence (Fuller, 1996; Ciment, 1997).

In 1993-94, English was introduced alongside French as a first foreign language in the fourth year of some pilot primary schools. Parents had to choose one of the two languages for their children to study. The experience was then generalized throughout the national territory in the beginning of 1995 (CNRSE, 2000). Since 1995, Algeria witnessed many new developments. Issues about new possible roles that the English language might play in the country were raised. A return to some political and economic stability, a shift towards political pluralism to establish democracy and a swing from a socialist economy that supported Arabization to a market economy also required learning of foreign languages.

Many decrees and ministerial orders have contributed to the development of national education in Algeria. In 2005, Ordinance N° 05-07 of August 23 set out the general rules regulating teaching in private educational and teaching institutions. The private educational establishments are currently required to follow the national official curricula with a window of three to five hours per week for dealing with other activities. Additionally, the private educational establishments cannot receive any financing grant or donations from national or foreign associations without prior approval of the Minister of Education (Ordinance N° 05-07 of August 23, 2005).

The Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008, on special status of public servants belonging to specific corps of the national education sector is another point in case. The decree aimed to develop the general status rules of the national education sector servants to be in line with the new realities of public administration, and political, institutional, economic and social transformations experienced by the country. The decree laid down the rules of practical training of public servants; statutory positions (secondment, temporary layoff and detached position); competitive or professional examinations; and the promotion system (Executive Decree N° 08-315 of October 11, 2008).

Goals and principles pertaining to higher education are governed by Law N° 08-06 of February 23, 2008, which amends and updates Law N° 99-05 of April 4, 1999. Higher education in Algeria is free, with minimal registration, meals and transportation fees. Higher education is offered at 50 Universities (49 Universities + UFC), 13 University Centres, 29 National Schools, 11 Higher Teacher-training Colleges, two University Annexes and eight

Preparatory Classes (Circular N° 1 of June 2nd, 2016 on pre-registration and orientation of BAC holders for the academic year 2016-2017). In 2004, the university system was reformed under the Bologna Process as already stated in the General Introduction (Executive Decree N° 04-371 of November 21, 2004).

1.5. The 2003 Education Reform

The current educational system in Algeria follows the reform that was enacted in 2003. The reform took place once the Algerian government realized that educational change is a chief element for any political and economic prosperity (Tawil, 2006; Toualbi-Thaalibi, 2006). Many writers contended that continual reliance on traditional educational procedures is an impediment to the nations' social and economic development (Kaewdang, 2001; Pennington, 1999; Thongthew, 1999; Wasi, 1998). Likewise, continued economic development requires a more knowledgeable and skilled labour force, and this requirement is achieved through rising investments in education (Carnoy, 2003; Wasi, 1998). New competences seemed to be necessary for Algeria to cope with the cultural exigencies of world globalization; thus a new education reform was required.

Roegiers (2006) stated, in the same vein, that the 2003 Algerian education reform was conditioned by internal and external challenges. Internal challenges targeted amelioration and adaptation of education to the society's needs of today; and promotion of citizenship, democracy, tolerance and dialogue in Algerian schools. Internal factors also stressed a progressive restoration of the job market. As to external challenges, these plagued modernization of economy; development of scientific and technological knowledge as well as recourse to the new ICTs and learning to use them in different sectors of life (Roegiers, 2006).

In May 2000, president *Bouteflika* set up an ad hoc committee to reform the education system. In July 2002, the National Popular Assembly voted on his education reform. The reform is based on recommendations from the World Education Forum, held in Dakar from 26 to 28 April 2000 (Tawil, 2006). The Dakar Framework for Action represents a collective commitment to action in which adults have the right to benefit from an education that will meet their basic learning needs; an education that includes learning to know, to do, and to live together. The framework was like a wake-up call and an invitation for Algeria to act urgently and effectively (www.unisco.org).

The impetus for the 2003 reform started with a series of meetings between Algerian and UNESCO officials. These meetings led to a contract signed on October 2, 2003, in which UNESCO accepted to fund Algerian educational reform. The project, called Programme of Support for the Reform of the Algerian Educational System (*Programme d'Appui de l'UNESCO à la Réforme du Système Educatif (PARE)*), was followed by a series of meetings between Algerian and UNESCO officials in 2006 to assess the progress of the reform and suggest future directives. Since the official launch of the PARE, other agencies such as the French Agency of Development (*Agence Française de Development (AFD)*), the European Union and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) sustained the Algerian education reform efforts (Tawil, 2006).

The CNRSE, which was set by president *Bouteflika* and headed by *Hadj Salah* from May 13, 2000 to September 30, 2000, then by *Benzaghou* starting from October 1, 2000, consisted of 170 members who were appointed *intuitu personae* by the president based on their competency, experience, and their interest in national education (Presidential Decree N° 2000-101 of May 9, 2000). The CNRSE was expected to evaluate the education system and submit proposals to the minister on teaching ideas, targets, curricula and how they may be shaped to match the country's new philosophy of democracy, reconciliation and economic development. The CNRSE report confirmed the need for a reform in order to meet the 21st century challenges (CNRSE, 2000).

The CNRSE preliminary report criticized the structure and content of national education. The CNRSE raised fears over the quality of teachers as well. Teachers were criticized for not having the necessary teaching qualifications as well as the sufficient amount of resources to undertake their jobs efficiently (Tawil, 2006). Yet, teacher education and training were relegated to low priority. The CNRSE proposal emphasized the necessity of integrating ICT in education, which would be attained by providing schools with computers and networks, and by introducing technological knowledge and skills in the curriculum (CNRSE, 2000).

Conclusions drawn out by the CNRSE revealed a deterioration of the educational system which was reflected basically in: a) a decline in the total number of learners who succeed in their BEF exam, b) an increase in the number of learners who re-take their levels, c) a considerable proportion of learners who drop-out from school, d) a remarkable disequilibrium between the huge number of learners hosted by general secondary schools and

the minority of learners who opt for technical secondary schools, and finally, e) a low percentage of learners who pass their BAC exam (Tawil, 2006).

The proposed curriculum reforms revolved around three basic axes. The first axe comprised *reorganization of educational structures*. This latter involved: a) an introduction of a pre-school level for five years old children, b) restructuration of the duration of primary and middle school levels by a reduction of the first to five years instead of six, and an extension of the second to four years instead of three, and c) a restructuration of teaching at secondary school level by introducing two streams: general, and technical/vocational (Tawil, 2006).

The second axe was about *Teachers' training reform.* This latter involved: a) governmental efforts towards improvement of teachers' and inspectors' knowledge and skills, b) coordination and evaluation of teacher training, and c) development of devices for the implementation of ICTs in schools. The third axe revolved around *Pedagogical reform* (contents and methods). This involved: a) an elaboration and introduction of new curricula for all education levels, b) provision and evaluation of new teaching materials, and c) introduction of new teaching methods to meet the curricula's objectives (Tawil, 2006).

As far as foreign languages teaching is concerned, the French language was reinstated as the first foreign language taught in the 2nd year of primary schools. English, however, was cancelled from primary schools to be introduced in the first year of middle schools. Following these changes, the 2003 reforms were undertaken with the aim of improving the quality of education by overhauling teaching methods, improving the quality of teaching staff, and restructuring the school curriculum. Thus, new syllabuses were introduced, new textbooks, accompanying documents and teaching materials were designed, and teacher training programmes were initiated.

Following the recommendations set by the CNRSE, the Algerian educational system adopted the CBA. Based on constructivist views, the CBA was supposed to develop a set of different skills at learners. These skills comprise the ability to communicate with and understand others in real-life situations outside the classroom; the promotion of independent learning strategies; and the ability to use ICTs for study and research. It was also supposed that this approach will allow learners to be tolerant and open to the world, to respect themselves and others; and to self-assess and reinvest the knowledge acquired (MEN, 2005, p.4). As such, the teaching and learning process in Algeria shifted from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred paradigm.

The MEN (2005) summarised the government's English language teaching/learning goals at the secondary school level as follows:

> The teaching of English has to be perceived within the objectives of providing the learner with the necessary skills to succeed in future… helping our learner to come up with *modernity* and join a linguistic community that uses *English* in all *transactions*. The learner will develop capacities and competencies that will lead him to social integration, to be aware of his relationship with others, to learn to share and to cooperate…this participation which is based on sharing and exchange of ideas as well as the scientific, cultural and civilizational experiences will allow learners to identify themselves and others through a process of constant reflection…by mastering *the language*, every learner will have the chance to learn about science, technology and universal culture and at the same time to avoid acculturation. Hence, the learner will blossom in a professional and academic world and will develop *critical thinking, tolerance* and *openness towards the others*. (p.4) [text translated from French-original italics]

Learners and teachers were called on to take up new roles under the 2003 reform. The learner was supposed to:

> 'Take responsibility of his own learning and be able to transfer his knowledge to his academic and social activities. By doing so, the learner will therefore develop certain *autonomy, creativity* and a sense of *initiative* and *responsibility*' (MEN, 2005, p.9) [translated from French- original italics].

The teachers' and learners' roles complement each other in the sense that a teacher is supposed to be:

> … a mediator between knowledge and the learner. He must create a healthy atmosphere that enhances learning and learner development. His role will be to guide, help, motivate, accompany and encourage

the learner in his learning path (MEN, 2005, p.9) [translated from French].

It is worth noting that the curriculum 2003 dissemination process was limited to few documents (the curriculum, teacher's guides, and the reference framework) that were given to teachers. The documents aimed to inform teachers about the new curriculum ideas, so that they understand and accept the innovation. The dissemination documents were basically framed on providing an explanation of the philosophy of teaching, objectives, learning and assessment which underpins the curriculum. Sample approaches to learning and teaching that outline a unit within a syllabus were also provided. Nevertheless, the dissemination model was centrally controlled and managed since the innovation was planned and prepared prior to its dissemination.

1. 6. Overview of Teacher Education

Teacher training in Algeria is currently governed by two bodies: the MESRS and the MEN. Primary and middle school teachers (so-called *Maitre/Professeurs d'Enseignement Fondamental (MEF)/(PEF)*) were used to be trained at Normal Schools prior to the country's independence. The creation of the Normal Schools was a result of the application of the French education laws to Algeria during colonization. In 1833, the Minister of Public Education *François Guizot* yielded a law that laid the Algerian-French national primary education system (Heywood, 2009). Named after his name, the Guizot Law of June 28, 1833, made it compulsory for every commune to establish and finance a normal school and train primary school teachers.

Each school, under the Guizot legislation, had to obtain an official certificate affirming that a certain level of standards would be taught (Heywood, 2009). The Guizot Law resulted in the creation of mutual schools in Algiers, Oran, and Annaba in 1833. Two years after the application of the Law, a body of school inspectors was created. A local inspection committee was responsible for appointing state teachers from candidates presented by the local committee (www.guizot.com). There were two types of Normal Schools under the French ruling of Algeria; schools for male teachers and schools for female teachers. Yet, Normal Schools for females were not given the same level of attention by the government as those for males.

The first Normal School for male teachers was created in Algiers (at Bouzareah) by Imperial Decree of March 04th, 1865. The second one, also located in Algiers (at Miliana), was created for female teachers in 1874. In 1878, two Normal Schools, one for males and another for females, were created in Constantine. Later, a Normal School was created in Oran (for male teachers) in October 1933. Teachers of primary education had to attend the normal primary schools and obtain a diploma called the Certificate of Competency (*brevet de capacité*). These requirements applied to teachers in both private and public schools at that time (www.normaliens-d-oran.com).

There is a difference between EN and ENS. The ENS is a higher education establishment outside the public university system framework for the training of secondary school teachers. The ENS aims to improve standards of teaching and learning and to professionalize the education sector. Post to independence, the first ENS was created in Algiers in 1964 (Decree N° 64-134 of April 24, 1964) in which secondary school teachers (*Professeurs d'Enseignement Secondaire (PES)*), graduates of Arts and Sciences, were trained before the creation of other higher teacher training colleges nationwide.

The student-teachers preparation programme, at the ENS of Algiers, awarded teachers a three year License degree. Student-teachers recruitment happened on the basis of a competition. Teachers were tenured after a one year of teaching in any secondary school they were assigned to. However, they had to pass their tests to get a Completion Certificate. The teachers had also to sign a five-year contract with the Ministry of Education for public service at any secondary school they were allocated to (Decree N° 64-134 of April 24, 1964).

To manage and cope with the post-independence education demands up to October 1975, teachers' recruitment regulations were exceptionally amended in May 1968. Monitors were therefore recruited on the basis of their middle or secondary school leaving certificate. However, they needed to pass the recruitment competition. Monitors needed to sign a contract which ranged up to five years. During these years, candidates had to prepare for and obtain either the Certificate of General Education (*Brevet d'Enseignement Général (BEG)*) or the General and Professional Culture Certificate (*Certificat de Culture Générale et Professionnelle (CCGP)*). The BEG or CCGP allowed monitors to apply for the rank of instructor and were granted tenure after a two year probation period (Decree N° 68-310 of May 30, 1968).

Candidates who had a Certificate of Completion (*Certificat de Fin d'Etudes d'Instructeur (CFEI)*) from a Normal School (section instructors), plus a one year of teaching experience post to admission to the fourth year of study were recruited as instructors. Nevertheless, they had to pass the CCGP practical exams. Also, they were recruited for the position of instructor BEG holders, who were required to attend the vocational training courses that the MEN organizes. Candidates were awarded permanent status after a two year probation period provided they pass a written test in pedagogy and the CCGP oral and practical exams (Decree N° 68-309 of May 30, 1968).

Holders of a Bachelor's of Arts (BA) or a Bachelor's of Science (BS) (License) degree in teaching, or admitted candidates at the first part of Middle School Teaching Certificate (*Certificat D'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Moyen (CAPEM)*) were tenured after a two year probation period. Candidates had to pass the second part of the CAPEM exams. The CAPEM is an official selection competitive exam usually open for a limited number of positions. The CAPEM comprises two phases depending on the two types of tests candidates undertake. It includes theoretical and technical tests to assess the candidates' cultural and theoretical competence, and tests in pedagogy to assess the core knowledge and teaching skills of candidates (Decree N° 68-302 of May 30, 1968).

Candidates who have a Certificate of Completion from a Normal School (section secondary school teachers), plus a one year of teaching experience counting from their admission to the fourth year of study were recruited as secondary school teachers. They needed, however, to pass the practical exams of the teaching certificate (*Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique (CAP)*). BAC, BA or BS holders were recruited after a two year training period, provided they pass the written, oral and practical exams of the CAP. Full-time instructors who would pass the second part of the professional teacher certificate (*Brevet Supérieur de Capacité (BSC)*) were tenured as secondary school teachers after one year of training. They were required to obtain the CAP as well (Decree N° 68-308 of May 30, 1968). Certified candidates who have a BA in teaching were directly tenured as secondary school teachers (Decree N° 68-301 of May 30, 1968).

By June 1968, secondary school teachers were assumed to complete a standard duration of four years study in ENSs (three years of theory focused technical provision and one year for training in Algeria or abroad). Prior to their graduation, teachers trainees were expected to pass their final exams. Certified candidates were assigned teaching positions

where they will undergo the practical tests of the secondary school teaching certificate (*Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Secondaire (CAPES)*) (Decree N° 68-425 of June 26, 1968).

In May 1969 teacher education in Normal Schools extended to four years. The BEG certificate used to sanction the first three years of study and give access to the final year which is devoted to training (Decree N° 69-54 of May 12, 1969). In July 1969, monitors at regional Normal Schools, after graduation, were assigned the status of trainee civil servants who had to undergo a five-year commitment. The commitment implies mainly that trainees do not receive a salary but a student scholarship for the first two years. For the remaining three years, candidates had to work as trainee civil servants (Decree N° 69-114 of July 29, 1969).

In 1970, Institutes of Education (*Instituts de Technologie de l'Education (ITEs)*) were created under the authority of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education. There were three types of ITEs: ITEs for secondary school teachers training, ITEs for middle school teachers training, and ITEs for elementary (primary) school training. The initiated training in ITEs used to last one year (Decree N° 70-115 of August 1, 1970) from 1970 to 1983; then it extended to three years. The training in ITEs consisted essentially in strengthening the basic knowledge of the candidates. The procedure of recruitment comprised open competition on the basis either of qualifications or of tests.

Also, in 1970, was created under the authority of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research the '*Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Enseignement Polytechnique (ENSEP)*' in Oran, via Ordinance N° 70-85 of December 1, 1970 (www.enp-oran.dz). The ENSEP aimed to form qualified teachers in technical secondary education. Its creation coincided with the industrialization programme of Algeria. In 1984, the ENSEP received the name of '*Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Enseignement Technologique (ENSET)*' (Decree N° 84-205 of August 18, 1984). In 2008 the ENSET expanded its training missions to other sectors (Executive Decree N° 08-210 of July 14, 2008).

Candidates who were recruited for a primary school teacher rank included three categories. The first category comprised graduates from training institutions for basic education teachers, who would pass the CAP practical exams. The second category comprised BAC holders, or students who would obtain a certificate of achievement for a university semester while preparing a BA or BS in teaching. The candidates had then to undergo one year of training if they pass the CAP exams. Finally, instructors holding the BSC were to be

reclassified and tenured after a one year of training while they pass all the CAP exams (Decree N° 82-485 of December 18, 1982).

Graduates from teachers training institutions for instructors, and successful candidates in the first part of the Middle School Teaching Certificate (*Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Fondamental (CAPEF)*) exams were recruited as middle school teachers. BA holders and students who had a certificate of achievement for a two university semesters while preparing a BA in teaching were all recruited directly as middle school teachers. Prospective teachers needed, prior to qualifying and recruitment, to pass the second part of the CAPEF exams (Decree N° 82-511 of December 25, 1982).

In 1984, twenty decrees were published in the Official Gazette of Algeria of August 21, 1984, to formalize the birth of 48 higher education institutions. The decrees set forth provisions on establishment of many ENSs and National Higher Institutes in different fields in Mostaganem, Oran, Oum El Bouaghi, Algiers, Constantine, Annaba, Blida, Tizi Ouzou, Tiaret, Sidi Bel Abbés, Tlemcen, Sétif, Batna, and Biskra (Official Gazette N° 34 of August 21, 1984, pp.859-882).

In 1994 candidates applying for secondary school teaching rank were recruited by way of a selective competitive admission exam. Successful candidates would obtain a diploma delivered and awarded by the government via Executive Decree N° 94-225 of July 24, 1994. The creation of the 'Associate Professor of Secondary Education Diploma' (*Diplôme National d'Agrégation de l'Enseignement Secondaire*) was a turning point in the history of the Algerian national education system. Holders of a License degree in teaching in an approved discipline could also teach at the secondary school level. It is also possible, in exceptional cases, on a non-qualified status and a non-permanent basis to teach in any Algerian public school.

They were recruited for the PEF rank on the basis of qualification only the BAC holders candidates. The rest of candidates were recruited on the basis of tests. PEF training programme comprised two years of initial provision (theoretical learning) and one year of ongoing training (in-service training). The MEF training programme, on the other hand, comprised two years: a year for initial provision and a year for in-service training (Executive Decree N° 96-73 of February 3, 1996, modifying and updating Decree N° 83-353 of May 21, 1983). In 2000, the ITEs received the name of 'in-service teacher training institutes' (*Instituts*

de Formation en Cours d'Emploi (IFCE)) (Executive Decree N° 2000-36 of February 7, 2000).

In 2002, new diplomas to recognize teachers' value were delivered to candidates qualified to teach in primary, middle and secondary schools. Eligibility for automatic enrolment in the course diploma required the BAC certificate. The duration of teacher education programme was: three years for primary school teachers; four years for middle school teachers; and five years for secondary school teachers. Teacher education consisted of initial teacher training/education (pre-service courses) and practical training (a number of weeks teaching for practicing teachers) in assigned public secondary schools under a prescribed supervision of the MESRS and MEN (Executive Decree N° 02-319 of October 14, 2002).

Since 2008 the British Council has been the partner for the MEN to reform and develop English language teaching and learning in middle schools across Algeria. It trained 3000 English language teachers and 87 inspectors at middle school level. It planned to reach all teachers of English language in Algeria through a cascade and blended training model, including online delivery, and work on curriculum, assessment, textbooks and materials. In 2014 this was embodied in the Strategic English Educational Development for Schools (SEEDS) programme, a comprehensive strategy for blended learning/training to be applied at all schools levels (Baala, 2014).

In 2009 preparatory classes (misleadingly called preparatory schools) have been established (Executive Decrees N° 09-21, N° 09-22, and N° 09-23 of January 20, 2009). The classes make a specific entry venue to studies at the ENSs. Application to admission for the classes prepares students to sit for the competitive entrance examination after a two-year graduate intensive course. At present, there are five different types of preparatory classes: classes for science and technology; economics, management sciences and business sciences; nature and life sciences; data processing; and specific integrated classes. The classes provide access to five different types of ENSs as well (Circular N° 1 of June 2, 2016 on pre-registration and orientation of BAC holders for the academic year 2016-2017).

Algeria and the United Kingdom have also agreed to improve training of English language trainers (inspectors). In this respect, the current Minister of National Education *Nouria Benghabrit* and United Kingdom Ambassador *Andrew Noble* signed an agreement on September 3, 2014. The agreement aimed to recognize the importance of developing the

English language teaching standards in Algeria and extend the level of educational cooperation between the two countries (www.education.gov.dz).

Currently, teacher training (for primary, middle, and secondary school teachers) takes the form of study days during the school year or holidays. The training comprises lectures and practical work and lasts seven weeks, an equivalent of 190 hours (see table 1.2 for the content of teacher training programme). The teacher training takes place either at the national training institutions for education of personnel or merely at schools retained by the directories of Wilayas. Provision for supervision and monitoring of teachers is organized in terms of availability of materials and specialties. The monitoring and supervisory practices are carried out by primary, middle and secondary school inspectors, experienced or university teachers, and engineers (Inter-ministerial Order of August 24, 2015).

A dissertation on one aspect of teaching practice allowing student-teachers to have a more professional approach to education questions is required. Evaluation of trainees' content knowledge is carried on a continuous basis. It includes regular assessment of practical and theoretical content knowledge. The training ends with a pass or fail written exams. Student-teachers evaluation procedure is based on a 0-20 scale where the passing grade is 10 out of 20. Grades are determined by continuous assessment (coefficient 2), exams results (coefficient 3), and the mark of the dissertation (coefficient 1) (Inter-ministerial Order of August 24, 2015).

Table 1.2
Teacher Training Course Content

Modules	Number of hours	Coefficient
Educational sciences and psychology	20	1
Classroom management techniques	10	1
Educational mediation	10	1
Didactics of specialty subjects and teaching methods	40	2
Educational assessment and remediation	25	2
Algerian education system and teaching curricula	20	1
Ethics and deontology	10	1
Educational and pedagogical engineering	10	1
School legislation	20	1
Data processing and ICT	25	1
Total	**190**	-

The Algerian education system gradually developed after independence. Great efforts have been made to stabilize education in the country. Nowadays, education is mandatory for all children between six and sixteen and public universities are free of charge. Moreover, the education spectrum received more governmental attention. Currently, education consumes one-quarter of the national budget. The system has seen considerable progress in terms of teacher education, training and recruitment as well. Efforts are being made to organize teacher training as a continuum ranging from institutes to induction at the time of starting teaching.

1.7. Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the characteristics of the educational system in Algeria as the context where the present study was conducted. It addressed the inspirations for education in Algeria, and its subsequent development, and highlighted the government's yearly allocations to education. In light of the constitutional and legal framework of the education system, it was noted that major developments over the years are proof of the determined efforts of the country policy towards education reform. This paved the way for a discussion about Algeria's education reform model, the Curriculum 2003. Finally, the chapter debated teacher education and training before and after the initiation of the 2003 reform. The overall aim of this chapter was to provide readers with a synopsis of contemporary Algeria, education reforms, and the context in which English language teachers in this study work. The next chapter provides the study's theoretical underpinning by reviewing the relevant literature regarding effective curriculum development and teachers involvement in the process.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This literature review starts with some introductory terminology on innovation and change. The chapter reviews the relevant literature regarding effective curriculum reform. It considers first the claims that have been made about the conceptions of curriculum, curriculum development and the four curriculum perspectives. This latter discussion provides ways of thinking about curriculum planning. The fourth section reviews key variables known to facilitate or impede curriculum implementation, and thus impact the effectiveness of curriculum reform. In the fifth and sixth sections, deliberation is devoted to elements of successful change and the prominence of teachers' involvement and the action research model in developing a democratic curriculum. Finally inferences for the study are proposed to guide this work. The whole chapter aims to place the Algerian reform within a theoretical context. It does not attempt to be comprehensive but aims to discuss those aspects in the literature which seem most relevant to this thesis.

2.2. Educational Change Terminology

In education, innovation, change and reform are often used interchangeably. However, many writers seem to define them differently believing that the use of the terms interchangeably remains one of the factors clouding the understanding of educational change. According to White (1988), change refers to any alternation between one time and another, which can arise spontaneously, and does not necessarily involve conscious planning and intention. The author contrasts this with innovation which, according to him, involves deliberate alternation. For White (1988), intention is the crucial distinguishing feature between change and innovation.

Many other writers emphasized the issue of deliberateness in innovation. Miles (1964), for instance, defined innovation as 'a deliberate, novel specific change' (p.14). Similarly, Nicholls (1983, p.4) suggests that an innovation is 'an idea, object which is intended to bring about improvement in relation to desired objectives, which is fundamental in nature and which is planned and deliberate'. The writer added that change represents a continuous re-appraisal and improvement of existing practice, which can be regarded as part of a normal activity, such as curriculum development. Equally, it was

55

noted that organizational changes that occur without intentionality of direct benefits are simple adjustments in response to routine changes in internal and external environmental conditions (West & Farr, 1990).

Noel (1974) supported this view in his assertion that change calls for a response. However, an innovation requires initiative (Owen, 1973), and must imply an improvement towards a pre-determined objective (Noel, 1974). Nevertheless, the aforementioned definitions were criticized by King and Anderson (1995). According to these writers, those arguments do not take into account the scale or scope of the products, processes or procedures to which they apply. Hence, with such definitions, change meeting their criteria, no matter how trivial, could be considered as innovation (King & Anderson, 1995).

Parsons (1987) argued that a distinction between change and improvement in education should be made, and that curriculum development is the attempt to bring about improvement and not just change, which can be viewed as neutral, or even a failure to improve. This view was supported by Fullan (1991) who stated that:

> Change for the sake of change will not help. New programmes either make no difference, help improve the situation or make things worse. The difference between change and progress can be brought home most forcefully if we ask: what if the majority of educational changes introduced in schools, actually made matters worse, however unintentionally, then if nothing had been done? (p.15)

Moreover, the term innovation is considered fairly strict since there is a commonly held belief that there is nothing really new in education (Nicholls, 1983). Nicholls (1983) along with West and Farr (1990) argued that it is not necessarily the newness in terms of elapsed time, but the perceived or subjective newness of the idea for the individual or the group reacting to it. With respect to newness, Rogers (1983) emphasized the perception of innovation as being new, whether the innovation is actually new or not is less significant in his view.

Since the first appearance of the term innovation in literature, which was described by Schumpeter (1934) as the creation of new products, services, brands and processes,

definitions of innovation expanded over time. Nevertheless, the idea of newness was always present. Currently, innovation is defined as the successful and effective introduction, development, generation, adoption, and implementation of creative new ideas, new methods, programs, policies, new products, processes, procedures or new measures of delivery within an organization (Albury, 2005; Amabile, 1998; Du Plessis, 2007; Kamasak & Bulutlar, 2010; Nusair, Ababneh, & Bae, 2012; Vaccarro, Jansen, Bosch, & Volberda, 2012; White & Glickman, 2007).

When discussing change, Fullan (1991) often refers to one of the five types of change: teacher change, curricular change, systemic change, innovation, and reform. Moreover, the writer identified three dimensions with respect to educational innovations at the classroom level. These dimensions are: the possible use of new or revised materials such as curriculum materials; the possible use of new teaching approaches (new teaching strategies or activities); and the possible alternation of beliefs (pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying new policies and programs) (Fullan, 2001, p.39). Fullan (2001) gave an example of how a teacher might implement one or two dimensions and ignore the other.

A teacher, according to Fullan (2001), may use new curriculum materials without altering his teaching approach or may use the new materials and change some teaching behaviour without altering his beliefs. Fullan (2001) emphasized the importance of the three dimensions mentioned above and argued that 'change in the three dimensions in materials, teaching approaches, and beliefs, in what people do and think are essential if the intended outcome is to be achieved' (Fullan, 2001, p.46). He goes further to argue that 'innovations that do not include changes in these dimensions are probably not significant changes at all' (Fullan, 2001, p.40).

As regards change, Judson (1991) defined the term as 'any alternation to the status quo in an organization' (p.10). This alternation includes 'the practices and procedures, the rules and relationships, the sociological and psychological mechanism' of the involved stakeholders, who will 'shape the destiny of any change, whatever its content', and 'lead it to prosper or falter' (Hargreaves, 1994, p.9). Morrison (1998) holds that change does not develop according to a linear pattern. It is, according to the writer, a dynamic and continuous process of development and growth that involves recognition in response to felt needs.

The nature of a planned change and the factors which may determine its success or failure depend greatly on the needs and impetus for change. Impetus to enact innovation may stem from a variety of sources. It may be top-down or bottom-up (see section 2.6.1.). Moreover, both internal and external forces drive the need for change (Yee, 1998). Educational innovations may result from political, cultural, economic and technological, organizational, and psychological and pedagogical factors. However, these cannot be wholly held responsible for the failure of educational reforms (Fullan, 1993).

Call for change at a top-down level may emerge from governments, generally ministries of education, who express concern for reorganizing education to produce a powerful learning to meet the 21st century needs (which is the case of Algeria). Change at the bottom up level emerges from teachers who may feel the need for change due to an obvious lack of compatibility between curricula, learners' needs and classroom realities; or simply a discomfort with methods imposed by policy makers. It is believed that reaching a successful educational change requires interaction between top down and bottom up levels; that is all forces participate in the decision making process (Hargreave, 1994).

The researcher (in this study) acknowledges that innovation is more consciously intentioned than change. Moreover, the researcher agrees with writers claiming that all innovation in organizational terms is change but not all change is innovation (Trott, 2008; West & Farr, 1990). The idea of newness is an aspect of innovation but not necessarily of change. In this thesis, however, innovation, change, development or reform will be used interchangeably for the following reasons. Firstly, the issue of whether a new teaching approach is an innovation, reform or change remains a personal subjective decision which tends to vary from one researcher or context to another. Secondly, fluctuation in the use of the four terms will permit some stylistic variation and thereby avoid boring repetition of the same term.

2.3. Curricular Conceptualizations

This section examines different conceptualizations of the term curriculum. The purpose is to establish a theoretical basis for later discussion of the variables affecting the development of curriculum and its implementation. Moreover, considerations of different definitions can provide researchers with diverse insights to emphases and characteristics of curriculum (Marsh & Willis 2007). Thus, it determines how an effective curriculum reform

should be. Also, curriculum design and development will chiefly depend on how stakeholders employ and use the term.

2.3.1. Curriculum

Curriculum plays an important role in education. Every time changes or developments take place around the world, schools curricula are automatically affected in order to fit the society's needs. As an umbrella term, curriculum includes a lot of matters due to the different attributed meanings and interpretations to the term by different writers. Yet, providing an accurate meaning of what the term implies is hardly conclusive. There is no universally accepted definition; but the multicity of meanings given to the term portrays its dynamism. Stenhouse (1975, p.1) notes that: 'definitions of the word do not solve curricular problems; but they do suggest perspectives from which to view them'. This sub-section briefly clarifies different conceptualizations of the term.

The origin of the word 'curriculum' can be traced to Latin. Its first meaning was 'a running', 'a race', or 'a course', and its secondary meanings were 'a race course' or 'a career' (Connelly & Lantz, 1991, p.15; Egan, 2003, p.10). During the early years of the twentieth century, most educators held onto the traditional concept and referred to curriculum as 'the body of subjects or subject matters set out by teachers for students to cover' (Tanner & Tanner, 1995, p.151). Later, however, the definitions developed and stretched out to mean a 'plan' (Pratt, 1994; Taba, 1962), an 'experience' (Tanner & Tanner, 1995), or a 'methodological inquiry' (Westbury & Steimer, 1971, quoted in Connelly & Lantz, 1991).

In a narrow view, curriculum is regarded as a means for achieving specific educational goals and objectives. In this sense, the focus is on product or ends, as the curriculum takes the form of a checklist to desired outcomes. Based on this objectivist approach, Kerr (1968) views curriculum as a learning which is government-oriented, what is called top-down. Curriculum, in a narrow view, also refers to a process of selecting courses of study or content (Marsh, 1997; Wood & Davis, 1978). Compared to the first definition, the focus here is on course content rather than learning objectives.

Moreover, a curriculum can be seen as a plan, or a blue print for systematically implementing educational activities. In this vein, Pratt (1994, p.5) conceives curriculum as 'a plan for a sustained process of teaching and learning' with specific focus on content and

the process of teaching and learning. Other researchers view the plan as a document or a written outline of a course program (Barrow & Milburn, 1990; Brady, 1995). According to Kelly (1999), curriculum is negatively seen as a 'syllabus which may limit the planning of teachers to a consideration of the content or the body of knowledge they wish to transmit or a list of the subjects to be taught or both' (p.83). In this sense, curriculum is synonymous with the term 'syllabus', which is not a fair definition according to the same writer.

Instead of considering the narrow view of curriculum as classroom content or prescriptive learning objectives, a different conceptualization considers curricula as programmes of experiences. In this vein, curricula refer to the totality of individuals' learning experiences, not only in school but society as well (Bilbao et al., 2008, quoted in Alvior, 2014). It is either 'the range of experiences, both indirect and direct, concerned in unfolding the abilities of the individual' or 'a series of consciously directed training experiences that the schools use for completing and perfecting the individual' (Bobbitt, 1924, as cited in Wiles & Bondi, 2007, pp.2-3).

Taba (1962) states that curriculum is 'all of the learning of students which is planned by and directed by the school to attain its educational goals'. To Tyler (1957), it is 'all of the experiences that individual learners have in a program of education whose purpose is to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives, which is planned in terms of a framework of theory and research or past or professional practices' (Taba, 1962; Tyler, 1957, as cited in Wiles & Bondi, 2007, pp.2-3). Definitions under this conceptualization share the idea that curricula are 'planned' and they are the whole of 'experiences'.

Marsh (2004) produced a revised list of definitions retaining much of the above definitions and further adding another perspective to reflect the modern educational scenario. He defined curriculum as 'that which the students construct from working with the computer and its various networks, such as the internet' (pp.2-3). This reflects the truism of how effectively technology can contribute to the learning of all students. While seeking answers to educational questions through top-down approaches that begin with policy questions, and then work down to analyse how schools work to provide solutions to policy decisions, Marsh formulated theories bottom-up.

Concepts of curriculum in language education have focused on the distinction between syllabus and curriculum, in addition to defining the term curriculum itself. Robertson (1971) clarified the distinction between the two terms by stating that 'the curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs' (p.566). To him, syllabus was 'a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself' (p.566). Yalden (1987) attached considerable significance to this distinction. She emphasized that in the Western context, language courses are often offered for a particular group of learners who may require an alternative syllabus with unique goals, objectives, and resources.

In the same regard, Dubin and Olshtain (1986) pointed out the common belief that curriculum includes a syllabus, but not vice versa (p.3). Krahnke (1987) maintained that 'a syllabus is more specific and more concrete than a curriculum, and a curriculum may contain a number of syllabi' (p.2). White (1988) discussed the confusion over the distinction between the two terms and especially mentioned their different usage in the United States and Britain. In Britain, a syllabus refers to 'the content or subject matter of an individual subject', whereas curriculum means 'the totality of content to be taught and aims to be realized within one school or educational system' (p.4). In the United States, curriculum tended to be a synonym of syllabus. Furthermore, Rodgers (1989) contended,

> Syllabi prescribe the content to be covered by a given course, from only a small part of the total school program. Curriculum is a far broader concept. Curriculum is all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities. (p.26)

Moreover, the nature of curriculum can be identified in one of three forms: intended curriculum (also labeled: planned, recommended, adopted, official, formal, specified and explicit curriculum), implemented (learned, received, delivered, enacted, actual) curriculum and hidden (experienced) curriculum (Kelly, 1999, Quinn, 2000). The planned curriculum refers to what is set down in the syllabus that is the curriculum on paper. It is

also the body of content contained in official curriculum documents, the list of courses, syllabuses and prospectuses.

The received curriculum refers to the students' real experiences. Whereas, the hidden curriculum refers to the implicit knowledge learners acquire in school. Morris and Adamson (2010) raise the idea of null curriculum and outside curriculum above the three types stated by Kelly (1999) and Quinn (2000). The null curriculum refers to what is not taught but actually should be taught in a school according to the needs of society. Outside curriculum means the knowledge learners cram outside classroom and school (Morris & Adamson, 2010).

From the aforementioned discussions regarding the conceptions of curriculum, it can be seen that there are variations in the definitions of curriculum. However, these definitions cover the main elements of language curricula, in which facilitative or hindering factors or variables that may affect curriculum implementation can be identified. Therefore, the present researcher feels that these definitions are the most suitable definitions to guide this research.

As far as the Algerian context is concerned, the term curriculum in the country is often associated with a course of study at school. It is commonly understood to be a document or a plan imposing a specific educational policy, which emanates from the top of the hierarchy, and is transmitted to schools from the ministry of education. The process of dissemination, as stated in Chapter 1, is usually achieved through documents, in-service teacher training and the cascade model. Through the cascade model approach, the necessary knowledge and skills to initiate change are transferred to a rather small number of trainers at the top. These trainers are then expected to train a cohort of selected teachers at the lower level. In the Algerian system, as stated previously, both curriculum and textbooks are centrally created and published. A single textbook for a given level completely controlled by the country is the only one used under the country's education policy. Additionally, there is neither a place for a decentralized curriculum development, nor curriculum adaptation to local needs.

As specified in the General Introduction, Algerian curricula exclude practitioners' voices. This view differs from situations elsewhere, say, the United States or the United Kingdom, where teachers select from whatever set of curriculum materials that are available, and develop them further for use in their classrooms. For a successful curriculum

change, curriculum in Algeria should not be understood as a 'product' but as a 'dynamic process' which need to engage all participants in its active construction through their work, just as team sports players dynamically construct the game as they play it.

In this section, curriculum has been broadly defined. Relevant literature on the term is thoroughgoing, and the endeavor to bring discussion of all the definitions goes beyond the scope of this thesis. Moreover, probing into the relevant literature does not make the main thrust of the present work. This, however, paves the way for a broader view of curriculum and curriculum development process. Also, no matter how curriculum is defined, be it learning, experiences, contents, objectives, or courses (Hyun, 2006); definitions matter mainly because clarification of meanings and operational terms is imperative for the curriculum to change. It is argued that for any meaningful discussion, analysis or planning of curriculum to take place, the starting point must be a clear conception of the term curriculum (Cornbleth, 1990; Kelly, 2004; Lawton, 1983).

2.3.2. Curriculum Development

Curriculum development is the process of putting in place precise guidelines of instruction for the curriculum to develop. According to Kennedy (2007), 'curriculum reform is about changes to the content and organization of what is taught, within the constraints of social, economic and political contexts' (p.173). This definition demonstrates that any given country will differ in its formulation of curricular reforms from another as societies' needs differ. Nevertheless, all countries, in their processes of curricular development, comply with the same rule of thumb that is consistency with the society's own values.

Similar to curriculum, definitions for 'curriculum development' also vary, chiefly depending on the period when they have been provided. Johnson describes curriculum development as 'all the relevant decision-making processes of all the participants' (Johnson, 1989, p.1, as cited in Segovia & Hardison, 2009, p.154). Graves (2008, p.147) describes it as 'the processes and products of planning, teaching and evaluating a course of study or related courses'. Nunan (1988, p.10) describes the process as 'the systematic attempt by educationalists and teachers to specify and study planned intervention into the educational enterprise'. This list of definitions is not exhaustive, yet it includes aspects of curriculum development (design, dissemination, implementation, evaluation) as well as the presence of participants involved.

In line with the emergence of new theories and innovative approaches in the field, what was understood by curriculum planning, designing, teaching, implementing and evaluation has continued to change and grow. Throughout its history, the curriculum development process has been improved. Tyler (see section 2.3.3.1.) came up with a curriculum development process that included four basic steps; namely aims and objectives, content, organization and evaluation (Tyler, 1949, as cited in Richards, 2001). Taba came up with a system of curriculum development that encompasses diagnosis of needs, formulation of objectives, selection of content, organization of content, selection of learning experiences, organization of learning experiences, and determination of what to evaluate and means of doing evaluation (Taba, 1962, p.12, as cited in Richards, 2001, p.8).

Nunan (1988), with his 'learner-centred curriculum', contributed to the field by adding original touches to the curriculum development process. The writer discussed the pre-course planning procedure (needs analysis, grouping learners); planning content; methodology; material design; and evaluation. This is similar to Carl's (1995) definition, in which curriculum development has been viewed as a 'continuous process in which structure and systematic planning methods figure strongly from design to evaluation' (p. 40). Richards (2001) added more steps to the process of curriculum development, which are situation analysis and ways of improving teaching.

The curriculum development process requires the participation of different stakeholders as teachers, students, administrators, curriculum managers, materials and test developers. All stakeholders with their diverse roles and perspectives add varied features to the process; teachers by being both the planners and doers provide the implementation of the process, so their views and work are to be taken into consideration during the whole process. Students are the reason for all the process taken; as such, Earle Chaffee and Sherr (1992, p.82) stated that learners are the ones whose views should be taken in the process of curriculum development in order to investigate the gap between the planned curriculum and the enacted curriculum which is 'represented in students' transcripts'; and thus determine what is needed for improvement in the process.

Nevertheless, without teachers' help it is not ultimately possible to reveal students' needs on the grounds because teachers are the ones who spend the most time with students. The success of the whole work of administrators, curriculum managers, materials and test

developers also depends on teachers as they act as a bridge between what is planned and what will be obtained as a result of the implementation process.

The process of curriculum development may happen in a centralized (top-down) or decentralized (bottom-up) initiative. The centralized curriculum refers to the design whereby decisions pertaining to content, planning and implementation are taken by a central national office, usually the ministry of education. In a centralised approach, policy makers engage education experts who might not have experience of school system and are therefore detached from classrooms' realities (Wedell, 2009). Decentralised initiatives, on the contrary, originate from individuals or groups within educational institutions, usually referred to as the 'grassroots'. These initiatives are self-directed by the people involved in the implementation (mainly teachers). Moreover, all stakeholders in the system being reformed will share decision-making power (Wedell, 2009).

The literature presents many reviews of centralized and decentralized educational systems in terms of their benefits and drawbacks, different ways of adapting them, and outputs they produce (Bezzina, 1991; Fullan, 1998, as cited in Hargreaves, Lieberman, Fullan & Hopkins, 1998; March, 1992; Roehrig, Kruse, & Kern, 2007). Centralized curricula are viewed as more structured, orderly, ensure uniformity and a standard approach to teaching and learning. Besides, they have a uniform mode of certifying learners.

Governments which control the content of the curriculum and the manner of its delivery in a centralized context are responsible to monitor progress. Yet, a centralised initiative is usually less sensitive to local needs. It is described by Goodson (2003, p.xiii) as 'brutal restructuring' delivered in 'ignorance or defiance of teachers' beliefs and missions'. A centrally initiated curriculum change is unlikely to be successful unless it actively engages the 'practitioners who are the foot-soldiers of every reform aimed at improving student outcomes' (Cuban, 1998, p.459).

A decentralised curriculum, however, tends to be more appropriate to learners' local needs, owing to the fact that differences may exist from school to school, district to district, and city to another. Students could all be offered the same education, but the content could be different. This kind of initiatives often ensures better ownership of the course by teachers. However, the extent to which decentralization reduces the central power of ministries can lead to failure of efforts to carry out functions and a collapse of

decisions. Though the line between centralized and decentralised approaches to curricula is distorted in reality, both initiatives can be highly successful under certain conditions. Also, successful initiatives that have brought sustainability to curriculum have always consisted of both bottoms-up and top-down activities (Ryan & Cotton, 2013).

Nowadays, and in an attempt to address societal demands and legislative dictates to prepare a workforce for the 21st century, policies around the world are working to reform their education systems (Glass, 2008). The reform initiatives have taken many forms ranging from restructuring entire nationwide educational systems to small local initiatives and curricula developments giving more freedom to schools to function in more effective ways (Carnoy, 2003; Hanushek, & Wöβmann, 2007; Lockheed & Levin, 1993). According to Hopkins, 'the amount of change expected of schools has increased exponentially over the past 15 years. Yet, even this situation is beginning to change. Change is now endemic, it is becoming all pervasive' (2001, p.35).

The phenomenon of change came in an era where top-down strategies of curriculum development have become popular both in the developed and developing countries (Punia, 1992). In Africa and elsewhere curricula are initiated top-down (Ramparsad, 2001), through 'power coercive' or 'unilateral administrative decisions' (Zhao, Pugh, Sheldon, & Byers, 2002), in utter negligence of the 'grassroots' (Begg, 2005; Rogers, 2003). This phenomenon forms part of a wider trend, and is not limited to Algeria per se.

The introduction of an innovation (curriculum), according to Chin and Benne (1976) happens through one of three main strategies. These are the power-coercive strategy, the empirical-rational strategy and the normative and re-educative strategy. The power-coercive strategy entails imposing forms of laws and legislation to force people to change and act in certain ways. Within this strategy, the authority of change rests with a small number of government officials who are at the top of the decision making process. The decision makers 'derive the right to exercise authority based on hierarchical positions they occupy in a bureaucratically organized institution' (Markee, 1997, p. 63). This top down approach is criticized for ignoring the individuals who are required to implement the innovation. Implementers may therefore not understand the nature of the innovation simply because they had no stake in its development.

Kennedy (1987) argues that the success of change imposed by the power coercive approach will depend on the amount of the public support this approach receives. If there is opposition, a compromise might be sought. If it is not possible to reach a compromise, then there is a possibility of considerable conflict, depending on the costs and benefits. Kennedy (1987) suggests that 'if not changing is costly and the form and content of the change is not costly, then the change is likely to be adopted and conflict to be resolved' (p. 164).

As regards the empirical-rational strategy, this latter is utilized on the assumption that people are logical beings and that a change will be adopted once proof has been produced to show that it will profit those whom it affects. This strategy implies that the main task of innovators is to present as effectively as they can the soundness of the innovation in terms of the benefits to be gained by adopting it. Markee (1997, p. 65), however, does not share the assumptions of this strategy and argues that,

> The biggest disadvantage of this approach is that it mistakenly assumes rational argument to be sufficient to persuade potential users to accept change. In fact, sociocultural constraints, systemic and personal factors, the attributes of the innovations, and so on are frequently much more important than rational argument alone in determining an innovation's success or failure.

Criticism of the empirical rationale strategy has been also restated by Zembylas and Barker (2007, p. 239) who claim that innovations which are based on the rational strategies 'overemphasize the rational and consequently do not take into account the complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty acknowledged to be part of change in schools'. In both the strategies discussed so far, the power coercive strategy and the empirical rationale strategy, it is worth noting that a teacher's role is merely to implement change which is handed down to him/her.

The normative and re-educative strategy differs from the two preceding strategies in that end users of an innovation are assumed to be the ones who recognize a need for change. In this sense, the strategy of change becomes a bottom up rather than a top down strategy. The implementation of this strategy requires 'a collaborative, problem solving approach, with all those affected by the change involved in some way and making their own decisions about the degree and manner of change they wish to accept' (Kennedy,

1987, p.164). Unlike the power coercive and the empirical rational strategies in which 'teachers merely implement the decisions that are handed down to them' (Markee, 1997, p.63), teachers within the normative and re-educative strategy play a crucial role because they act as both initiators of and collaborators in change (Markee, 1997).

Waters and Vilches (2001) have argued that a sound strategy for maximizing the potential for adoption and ownership of English language teaching innovations can be developed by utilizing a needs analysis framework. This framework has four levels of needs. These levels are familiarization, socialization, application, and integration. Familiarization involves the advocates of the innovation being well acquainted with the innovation situation. The innovation end-users such as teachers should be well-informed about the background to, the justification for, and possible instructions, and guidelines of the innovation. In a case of curriculum innovation, needs at this level might be assessed by meetings in which the initial innovation idea is explained to those who will use the curriculum including teachers, as well as those who will be responsible for overseeing it, that is inspectors.

Socialization involves giving opportunities for the initial innovation model to be altered or modified by the groups who provided input into the needs analysis process, so that the initial model of the innovation is evaluated for its fit with the beliefs, and socio-cultural preconceptions of the participants in the educational system. In the case of a curriculum innovation, discussion could be held, in which teachers (and if possible students), heads of schools, and inspectors are given opportunities to give feedback to the curriculum designers on how the curriculum materials and its underlying principles and methodologies do or do not fit in with the existing beliefs and assumptions of those who will use and oversee the curriculum (Waters & Vilches, 2001).

As regards the application level, this latter requires that the end users test and evaluate the innovation, and they have to be monitored and supported in such a way that their understanding and expertise are gradually maximized. To use a curriculum innovation example, meeting needs at this level might involve a teacher training programme in which teachers are closely supervised and guided in their attempts to put the principles and materials of the curriculum into practice. The integration level requires a broadening of the scope of the innovation so it becomes the personal property of the end-users through its further development. This can be done by connecting the teachers' attempts to get the best

out of the innovation to their schools agendas and their own professional development programs.

Commenting on the curriculum change process within English language teaching, Wedell (2003) calls on curriculum planners to provide support for teachers in order to make the significant professional adjustments that are required by the curriculum change process. The writer argues that:

> If planners introduce English language curriculum change with stated objectives whose achievement requires teachers to make significant professional adjustments, it is clearly their responsibility is to consider how teachers may be supported in making these. To be able to do so, planners themselves, need to be clear about what adjustments the proposed changes will necessary involve' (Wedell, 2003, p. 447).

Wedell (2003) suggests that when the curriculum changes do represent a significant cultural shift, English language curriculum change planners need to consider two inter-reliant points of view. First, they need to decide the extent of cultural change that the practices implied by the suggested change will imply for teachers and therefore what kind of support will be required, by whom, and for how long, to help teachers make the required change. Second, they need to decide what discrepancies the proposed curriculum changes may entail for other significant components of the language education system, and so what modification will be required, and when, to bring back balance and thus support the introduction of new practices.

There is a plethora of literature on curriculum development. According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2007), many writers use the terms 'development' and 'planning' interchangeably. Although differences exist between curriculum development and curriculum planning, for the purpose of this study, the writer will use curriculum development more extensively. The present writer acknowledges that planning is one step in the curriculum development process. Thus, curriculum development seen as a development process will include four main independent stages: the justification and orientation of the curriculum, curriculum planning (design), curriculum implementation and curriculum evaluation.

Carr (1996) claimed that the way in which we identify, analyse and propose solutions to curriculum problems depends on the values, beliefs and assumptions inherent in a particular curriculum perspective. There are many ways in which curriculum paradigms are coined. Carr (1996) discussed curriculum paradigms under three main headings: technical paradigm of curriculum thinking; practical paradigm of curriculum thinking; and critical paradigm of curriculum thinking. The focus in discussing the curriculum paradigms in the next section is not to judge which is the best paradigm. However, such considerations deepen the theoretical understanding of the principles, values and procedures of curriculum planning offered by each perspective.

2.3.3. Curriculum Perspectives

2.3.3.1. The technical perspective. According to Carr (1996), Ralph Tyler is the pioneer of the technical paradigm, also known as the *objectives* or *technical rationale* paradigm. The technical paradigm starts with identification and formulation of the educational objectives. This is followed by a selection of learning experiences that are required to achieve the set objectives. Organization of the experiences follows on the basis of continuity, sequencing, and integration criteria. The final stage is the determination of the evaluation procedure to check whether the objectives have been achieved. Since objectives are the desired ends, Tyler suggests that decision-making about the educational objectives requires consideration of three issues. These are investigation of learners' needs, interests, and aspirations; study of contemporary society to enable learners to deal with contemporary problems; and suggestions from subject specialists.

Grundy (1987) argues that knowledge is structured and predictable in the technical perspective. Prediction, by means of observation and hypotheses, provides a picture about what the product is likely to be in the future. This fact justifies orientation towards control in order to conform to the desired outcomes. This relationship between prediction and control in Grundy's view is synonymous to the production process in factories. However, it is argued that the technical perspective provides an easy solution to curriculum requirements and makes it possible for inexperienced teachers to receive experts' support and guidance on curriculum matters (Carr, 1996; Hartley, 1997).

Stenhouse (1975) notes the suitability of the technical perspective in training and instruction, but not in induction and initiation. In his view and that of Elliott (1991), the technical perspective provides only a solution in designing technical skills instruction

programmes which require the application of a known set of rules and procedures. Stenhouse (1975) considered a curriculum model that starts with defining intended learning objectives as 'problematic'. According to the writer, educational values are subtle and far more important than the observable changes in learners' behavior. There are numerous possible educational outcomes which cannot be measured in behavioural terms; thus, those outcomes are likely to be excluded from the instructional programme of the technical perspective.

Moreover, the practice of legitimizing decision-making by some on behalf of others, which is inherent in the objectives model, is not in line with the principles of democracy, social justice and human rights. It is not democratic 'to plan in advance precisely how the learner should behave after instruction' (Stenhouse, 1975, p. 81). In this regard, Apple (1996) maintains that a technical curriculum reflects forms of knowledge and ideology legitimized by the dominant class controlling the curriculum, imposing their values and view of knowledge on society through curriculum. The views of knowledge of some other members of society are excluded and as a result, they are indoctrinated to accept the knowledge and values of those in power and control, from which, in turn, result imbalances and social injustice (Apple, 1996).

Furthermore, the technical perspective suppresses teachers' initiatives and professional judgment in teaching. They consequently 'become actors on the stage of education' as 'operatives in its factories' (Carr & Kemmis, 1983, p.13). Once technical curricula are specified, teachers will be faced with a limited opportunity to be creative and autonomous in their classes. The limitations of the technical perspective raised lot of barriers in practice. Thus, other thinkers and scholars elaborated the Tyler model, such as Stenhouse (1975) who developed the process-model, and Skilbeck (1984, p. 224) who developed a model called 'situational'. However, a call for an alternative perspective, which considers a practical way of thinking about curriculum, was imperative.

2.3.3.2. The practical perspective. As opposed to the technical perspective, the practical model considers teachers as wise people who draw on their experiences and think how to act truly, from their own professional judgment in a given situation (Winter, 2000). A curriculum design informed by the practical perspective is regarded as a process through which learners and teachers interact, making meaning of the world. The practical perspective promotes therefore understanding, consensus building and the centrality of

moral judgment (Carr, 1996). The purpose of assessment in the practical approach is to provide background knowledge of the successes and limitations to inform future planning. This requires persistent communication among practitioners about future decisions and alternative solutions (Schwab, 1969).

Carr (1996) notes that whereas the proponents of the practical perspective emphasize the moral responsibility of teachers and acknowledge the need for teachers' participation in curriculum decision making, they fail to address curriculum issues raised by state control of education such as 'how the curriculum is structured and determined by state agencies and other forces outside the school' (p.16). A way of thinking about curriculum that transcends the limitations of both the technical and practical perspectives gave birth to another paradigm, which is called critical perspective. This is discussed below.

2.3.3.3. The critical perspective. The critical perspective is a way of thinking about curriculum that engages critically with the issue of state involvement or influence of interest groups in curriculum matters. Apple (1996) argued that schools have become targets to justify certain political ideologies or movements. The critical perspective therefore challenges the educational activities and assumptions of the state by encouraging teachers to be critical and identify those assumptions and activities. The critique ideology involves practitioners' critical self-reflection in order to explore and overcome any form of irrationality of their own beliefs and practices (Carr, 1995).

In addition to the practitioners' critical self-reflection, organization of enlightenment is a professional development practice within the critical perspective. Moreover, the critical perspective promotes collective endeavour towards enlightenment, rationality, freedom and justice, thus, it strives to provide equal opportunities and opposes any kind of unfair and unequal treatment (Carr & Kemmis, 1983). In this regard, the critical perspective goes beyond the successes and limitations of the technical and practical perspectives. In other words, the critical perspective challenges the prescribed curriculum of the technical perspective, which does not consider the prevailing political interests and ideology of the state. Also, it challenges the practical perspective, where teachers are invited to think about curriculum in terms of their educational values, but which ignores at the same time state constraints to teachers' professional autonomy (Carr, 1996).

72

2.3.3.4. The postmodern perspective. In terms of curriculum, the postmodern view suggests that 'curriculum goals need to be neither precise nor preset: they should be general and generative, allowing for and encouraging creative, interactive transformation' (Doll, 1993, pp. 14-15). According to the postmodern view, no one owns the truth and rights of anyone. Everyone has to be understood and respected in the learning process- a view which underpins the critical perspective. However, while the latter stresses the collective endeavour in problem-solving and social justice, the postmodern view promotes adventure and knowledge creation.

Knowledge in the postmodern view is contextual and selected on the basis of its suitability to the development of an individual learner in a particular social and cultural, economic and political context. Thus, policy makers, curriculum planners, teachers and learners alike are challenged to be conscious of the changing nature and relativity of knowledge in their educational endeavours (Doll, 1993). Moreover, the role of the teacher is not a leader but an equal member of the learning community. Postmodern vision promotes enquiry-based learning as well as learner-centred approaches to instruction (Hartley, 1997). Nevertheless, Green (1994) maintains that postmodernism does not give much guidance to policy makers because nothing is said about what should constitute the curriculum in the modern society and who should construct it.

In this study, the researcher acknowledges that curriculum planning in any country use features from the different perspectives. However, when the control comes from the government, which is definitely the case of Algeria, curriculum planning will adhere to the technical perspective. Thus, it is the government who decides about the curriculum content. As regards the leadership issue in curriculum planning, the technical approach will lean to national level policy making with experts at the lead. Countries following the critical and practical perspectives encourage school-based curriculum engagement with teachers as researchers taking the lead through their reflective practices. In countries following the postmodern view, curriculum is negotiated between teachers and learners where learners are considered autonomous learners, capable of constructing knowledge on their own with guidance from teachers.

2. 4. Curriculum Implementation

This section links the theoretical framework of educational and curriculum change presented in the previous sections of this chapter to a more focused construction on the

policy and implementation process of change, with a particular reference to the significance of teacher's role in the management of change. This chapter constitutes a critical review of relevant theories and research relating to the present researcher's topic.

2. 4. 1. Curriculum Policy and its Implementation

Since the current study explores the intended and the enacted curriculum at the Algerian secondary school level, it involves the issues of language policies and their implementation. To better understand how language policies are formulated and executed in the English language teaching context of Algeria, there is a need to identify what is meant by curriculum policy. Elmore and Sykes (1992) contended that curriculum policy is 'the formal body of law and regulation that pertains to what should be taught in schools' (p.186). The same writers argued that research on curriculum policy intends to explore 'how official actions are determined, what these actions require of schools and teachers, and how they affect what is taught to particular students' (p.186). They pointed out the increasing government presence in curriculum policymaking over the past few decades in all areas, which is also the case in the Algerian secondary education system.

Educational reforms and innovations have revealed the supreme power of governments in policymaking. Governments have been responsible for changes in mandatory course requirements. They have also been responsible for the raised graduation standards, for the development and implementation of new curricula, and for the increased attention to the curricular impact on testing and writing of textbooks. Therefore, the governments' role is becoming more and more prominent (Elmore & Sykes, 1992).

Furthermore, Elmore and Sykes (1992) recognized and identified the complexities and incongruent relationship between curriculum policy and practice. They postulated that once curriculum policy is formulated, developed, and carried through the school system to the classroom, the execution mechanisms will have certain impacts on teaching practices, which in turn will exert considerable influence on student learning. However, teachers may not implement the curriculum policy as intended, due to constraints such as their entrenched beliefs, negative attitudes, inappropriate or inadequate skills and knowledge, and lack of available resources at local levels.

The dichotomy between policy and implementation implies that curriculum policy shapes teachers' classroom practice through its execution, which may require teachers to change their teaching materials, methodological approaches, or pedagogical values (Markee, 1997). Teachers may also change the policy during its implementation. They

redefine, reinterpret, and modify their teaching behavior based on their classroom realities. They may welcome the policy due to its change and innovation, but still find it extremely difficult to put it into practice, and eventually choose not to implement it. In fact, Elmore and Sykes (1992) highlighted a very important issue of implementation, which is the confusion and frustration that curriculum policy often brings to its users when put into actual practice.

Snyder, Bolin, and Zumwalt (1992) argued that research on curriculum implementation is relatively new, and that even the term 'implementation' could not be found in curriculum literature before the late sixties. An alternative term, *illustration*, was used instead to refer to the execution of curriculum policy in practice. Snyder et al. (1992) claimed that implementation studies only started to become a focus of research after extensive investigations on change and innovation in the late 1960s and the early 1970s. From the 1970s through the 1990s, much more attention was directed to the implementation problems involved in translating proposals into practice by scholars, researchers, and practitioners. At present, research on curriculum implementation is more prevalent.

2.4.2. Major Stakeholders and their Roles

Curriculum implementation in any educational setting involves a variety of stakeholders. Stakeholders, identified by Fullan and Park (1981), Fullan (1982), and Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), consist of government, trustees, principals, parents and community, teachers, and students. Tanner and Tanner (1995) added other individuals or groups to this list. These include public and private interest groups, media, private foundations, external testing agencies, publishers, business and industry, researchers, and authors of curriculum materials. These combined lists reveal that many stakeholders are involved in curriculum policymaking and its subsequent implementation.

Lambright and Flynn (1980) identified five respective roles for participants in the innovation process: adopters, implementers, clients, suppliers, and entrepreneurs. Kennedy (1988) used these distinctions in an academic context to analyse the roles of participants at a Tunisian university. He suggested that officials in the ministry of education, deans, and heads of departments are adopters in curriculum implementation of English language teaching. Teachers are implementers, students are clients, curriculum and materials designers are suppliers, and the expatriate curriculum specialists are entrepreneurs or

change agents. Kennedy (1988) also pointed out that the roles that participants play may not be mutually exclusive.

Widdowson (1993) pinpointed the importance of taking into consideration teachers' roles in relation to other participants, such as policymakers, researchers, materials designers, and learners involved in the educational process. The writer rose questions about what proper professional role teachers should undertake, which provisions should be made to sustain and develop teachers in that role, and whether their role is more concerned with the macro-level of curriculum planning or with the micro-level of classroom practices. Failure, according to the same writer, to involve teachers in the formulation of curriculum policy could result in a situation where teachers change, reject, or ignore curriculum innovation when it is to be implemented in their classrooms.

In the Algerian secondary education context, the stakeholders include officials at the ministry of education (policymakers), inspectors, schools principals, researchers, experts, teachers, students, curriculum designers and textbooks writers. As in other educational contexts, teachers are definitely the most important stakeholders in carrying out the intended curriculum proposed by the policymakers in Algeria. Therefore, their roles should not be overlooked.

Stakeholders' roles in the implementation process contribute to the degree to which new or revised curricula will be successfully implemented in the country. Acknowledging the roles of all stakeholders, this section focuses on the roles of three major stakeholders. These are: policymakers who formulate curriculum policies; administrators who interpret the policies and communicate them to the actual implementers; and teachers who implement the reform directives. Truly, the structural frameworks of educational institutions as well as the different roles of stakeholders may differ from one country to another.

Morris and Scott (2003) argued that within educational systems, challenges often exist when transmitting policy intent from the most senior level through the middle-level managers to the point of delivery, or vice versa. Many people in different positions, committees, and organizations are involved. In a centralized or a decentralized environment, policies often contain either only low level of guidance for practice (Matland, 1995), tending to make it difficult for local implementers to execute; or allowing practitioners too much freedom in implementation.

Performing a bridging role between policymakers and implementers, middle-level managers or administrators have the task of taking a national policy and making it workable in local institutions, i.e., schools. Honig (2004) defined middle management as intermediary individuals or 'organizations that operate between policymakers and policy implementers to enable changes in roles and practices for **both** parties' (p.66, original italics). Spillane et al. (2002a) maintained that the position of the administrators in the organizational hierarchy empower them to focus their work in two directions. One direction is that they are themselves the enactors, responsible for implementing both national and institutional policies. The other direction is that they depend on other enactors -classroom teachers- for the successful implementation of these policies.

Using a qualitative case study design, Honig (2004) explored how four intermediary organizations in the United States worked with policymakers and implementers to control changes. One of the most important findings revealed that 'intermediary organizations' functions and their abilities to perform those functions are context specific-contingent on given policy demands and policymakers' and implementers' capacity to meet those demands themselves' (p.83). Also, intermediary organizations can be independent and augment their own capacity to carry out their core functions when needs change. Just as the people on the receiving end must have the capacity and motivation to be able and willing to carry out the policy, so should the intermediaries.

Working in complex policy grounds that include the policymakers and implementers between whom they mediate (Honig, 2004), middle managers are supposed to be able to understand and interpret the national policy mandate in the context of the implementers' knowledge, beliefs, and abilities. However, more often than not, what local administrators communicate to their implementers is a simplified, revised, or simply inaccurate version of the policies handed down to them from the policymakers (Honig, 2004). In other words, policy messages are distorted as they filter down through the various levels of educational administration (Lefstein, 2004).

Hill (2003) confirmed that middle managers are positioned to facilitate policy interpretation for classroom teachers, because 'implementers must figure out what a policy means and whether and how it applies to their school to decide whether and how to ignore, adapt, or adopt policy locally' (Spillane, Reiser, & Reimer, 2002b, p.733). Their assistance will therefore increase the implementers' understanding of what policies mean. Their

distinctive functions also include formulating and recommending the organizational or individual practices needed for implementation and providing the specific resources and training required by the implementers in order to meet the policy objectives.

In addition to the facilitating roles that middle managers perform in their mediation between policymakers and implementers, Lefstein (2004) confirmed that these administrators are not merely passive channels of national policy. Instead, their active and critical roles in interpreting and shaping national and local initiatives are critical in the educational contexts (Spillane, 2004). Additionally, they are responsible for ensuring that the grassroots implementers have the skills, abilities, and resources to implement the policy.

Nevertheless, in a study conducted by Gross, Giacquinta, and Bernstein (1971), the researchers identified the middle-level educational managers as being primarily responsible for the teachers' non abilities and absence of resources needed to overcome the challenges of dealing with the imposed change. They found that the managers and their administrative subordinates failed to provide teachers with the necessary resources to carry out the innovation. These middle-level managers also failed to provide the appropriate support and rewards to ensure teachers' willingness to make strong efforts toward effective implementation of the revised curriculum and as a result, teachers were inadequately prepared to face the challenges.

Although these middle-level managers' roles are indispensable, Morris and Scott (2003) claimed that middle-level managers are often faced with the task of reconciling the irreconcilable. They feel that they are frequently forced into compromise situations by having to adjust the policy to make it appropriate to their particular institutions as well as acceptable to the teachers. Without modifications, problems may arise from the imposition of a general policy within a unique institutional setting. Berman (1978) cited two types of problems in the implementation of a national policy, micro- and macro-implementation issues.

Macro-implementation problems are generally caused by the government, which intends to 'execute its policy so as to influence local delivery organizations to behave in desired ways' (Berman, 1978, p.164). As a result of the government policy, micro-implementation problems spring up when the local organizations feel that they are forced to 'devise and carry out their own internal policies' (Berman, 1978, p.164). The clash

between these two levels is 'sometimes fluid, frequently chaotic, and always conflictual' (Berman, 1978, p.165).

McLaughlin (1987) suggested that it is in fact desirable that policies should be transformed by middle-level managers, and thereby adapted to conditions of the implementing party. This transformation and adaptation require middle managers to mix-up the local implementation process, which McLaughlin (1987) considered not only as an adaptive response to demands for change, but also as the more beneficial response in the long term. To help the adaptation process, the writer recommended integrating the macro world of policymakers with the micro world of individual implementers (McLaughlin, 1987).

From another perspective, Hope and Pigford (2001) pointed to the significance of collaboration and cooperation between policymakers and implementers (i.e., administrators and teachers alike) during both policy development and implementation. They affirmed that those who assume responsibility for policy implementation such as middle managers must also be involved in policy development. Without such involvement, administrators charged with transforming policy into practice are likely to lack the full understanding of the policy itself and thereby the knowledge of the reason for change, which can in turn result in the lack of motivation which is necessary to effectively implement a new initiative.

Also, just as middle managers have to be responsible to make grassroots enactors be able to acquire both the capacity and will to implement the change, so must the policymakers themselves take on that responsibility of the middle-level managers by interacting with them and obtaining their feedback. To do otherwise is equivalent to playing the game wrongly, where the possibility of passing on a distorted version of the policy exists, as well as the risk that the delivery agents may lack a clear understanding of the chief reasons for the implementation.

In addition to middle managers' involvement in policy development, researchers have been aware that teachers as implementers are the most important players and that their participation in policy formulation is a key to successful curriculum policy implementation (this point will be further extended in sub-section 2.6.1.). The significant role that teachers play in curriculum reform must not be overlooked if successful implementation and sustainability are to be achieved. Yet, teachers' lack of direct

involvement at the policy articulation stage in different contexts did not prevent them from buying into the policy (Gross et al., 1971).

Teachers have often been diagnosed as resisters to change or simply lazy, ignoring or undermining curricular innovations (McLaughlin, 1987; Smit, 2005). Spillane et al. (2002b) looked at teachers' situation from a different perspective, explaining that this fact is due to implementers' lack of knowledge, skills, and other resources-necessary for them to work in a consistent way with the policy. Spillane et al. (2002b) warned that even if implementers form understandings that reflect policymakers' intentions, they may not have the necessary skills and the human and material resources to do what they believe the policy wants them to do.

Again, Gross et al. (1971) together with Wang and Cheng (2005) argue that it is not the teachers who are at fault, but rather their supervisors, the middle managers, who are inadequate in both supporting and motivating their subordinates. In other words, implementers' difficulties in enacting policy may be in a large part due to the lack of appropriate support from the middle-level administrators. Combined with the middle level managers' varying levels regarding the policy and how it should be implemented, other factors, which will be discussed in the next section, may potentially impede teachers' ability to implement the intended curriculum policy.

2.5. Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation

Educational innovations, as stated earlier in this chapter, do not appear in vacuum. They are brought about in response to either strong pressures from society for reform (Brindley & Hood, 1990), or schools' needs. These needs may include large numbers of unmotivated and underachieving learners, dissatisfied and unmotivated teachers, and outdated materials (White, 1987). Some writers, however, claim that the processes of educational changes that have become commonplaces over the years were more often than not full of problems (Fullan, 1982, 1992, 1993; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). Reforms, precisely that of curricula, do not always work very well and there tends to be a mismatch between the curriculum and its implementation (Cheserek & Mugalavai, 2012; Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Curdt-Christiansen & Silver, 2012; Fullan, 1991; Pandian, 2002; Sarason, 1990; Wang, 2006). Nicholls (1983, p.3) stresses that 'it is the implementation rather than the creation which presents certain difficulties and problems'; because 'implementation is a process' rather than 'an event' (Fullan & Park 1981, p.24). This

mismatch is due to many factors (Richards, 2001) such as resistance to change, possibilities of change, and stakeholders' roles in leading change (Fullan, 2011; Hall & Hord, 2011).

Additionally, the process of implementation varies amongst teachers, and this variation depends on teachers' implementation models. Some teachers may implement new curriculum as they may find it useful while some will not do so, because they may think the new curriculum will restrict their own autonomy (Datnow & Castellano, 2000). This fact led researchers to study how curricula are implemented. According to Cho (1998), and Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery, & Taubman (2000), teachers' implementation of curriculum change may happen in one of three different perspectives. Teachers may adopt, for instance, the *fidelity perspective*, where they abide by a curriculum's original design when implementing it. Curriculum fidelity or fidelity of implementation is defined as 'the extent to which teachers implement an intervention, curriculum, innovation, or program as intended by the developers' (Pence, Justice, & Wiggins, 2008, p. 332).

Nonetheless, in case authorities allow teachers to make modifications to the innovations designed by external experts, teachers will be using the *mutual perspective* model (Pinar et al., 2000). This model is defined as 'that process whereby adjustments in a curriculum are made by curriculum developers and those who actually use it in the school or classroom context' (Snyder, Bolin, & Zumwalt, 1992, p.410). The mutual perspective model assumes that the exact nature of implementation cannot and should not be specified precisely in advance but should evolve as teachers decide what is best for their classroom context (Fullan, 1992). In other words, teachers make adaptations of the intended curriculum to the context.

When implementation is, in other cases, driven by an internally imposed, bottom-up dynamic (Cho, 1998); teachers will be adopting the *enactment perspective*. Curriculum enactment views the curriculum as the educational experiences jointly created by students and teachers. Teachers and learners together create their own curriculum realities. In the enactment perspective the teacher is regarded as a curriculum maker (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992; Craig & Ross, 2008) and an integral part of curriculum construction and enactment in and outside the classroom.

Regardless of the implementation models teachers will adopt, an effective implementation will rest on various interactive factors (Hord, 1992, as cited in Gwele,

2005). However, in their attempts to explain the failure of some curricula innovations, many curriculum developers blamed the teacher (Gleeson, 1978). This assumption certainly requires careful consideration of teachers' perceptions of the enacted change (Marsh & Willis, 2007). Moreover, recognizing and understanding the factors that influence innovation from within and outside the institutional context provides a sound rationale for decision making in curriculum planning and development.

Though the factors in this thesis will be isolated and examined separately, complexity resides in their melted interplay. For practical reasons, the factors are sorted into factors related to change, internal factors, and external factors. Internal factors stem from teachers and students in the classroom. External factors, however, stem from outside the classroom, such as cultural, organizational, or administrative characteristics that teachers and students have little or no control over. The present thesis focuses on two levels: the intended curriculum and the implemented curriculum. The present researcher recognizes that problems arising in implementation may reflect non-compliance by teachers as well as intrinsic shortcomings of the intended curriculum. Also, students are the recipients of curriculum innovation, thus student-related factors are important in the literature on change and innovation. However, they are not touched upon in this review because they are outside the scope of the current study.

2.5.1. Factors related to Change

2.5.1.1. Need. Many innovations are attempted with no reflection on whether or not they really deal with society's priority needs (Fullan, 1991). Also, it is often 'not only whether a given need is important, but also how important it is relative to other needs' (Fullan, 1991, p.69). Besides, teachers do not always share a sense of urgency for reform with reformers. Exact needs are sometimes not clearly evident for teachers until implementation is proceeding, and needs may even vary from one region to another.

In a similar vein, Rogers (1995) debated the issue of relative advantage. Relative advantage refers to the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better or superior than the one it supersedes in terms of efficiency, prestige, convenience or satisfaction. Thus, the greater the perceived relative advantage of an innovation, the more rapid its adoption will be by implementers.

2.5.1.2. Clarity. The nature of innovation, which is generally viewed in terms of the originality, complexity (see sub-section 2.5.1.3), clarity, and triability (see sub-section 2.5.1.7) of a change (Fullan, 2001), has a crucial impact on the acceptability and implementation process (Fullan, 2001; Rudduck, 1986; White et al., 1991). In this regard, Brindley and Hood (1990) argued that 'the more complex an innovation is perceived to be, the less likely it is to be adopted' (p.183). Teachers may also be often asked to implement a new curriculum, under a given reform, without being given a clear explanation of how to put it into practice. Unclear and unspecified changes will consequently 'cause great anxiety and frustration to those sincerely trying to implement them' (Fullan, 2001, p.77), and this may result in unsuccessful implementation (Fullan, 2001).

Moreover, Fullan (2001, p.77) warned that 'lack of clarity, diffuse goals, unspecified means of implementation represent a major problem at the implementation stage, teachers and others find that change is simply not very clear as to what it means in practice'. In this respect, Leithwood, Jantzi, and Mascall (2002) stressed the importance of providing teachers with clear description of how to put an innovation into practice and suggested that: 'the curriculum to be implemented should be described in exceptionally clear and concrete language'. It does mean however, that the 'actual practices emerging from such consideration need to be outlined very clearly, and with plenty of illustration if they are to be uniformly understood' (p.12).

Clarity about goals and means is handicapping to educational changes (Gross et al., 1971). Problems related to clarity are inherent in vague goals and unclear implementation strategies. Carless (1998) pointed out that teachers should have a thorough understanding of the principles and practices of the proposed change if a curriculum innovation is to be implemented successfully. He emphasized that teachers not only need to understand the theoretical underpinnings of the innovation, but more importantly, how the innovation is best applied in the classroom. Moreover, lack of detailed understanding may lead to false clarity, as some innovations may seem clear at a first glance (Carless, 1998).

Likewise, clarity does not refer only to details, but also to the general sense of direction and purpose of the innovation. Teachers may know how to facilitate specific activities in a suggested resource but may not possess an understanding of resource based learning beyond one key resource (Carless, 1998). Ongoing support of the innovation, by making its rationale communicable, clear, and easy to understand, is therefore vital.

Furthermore, when raising the issue of mismatch between teachers' interpretations and those of the planners; Brown and McIntyre (1978) asserted that when teachers' interpretations do not correspond with those of the planners', this will result in: teachers lack of clarity about what was intended by curriculum planners and thus ignorance of some aspects of the innovation; and teachers misunderstanding of the planners' intentions and therefore rejection of change. These authors suggested that 'the curriculum planner must further negotiate the meanings ensuring that the teachers both attend to and understand them' (p.19).

The researcher acknowledges that knowledge and understanding of the ideologies of an innovation at the theoretical level is essential for teachers to understand the 'why' of the innovation. However, it is not sufficient on its own for teachers to understand the 'how' of the innovation, i.e. its practical implementations. Subjective understanding of the meaning of change (subjective reality) should be mediated by dealing with objective reality. Therefore, it is important for the teachers to get an objective meaning of the innovation. It is the transformation of subjective realities, or the establishment of a new meaning or relationship to the change, that is the essence of any fundamental change process (Fullan, 1991).

2.5.1.3. Complexity. Complexity is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as difficult to understand and to use. Innovations that are simpler to understand are adopted more readily than those that require the adopter to develop new understandings (Rogers, 1995). Complexity can create problems for teachers and schools attempting to implement change. For Fullan (1991), the answer to managing complex change can be to 'break complex changes into components and implement them in a divisible and/or incremental manner' (Fullan, 1991, p.72). Complexity can be a barrier if the various components are dissonant and incoherent. On the contrary, if a complex change is composed of a variety of components which combine into a logical and coherent whole, complexity may be an enabling rather than a hindering factor affecting implementation. However, not only is teachers' understanding of an innovation essential in curriculum policy and its implementation, teachers' ownership of the innovation is also indispensable.

2.5.1.4. Ownership. Ownership is defined as the extent to which an innovation belongs to the implementers (Kennedy, 1988). It exerts a considerable impact on whether an innovation is actually implemented, rather than simply staying at the surface level

(Kennedy, 1987, Kennedy, 1988; Palmer, 1993; White, 1987, White, 1988). Kennedy (1987) asserted that 'it is necessary to establish a sense of ownership for change to take effect' (p.168). Further, he reinforced the notion that the greater the responsibility for decision-making passed on to implementers, the better, as this encourages ownership (Kennedy, 1988). White (1987) agreed, saying, 'people who are not informed of new developments will tend to lack responsibility toward the innovation' (p.213).

Moreover, grassroots bottom-up innovations, which are identified by members of an institution or by the users themselves, are believed to be more effectively implemented than those which are imposed or imported from outside (White, 1987, White, 1988). The bottom-up strategy is likely to increase teachers' sense of ownership, because within isolated and insulated classrooms called 'egg-crate like compartments' (Lortie, 1975), teachers are likely to resist imposed changes (Hargreaves, 1980). These imposed changes can easily lead to teachers' 'low morale, dissatisfaction, and reduced commitment', to name few (Sikes, 1992, p.49).

A number of empirical studies in the English language teaching innovation literature discussed teachers' ownership. Palmer's (1993) involvement in an in-service teacher training program in a Norwegian university, for instance, proved that the more experienced teachers are, the 'more willing to experiment with an innovation when they were given the opportunity to make the idea 'theirs''. The writer also found that innovations are more easily 'adapted by teachers in the way they think is appropriate for their circumstance' (p.170).

Palmer (1993) identified four steps towards ownership: *experiencing* the innovation; *reflecting* upon the possible impact of the innovation on one's own teaching; *adapting* the innovation to one's own particular circumstances and teaching style; and *evaluating* the innovation in the light of actual experience (p.170, original italics). These four steps are said to be likely to enable teachers to have a sense of ownership in the implementation of a curriculum innovation.

A factor which relates to ownership is the extent to which an educational system is centralized or decentralized, or in other words the extent to which top-down or bottom-up innovations are more common. In a centralized system, such as Algeria, it is relatively difficult for a top-down change to generate ownership amongst teachers, especially in the early implementation stage of an innovation. Such an approach usually fails to engender

ownership so that a curriculum may be adopted in name but not actually implemented at the school or classroom level (Waugh & Punch, 1987).

2.5.1.5. Practicality. Doyle & Ponder (1977) indicate that teachers' perceptions of the practicality of an innovation strongly influence their willingness to implement it. They suggest three criteria for deciding whether an innovation will appear to teachers as 'practical' or not; these are: congruence, instrumentality and cost. Teachers may find a particular curriculum congruent when there is correspondence between the procedures contained in the change proposal and the way teachers normally conduct classroom activities; the setting in which the innovation was developed and that in which it is to be implemented; and finally the teachers' role required by the innovation and teachers' self-image.

Instrumentality means that a change proposal must describe a procedure in terms which depict classroom contingencies. When teachers decide to put efforts into a particular change, they question the need for the change, as well as their potential benefits and that of the students (cost). In other words, teachers estimate the extra time and effort the new practices require compared to the benefits such practices are likely to yield. So, an innovation which places heavy demands on the school in terms of time, personnel and money will be less likely to be adopted than one which is less demanding (Doyle & Ponder, 1977).

2.5.1.6. Compatibilit*y*. Compatibility is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being compatible with the existing values, past experiences, attitudes and beliefs of potential adopters. The adoption of an incompatible innovation may require the development of a new attitude system, which is often a slow or unachievable process. An innovation can be compatible or incompatible with sociocultural values and beliefs, with previously introduced ideas, or with implementers' needs for the innovation (Rogers, 1995).

2.5.1.7. Trialability. Trialability refers to the extent to which an innovation can be piloted without taking too much time, energy or funds. The concern is whether sufficient data can be obtained from a limited trial in order to make a decision as to whether the innovation is necessary or not. The trying-out of an innovation is a way to give meaning to an innovation, to find out how it works under one's own conditions. Moreover, new ideas that can be adopted partially on a trial basis are generally introduced more quickly than

innovations which are not divisible. An innovation that is trialable represents less uncertainty to implementers because they are able to learn through the initial experimentation (Rogers, 1995).

2.5.1.8. Communication. For Rogers (2003), communication is 'a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding' (p.5). The institution of an effective communication mechanism is very important before, during and after the innovation is set in motion. Throughout the reform process, adopters 'must be given multiple opportunities in different forum' (Markee, 1997, p.174). Additionally, 'good communication among project participants is a key to successful curricular innovation' (Markee, 1997). Lack of sufficient communication will pose obstacles to the dissemination of innovation and cause misunderstanding among all participants.

2.5.1.9. Observability. Observability refers to the level of which 'the results of the innovation are visible to others' (Rogers, 1995, p.16). Assuming, presumably, that the results are seen as positive, the more likely teachers are to adopt it. Moreover, the perceived observability of an innovation is positively related to its rate of adoption (Rogers, 1995). Nevertheless, some potential adopters may observe the benefits of some innovations more than others.

2.5.2. Internal factors

2.5.2.1. Teachers' beliefs. Teachers' beliefs might also play a crucial role in determining teachers' rejection or adoption of innovations. These beliefs may have either a facilitating or an inhibiting role in translating the curriculum into daily classroom teaching practices (Grouws, 1992; Haynes, 1996; Koehler & Sosniak, Ethington, & Varelas, 1991). Prawat (1990) has affirmed that teachers can be either conveyances of, or obstacles to change, because it is always possible that their views may not coincide with those underpinning the reform. Similarly, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) have stated that it is very unlikely that teachers can modify their teaching practices without changing their values and beliefs. Due to the high rate of education reforms failures (Fullan, 1993), many researchers started to consider more deeply teachers' beliefs.

Short and Burke (1996) argued that curriculum policy-makers might do well to consider teachers' beliefs since an implemented curriculum is a set of beliefs put into

action. Any innovation in classroom practice '… from the adoption of a new technique or textbook to the implementation of a new curriculum has to be accommodated within the teacher's own framework of teaching principles' (Breen, Hird, Milton, & Thawaite, 2001, p.472). Those principles, according to Breen et al. (2001) stem from teachers' underlying beliefs or personal theories about the new educational process.

Similarly, Pajares (1992) emphasized that there is a 'strong relationship between teachers' educational beliefs and their planning, instructional decisions, and classroom practices' (p. 326) and that 'educational beliefs of pre-service teachers play a pivotal role in their acquisition and interpretation of knowledge and subsequent teaching behaviour' (p. 328). Moreover, a number of writers stressed the bi-directional relationship between teachers' beliefs and behaviour (Borg, 2011; M. Borg, 2001; Nespor, 1987; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Woods, 1996).

Teachers' beliefs, which are described as 'tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught' (Kagan, 1992, p.65) affect and are affected by practical constraints, reforms visibility, lack of confidence, awareness, training and feedback (Bantwini, 2010; Lamie, 2004); teachers' practice, such as their planning, decision-making in classroom, teaching strategies, and their relationship with learners, colleagues, administrators and parents (Golombek, 1998); and cost (Doyle & Ponder, 1977). Teachers' beliefs can be 'deep-rooted' (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p.381) and, therefore, resistant to change (Borg, 2011; Kagan, 1992).

Teachers' beliefs are not directly observable, as they are considered to be the 'hidden side of teaching' (Freeman, 2002, p.1). Hence, one cannot always state for sure that what teachers do in class is what they actually believe in because their beliefs are contextually specific, personal, dynamic, multi-dimensional, non-linear, complex, contradictory, and unpredictable (Barnard & Burns, 2012; Borg, 2011; Freeman, 1993; Peacock, 2001; Phipps, 2007; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Moreover, change in beliefs is much more difficult and time consuming to bring about than change in materials and teaching methods (Fullan & Park, 1981). According to Freeman and Johnson (1998), even teacher education programmes do little as regards changing teachers' beliefs. In the same vein, Tatto (1998) confirmed that, 'teacher education has little effect on alerting teachers' beliefs, and changes in practices do not necessarily accompany changes in beliefs' (p. 66). Reforms in education usually have

minimal results on teachers, because they target behavioural change in teachers without taking into consideration teachers' beliefs (Kim, 2011; Richards & Farell, 2005; Saqipi, Asante, & Korpinen, 2014; Underwood, 2012; Valli & Buese, 2007).

For a change to genuinely take place there should be 'changes in the beliefs, values, expectations, habits, roles, and power structures of the teachers' (Kimonen & Nevalainen, 2005, p.630). Likewise, changing teachers without changing contexts, and structures, rarely creates a significant change (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Futrell, Holmes, Christie, & Cushman, 1995). It is around questions of values and beliefs that the issues of teacher involvement in the whole change process and teacher development converge. A deep change can be planned through teacher engagement and development, which augment teachers' commitment for the change. So, without understanding teachers' beliefs, and without realizing that teachers are 'the executive decision-makers of the curriculum'; efforts to reform education will lead to failure to realize the intended curriculum (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p.2).

2.5.2.2. Teachers' resistance to change. All change involves some form of loss (Bryant & Wolfram Cox, 2006) and a move from the known to the unknown (Coghlan, 2007). It can bring joy, satisfaction and advantages to some and pain, stress and disadvantages to others. Scott and Jaffe (as cited in Bovey & Hede, 2001) suggest that there are four phases experienced by individuals faced with change. These are: initial denial, resistance, gradual exploration, and eventual commitment.

Liu and Perrewe (2005) have also proposed four stages that people subject to change undergo. The first phase is characterized by high emotional arousal and mixed responses. In the second phase individuals move towards either a positive or negative response that impacts their coping behaviours in the third stage. In the final stage, emotions become more evaluative and lead to action tendencies. There is a clear difference between the two proposed theories on the phases of change. The former theory offers a simple model which assumes that all responses will initially be negative and conclude with acceptance, the latter theory takes awareness of the emotional dimension of responses in the face of change.

Carnall (2003) developed the Coping Cycle, which comprises five stages: denial, defense, discarding, adaptation, and internalization. When faced with the need to change the first reaction by people is to deny that there is a need for change. People defend their

past practices and behaviours and deny that new ways may be suitable. When people realize that change will happen whether they like it or not they begin the process of discarding past behavior that is no longer suitable. Moreover, not only must those affected by change adapt, but new ways must also adapt to the existing people and circumstances. Finally, during the internalization phase, people reach the stage where psychologically changes are no longer new but normal.

Focusing on the type of responses that individuals have to change rather than the different stages, Bennis (as cited in Coghlan, 2007) suggests that there are six types of responses, namely: opposition, resistance, tolerance, acceptance, support and embracement. Findings of various researchers concur with some or all of these types (Dawson, 1994; Iverson, 1996) which on the surface seem to present a straightforward classification of the ways in which individuals respond. On the contrary, emphasizing both the complexity and the intensity of the affective dimension of an individual's response to change, Perlamn and Takacs (1990) contend that there are many emotional states that an individual can experience during a change process. These include equilibrium, denial, anger, bargaining, chaos, depression, resignation, openness, readiness and emergence.

Much change processes generate a predominance of negative emotional responses (Jones et al., 2008). High on the list of negative responses is resistance to change. In educational change research, resistance is a label generally applied by change managers to the perceived behavior of those who seem unwilling to accept or implement change (Coghlan, 2007). The term resistance suggests that individuals who are unwilling to change have made a conscious decision to resist. However, Bovey and Hede (2001) argued that behavioural intentions to resist may be based on unconscious defense mechanisms which, by definition, individuals are aware of. The writers identified five maladaptive behavioural intentions associated with resistance to change: projection, acting out, isolation of affect, disassociation and denial each of which results in or is triggered by an emotional response. Their research showed that individuals who are unconsciously inclined to use any of these maladaptive defense mechanisms are more likely to resist change (Bovey & Hede, 2001).

Resistance to change is triggered by many factors, such as the fact whether or not receivers are ready for change (Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris, 2007); are committed to the change (Jaros, 2010); their perceptions of the future (Keifer, 2005); cultural (Smollan & Sayers, 2009), social, organizational and psychological factors (Leigh, Lucas, &

Woodman, 1988); the context in which the change is taking place (Smollan, 2006); concerns about job security (Oreg, 2006; Paulsen et al., 2005); perceived favourability of outcomes (Holt et al., 2007); the extent of change (Caldwell, Herold & Fedor, 2004); a clash with other loyalties or strongly held beliefs (Beyer, 1981); loss of trust (Kiefer, 2005; Oreg, 2006; Sloyan, 2009); lack of participation or involvement (Amiot, Gaudreau, & Blanchard, 2004; Holt et al, 2007); concern about fairness or perceived justice (Mathney, & Smollan, 2005); and value, power, psychological and practical barriers (Dalin, 1993). Past experience can also influence emotional reactions to change (Fredrickson, 2000).

Responses to change have been categorized as adaptive or maladaptive (Bovey & Hede, 2001), positive, negative, neutral or mixed (Smollan, 2006), uncertain or defensive (Vince & Broussine, 1996) and change recipients have been characterised as survivors or victims (Paulsen et al., 2005). Individuals experience change in different ways (Bryant, 2006; Carnall, 1986) and demonstrate different cognitive, behavioural and emotional responses to the same change events.

People's reactions to change have implications for the success and effectiveness of the change process. Knowledge about the possible reactions to change, sources of resistance and conflict, and especially the stages of reaction along with the possible strategies to control resistance may add to the understanding of the situation in perceiving and designing the change management process. This awareness can help support approaches to anticipate possible sources of resistance and build in the strategies to handle and alleviate them.

2.5.2.3. Teachers' training and professional development. In order to translate curriculum policy into practice and to ensure that successful implementation and continuity of any curriculum innovation exists in the classroom; it is paramount that teachers receive in-service training and provision of ongoing support and professional development (De Lano, Riley, & Crookes, 1994; McLaughlin, 1987; White, 1993). Both ongoing in-service training and professional development constitute important components of any projected implementation (Brindley & Hood, 1990). The former focuses on teachers' responsibilities and is aimed toward short-term and immediate goals, whereas the latter seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers (Richards & Farrell, 2005). However, literature has demonstrated both positive and negative contributions of these factors (Gahin & Myhill, 2001; Peacock, 2001).

Thompson and Bates (1995), for instance, cast doubt on the usefulness of in-service training in innovations. They pointed out that one of the misleading beliefs present in general in-service training is that attending a training course improves teachers' practice. This unrealistic belief, according to them, of what training courses can offer fails to take into consideration teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and other factors. They asserted that 'attending a course is only one part of a complex process in which theory becomes translated into practice' (p. 53). This in-service training, though an important one, must also be connected with other teacher professional development activities. Likewise, 'training without subsequent follow-up leads participants down dead-end paths' (Killion & Kaylor, 1991, p.64).

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991, p.315) stated that 'nothing has promised so much and has been so frustratingly wasteful as the thousands of workshops and conferences that led to no significant change in the practice when teachers returned to their classrooms'. These 'short burst' training courses, as Day (1993) called them, do not seem enough to contribute to the professional development required by teachers.

According to Craft (2000), weaknesses of in-service training include domination of off-site courses, which are geared to individuals rather than groups of staff; absence of linkage to the schools' needs in terms of content; and courses' limited impact on practice with little or no dissemination or follow-up. Moreover, according to the same writer, courses are often undertaken during the school day and therefore disrupt the teaching timetable. Courses attempt to cater for people at different starting points and, therefore, are unable to satisfy all participants equally well (Craft, 2000, p. 8).

As the shortcomings of in-service training have been recognized (Little, 1993), calls for a more effective form of professional development have been made (Dadds, 1997; Riding, 2001). Fullan and Park (1981) stated that 'effective professional development is synonymous with effective implementation' (p.44). This latter view is sustained by Dadds (1997), who called for a model of continuing professional development in which the teacher no longer remains as an uncritical implementer of top-down policy. On the contrary, the teacher, according to the writer, has to be viewed as a professional who is able to use his knowledge and capabilities for the benefits of learners.

The calls for effective forms of teacher professional development have increased the focus of policy makers on teacher development. Hence, teacher development and the

role of teachers in education reforms have received more emphasis in educational research (Evans, 2010). Many studies, for instance, stressed the need to link curriculum reforms to teacher education and pedagogy (Bates, 2008; Coultas & Lewin, 2002; Dembélé & Lefoka, 2007; Lewin & Stuart, 2003; Pridmore, 2007; Pryor, Akyeampong, Westbrook, & Lussier, 2012; World Bank, 2008) due to the fact that curriculum reforms are often designed and implemented without parallel reforms in initial teacher education and continuing professional development (Dembélé & Lefoka, 2007; World Bank, 2008).

According to Grimmett and Chinnery (2009), 'educating teachers as curriculum makers is a key to the connection between policy and pedagogy and the protection of the 'practical space' for the development and exercise of professional expertise and judgment' (p.125). Teachers need to be offered expanded and enriched professional development experiences (Dilworth & Imig, 1995). They need to be trained and re-trained for an effective productivity (Akinbote, 1999). On the contrary, with no adequate teacher professional development or plan of it, reforms will be misunderstood and misinterpreted by teachers, and hence fail (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Futrell, Holmes, Christie, & Cushman, 1995; Guskey, 2002; Harley & Wedekind, 2004).

A number of scholars argued that without school-wide or national commitment and collaboration, most attempts to promote true teachers' professional development are considered non-effective (Futrell et al., 1995; Schifter, Russell, & Bastable, 1999; Wideen, 1992). Different authors attribute different arguments to teachers' collaboration (this point is further illustrated under sub-section 2.6.4) in schools, amongst which are: increasing teachers' motivation and commitment (Day, Elliot, & Kington, 2005); enabling the application of broader reform to specific locations (Wohlstetter & Mohrman, 1996); and allowing for a positive correlation between the presence of teacher collaboration and the innovative level of schools (Geijsel, Sleegers, Van den Berg, & Kelchtermans, 2001).

Debates over other internal factors also emerged in literature. These include teachers' learning background (Carless, 1999a), teachers' age and teaching experience (Carless, 1999a; Gahin & Myhill, 2001), teachers' personal concerns, teachers' perceived support for the change, moderation of fears and uncertainties associated with the change (Waugh & Punch, 1987), and teachers preparatory time in getting ready for the change (Beretta, 1990). These factors are recognized by the present researcher but not further discussed.

2.5.3. External factors

2.5.3.1. Testing. Teachers' implementation of new curricula is also influenced by examinations. Exams play a crucial role in shaping what teachers do inside the classroom (Andrews, 2004; Cheng, 1997; Cheng & Watanabe, 2004; Choi, 2008). Accordingly, 'if tests are perceived by the teachers to have significant effects on their students' lives, then they can see it as part of their duty to make sure that their pupils have the best possible chance they can to succeed' (Lamie, 2004, p.127). Examination systems can have both positive and negative effects on curriculum development. They can reinforce or inhibit, speed up or slow down curriculum change. They can also clarify the change in relation to standards expected, and provide evaluative information on it (De Luca, 1994).

If well matched to the curriculum development process, 'an examination can be a means of ensuring that the new courses are introduced or the new subject matter is taught and that the innovation takes place as planned' (De Luca, 1994, p.120). If on the other hand, curricular development and examinations are poorly matched, 'the curricular innovation can be slowed down, distorted or subverted altogether' (De Luca, 1994, p.121). The mismatch between the focus of exams and curriculum aims will often push teachers to focus on teaching the skills that are tested in the exams and thus ignore those that are not.

Moreover, literature reveals that external testing and resource support are the most influential external factors (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Everard, Morris, & Wilson, 2004). Examinations or high-stakes tests exert a considerable impact on what, and how, teaching and learning are conducted in the classroom. According to Alderson and Wall (1993), 'tests can be powerful determiners, both *positively* and *negatively*, of what happens in classrooms' (p.41, original italics). The powerful impact of testing suggests that 'teachers and learners do things *they would not necessarily otherwise do* because of the test' (Alderson & Wall, 1993, p. 117, original italics).

According to Wall (1996) utilizing a public examination as a 'lever for change' (p. 348) may not necessarily be realistic. Moreover, the claim that any given test will invariably produce positive curricular change needs to be viewed with caution (Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004). The powerful influence of standardized tests may hamper teachers' efforts to teach according to enacted curriculum reforms, and leads them therefore to 'teaching to the test, with an undesirable narrowing of the curriculum' (Alderson & Wall, 1993, p.118). Educators at all levels should work to create awareness

amongst teachers as well as the public that reforms' goals are not adequately reflected in standardized test scores.

2.5.3.2. Textbooks. The indispensable role of textbooks cannot be underestimated in educational reforms. Textbooks and commercial materials represent the hidden curriculum of many language courses (Richards, 1998). Richards (1998) claimed, 'in many schools and language programs the textbooks used in classrooms *are* the curriculum' (p. 125, original italics). He further elaborated,

> If one wants to determine the objectives of a language program, the kind of syllabus being used, the skills being taught, the content the students will study, and the assumptions about teaching and learning that the course embodies, it is often necessary to look no further than the textbooks used in the program itself. (p. 125)

Textbooks are believed to have a positive impact on teachers and their classroom teaching during curriculum implementation (Harmer, 1991; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Richards, 1998). They have a variety of benefits. They are time savers, as they relieve teachers from the pressure of searching for original materials (Harmer, 1991; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Moreover, they provide guidelines to teach more effectively (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Hutchinson & Torres (1994) stated that a textbook 'saves time, gives directions to lessons, guides discussion, facilitates giving of homework'; it 'provides confidence and security'; and makes teaching 'easier, better organized, more convenient', and learning, 'easier, faster, better' (p. 318).

Furthermore, textbooks and teachers' guides, especially for inexperienced teachers, can function as teaching training manuals. In language courses, these textbooks provide detailed advice on approaches to grammar teaching in a communicative class, strategies for error correction, the philosophy of process writing and how to implement it- useful information that goes well beyond the context of a particular text. However, textbooks are also criticized as being an impediment to teacher development (Richards, 1998).

Richards (1998) summarized three potential hindrances caused by teachers' use of textbooks. First, it can release teachers of responsibility, because, 'instead of participating in the day-to-day decisions that have to be made about what to teach and how to teach it, it is easy to just sit back and operate the system, secure in the belief that the wise and

virtuous people who produced the textbook knew what was good' (Swan, 1992, p.33). Second, textbooks can lead to 'the unjustifiable attribution of qualities of excellence, authority, and validity to published textbooks' (Richards, 1998, p. 131). This may result in teachers failing to look at textbooks critically; as they may assume that teaching decisions made in the textbook and teaching manual are better, and more valid than those made by them. Third, teachers' use of textbooks may lead to 'a reduction of the level of cognitive skills involved in the teaching if teaching decisions are largely based on the textbook and the teacher's manual' (p. 132).

No matter what positive or negative impact textbooks bring to classroom teaching; Richards (1998) called for a 'deconstruction' and 'reconstruction' in this regard. Richards (1998) invited teachers to approach textbooks with the intention of deletion, adaptation, and extension of content to meet both students' needs and their own teaching style. Thus, 'the potential negative impact of using textbooks can be minimized' and, 'they (textbooks) can find their rightful place in the educational system- namely, as resources to support and facilitate teaching rather than dominate it' (p.140).

2.5.3.3. Resource support. Resource support in terms of personnel, funding and time support has been considered indispensable in determining the successful implementation of an innovation (Carless, 1999a; Li, 1998; Scott & Bruce, 1994). A significant level of human resource support is important. Also innovations attempts will not be possible without proper financial support (Berman & McLaughlin, 1976). Kritek (1976) stated that problems of resource insufficiency are not likely to be solved by providing only more money. More importantly, human support in terms of personnel training and administrator and peer support are believed to maximally increase smooth implementation of innovations. Fullan and Miles (1992) summarized these points by asserting that:

> Change demands additional resources for training, for substitutes, for new materials, for new space, and, above all, for time. Change is 'resource-hungry' because of what it represents-developing solutions to complex problems, learning new skills, arriving at new insights, all carried out in a social setting already overloaded with demands. Such serious personal and collective development necessarily demands resources. (p. 750)

2.5.3.4. Top-down power and teacher marginalization. Literature on reform reveals instances of top-down practices and misuse of power that lead to teacher marginalization. Such practices are usually imposed by government policy makers, as the policy makers hold enormous power in the field of education. Tyack and Cuban (1995) argue that 'most reforms exist mainly in the realm of policy talk-visionary and authoritative statements' which are 'carried on among experts, policy makers, professional reformers, and policy entrepreneurs, usually involving harsh judgments about students, teachers and school administrators' (p.7), and hardly affecting practices in schools.

Teachers seem often to be the 'missing voices' in several educational reform efforts and change procedures undergoing in the curriculum fields (Stiegelbauer, 1994). Pelletier (1991) admits that teachers are rarely involved in the initiation of an innovation. According to him, 'most of the reform efforts are removed from the realities of the classroom and therefore, few of their reforms have had lasting effects on schools' (p.49). The same is implied by other researchers who reason that early participation in decision making procedures promotes successful implementation of the innovation (Fullan, 1993b, Hargreaves, 1995). The participation of grassroots in policy process will not change the nature of policy making as mainly it will lead to a reproduction of the values of the dominant groups. Therefore, the grassroots groups should not be marginalized to react to a decision which has already been made.

Moreover, the imposition that a top-down policy brings does not allow for dialogue with teachers, and ignores the local micro and macro issues in schools. Gladwell (2000, p. 29, as cited in Fullan, 2003, p.27) describes the power of context as 'an environmental argument' and states that 'people are a lot more sensitive to their environment than they may seem'. The same writer strongly believes that if we change the context in any situation, then behavioural change will follow automatically. According to the writer, context is as important as people's background and their personalities. Certainly, marginalizing the context comprises marginalization of the teachers.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) state that, 'we need an ecological understanding of teaching-of how teaching develops to suit the environment, and in what ways we can and should change the environment if we want to change what goes on there' (p.32). Moreover, aspects of teaching change as the context varies. For example, different classes require different teaching strategies. Similarly, different activities in the classroom require

different levels of energy and may lead to quieter activities when everyone is tired. Classroom size may also be a factor to affect the context of teaching as would be time.

Welmond (2002, as cited in Gershberg, Meade, Andersson, 2009, p.196-197) argues that there is a 'need to consider the particular role of the teacher in a given society in order to understand the kinds of education reforms that are most likely to work or not work'. Thus, success of a reform programme is closely linked to the local context (culture) and to the teachers who operate in it. Of course, any process of change is not simple but reform can never succeed without teachers' full involvement. Accordingly, 'there is a growing need to generate policies that improve the working conditions of teachers as well as dignify their role as public servants' (Giroux & McLaren, 1989, p.xxiii).

2.5.3.5. Social and Cultural Norms. The process of education reform is also determined by social and cultural norms within a particular context (Holliday, 1994; Tudor, 2003). The social and cultural aspects are believed to be some of the major factors which affect the acceptance or rejection of innovations. Holliday (2001) contends that innovations should be '… sensitive to the cultural expectations of the recipients of the innovation, whether they are students or teachers encountering new teaching methodologies, or stakeholders in curriculum projects' (p.169). Hence, if an innovation entails new behaviours and roles that contradict with the socio-cultural structure of society, implementers of this innovation might automatically not accept those new roles and behaviours.

In stressing the central role of social context in curriculum reform, Tudor (2001) stated that 'the classroom is a socially defined reality and is therefore influenced by the belief systems and behavioural norms of the society of which it is part' (p.35). This coincides with Locastro's (2001) argument that 'classrooms are social constructions where teachers, learners, dimensions of the local educational philosophy, and more general socio-cultural values, beliefs, and expectations all meet' (p.495); and Morris' (1998) argument that 'the implemented curriculum can be far removed from the intended curriculum, particularly if insufficient consideration is given to the context in which the reform is to take place' (p.120). So, teachers change is not an individually determined phenomenon. However, it is partly shaped by the social context in which teachers work (Richardson & Placier, 2001).

The elements summarized above are by no means exhaustive but seek to indicate the main organizational characteristics which can facilitate acceptance and implementation of innovations. Owing to the scope of the present thesis, not all factors are discussed extensively. Factors identified and discussed here may not be the only ones affecting implementation; however, they are considered to be the most relevant to the current study of English language curriculum in Algeria. The present discussion is aimed to provide an understanding of why an innovation may be implemented by some teachers but not by others.

2.6. Successful Change

Educational change is clearly a complex and uncertain process. Approaches that consist only of centrally driven mandates or school based development are widely seen as unsuccessful or at best only partially successful in instilling and sustaining change. Many writers have therefore advocated approaches to educational change that combine top-down and bottom-up approaches (Cowley & Williamson, 1998; Fullan, 1993b). Darling-Hammond (1998, p.643) has called for a paradigm shift for education policy; from 'designing controls' for directing the system towards an approach geared to 'developing capacity' to enable schools and teachers to be responsible for learning and responsive to diversity and change. Darling-Hammond believes that:

> Neither a heavy-handed view of top-down reform nor a romantic vision of bottom-up change is plausible. Both local invention and supportive leadership are needed, along with new 'horizontal' efforts that support cross-school consultation and learning (Darling-Hammond, 1998, p.646).

Skilbeck (1998) similarly suggests that while central impetus and support for change are important, they must combine with the engagement of local change agents. Some policies in Scotland, such as *Assessment is for Learning* and *Curriculum for Excellence* arguably adopted such an approach (Hayward, Priestley, & Young, 2004; Hayward & Hedges, 2005; Priestley, 2005; Priestley & Sime, 2005). Macdonald (2003, p.142), writing about Australia, discusses partnerships that recognize the 'problematic nature of the teacher's role as a change agent', developing collaboration between teachers, policymakers and researchers. According to Macdonald (2003), such approaches may still be problematic as they rarely question assumptions about schools, schooling, learning and

young people. This section will induce from the literature a range of factors said to contribute to successful educational change.

2.6.1. Central Impetus

Central impetus is part of the top-down aspect of innovation. The literature identifies several reasons why central policy is important. First, central policies provide schools with a source of impetus, goals and ideas to kick-start innovation (Higham, Sharp, & Priestley, 2000). Second, policies provide a source of ideas (Van den Akker, 1988). Finally, only policies can provide official sanction for reforms that may appear to be otherwise risky (Priestley & Sime, 2005; Scott, 2000).

2.6.2. Leadership

Many writers have stressed that leadership is a vital factor in promoting and sustaining change. Sarason (1990), Fullan (1993b), and Miller (1998) emphasised the importance of effective leaders in any change process. Skilbeck (1998) suggests that intelligent leadership helps drive reform. Ven Den Akker (1988) points to active administrative support and leadership at both district and school level as a vital factor in driving change. Moreover, much of the organizational learning literature advocates the importance of what is often referred to as transformational leadership (Geijsel, Sleegers, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 1993; Mulford, 1998; Sackney, 2000) to enhance the capacity for learning and to transform schools into learning communities.

Much of the literature points to a collegial leader rather than an authoritarian figure. Sackney (2000) highlights the encouragement of shared vision, authentic relationships, collaborative cultures, reflection and risk-taking. Allen and Glickman (1998), writing about the United States League of Professional Schools, point to a number of features of effective school principals, who should be enablers rather than fixers, modeling what's important and exhibiting trust and respect for teachers. Much of the literature is clear that facilitative leadership (trust, democratic structures, autonomy, innovation, risk taking) can contribute to teachers' sense of efficacy and involvement (Blase, 1998).

Teacher leadership has been suggested to be a powerful lever for promoting innovation. Many writers talk about the importance of empowering teachers. According to House and McQuillan (1998), a key theme of successful change is letting staff make operational decisions. Allen and Glickman (1998) go further in calling for the

establishment of leadership teams, elected by staff, with rotating membership. They believe this builds capacity, adds to teachers' voice and helps staff to understand the realities of decision making. Moreover they suggest that such diversity enhances management teams and promotes inter-staff dialogue.

In some cases, the literature points to examples of change where such approaches have been actively fostered. For example, Priestley and Sime (2005) in their evaluation of a primary school's *Assessment is for Learning* project found that the roles of two classroom teachers, who led the assessment working party, had given considerable impetus to the project and helped the staff to own the initiative. Smyth, McInerney, Hattam, and Lawson (1998) equate teacher learning with teacher leadership claiming that teachers have a good record of leading that is not incongruent with their professional roles. The writers examined a case study (The Gums School) where teachers became actively engaged with curriculum development. Formal democratic structures, including curriculum committees, were major vehicles for that transformative change.

2.6.3. Teacher Autonomy

The rationale for encouraging teacher autonomy has been thoroughly covered in the literature (Castle, 2004; Friedman, 1999; Pearson & Hall, 1993; Short, 1994). Many successful reforms have succeeded because they engendered professional trust, and a genuine shift in power to those at the chalk face. House and McQuillan (1998) believe that teacher autonomy is crucial to change and Sarasan (1990) called for a change in the balance of power. Many writers advocate a process of adaptation, whereby teachers are encouraged to mediate reforms creatively and constructively (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & William, 2002; Blenkin, Edwards, & Kelly, 1992; Cowley & Williamson, 1998; Cuban, 1988; 1998; Kelly, 1989; Priestley, 2005).

Kirk and Macdonald (2001) suggested that the teacher's authority in terms of local autonomy is rooted in three dimensions: teachers have knowledge of their students; teachers are the people who apply resources to teach; and teachers understand the practicalities of their work, including issues of power and micro-politics. In this sense, teachers are the local experts and are thus better placed than central policy makers to make decisions relating to teaching and learning.

2.6.4. Collaborative Working

Teacher autonomy is useless and unhelpful if teachers continue to work in isolation, unsupported by ideas and resources, and unaccustomed to exercising autonomy. Several themes are evident in the literature in relation to overcoming this issue; they are collaboration, dialogue, networking, and teacher learning. Collaboration is important as it creates space and time for generative dialogue and peer observation of teaching (Howes, Booth, Dyson, & Frankham, 2005; Priestley & Sime, 2005). Siskin (1994) points to the effectiveness of what she calls bonded departments in facing challenges in secondary schools, and stresses the need to extend networks within schools. McLaughlin (1998) and Miller (1998) call for the group rather than the individual to become the change agent. Wubbels and Poppleton (1999) point to the value of collegial support and dialogue, and Fullan (1993b) advocates effective collaboration.

Drawing on American research projects, Giacquinta (1998) suggests that strong collegiality and a sense of community has tended to enhance teacher agency and provided a crucible for developing and promoting new teaching technologies. Giacquinta (1998) suggests three change strategies in this respect: a change of emphasis from the individual to the group as change agents; making space for dialogue, thus reducing professional isolation; and strengthening local professional communities (when these elements do not exist change is often superficial).

Regular dialogue has been claimed to reduce professional isolation (Cowley & Williamson, 1998; Olson, James, & Lang, 1999; Smyth et al., 1998; Spillane, 1999). Dialogue allows change to take account of the prior experiences and achievements of teachers (Ruddock, 1991). Priestley and Sime (2005, p.490) suggest that 'dialogue provides a form of peer scaffolding that helps enable teacher learning'. However, Allen and Glickman (1998) believe that genuine dialogue is important to build shared vision and understanding, and that simple consultation does not achieve this. Indeed it can lead to doubt and key ideas being interpreted differently by different people (Spillane, 1999). Another danger, when reflection is limited, is that of groupthink (Fullan, 1993b; Helsby, 1999).

House and McQuillan (1998) point to the importance of networking (links with outside agencies and other schools). This was seen as a successful feature of Assessment *is for Learning* (Hayward, Priestley, & Young, 2004), within which schools on the pilot

projects were supported by development officers and university researchers. Many writers have commented that networking is important, and provides opportunities for continuous professional development (Miller, 1998). Paechter (1995) highlighted the role of cluster meetings and local authority support in supporting and sustaining change.

2.6.5. Teacher Learning and Reflective Practice

Many writers suggest that the purpose of collaboration, dialogue and networking is to promote teacher learning. Spillane (1999) talks about developing will and capacity to develop and Giacquinta (1998) blames a lack of teacher capacity (knowledge and skill) for the failure of many initiatives. Eisner suggests that capacity is tied up with issues of confidence:

> If a bird has been in a cage for a decade and suddenly finds the
> door open, it should not be surprising if the bird does not wish to
> leave. The familiar is often more comfortable than the uncertainty
> of the unknown (Eisner, 1992, p.615).

Fullan (1998) identifies two aspects of capacity: what individuals can do to develop their effectiveness; and how systems need to be transformed (to enable individual and group effectiveness). This typology captures elements of individual agency and the structural conditions within which teachers operate. McLaughlin (1998) suggests that change is dependent on local nature of capacity and will to change. Lieberman and Miller (1999) describe how strong professional communities are built when 'principals and staff pursue a continuous cycle of innovation, feedback and redesign in curriculum, instruction and assessment' (p.62).

Many writers believe that the key to successful change is enabling teacher engagement with and reflection on the innovation in question (Cowley & Williamson, 1998; Fullan, 1993b; Helsby, 1999; Howes et al., 2005; Lieberman & Miller, 1999; Olson, 2002; Sarasan, 1990). According to House and McQuillan,

> (Teachers') believes and attitudes about teaching are deeply
> affected when they experience and reflect upon their own growth:
> that is, when they come to understand the impact of an innovation
> through their own lived experience. In turn, teachers lend a critical

degree of meaning and viability to an innovation through their own

efforts to make sense of it (House & McQuillan, 1998, p.206).

2.6.6. Time

Change initiatives require a suitably long time scale for enactment. Miles (1998) advocates an evolutionary approach to change, to enable the development of trust and rapport. Fink and Stoll (1998) suggest that change needs to be paced. Other authors call for long time scales (Fullan, 1993b; Howes et al., 2005; Miller, 1998; Priestley, 2005; Sarason, 1990). Moreover, there should be sufficient time for professional dialogue during the enactment phase. The literature suggests that sufficient time to think, talk, plan and evaluate change is a crucial factor in any change process (Eisner, 1992; Goulder, Simpson, & Tuson, 1994; Hayward et al., 2004; Helsby, 1999; Lieberman & Miller, 1999; Malcolm & Byrne, 1997; Olson et al., 1999; Paechter, 1995; Priestley & Sime, 2005; Smyth et al., 1998; Smyth, McInerney, & Hattam, 2003; Wubbells & Poppleton, 1999).

Evidence drawn from the above discussions highlights the necessity for innovations to be planned carefully. The planning should take into consideration all the factors which may influence teachers' successful implementations of reforms. Evidence also confirms above all that teachers are not simply implementers of policies that are handed to them. However, they are capable to interpret, adjust, and implement policies according to their beliefs and the context where the reforms are implemented. So, without professional autonomy and control over curriculum, teachers may become more like actors following a script or musicians following a score.

2.7. Democratic Curriculum Development

In the last two decades there has been a paucity of research on the role of teachers and the influence they have on the success and failure of reforms in education (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Markee, 1997; Munn, 1995; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007). Educational improvements are judged to result in vain unless teachers become valued actors and take part in the overall process of education (Cohn & Kottkamp, 1993). Curricula are judged to be effectively implemented only if teachers take part in the processes of design, dissemination, implementation (Cooper, Slavin, & Madden, 1998; Oloruntegbe, 2011) and evaluation (Lieberman, Saxl, & Miles, 2000; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004).

The image of a teacher as curriculum maker, as a worthwhile alternative to the dominant view of teacher as curriculum implementer has been strongly defended by scholars. Clandinin and Connelly (1992) substantiated this view long time ago when they used Schwab's (1973) concept of 'commonplaces' in their research. The commonplaces refer to subject matter, milieu, learner, and teachers (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). The writers' exploration results on curriculum problems proved that the teacher per se is the most influential factor among the commonplaces. The writers attested that teachers are 'an integral part of the curriculum constructed and enacted in classrooms' (1992, p. 363). Due to their close and direct contact with curriculum issues, teachers can determine the efficacy and flaws of any given curriculum (Saracaloğlu et al., 2010).

Teachers are ranked highest in importance, because educational systems work through them (Laukkanen, 2008). The high expenditure of time and resources in developing a glossy curriculum package can be a waste if teachers are not empowered to effectively implement it in their classrooms. Many scholars called therefore for the empowerment of teachers through control of the curriculum (Asuto, Clark, Read, McGree, & deKoven Pelton Fernancez, 1994). Empowerment implies that teachers will not simply be handed a curriculum package and asked to teach. They will however, need to be authorized to make decisions not only about the curriculum, but also about the nature of their own professional development experiences (Li, 2004).

Munn (1995) had strongly emphasized the significance of teachers' involvement in curriculum development and decision-making. Limited engagement of teachers in meaningful decision-making as a major flaw in educational organizations proved to be fundamental in the failure of many meaningful reform efforts (Barth, 1990; Fullan, 1993; Giroux, 1988; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004; Young, 1979). Literature demonstrated that making teachers partners in the decision-making process creates a natural accountability that positively influences the implementation process. On the contrary, teachers who perceive top-down decision making are more apt to resist change (Ross et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1997).

The status of teachers as the most significant agents in educational reforms was the main reason that led a number of researchers to identify and examine the many factors, amongst which the ones discussed above, that might institute a gap between curricula intentions (theory) and classroom realities (practice) (Chang, & Goswami, 2011; Fullan,

2001; Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Owston, 2007; White, Hodge, & Martin, 1991). As this study examines the latest enacted curriculum reform in Algeria from the perspectives of teachers; it is obvious to consider literature on the prominent role of teachers involved in reforms.

2.7.1. Teachers' Involvement in Curriculum Development

Little of the early literature on curriculum development called for teachers to take curricular leadership roles. Early literature centred teachers' curricular role within the classroom and focused on instructional practice. In the 1920s, Rugg and Shumaker (1928) recognized the need for teacher involvement in curriculum development and suggested that teachers work collaboratively with curriculum specialists to organize content and materials. Similarly, Caswell and Campbell (1935) supported teacher participation in curriculum policies at all levels, partly because they believed such participation would help teachers align content with learners' needs. However, neither of those writers placed overall responsibility for curriculum on teachers.

In 1949, Ralph Tyler's work *Basic Principals of Curriculum and Instruction* presented a method for planning curriculum which still stands as a common model for curriculum development today. Tyler centred the classroom teacher within the curriculum development process. Nevertheless, he did not define who should take a leadership role in the development of classroom level curricula and suggested a belief in the limitation of teacher potential for successful curricular leadership.

In his early studies, Havelock (1969) presented three models of teacher's involvement in an educational innovation: the Research, Development and Diffusion model (RD&D), the social-interaction model, and the problem solver model. Havelock spoke about the diffusion of knowledge and sought to explain the way knowledge diffuses through social systems by formulating three models of the knowledge diffusion and utilization processes. These models (which have been frequently applied to the curriculum development process) imply differing roles for the practitioner-teacher.

The RD&D model is a top-down approach to curriculum renewal initiated by forces outside the school. This approach centralizes the researcher rather than the teacher and involves three basic steps. Initially a committee of experts is set up to carry out research into what is needed. The committee produces then experimental materials, trials the

materials with a certain number of teachers in pilot areas and obtains feedback from them. On the basis of the feedback the committee finally revises and refines the materials and distributes it to the wider population for implementation (Havelock, 1969).

The RD&D is essentially an empirical-rational strategy. The RD&D model was widely adopted for quite some time as the principal approach to curriculum development and innovation. However, it has provoked increasing distrust because it involved the initial development of teacher-proof curriculum packages followed by mass diffusion which assumes that teachers' adaptation and translation problems have been largely anticipated and accommodated. In this model the teacher was seen as a passive recipient of a centrally conceived and designed project. Therefore, failure in bringing about change at the user level was apparent.

Ivowi (2008) elucidates that the idea of innovation is conceived at the centre. This centre according to the same writer may represent curriculum development centres like Algerian ministry of education where it is researched, developed and then diffused into the education system. In the whole process, the schools are located at the periphery and the teachers are more of passive agents.

The social-interaction model, which is also categorized as an empirical-rational process, derives its strengths from the well documented fact that people are more likely to be influenced by those whose judgments and opinions are respected. It centralizes the diffusion aspect that is the movement of messages and innovations from person to person and from system to system. The change is conceived and developed centrally but this time the central team makes a point of collaborating with the practitioner at many points during the process, responding to feedback from those concerned with change implementation. The teacher is therefore viewed as a collaborating recipient (Havlock, 1969).

The social interaction model is, however, advantageous in the sense that teachers are directly involved in some social network, so they can track with the innovation vision. Also, the model is flexible because social interaction occurs in diverse ways (formal or informal) and gives room for more diverse ways of disseminating and adopting an innovation. The model is, in the whole, natural as it deals with the formal communication patterns of human beings (Mkpa & Izuagba, 2004).

The problem solver model is a seven stages approach, summarized in seven verbs: care, relate, examine, acquire, try, extend, and renew. Problem solving starts with the recognition that existing instruction requires change. The level of caring is the energizer, and it is not rational. Consideration of how to relate change to the schools system of education is a crucial factor in this model. A key to building relationships is creating a change team, a cluster of collaborators who work to sustain the effort and reinforce relationships to the larger system.

Systems often need expert help while examining and defining what their real needs are, given a base of concern and a social will to do something about that concern. Effective change also requires an effort to search for and acquire needed resources. Moreover, every new change effort should start with a trial. Once a trial has been completed, the next step is to extend the acceptance and adoption of the new program (Havelock & Hamilton, 2004).

Havelock (1971) came later to advocate that the best approach should reflect the strengths of the three models, acknowledging the importance of an active role for practitioners. The writer tried to capture the best features of the three change strategies into a linkage model, which stresses both the problem-solving skills of the user of an innovation and the establishment of collaborative relationships with external resource agencies to bring about necessary organizational changes. Nevertheless, the decision of whether to participate or not in curriculum development is not always the teachers' choice. The opportunity for teachers to cooperate in decision-making and curriculum planning depends much on the educational ideology upon which the curriculum is based, on the curriculum renewal model which is adopted and on the managerial strategy which has been followed.

In the 1990s, Croll (1996) explored four models of teachers' roles in different curriculum approaches to educational change. The first model was designed for operation in the decentralised curriculum. In this model teachers are seen as partners in educational policy making, along with other actors. In the second model teachers were perceived as passive implementers of centralized education policy. The teachers' job was therefore to deliver curriculum according to its requirements. In the third model, teachers were perceived as opponents of the educational policy and they are seen as resisting the imposition of policy changes (Croll, 1996). The fourth model saw teachers as policy

makers in practice, where common actions by teachers in the teaching process can create a policy-making process which parallels governmental-level processes (Croll, 1996).

By the end of the 20th century, a significant body of literature called for empowerment of teachers through control of the curriculum (Asuto, Clark, Read, McGree, & deKoven Pelton Fernancez, 1994). Scholars placed teacher involvement at the centre of effective realization of fundamental educational reform (Fullan, 1991; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2007; Sarason, 1990). A number of different roles have been therefore suggested for teachers. Teachers have been described as: *chief implementers* (Guro & Weber, 2010), *agents of change* (Goodson, 2003; Nieveen, 2011; Priestley, 2011), *playmakers* (Cuban, 1998), the *centerpiece of educational change* (Datnow & Castellano, 2000), *key players* (Kirkgz, 2008), *team leaders*, *leaders*, *decision-makers* (at the classroom, school, local, and administrative level (ministry or national committee)), *action researchers* (Ash & Persall, 2000; Katznmeyer & Moller, 2001), *curriculum developers*, *staff development facilitators* (Campbell, Kyriakides, Muijs, & Robinson, 2003), and *main stakeholders* (Wang & Cheng, 2008).

In this study, the researcher argues that teachers are at the very heart of educational change. In order for curricula reform to occur, teachers need to be involved in the whole process (design, dissemination, implementation, evaluation). Highlighting this important role of teachers in reforms supports the researcher's choice of considering them as main participants of the present study, and hence making a call for their involvement in the Algerian curricula reforms context. Taking this position a step further, examples of educational reforms from around the world which confirm and sustain the present researcher's view are henceforward provided.

One instance of an unsuccessful curriculum reform that failed as a result of policy makers design with little input from teachers (Morris, Chan, & Ling, 2000; Walker & Cheong, 1996) is the Hong Kong Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC) reform of primary schools, enacted in 1990. The schools and public negative reactions to the reform were due to the theoretical orientation, complexity of structure, impracticality, and non-flexibility of the reform to accommodate to certain schools' needs (Chan, 2002). Many teachers switched back to their traditional approaches as a result. Other teachers, who trusted their own experiences and judgments more than the TOC prescriptions, created their own changes. Nevertheless, only few struggled to comply with the new pedagogical approach

(Chan, 2002). In spite of some modifications made in response to teachers' requests and schools, the imposed reform was considered a failure.

The problems reported by Morris et al. (2000) and Chan (2002) have also been reported elsewhere. In Greece, for instance, the communicative approach that was enacted in secondary schools was another unsuccessful case of an imposed innovation. Karavas-Doukas (1995) findings from classroom observations reported that teachers who were not involved in the curriculum reform process, were not implementing the intended communicative approach. Teachers viewed the new curriculum as incompatible with their classroom practices and personal beliefs about teaching and learning. This view, which provoked negative sentiments amongst them resulted in a use of eclectic methods including audio-lingual, grammar-based and some, but not widespread, use of communicative methods (Karavas-Doukas, 1995).

Moreover, according to Karavas-Doukas the lack of in-service training to prepare teachers, and failure to provide sufficient support for schools during the implementation phase shoulder most of the blame of teachers' misunderstanding of the new approach. Teachers seemed also to dislike the increased workload necessitated by using the new textbook. Likewise, Karavas-Doukas (1995) claimed that there was a lack of communication between the different stakeholders in the innovation process, namely curriculum developers, advisers, teacher trainers and teachers. Thus, it is not surprising that teachers were unable to cope with the demands of the innovation.

Literature about educational reforms that took place in England and Wales in the 1990s reported that *Schools of the Future* reforms by the Victorian State Liberal Government also failed (Bishop & Mulford, 1999; McBeath & Mortimore, 2001). It was reported that the reform's failure was due to the inconsistent approach of top-down regulation (Fullan, 1993) that excluded teachers' involvement. The reform resulted in a lack of confidence between teachers and principals and increased teacher alienation and disempowerment (Bishop & Mulford, 1999). Moreover, teachers found themselves 'more restricted, more regulated and less supported to do their work' (Bascia & Hargreaves, 2000, p.21). According to Fullan (1993) leaders of the *Schools of the Future* reform were 'confused and fighting an ultimately fruitless uphill battle' (p.3).

Contrary to the previous examples, cases of reforms that considered teachers and their professional development were successful (Dahlstrom, Swarts, & Zeichner, 1999).

Curriculum development in Namibia, for instance, which focused primarily on providing a democratic and non-racist curriculum reform, and involved the participation of over 500 Namibians in curriculum panels and seminars succeeded (Dahlstrom, 1995). The curriculum was noteworthy because teacher action research was adopted to create a new knowledge base in line with the new policy. The curriculum was also structured on the philosophy of teachers' critical inquiry and reflective practices (Dahlstrom, 1996). Consequently, a deep sense of both understanding and ownership of reform among operational staff, school principals, teachers, and regional education leadership was achieved (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993).

A similar trend was seen in some teacher preparation institutions in South Africa. When the South African department of education realized the centrality of teacher learning in education reforms, it enacted the '*teacher as a lifelong learner*' reform (Jansen, 2001). Many measures and structures were put in place to guarantee the success of the nation's education reforms. The Sector of Education and Training Authorities, for instance, was specifically set up to assist with better delivery of education, training and development of teachers. Moreover, the Education Labour Relations Council, resolution 1 of 2000, and the Integrated Quality Management council, resolution 1 of 2003, made provisions for 80 hours of teacher professional development in a year (Ryan, 2007). The aim of the reform was to prepare teachers who will lead education reforms.

Furthermore, in her analysis of educational reform policies, Pasi Sahlberg describes how, since the 1970s, Finland has successfully changed its old education system into 'a model of a modern, publicly financed education system with widespread equity, good quality, large participation-all of this at reasonable cost' (Sahlberg, 2009, p.2). Sahlberg called this reform the *Global Educational Reform Movement*. The success of this latter reform is attributed to the country's rigorous investments in teacher education. These investments comprised systematic training of teachers and staff, and a free high-quality graduate level preparation program that teachers receive prior to their recruitment (Laukkanen, 2008, p.319).

In Argentina, as a reaction to the top-down approach to curricula development in the country, a call for a unified participatory and democratic curriculum was made. When teachers began to feel uneasy about secondary education curriculum at the time, the Ministry of Education, in response to this, launched a design of in-service opportunities in

accordance to teachers' suggestions. In collaboration with Doctor Dario Luis Banegas, an action research project was set. The project was organised into three sets of meetings: the first for curriculum evaluation, the second for learning specific didactics, and the third for developing a new curriculum to be implemented in 2012 (Banegas, 2011). By the end of the project Banegas concluded that teachers should be both the reform-doers and reform-implementers due to the limitations of the ministry's top-down approach (Banegas, 2011).

In Iran, a similar study carried by Mohammed Zohrabi acknowledged the effective role of teachers' participation in curriculum development. Zohrabi's study focused on designing a new curriculum in collaboration with participants of his research project. The participants consisted of English language students and their teachers. The data were collected during one year through semi-structured interviews, group discussions with the participants, field notes, journals, and diaries. Findings of the study implied that curriculum design is provisional, sketchy, interactive and dynamic rather than pre-specified, systematic, and precise and should therefore involve teachers and students alike (Zohrabi, 2014).

Concepts of reforms in the education sector have been widely studied by researchers and educationalists in different countries all over the world. Studies, as exemplified in the above cases, demonstrated that while some reforms were successful and have shown to be better at bringing about change and transformation in some contexts, other reforms were unsuccessful. When teachers were actively involved and empowered in reforms, those reforms succeeded. Conversely, when teachers were ignored, and reforms were centralized with no connection to their daily practices, initial education and professional development, reforms failed.

The researcher in this study believes that consideration of the previously discussed cases of education reforms is pertinent to the Algerian context. Gaining multiple perspectives for understanding the stakes of teachers in different education systems and their crucial role in implementing and designing reforms, in contrast to Algeria, is a foundational step in the researcher's exploratory journey. Also, the fact that policy makers, in the midst of international educational reforms, increasingly expect teachers to act as active agents of change in their roles as professionals, curriculum implementers, and guardians of learners' results (Priestley, M, Edwards, Priestley, A, & Miller, 2012) does not exclude Algeria.

One should notice that, although numerous studies have proved the feasibility, effectiveness and benefits of teacher participation, authors have also noted the potential adverse effect of teacher involvement in decision-making and curriculum development. According to Fullan and Pomfret (1977), teachers' participation may have a potential 'boomerang' effect on the innovation. These authors stated that 'under other conditions participation at the initiation stage may lead to rejection of the innovation or to acceptance by one segment over another and hence may exacerbate conflict and lessen commitment and affect implementation' (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977, p.379).

Nevertheless, whether teachers' involvement is successful or not relies much upon school political pressure, lack of time, vagueness of shared decision making models, and the discord between teachers and administrators (McClure, Woo, Lugg, Ree, & Ross, 1998; Spencer, 2001; White, 1992). Davison and Martinsons (2002) argued that teachers' empowerment should be taken into consideration in terms of its suitability to a specific cultural context, whereby it could automatically be put into practice rather than be a propaganda slogan in the educational reform.

The multiplicity of teachers' roles suggests that the importance of traditional roles, which focused exclusively on classroom instruction, have been reduced. As the emergent view of teachers' roles are often in conflict with the traditional view of teachers' performance (Hargreaves, 1995; Monson & Monson, 1993; Scott, 1994), the leadership role of teachers is becoming more prevalent and more challenging. However, threats to teacher involvement typically come from a top-down control of curricula. As educational systems generally mandate change from the top, this can leave teachers feeling powerless to implement the change. The emergence of action research as a teacher-based form of curriculum development might be therefore an alternative response to the growth of top-down education systems and hierarchical control over teachers' professional practices.

Action research is a term that has been defined differently by different scholars in the field, but regarding curriculum development, it resulted as a reaction to the traditional view of curriculum as a product. The dimensions added to curriculum development by educational action research, particularly its critical-emancipatory version, can shape a decentrralised orientation (McKernan, 1996). In other words, a decentralized atmosphere (not a system) will provide teachers with operating conditions that allow them to actively participate in shaping the curriculum development process. By focusing on teachers'

reflection through action research, and viewing teaching as a process that not only implements theory but also produces knowledge, action research actually established this alternative approach to curriculum development as illustrated in the following sub-section.

2.7.2. Teachers' Action Research in Curriculum Development

Democratic participation in curriculum development implies that teachers should be part of a research which will consequently reflect learners' experiences, interests, and concerns. The evolving nature of socially responsive curricula demands ways of continually renewing and adapting those curricula to the local, regional and national historical needs. Action research, as characterized by Carr and Kemmis (1986), may help respond to this demand. It is a movement to democratize and demystify educational research and knowledge production, distribution and use. Action research is a collaborative, reflexive, and ongoing activity. According to Carr and Kemmis (1986), it embodies both the democratic principles and the moral commitment to political action. Moreover, it is not only based on retrospective reflection on one's own practice, but also on the creation of democratic conditions.

Teachers' action research will put teachers in a position to witness whether the curriculum is at odds or fits their learners' needs and interests. Additionally, teachers' first-hand experience makes them the most capable in bridging the gap between curriculum theory and practice. Teachers having the knowledge and class experience will contribute to the process by conveying their ideas and reflections. Thus, they must be primarily involved in the planning stage.

Moreover, the curriculum development team has to consider teachers as part of the environment that affects curriculum (Carl, 2009). Teachers (not to exclude learners) have their own 'perceptions of problems and issues in their classrooms, schools and professional lives'; thus they 'have a right to have their voices heard in creating the curriculum' (Beane & Apple, 2007, p.20). The teachers' active participation equally requires and promotes the development of professional skills, such as critical thinking, research approach, creativity, as well as cooperation and decision making skills. It is a process that enhances professional development and is inseparable from the teacher's practical work in an authentic classroom situation (McKernan, 1996).

Action research often leads to curriculum changes in classroom practice (Bartlett & Burton, 2006; Kincheloe, 2003; Noffke & Somekh, 2009; Somekh & Noffke, 2009). According to McKernan (1996), 'Action research offers exciting new beginnings for the development of the curriculum, the profession and the person… [it] instructs us that practitioners can be producers as well as consumers of curriculum inquiry' (p.3). Action research offers a systematic approach to introducing innovations. It seeks to do this by putting the teacher in the dual role of producer of educational theory, and user of that theory (Riding, Fowell, & Levy, 1995). These words highlight the key perceptions on action research, its benefits and its usefulness in curriculum change.

Action research has been advocated by education and curriculum reforms documents as a powerful means for school-based curriculum development. To connect action research to curriculum development, it is important for curriculum leaders to facilitate the dissemination of research work to their colleagues in schools; to help understand the effectiveness of action research in providing feedback and improving practices; to empower teachers; to develop common practices; and to develop collaborative learning culture in schools.

The underlying thought behind action research is that front-line teachers are not only capable but are also in the right position to do research in their classes. The practice of teaching is about 'knowing-in-action', which is modified by a 'reflection-in-action', and the ability to reflect on a situation (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). Practical experience and skilled judgment are more important than the specialized knowledge of academics or experts. Much knowledge is tacit and therefore research into classroom practice can have a potentially pervasive impact on educational practice.

A teacher-researcher model (Stenhouse, 1975) encourages teachers to play the role of researchers and to examine their own practice critically and systematically. Action research is about curriculum development, it puts provisional practice and new ideas to test, and treats its participants as a kind of social matter, a form of strategic action susceptible to improvement. Each classroom is therefore a laboratory which allows teachers to test and verify their ideas. In this way, by realizing their potential, teachers would no longer be kept in ignorance, but rather become autonomous and liberated. Action research is a tool for teachers to use to investigate educational issues and to take steps to improve or change the situation (Altrichter, Posch & Somekh, 1993).

Teacher research has been proposed as an 'empowering procedure' (Wallace 1998, p.17), as it is 'more under teachers' own control and more relevant to the classroom' and 'enables people to own the change' (Wallace 1991, p.18). As mentioned earlier, innovation will be more likely to be implemented successfully when teachers feel that they are implementing what they own. Carter (1998) pointed out that to effectively resolve pedagogical problems, it is necessary to change the role of teachers from passive receivers of top-down policies into active researchers.

Action research takes the lead when a curriculum or pedagogical problem is first identified by teachers, who then put forward some hypotheses for the causes and consider some corresponding solutions. The teachers then put these solutions into action. All the actions are closely monitored by the teachers, taking into consideration the intended and unintended outcomes, and expected and unexpected factors. Finally, the effectiveness of the solution is measured against the intended or target objective. If the problem is solved, the cycle comes to an end; otherwise, another round of investigation is deemed necessary.

In line with the view of action research as a tool to test curriculum proposals as intelligent hypotheses rather than correct solutions, the relationship between action research and curriculum change is obvious. Teacher action research is not an end in itself, but a means of nurturing curriculum improvement. The practitioner teacher is not necessarily an authority or expert, but is an inquirer, treating his knowledge as improvable.

Action research proposes a democratic process not only for curriculum development and production of curriculum theory through constant trial and review, but also for enhancing the process of teaching and learning, benefiting both teachers and learners. Besides the reflective and cooperative framework shaped by action research, the action research model allows teachers to become involved in reflection on the curriculum and thus reshape it according to their learners and schools.

It is often heard nowadays that teachers are too busy to review research studies, let alone conduct research. Research may appear to be a complex set of steps that is difficult and time-consuming for teachers to participate in or lead. Those teachers may find research irrelevant because there is little research written by practicing teachers. Also, what is written does not often relate to daily classroom activities (Ferrance, 2000; McBee, 2004). McBee (2004), however, believe that 'classrooms that become laboratories are better classrooms' (p.157).

Moreover, the teacher research cannot be effective if it is perceived by teachers as a decree that is passed down from the top. It is much more effective when it is constructed with personal relevance (Johnson, 2005). In other words, action research becomes effective as teachers 'pick up threads suggested in academic circles, and weave them in their own classroom' (Ferrance, 2000, p.13). Through teacher research, teachers will be allowed to take ownership over their teaching as they are the ones who can identify issues worth addressing in their curriculum (Richards, 2001). Then, they will design a study, execute the study, track data and results, and finally reflect.

2.8. Inferences for the Present Study

The literature discussed so far has several inferences for the present study. First, it is obvious that the latest English language curriculum in the Algerian secondary education represented a significant change in principles of language teaching and learning. This significant change required teachers to adopt and implement new teaching practices, new roles, and to accept new assumptions regarding the process of English language teaching (see Chapter 1). Second, in light of the literature on educational innovation, the way the innovations were introduced raised many concerns. One concern is that teachers are the fundamental base upon which a curriculum innovation will thrive or founder.

Evidently, teachers' attitudes, prior experiences, pre-service and in-service training and their emergent understandings shape their response to an innovation and the extent to which mutual adaptation will take place. Teachers by being the most powerful stakeholder in the process of curriculum development enable the realization of the curriculum in every angle. In the planning stage, teachers shape the curriculum; in the implementation process, they make of the abstract real by transmitting the planned to the actualized; in the evaluation stage, teachers observe students' progress. This observation will shape the possible future curriculum development because with the help of this double reflection teachers will contribute to developing the best possible curriculum.

Another concern is that there is still a need to find out much more about what goes on in classrooms during the dissemination and implementation of a curriculum innovation. Given the importance of the contextual and socio-cultural factors in the implementation of innovation, the previous chapter has already outlined some of the main relevant characteristics of the Algerian secondary school context and provided information about the current applied curriculum.

2.9. Conclusion

The literature review in this chapter on curriculum change has focused on five aspects: research concepts, curricular conceptualizations, curriculum implementation, successful change, democratic curriculum development, and the conception of action research; its roles and functions in curriculum development. The roles of the three major players namely policymakers, administrators, and teachers in policy implementation, and factors affecting implementation have also been highlighted. The section on curriculum implementation provided a point of entry to the present research. Factors affecting implementation were found both to be either related to change, internal or external. To guide exploration of factors that teachers would identify as influencing implementation in the Algerian context, factors were used mainly with regard to the design of the questionnaire. The overlap between the factors indicates the interdependent relationship between them. The next chapter describes the procedures and methods used in the present thesis.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an outline of how this research was undertaken. This includes a significant description of the philosophical background and methodological framework used in this study. It also includes a description of the research approaches, designs and data collection methods, the sampling technique, and data analysis procedures. The chapter concludes with a discussion about establishing reliability and validity of the research study and ethical concerns.

3.2. Methodological Framework

3.2.1. The Paradigm Applied in this Research Study

There are different methodological approaches used to conduct educational research. Those approaches are based on philosophical, ontological, and epistemological understandings. Creswell (2005) argues that researchers must understand the philosophical foundations and the ontological and epistemological assumptions which instruct their research methodology and data collection methods, and that their perceptions of knowledge and social reality affect their examination of the conjunction between the phenomena and social behavior.

The researchers' views of what constitutes truth and knowledge guide their thinking, beliefs, and assumptions about society and themselves, and frame how they view the world around them. These views are called 'research paradigms' (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2007; Rubin & Babbie, 2010; Schwandt, 2001). A paradigm is therefore a way of describing a world view that is informed by philosophical assumptions about the nature of social reality (ontology), ways of knowing (epistemology), and ethics and value systems (axiology) (Patton, 2002). A paradigm leads researchers to ask questions and use appropriate approaches to systematic inquiry (methodology).

For educational researchers, there are four major paradigms that govern their inquiries into the policies and practices of education. Each paradigm carries related theories of teaching and learning (or pedagogy), curriculum and assessment, and professional development (Taylor & Medina, 2013). There is a plethora of research methodology books that serve to

explain the four research paradigms, outlining them even for comparison purposes will go beyond the scope of the present thesis.

The four categories of the educational research paradigms set out by Scott and Morrison (as quoted in Morrison, 2007, p. 19-20) are: positivism (empiricism), phenomenology as a form of interpretivism (constructivism), critical theory, and post-modernism. Each research paradigm is allied with certain methodologies. Nevertheless, no one paradigmatic framework is correct or superior. It is however the researchers' responsibility to determine their own paradigmatic views and how these views inform their research design to best answer their research questions.

The philosophical assumptions underlying this study came mainly from the critical paradigm. The critical research paradigm is a paradigm concerned with examining issues of power, control, and politics, and aims to empower researchers to become imaginative and critical thinkers. This aim is reached by enabling the researchers to practice deep democracy (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2000), which involves identifying and transforming socially unjust social structures, policies, beliefs and practices (Taylor & Medina, 2013). A researcher following the critical paradigm raises his/her own critical consciousness (Brookfield, 2000) and constructs a moral vision of a better society. This aim can be completed individually or in collaboration with less empowered people participating in 'critical action research' led by the researcher in the role of facilitator. The researcher's role is one of advocacy, a change agent who argues for and leads the way towards a more equitable, fair and sustainable society (Taylor & Medina, 2013).

This paradigm is most appropriate for this study because a school's classroom reality is extremely affected by political decisions. The key element of the critical paradigm which differentiates it from other paradigms is the notion of asymmetrical power relations and how they affect the social/cultural constructions of reality (Chilisa, 2011; Mertens, 2009). The critical paradigm believes that people (teachers) should not accept the face value of realties (top-down curriculum development); they should however question them and try to politicize the truth in order to democratize it. Thus, the critical paradigm endeavors to empower those who are left behind and those who are discounted and muzzled. This research study aims to do the same.

3.2.2. The Theoretical Position of this Research Study

In Algeria, most issues pertaining to national education are enforced in a top-down way. Owing to this, with regard to English language curriculum development, such a centralized education system can be seen as one of the plain causes obstructing the achievement of an effective English language curriculum reform and subsequent teacher involvement in the whole reform process. The Algerian curriculum policy marginalizes teachers who are considered as mere implementers of policies coming from the top. Teachers are mainly the objects of reform, not its participants (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2011). Based on this, the present study aims to critique and problematize the top-down policy that marginalizes teachers in curriculum development. The present researcher strongly believes that a curriculum can only be effectively implemented if teachers are involved in the whole process of its development.

Moreover, the present critical research study does not simply seek to describe the current situation in terms of teachers' marginalization; rather, it aims at changing this situation for the better as critical research is about 'changing and improving the social conditions of people's existence' (Troudi, 2006, p. 8). Teachers should have a role in the process of curriculum development and their voices should be heard at the top level. Additionally, the whole educational process should be collaborative.

Reflexivity in the critical paradigm is regarded as an important tool to raise consciousness and empower participants of educational reforms at different levels (Ryan, 2005). It is therefore hoped that teachers will be increasingly aware of their marginalization in the Algerian curriculum development context, and better informed and empowered. Teachers should question and challenge the status quo or domination, and acknowledge the political agenda implied within. Although this critique of agents of domination can create conflict and struggle; this struggle is necessary if one considers the entire context within which curricula are developed and implemented to realize change.

The theoretical position of the present study is summarized in the following self-structured table:

Table 3.1
Theoretical Position of the Study

Philosophical underpinnings	The present research is informed by the critical theory.
Ontological assumptions	Algerian national education reality is historically bound and is constantly changing, depending on social, cultural, political and power based factors that have been reified over time into social structures that are taken to be natural or real. People function under the assumption that for all practical purposes these structures are real. The present researcher believes that this assumption is inappropriate.
Epistemological assumptions	A more democratic English language curriculum development model that involves teachers if put into practice will empower and transform the lives of teachers. Knowledge is produced by power and is an expression of power rather than truth.
Axiology	The relationship between the present researcher and the researched is not based on a power hierarchy, but involves a transformation and emancipation of both the participants and the researcher. Also, it is feasible to empower lives and motivate others to change.
Methodology	A combination of qualitative and quantitative research.

3.3. Research Approaches

Currently, integrating qualitative and quantitative research approaches within the same investigation is claimed to be essential in educational research, as it enables the researcher to look at an issue from different perspectives to gain a more comprehensive understanding (Dörnyei, 2007). Research studies that involve quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study to investigate a research problem are referred to as 'mixed methods' (McMillan, 2004). It is claimed that combining several research methods in a study can widen the scope of the investigation and enrich the researcher's ability to draw a conclusion (Dörnyei, 2007).

According to Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard, and Henry (1997):

> Policy research is aiming to unravel the complexities of the policy process, a task for which qualitative approaches in our view are better. This is not to deny a place for quantitative methods within critical policy research, either alone or in combination with qualitative methods (p. 41).

Hence, in this study, there are elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches- the latter applying to the data collected via secondary school English language teachers questionnaire and the former to the data gathered from both the questionnaire and the secondary school Inspectors' interviews as well as a critical reading of the Algerian legislative means pertaining to national education, reforms and teacher education and training.

3.3.1. The Mixed Methods Approach

Given the critical nature of the current study which is related to curriculum research that describes and explores teachers' general views of the mandated curriculum and how implementation takes place in a top-down context; the study employed a mixed qualitative and quantitative research design. The mixed methods design is particularly appropriate for this study as this best helps to answer the research questions. Moreover, it allows the present researcher to take a closer look into the intended and the enacted secondary school curriculum in the Wilaya of Sétif (Algeria).

Discrepancy exists between the theoretically intended curriculum perceived by policymakers and the practically enacted curriculum implemented by classroom teachers (Bekalo & Welford, 2000). The multiple measures to investigate the intended and the enacted curriculum and the examination of the gap between the two curricula help ensure the validity of both the qualitative and quantitative findings. As far as the present study is concerned, the interview data which intended to reveal the enacted as well as the implemented reform are cross-checked against the data gathered from teacher questionnaires to note discrepancies. Also, the present research can be described from the perspective of the critical enquiry paradigm which allows it to be exploratory and descriptive in nature as well as to gather and deploy quantitative data.

3.4. Research Questions

As noted in the previous section, the present research uses a mixed method approach that included a questionnaire and interview. The researcher had therefore to ensure clear connections and alignment between the research questions and the methodology selected. For clarity of purpose the research questions are restated here in the table below with indication to data sections addressing each question. As research questions guide research, connections between the research questions and the research methodology should therefore be clear.

Table 3.2
Data Tools Sections addressing Research Questions

Research Questions	Data Sets and Sections
1. What are secondary school English language teachers' views on Curriculum 2003 reform?	Questionnaire section B, C and E
2. What factors inhibit or enhance teachers' ability and/or desire to implement the Curriculum 2003 reform?	Questionnaire section D and Interview section B
3. How does Curriculum 2003 reform marginalize teachers?	Questionnaire section F and Interview section B
4. Granted that teachers' perspectives from the classroom level makes them suitable nominees to lead curriculum, is every teacher fit to be involved in the curriculum development process?	Questionnaire section F and Interview section C
5. What is the best balance of government and teachers' roles and responsibilities in curriculum development to improve curriculum?	**Research findings**

3.5. Research Designs

Hartley (2004) define a research design as an argument for the logical steps which will be taken to link research questions and issues to data collection, analysis and interpretation in a coherent way. This section discusses the two types of research designs that have great bearing to the focus of the current study. These include the descriptive and exploratory designs. The exploratory design seeks to explore the research questions to help have a better understanding of the problem. This design is usually conducted when there are few or no earlier studies to refer to or rely upon to predict an outcome. The exploratory design is flexible and can address all types of research questions (Streb, 2010). The descriptive design seeks to yield rich data that lead to important recommendations in practice (Given, 2007).

The exploratory research design, from a critical perspective is suitable for this research study that seeks to critique and problematize the top-down policy that marginalises teachers in curriculum development. The descriptive design is suitable for this study as it defines the perceived roles of teachers in the curriculum development process and barriers to teachers' participation in the implementation of curriculum 2003 and its concomitant processes. Thus it becomes necessary to have a detailed description of how the implementation of curriculum 2003 has been accepted and experienced by the teachers at grassroots level.

3.6. Research Methods

The choice of research instruments was informed largely by the discussion of the research paradigm described in the first section of the present chapter. Two types of research instruments were used in the study: a questionnaire and an interview. These are considered to

be the most common types of survey instruments in most areas of social inquiry in general (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2001). Each of these methods has its advantages and limitations as will be described in the next sub-sections.

3.6.1. Advantages and Limitations of Questionnaires

Questionnaires are widely used to collect mainly numeric information from participants in geographically spread areas and can be conducted without necessarily having the researcher present (Bryman, 2001; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Due to the fact that the number of the main population of this study, 374 teachers, is relatively large, questionnaires seemed to be the most suitable research instruments to be used with participants. Questionnaires are efficient in terms of time, effort and cost as they can be used to get a huge amount from a large number of people over a relatively short period of time (Dörnyei, 2003; Fowler, 2001).

The use of questionnaires has also the advantage of avoiding direct contact between the researcher and the participants and as such avoids the influence of the personal appearance, mode or conduct of the researcher (Burns, 2000). Moreover, the researcher absence ensures anonymity of respondents which makes them more likely to respond more directly and openly (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000). However, the use of questionnaires has limitations as well. These limitations are related either to the type of data they generate or the process of the design of the questionnaire.

As regards the type of data, for example, in order for questionnaires to be clear to respondents, they tend to be made simple and straightforward. This, in effect, may limit the depth of the investigation (Dörnyei, 2003). Also, using questionnaires does not provide an opportunity for probing or clarifying answers (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000). As regards the process of the design of the questionnaire, long questionnaires, for instance, may make respondents tired and bored which may influence their responses (Dörnyei, 2003). Another limitation is related to the fact that questionnaires depend highly on the understanding of the respondents which may differ from one person to another.

Generally speaking, questionnaires tend to have low response rates (Bryman, 2008; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000). Also, the researcher has no control over the conditions under which respondents fill in the questionnaires (Neuman, 2003) or over who actually answers the questionnaire (Bryman, 2008). This later limitation is of crucial

125

relevance to the current study as questionnaires were sent or administered in most schools which have different groups of teachers of English, some of which were not targeted by the study. Also, in these situations, it is likely that some respondents may leave some parts of the questionnaire unfilled. Teachers who helped in the administration of the questionnaire were made aware of such limitations and were requested, as far as possible, to take them into consideration and encourage participants to fill in all parts of the questionnaire.

It was an important part of the present research process to articulate the questionnaire items that could help in collecting the kind of data that was desired. The rigour of the questions was checked for their ability to elicit answers to the research questions in an unbiased way. Piloting of the questionnaire (as will be discussed in section 3.7.4.) also helped in establishing the trustworthiness of the study.

3.6.2. Advantages and Limitations of Interviews

Although qualitative research has become essential in social and educational research, researchers have identified weaknesses in it. Qualitative research is generally time consuming, difficult to access, and expensive. Thus, currently, with the increasing use of the internet in research all around the world, new methods of data collection are made available to qualitative researchers. Synchronous and asynchronous email interviews and virtual focus groups are considered the most common methods (Burns, 2010; Mann, & Stewart, 2000; Meho, 2006). Researchers have demonstrated that data collected online via these methods is more concise than data that is collected verbally (Abrams, Wang, Song, & Galindo-Gonzalez, 2014; Benford & Standen, 2011; Synnot, Hill, Summers, & Taylor, 2014).

The asynchronous email interview method used in the present research for collecting qualitative data may not fully replace traditional face-to-face interviews. However, it gained a solid position as a qualitative research method thanks to its exclusive benefits (Abrams et al., 2014; Synnot et al., 2014). Many researchers, in several studies that compared, or conducted, both email and face-to-face interviews claimed that participants interviewed via email remained more focused on the interview questions and provided more reflectively dense accounts than their face-to-face counterparts (Curasi, 2001; Meho, & Tibbo, 2003; Murray, 2004; Murray & Harrison, 2004).

It is not to argue in this research that the quality of face-to-face interviews is lower, but rather to highlight the benefits of the email interview. It is even argued in some studies that

the richness and quality of the data obtained via asynchronous email interviews (Bowker, & Tuffin, 2004) is very similar to that in face-to-face interviews. However, the email interview method is enabled by both the researcher's and interviewees' ability to take the time to be more thoughtful and careful in their responses than they would during a natural conversation (Murray, 2004; Young, Persichitte, & Tharp, 1998). This fact is partly due to participants' comfort which is prioritized by the email interview method (Burns, 2010).

Email interviewing is beneficial since it is cost efficient and reduces the time required (Fontes & O'Mahony, 2008). The researcher is not bound by place or even by a single conversation at a time (Dimond, Fiesler, DiSalvo, Pelc, & Bruckman, 2012). It however enables the researcher to interview multiple participants at the same time, saving time and money (Cook, 2012; East, Jackson, O'Brien, & Peters, 2008; Meho, 2006; Selwyn & Robson, 1998; Synnot et al., 2014).

The asynchrony of the email interview has some shortcomings as well. The breaks in the conversation might span a few seconds to minutes or days since the participant is not required to answer immediately. The advantage is that there is no need to find a time when both researcher and participants are ready and available for the interview, or to ensure that the participants have enough time to think their answer through. However, when the breaks in the interview are too long, the conversation might lose spontaneity (Bampton & Cowton, 2002). The longer it takes to complete an interview with a participant, the higher the possibility of dropouts or frustration to both the researcher and the interviewees (Hodgson, 2004).

Probes or follow-up questions in interviews are generally used to elaborate and clarify participants' responses or to help elicit additional information and depth from informants. Unlike face-to-face and telephone interviews, email interviews do not allow direct probing. This can be done only in follow-up emails, which can take place any time during the data collection and analysis periods. The lack of direct probing in email interviews may result in missing some important pieces of data, especially given that not all participants respond to follow-up questions, even if they were told to expect them (Kennedy, 2000).

The asynchronous email interview method has its uses for a variety of reasons. So far, the method was the best feasible choice for the current study. As with any methodology, there are limitations that need to be mitigated to ensure reliable and valid results. The researcher did not require social interaction for the research. Moreover, the research was constrained by a

tight workload and travelling costs. The researcher and the participants are computer literate and have access to the internet.

Recruiting in email interviewing in the present study was done in multiple ways. This included individual solicitations, snowballing, or invitations through the web-based email service of yahoo. Inspectors were solicited for participation individually rather than via a mailing list or message board. This technique aimed to show potential participants that they are important, thereby encouraging them to participate (Dillman, 2000).

To establish trust, interviewees were informed how the present researcher acquired their email addresses. The researcher emphasised the anonymity of participants by assuring the inspectors that all implicit and explicit links between their names and the data they will provide will be removed. When sending reminders, all questions were emailed again one week before the deadline (four weeks were set for interviews completion). The researcher was timely with follow-up questions, especially when clarifications, explanations, or elaborations were needed. Interviewees' responses to previous questions were summarised and summaries were returned to the participants for clarification of misinterpretations.

3.7. Design of Research Instruments

As stated earlier, there were two groups involved in the study, namely full-time public secondary school English language teachers and inspectors. Teachers were the main focus of the study. The questionnaire was used to get information from them. The data collection was divided into two stages: the questionnaire stage and the interview stage. Further details about both stages of data collection will follow in sections 3.7.2, 3.7.3, 3.9.1, and 3.9.2.

3.7.1. Language of Data Collection

Using English in the current study, which proved to be feasible had a number of advantages such as saving time required for translation, avoiding misinterpretation or mistranslation and providing original quotes articulated by participants themselves to support arguments in the research. The argument may become particularly apparent when considering the difficulty of getting a translation that reflects the exact meaning of the text in cross-language research (Esposito, 2001). Therefore, the questionnaire was written in English and all interviews were conducted in English. Additionally, the piloting of the questionnaire and the interview (details will follow later) proved that participants did not seem to have any apparent difficulties.

3.7.2. The Questionnaire

In the present study, the questionnaire aimed to collect quantitative and qualitative data about teachers' views on the curriculum reform of the year 2003; their implementation and the factors affecting this implementation; their training and professional development as well as their non-involvement in the developmental process of curriculum. The researcher's self-structured questionnaire included 20 questions and was divided into six main sections, including the section about background information of the participants. At the end of the lists of options for the questionnaire's questions 12 and 13 (section D); questions 16 (section E), 18, 19 and 20 (section F), participants were asked to add, if they wanted to, any other additional comments and views. The questionnaire ended also with a section in which participants could add general comments. The space was enough to write 17 sentences.

Inspiration for the statements contained in the questionnaire came mainly from two sources. The first source was the present researcher's background knowledge of the Algerian education system and curricula reforms, which are highly centralised. The second source was the review of literature in Chapter 2, particularly sections 2.5., 2.6. and 2.7., about the factors affecting teachers' curriculum implementation, and the elements of a successful change and democratic curriculum development.

The first part of the questionnaire included demographic and factual questions and sought personal information regarding gender, educational qualification, work promotion, years of experience in teaching English, and number of class hours to be taught as well as maximum number of pupils in the taught classes. The second part was concerned with teachers' views about the curriculum reform of 2003. It consisted of two subsections: teachers' general views about the curriculum, and their views about secondary school textbook series. The third part dealt with teacher's curriculum implementation. The fourth part addressed the factors affecting curriculum implementation, both positively and negatively, and the fifth part dealt with teacher training. As regards the last part, the section targeted teachers' marginalisation in the curriculum development process.

The design of the questionnaire, excluding section A, (see appendix D) followed mostly close ended questions of a multiple choice (MC) type (nine out of 20 questions, plus three sub-parts of two dichotomous questions). The present researcher tried to make sure that all categories in MC questions are discrete (having no overlap and being mutually exclusive) and would exhaust the possible range of responses. Guidance was given on the completion of

the multiple-choice, clarifying for example, whether respondents are able to tick only one response (a single answer mode) or several responses (multiple answer mode) from the lists. In this respect, the pilot of the questionnaire was made to ensure that the categories are comprehensive, exhaustive, and representative. The researcher was interested in certain features, and only these features figured out in response categories.

The questionnaire included also three dichotomous questions, two of which as already stated, were followed by multiple choice contingency questions all with multiple answer modes, where the latter parts are contingent on the earlier, and are branches of the earlier questions. The respondents' demographics section included two dichotomous questions, two MC questions, and two ratio data questions. In the ratio data questions no fixed answer or category was provided and respondents were required to put in the numerical answer their exact figures. Additionally, the questionnaire included two rating scale questions where one question was combined with an MC question.

Rating scales aimed to tap respondents' opinions. The rating scale format is regarded as an 'excellent means of gathering opinions and attitudes' (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998, p. 175). Although the rating scale may have different response points, the five-point scale is 'more practical, most common, easy to respond to, straightforward to analyse and sufficient for most needs' (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998, p. 174). As regards the questionnaire used in the present study, one rating scale question included a four-point scale whereas the second included a five-point scale. Again, the pilot of the questionnaire aimed to devise and refine categories, making them exhaustive and discrete.

The combined rating scale question followed a matrix layout of questions. Matrix questions aim to enable the same kind of response to be given to several questions. The matrix layout helps to save space, where questions may be covered in just a short amount of space. Laying out the question in this way aimed to enable the respondents to fill in the questionnaire rapidly (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The metric adopted in the questionnaire of this study was nominal for multiple choice and dichotomous questions, ordinal for rating scale questions, ratio for ratio data questions, and word-based for the open-ended parts of the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the questionnaire was self-administered for few schools and administered through a third party for most schools. Prior to coding the questionnaire was checked (edited). Editing the questionnaire was intended to identify and eliminate errors made

by respondents. The editing of the questionnaire, in the present study, followed three tasks (completeness, accuracy and uniformity) recommended by Moser and Kalton (1977, as cited in Cohen et al., p. 369). Thus, a check was made that there is an answer to every question (this fact was also checked during the administration of the questionnaire). A check was also made that all questions are answered accurately. The researcher checked that instructions and questions have been interpreted uniformly. As regards data reduction, the researcher allocated a code number to each answer to the survey questions. Obviously, open-ended parts were not reducible in this way for computer analysis.

3.7.3. The interview

The interviews (see appendix E) with inspectors were conducted for the purpose of seeking information about the intended curriculum reform of 2003, about issues concerning the implementation of the curriculum, and questions relative to teachers' education. The interview used in the present study is self-designed and semi-structured. The semi-structured type of interviews is considered to be the most common one (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Flick, 2006; Neil & Morgan, 2003).

The semi-structured interview was used in this study for a number of reasons. First, it was flexible in terms of order of questions and clarifications of terms (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000). Second, there is also flexibility on the side of the respondents when answering the questions (R.B. Burns, 2000). The respondents could ask for clarification and go back to add to an earlier answer. Fourth, it gives the interviewees the opportunity to express themselves and add their own comments and ideas which usually enrich the interview.

3.7.4. Piloting the Research Instruments

Bryman (2001), Cohen et al. (2007), and Gorard (2001), suggest a need to conduct a pilot before undertaking actual research to ensure that the instruments function well. Taking these suggestions into account, the present researcher piloted both instruments used in the study before embarking upon the larger study. Relevance, utility and application of each instrument were checked. The pilot study sought to eliminate ambiguities in wording, identify redundant questions and misunderstood items, and gain feedback about the validity of the instruments. As a result, the several suggestions that were made to the researcher were applied

to ensure that the questionnaire and the interview questions were more suited to the study in terms of format and clarity of words.

The questionnaire was piloted on May 2014 with a group of 15 teachers on the popular free social networking website Facebook. The teachers were secondary school teachers from other cities (not Sétif). Cohen et al. (2007) mention two types of piloting, one which deals with the format and coverage of the questionnaire and another which is concerned with the type of data gained from the questionnaire. Both of these types were considered in the piloting stage of the questionnaire. The main aim of the piloting was to refine the questionnaire. Piloting the questionnaire provided also suggestions for closed alternatives to open-ended questions in the initial versions. Modifications to questions were applied to the original version of the questionnaire. The number of questions in the final version of the questionnaire was reduced from 31 to 20. Teachers involved in the pilot study were not and could by no means be involved in the real investigation stage.

As regards the piloting of the interview, the aim was to identify potential problems and areas that may require adjustments at the level of questions. The original interview included 45 questions. The number of questions has been reduced to 26 after the pilot stage. Some questions were refined where others were totally omitted in the final draft. One inspector, who refused to participate in the study, was asked to comment on whether items were clear and precise; and whether these items can probe the information required for the study. Following the inspector's suggestions refinement and rewriting of the questions was undertaken.

3.8. Sampling and Population

Morisson (1993) states that the quality of a piece of research stands or falls not only on the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also on the suitability of the sampling strategy that is adopted. A careful sampling technique enables validity in research. Researchers should also consider sample size in relation to cost, in terms of time, money and administrative support. The sample size, which is the number of subjects involved in the research on which the study was conducted (Aran & Aron, 2002), is determined to some extent by the style of the research. A survey style, for instance, usually requires a large sample, whereas in ethnographic or qualitative research it is more likely that the sample size will be small (Cohen et al., 2007).

Literature across disciplines distinguishes between two types of processes of selecting units from a predefined population for a particular research study. These are called sampling techniques, and include: probability and nonprobability sampling (Henry, 1990; Cohen et al., 2007). A probability sample draws randomly from the wider population. It is mainly useful when researchers wish to make generalisations as it seeks representativeness of the wider population. Conversely, a nonprobability sample deliberately avoids representing the wider population. It seeks only to represent a particular group. Probability sampling includes simple random, stratified, systematic and cluster sampling; whereas nonprobability sampling includes convenience, purposive and quota sampling (Cohen et al., 2007).

In the present study, the researcher opted for a stratified random sampling. Stratified random sampling is a probability sampling technique where the population is divided into subgroups or 'strata', and a random sample is then selected from each subgroup (Fink, 1995, p. 11). Variables that are used to stratify a sample in educational research might include, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, years of teaching experience, grade level, or schools geographical location (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006). The random sample selected from each stratum is usually based upon the percentage that each subgroup represents in the population.

In stratified random sampling all participants are to be chosen randomly from each stratum, thus, a complete list of the population within each stratum must be constructed. Stratified sampling is generally used to meet one of two different reasons: representativeness of the sample for purposes of commenting on the population, or an interest is comparison between and among the strata. There are two types of stratified random sampling: proportionate and disproportionate. Using a proportional allocation requires that the sample size of a stratum is made proportional to the number of elements present in the stratum. Using an equal or disproportional technique requires that same number of participants is to be drawn from each stratum regardless of the strata sizes (Coolican, 1994; Cohen et al., 2007).

The current study opted for the proportional stratified random sampling as this technique is generally more accurate in representing the population than are simple random samples. Nevertheless, the stratified random sampling also requires more effort, and there is a practical limit to the number of strata used (no more than six strata) (Lodico et al., 2006). This sampling technique is used with surveys applied in heterogeneous populations, which is the

case in the present research. The advantage of using this kind of sampling is to give a probability random representative sample.

Need to draw a conclusion valid for the whole study population, should draw a sample in a way that it is representative of that population. Thus, this sampling technique is most useful. Also, as sampling units vary considerably in size (details about the population and sampling steps comes after); the present sampling technique will assure that those in larger sites have the same probability of getting into the sample as those in smaller sites, and vice versa. Likewise, estimates can be made with equal accuracy in different parts of the province. Also, a probability sample will have less risk of bias than a non-probability sample. All types of probability sampling have a measure of randomness built into them and therefore have a degree of generalizability. This method above all facilitates planning for fieldwork because a predetermined number of participants are reported in each unit selected and staff can be allocated accordingly (Thompson, 2012).

3.8.1. Location of the Study Area

The research will be carried out in all public secondary schools at the Wilaya (province) of Sétif. Sétif is a city located in north-eastern Algeria. It is limited on the north by the Wilayas of Béjaia and Jijel, on the east by the Wilaya of Mila, on the south by the Wilaya of Batna and M'Sila, and on the west by the Wilaya of Bordj Bou Arréridj. Sétif is administratively divided into 20 Daïras and 60 Communes (municipalities) (Law N° 84-09 of February 4, 1984). The Daïra is an administrative district and each Daïra includes a number of municipalities. Figure 3.1 clearly illustrates the location as well as the administrative division of Sétif.

Figure 3.1 map of Sétif province

Geographically speaking, Sétif is divided into three main regions: 1) a mountainous area in the north, 2) high plains, and 3) a southern semi-arid fringe area. The present researcher will refer to these areas as zone one (Z1), zone two (Z2) and zone three (Z3). The number and administrative distribution of municipalities in each Daïra, the Lycées (secondary schools) included in these municipalities as well as the geographical division of Sétif are illustrated in the self-structured table below. The population of the present study will consist of all full-time public secondary school English language teachers (374) working in Sétif during the school year 2014-2015. The 374 teachers are affiliated to a total of 84 secondary schools on the province grounds (see appendix F).

Table 3.3
Population of the Study

Zone One		Zone Two		Zone Three	
Municipalities (M) **Lycée(s) (L)** **N° of Teachers (Ts)**		**M/ L(s)/ N° of Ts**		**M/ L(s)/ N° of Ts**	
-Aïn Abessa: L19	5	-Aïn Arnat: L15, L16	6+5	-Aïn Azel:	8
-Aïn El Kebira: L22, L23	5+6	-Aïn Lahjar: L60, L84	5+3	L55, L56	+
		-Aïn Oulmene: L44, L45, L46, L47	5+5+4+5		5
-Aïn Legraj: L75	4	-Bazer Sakra: L37	4	-Ouled Si Ahmed	0
-Aïn Roua: L65	4	-Beidha Bordj: L58, L59	4+4		
-Aïn Sebt: L26	4	-Bir El Arch: L42	5	-Salah Bey:	5
-Aït Naouel Mezada	0	-Bir Haddada: L57	4	L50, L79	+
-Aït Tizi	0	-El Eulma: L30, L31, L32, L33, L34, L35, L36	6+5+6+5+4+7+5		4
-Amoucha: L28	4	-El Ouldja	0	-Boutaleb: L54	3
-Babor: L27	5	-Guellal: L49	3		
-Belaa L43	3	-Guelta Zerga: L38	3	-Hamma: L53	4
-Beni Aziz: L25	6	-Guidjel: L20, L21	4+4		
-Beni Chebana: L76	4	-Hammam Soukhna: L39	6	-Ouled Tebben: L52	3
-Beni Fouda: L40	4	-Ksar El Abtal: L48	5	-Rasfa: L51	4
-Beni Mouhli: L77	2	-Mezloug: L17	3		
-Beni Oucine: L66	3	-Ouled Saber	0		
-Beni Ourtilane: L74	4	-Sétif: L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9, L10, L11, L12, L13, L14, L78, L80, L81.	6+5+8+6+7+4+5 +5+4+5+4+7+7+ 4+2+3+4		
-Bouandas: L72	7				
-Bougaa: L61, L62, L63, L64	4+3 +4+ 3	-Taya	0		
		-Tella	0		
-Bousselam: L73	4				
-Dehamcha: L24	2				
-Djemila: L41	4				
-Draa Kebila: L67	4				
-El Ouricia: L18	4				
-Guenzet	0				
-Hammam Guergour: L68	4				
-Harbil: L71	2				
-Maaouia: L83	2				
-Maoklane: L69	4				
-Oued El Barad	0				
-Ouled Addouane: L82	3				
-Serdj El Ghoul	0				
-Tachouda	0				
-Tala Ifacene	0				
-Tizi N'Bechar: L29, L70	6+4				
Ms. 34 = 127 Ts.		**Ms. 19 = 211 Ts.**		**Ms. 7 = 36 Ts.**	

135

3.8.2. Sampling

According to Morrison (1993), the size of the probability sample can be determined in two ways, either by the researchers caution to ensure that the sample represents the wider features of the population with the minimum number of cases; or through the use of a table, which, form a mathematical formula, indicates the appropriate size of a random sample for a given number of the wider population. Likewise, in determining sample size for a probability sample one has to consider not only the population size but also the confidence level and confidence interval. Usually a compromise is reached, and researchers opt for a 95 per cent confidence level (Cohen et al., 2007). Similarly, if a researcher wants a very small confidence interval, then the sample size will be high, and if the researcher is comfortable with a larger degree of variation (5 per cent) then the sample size will be lower (Cohen et al., 2007).

In the present study, in her calculation for the sample size the researcher used the Sample Size Calculator for Market Research from Pearson NCS (www.pearsonncs.com), where she inputted the desired confidence level 95 per cent, confidence interval (± 5) and the population size (374), and the sample size was automatically calculated. The present researcher felt more comfortable with a 5 per cent degree of variation for feasibility considerations. Using a ± 3 interval will produce a sample size of 277; a ± 4 interval produces a sample size of 231, whereas the ± 5 confidence interval produces a sample size of 190 participants. Thus, the last option was the least costly in terms of time and money for the present research. The explicit stratum in this study referred to the region where the school is located, and implicit stratum was the size of the school, defined as number of teachers in each school.

The sampling phase in the present study included the following steps:

1. All public secondary schools in Sétif province with their location and number of teachers allocated to each were listed in tables in a Microsoft word file. Table 3.3 was the summary table used in calculations.
2. Schools were classified into three strata (geographical zones).
3. The percentage of each stratum in the population was calculated to determine the percentage of each stratum in the sample which should be approximately equal to the percentage of the strata in the population (proportional stratified sample). Calculation of these percentages provided the following results:

% Stratum/ Population	Sample/ Stratum
Z1: $(127 \div 374) \times 100 = 33.95$ %	$127 \times (190 \div 374) \approx 65$
Z2: $(211 \div 374) \times 100 = 56.41$ %	$211 \times (190 \div 374) \approx 107$
Z3: $(36 \div 374) \times 100 = 09.62$ %	$127 \times (190 \div 374) \approx 18$

4. The schools in this study were selected randomly without replacement from each stratum till the researcher ended with the desired number of participants in each stratum. The 84 names of schools (from L1 to L84) were written on pieces of paper. All of those pieces of paper were put into three bowls, representing the three zones, and mixed up. The researcher picked up each time a piece of paper to record the name of the school that includes the number of teachers to be included in the sample and then set that piece of paper aside. The whole operation ended with a selection of 39 schools (14 schools in Z1, 21 schools in Z2, and 4 schools in Z3).

5. Though the researcher ended with a number of teachers that exceeded the required sub- samples in Z2 (109 teachers) and Z3 (21 teachers); she insisted on getting just the required number once on the grounds.

3.9. Data collection process

The data collection process was carried out in two stages, namely the questionnaire stage and the interview stage. The decision about the order of these two stages was made on the basis of the priority decision (which one is primary) and the sequence decision (which one comes first) (Morgan, 1998; Morse, 1991). The questionnaire was administered to teachers during the year 2014-2015. Interviews with inspectors took place in a subsequent stage during the year 2015. The following represents a detailed description of both stages of data collection.

3.9.1. Stage One (the Questionnaire)

The process of the questionnaire administration took place between September 7, 2014, and June 30, 2015. The overall administration of the questionnaire was facilitated on the grounds by personal as well as friends' contacts. The only major difficulty that the researcher faced was that teaching stopped during school holidays (from October 30 to November 5, 2014; from December 18 to January 4, 2015; and from March 19 to April 5, 2015). Ethically speaking, the present researcher could not request teachers' collaboration during their legal holidays. Teachers were also busy while engaged in exams invigilation or

marking. June 30, 2015 (two days before summer holidays) was set as a deadline for receiving and collecting all questionnaires. The last batch of the questionnaires was received on that date.

A total number of 156 out of 190 questionnaires were collected, which makes a response rate of 82.10%. Each respondent was given a unique identification number from 1 to 156. The questionnaire was in paper form and hence after its administration the researcher had to transfer manually responses to closed statements into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 23.0 software for windows. Following the SPSS requirements, the researcher began by putting a code to each section and question number and using this code as a column heading, using single rows for respondents' answers.

Answers were also coded as the researcher assigned numbers to each one of them. After checking the answers for error of omission or wrong entry, the researcher went on to calculate how many people had selected each question. To avoid a missing value the present researcher made sure that there were no cases were no answer was given or more than one answer was ticked while a single answer mode was required. Coding of parametric and non-parametric data in SPSS resulted in a number of 84 nominal variables, 12 ordinal variables, and two scale variables. The quantitative data was then analysed using descriptive statistics (frequency tables).

3.9.2. Stage Two (the Interview)

The second stage of the data collection involved interviews with inspectors. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary. They were also informed that they had the right to withdraw at any stage if they wanted to. They were assured that all the interviews data was confidential and would be used for research purposes only. Interviews took place during the months of June and July 2015. A total of nine respondents agreed to participate in the interview. Nevertheless, four of them decided to withdrew as soon as they received the emailed interview. Data from the interview were transferred into the computer through word processor. The data was transformed into tabular format were it was displayed by theme for each respondent. This way of organising the data was intended to help in understanding the data and cross-referencing across themes and respondents.

The central difficulty in the organisation and the analysis of the interview data was to make the classification of the data in the tables as rigorous as possible. There were instances

in which interviewees' responses to a certain question contained issues which were relevant to other themes covered by different questions. In these cases, extracts of interviews were reorganised in the tables to match the most relevant themes. Additionally, there were places were interview responses were open to different possible interpretations. This is a common challenge in qualitative research that researchers may face and in such cases data was coded according to what the researcher felt was the most probable meaning intended by the interviewee.

3.10. Quality of the Research Instruments

3.10.1. Reliability

Reliability refers to precision, consistency and stability. In order to reduce the threats to reliability, certain strategies suggested by various researchers (Cohen et al., 2007; Silverman, 2005) were incorporated in the design of the study. The issues of clarity of statements and avoidance of using ambiguous words which might create misunderstanding were considered during the design of both instruments. The use of both open-ended and closed statements was also a strategy to achieve reliability. While the use of the closed statements provided data directly related to the issues suggested by the research instrument, the open-ended questions gave participants an opportunity to express themselves freely and add further issues and ideas that enriched the study.

The statistical reliability for the survey questionnaire was not calculated using the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of internal consistency. This is because Alpha cannot simply be interpreted as an index for the internal consistency of the questionnaire in the present study. Alpha measures only the unidimensionality of a set of items in an instrument (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011), which is not the case for the present study questionnaire. Calculation of alpha will be inflated by the heterogeneous constructs and the low number of questionnaire's questions. It is argued that if the test length is too short, the value of alpha is automatically reduced (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Moreover, internal consistency measures do not make much sense since the questionnaire provides formative data.

3.10.2. Validity

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2009) highlighted that 'validity is an important key to effective research. It is a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative research' (p. 133). It is the extent to which the research instrument measures what it is supposed to measure

(Neuman, 2003). In order to establish validity for the instruments, the purpose of the study and the research questions were reviewed and considered when examining the participants and their background. This was to assure that the questions would be suitable for the sample. With this understanding of the topic and audience, decision statements were generated and affiliated to the research questions and details were given to how each statement was written kipping in mind the audience. This procedure aimed to achieve content validity.

3.10.3. Generalisability

Generalisability refers to drawing some conclusions about a whole group on the basis of information collected from a representative sample of that group (Denscombe, 2002). The present researcher argued many times in this study that the group of teachers involved in the investigation is a representative sample. On this basis, the results of this study may also be regarded to have relevance for the rest of teachers in the population, and if replicated for other English language teachers in Algeria more generally.

3.11. Ethical Considerations

The ethical principles are related to the concept of morality through which the rights and interests of research participants are recognised (Denscombe, 2002). Ethics refer also to rules of conduct, typically, to conformity to a code or set of principles (Pring, 2000; Creswell, 2005). According to Robson (2002), it is essential to conduct research in an ethically responsible manner. Creswell (2005) argues that individuals who participate in a study have certain rights. Participants need to know the purpose and aims of the study, the use of results, and the likely social consequences the study will have on their lives. They also have the right to refuse to participate in a study and can withdraw at any time. When they participate and provide information, their anonymity is protected and guaranteed by the researcher.

The following ethical principles were identified to be relevant to the current study. Each of them was considered at a different stage of the research process. The first principle is access and acceptance to the organisation at the initial stage of the research (Cohen et al., 2007). Cohen et al. (2007) stress the importance of gaining institutional permission to access the research site if data are to be collected there. The researcher's entry to schools was individually negotiated with school operators. This permission was granted by the heads of schools specifically in the few schools were the researcher was present during the data collection.

The second ethical principle is the informed consent of the participants which gives them the right to refuse or take part on a voluntary basis (Cohen et al., 2007). The researcher recognised the right of any potential participant to withdraw from the research for any or no reason, and at any time. The research questionnaire was therefore headed by a paragraph that informs the participants about the purpose of the research and that they are volunteering in the research and they have the right to withdraw at any stage. Similar information was also conveyed to the research interviewees.

The third ethical principle is anonymity of participants (Cohen et al., 2007). All the data gathered was dealt with no reference to any particular participants or their schools. This was made clear from the beginning to all the participants. No names were required to be provided for the questionnaire even in the section where background information was required. Also, interviewees were assured that the interview will be dealt with anonymously even they were interviewed via their personal or professional emails.

Another ethical consideration is the issue of confidentiality (Denscombe, 2002). Confidentiality helps reduce respondents' concern about presenting themselves and therefore encourages more open responses. Indeed, respect for privacy in research is an internationally recognised norm and ethical standard. Fulfilling the ethical duty of confidentiality is imperative to the trust relationship between researcher and participant, and to the integrity of the whole research project. In the context of the present study, the data gained was kept strictly confidential and was used for research purposes only.

3.12. Conclusion

The present chapter contained a detailed account of the research methodology. It started by presenting the paradigm applied in this research as well as the theoretical position of the present study. The chapter provided details related to the study participants. This was followed by a description of the research design, the research methods, and the benefits and limitations of each of the research methods used in this study. The chapter also described the considerations and the procedures followed in the design of the research instruments. The piloting stage of the questionnaire and the interview was also described. The data collection process was presented along with the guidelines, constraints and limitations. Issues related to the quality and ethics were also presented. The following chapter presents the findings and conclusions derived from this research.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1. Introduction

The present critical descriptive and exploratory study explored the issue of teachers' marginalisation in the curriculum development process. Based on this, the study first investigated the views and concerns of secondary school English language teachers in Sétif province (Algeria) on their implementation of Curriculum 2003. The study then revealed barriers to teachers' autonomy and involvement in curriculum development. The barriers were uncovered in order to pave the way for thorough understanding and planning towards the involvement and subsequent participation of teachers in the development of English language curriculum. A survey questionnaire was used and 156 teachers completed it. The survey included demographic information and was composed of 20 items. Asynchronous semi-structured interviews were also conducted with five National Education inspectors (secondary school level) to identify the intended curriculum and answer questions relevant to teachers' implementation and teacher education for a cross-check against the data gathered from teacher questionnaires to note discrepancies.

In the previous chapter, the focus was on the methodological guideline, instruments, methods and data analysis methods applied in the study. This chapter details the results depicted from teachers' survey questionnaire and inspectors' interviews. Following this, the researcher will first present the results of this study through a description of the characteristics of participants, results of the quantitative then qualitative data, and an integration and comparison of the data collected through both research instruments.

4.2. Report and Analysis of the Questionnaire

In this section, for the analysis of the questionnaire data, summary tables will be used frequently to help show the patterns of the quantitative data clearly. The quantitative data analysis will also be supported with qualitative data derived from the open items in the questionnaire whenever this data is available. One Pie chart will be used only because the researcher felt it was necessary to include it for one question. Charts were avoided in the present analysis since they communicate the same information as frequency tables. For continuous data, descriptive statistics and histograms will be used.

4.2.1. Background Information about Teachers

The full-time public secondary school English language teachers included in this study were randomly drawn from 39 schools located in the three different zones dividing Sétif (further details are included in Chapter 3, section 3.8). This group is the core study. Statistical data about demographics of the participants in terms of gender, educational qualification, years of teaching experience, professional promotion, number of pupils and class hours taught that were gathered from the first section of the questionnaire survey (see Appendix D) helped in determining how close the sample replicates the population in this study. This indeed served the aim of attaining a representative sample.

The present study sample consisted of 70 (44.9%) males and 86 (55.1%) females. A high percentage of the participants surveyed (72.4%) were four years license holders. Additionally, 28 (17.9%) participants were holders of a Master's degree, 10 (6.4%) were holders of a five years license degree and five (3.2%) were holders of a magister degree. Table 4.1 hereunder shows the number of participants and their educational qualification. Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 give details about the participants' experience of teaching English.

Table 4.1
Teachers' educational qualification

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Five Years License	10	6,4
	Four Years License	113	72,4
	Magister	5	3,2
	Master	28	17,9
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.2
Teachers' teaching experience

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	First Year	8	5,1
	Two to Five Years	17	10,9
	Six to Ten Years	21	13,5
	More than Ten Years	110	70,5
	Total	156	100,0
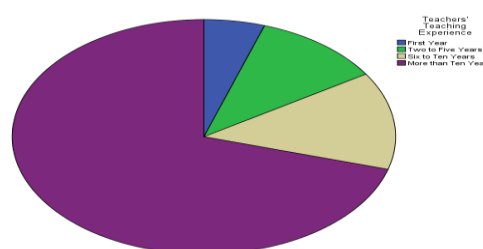
Figure 4.1. Teachers' teaching experience

Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 show that the majority of participants (110- 70.5%) have more than ten years of experience in teaching English whereas 21 participants have a six to ten years teaching experience. 17 teachers have a two to five years teaching experience and eight participants are novice teachers who have just begun their teaching experience. It is worth noting that the bulk of the participants experienced teaching English before and after the curriculum reform of 2003. They have also experienced the two university education reforms (Classical and LMD system).

The teachers who have less than 10 years experience either started their careers in the period of transition or experienced it in their early careers. The number of years of experience gives the participants a history of working under two different reforms. Such experience is relevant to the present study as it aims at investigating teachers' views related to C2003 where they will reflect on their practices before and after the beginning of the reform.

General data on respondents' demographics showed also that a total of 152 (97.4%) participants have never been promoted to a higher professional level. Yet, two participants from the remaining four teachers were promoted to a teacher-trainer rank, and the other two participants were promoted to a form teacher rank (see Chapter 1, section 1.3.4 for a description of the teacher-trainer and the form teacher responsibilities). The reason for asking teachers such a question about their promotion is that teachers in different levels of responsibility are exposed to different levels of exposure to the reform mechanism. The fact that the majority of participants were not promoted indicates that the participants have had no special exposure to the reform mechanism. They were, however, reliant on people at the top level to feed them with information.

The researcher considered central tendency measures (mean, median, and mode) as well as statistical dispersion measures (range, standard deviation (SD), minimum, maximum, and coefficient of variance) (see Table 4.3) to analyse continuous data about the number of class hours that teachers were required to teach per week as well as the maximum number of pupils enrolled in their classes. To demonstrate the shape of the continuous data frequency curve, the present researcher considered the measure of relative symmetry (skewness) and the measure of relative peakedness (kurtosis) of the distribution. As the data is numerical, and in an attempt to show its frequency distributions, histograms were used instead of bar charts (see Figure 4.2 and Figure 4.3).

Table 4.3 below shows that the average (arithmetic mean) number, the statistical median and the greatest frequency (mode) of class hours that teachers are required to teach is 18. This is obvious because a full-time teacher must be available by law (see Chapter 1, section 1.3.4) for 18 hours of class contact (actual teaching) each week. Nevertheless, the same table shows that the number of teaching hours allocated to the participants vary from 14 (minimum) to 24 (maximum). One should note that under some circumstances there would be no fixed limit on the number of hours teachers work a week. To the best knowledge of the researcher, teachers' workload in the Algerian context varies depending on class size which fluctuates each year as well as the availability of teachers per school.

Table 4.3
Statistics for the number of class hours to teach & class size

		N/ Class Hours	N/ Pupils
N	Valid	156	156
	Missing	0	0
Mean		18,5705	31,7692
Median		18,0000	35,0000
Mode		18,00	35,00
Std. Deviation		1,96785	7,89434
Skewness		,148	-,371
Std. Error of Skewness		,194	,194
Kurtosis		,109	-,411
Std. Error of Kurtosis		,386	,386
Range		10,00	35,00
Minimum		14,00	15,00
Maximum		24,00	50,00

Statistical dispersion measures in Table 4.3 show a small range value (10) which indicates a less dispersion in the data. This fact is supported by the low SD value, which indicates a close dispersal of the data around the average. Moreover, calculation of the coefficient of variation and its percentage (coefficient of variation = SD ÷ Mean = 0.10 = 10%) shows that the number of class hours in Sétif province context is homogeneous. Figure 4.2 below gives a general idea of the shape, however, the two numerical measures of the skewness and kurtosis displayed in table 4.3 tell about the amount and direction of the skew as well as the tallness and sharpness of the central peak.

145
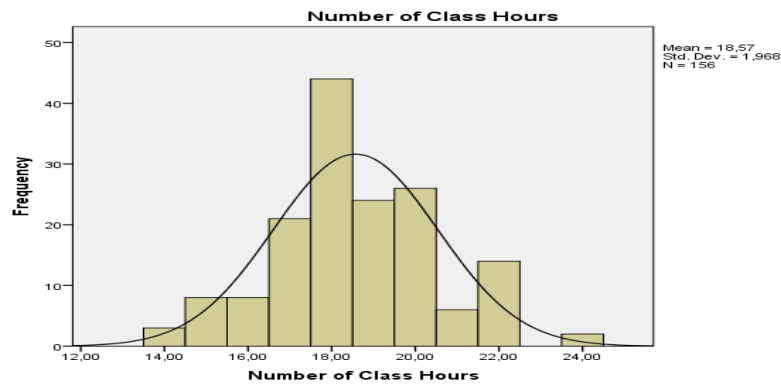
Figure 4.2. **Number of class hours**

The distribution shape presented on Figure 4.2 above shows that this latter is unimodal, having just one mode (peak). The skewness (0.148) is positive and the data is therefore positively skewed. On the same figure, it is slightly skewed right. Additionally, the skewness is between **-½** and **+½,** thus the distribution is approximately symmetric. The distribution illustrated in figure 4.2 has a kurtosis value of 0.10 (> 0) which makes it leptokurtic. The standard (Std.) error of skewness and the Std. error of kurtosis show the deviation that can exist between the values of skewness and kurtosis in multiple samples that will be taken randomly from the same underlying population distribution as the sample of analysis was taken. Thus, the low Std. error of skewness indicates a slight deviation of the underlying distribution of the sample from a symmetric distribution and the same logic applies to the Std. error of Kurtosis.

As regards the classes' size, table 4.3 shows that the average number of pupils in participants' classes' is approximately 32 students. The number that has the greatest frequency is 35. This number is almost the norm in Sétif context. The median as well as the range have also a value of 35. The large range value indicates greater dispersion in the data in this case. Additionally, the high SD value indicates greater spread in the data. Consideration of the coefficient of variation value, which is 24.85%, indicates heterogeneity in the class size in Sétif secondary schools. Some schools have larger (50 pupils) or smaller (15 pupils) classes than the average indicated in table 4.3.

The histogram below (Figure 4.3) shows a unimodal distribution. The skewness is negative, and the data is therefore left skewed indicating a long left tail. Moreover, the skewness (-0.37) is between -1 and **-½** which makes the distribution moderately skewed. The distribution illustrated in the figure is platykurtic having a kurtosis value of -0.41 (which is < 0) and a wide flattened distribution. The low Std. error of skewness and Std. error of kurtosis

indicate a slight deviation of the underlying distribution of the sample from a symmetric distribution.
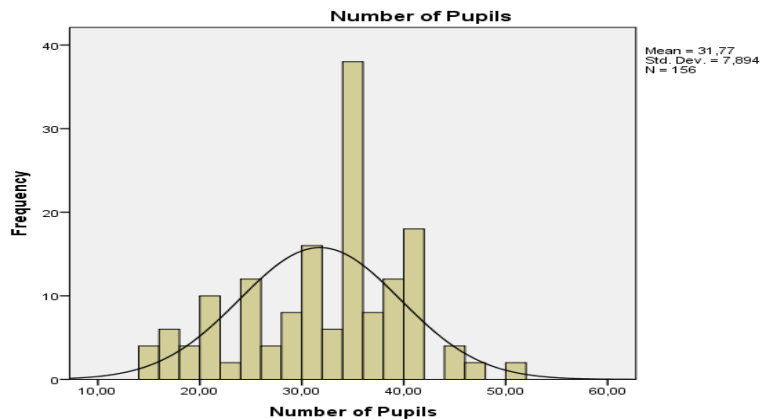
Figure 4.3. Number of pupils

The above background information provided basic details about the participants. It is worth noting here that, during the early stages of the analysis, the questionnaire data was considered to see if there were any differences among participants' responses about their views on curriculum reform, textbooks, curriculum implementation, and their involvement in curriculum development in accordance with the background factors outlined above. Teachers' perceptions were neither gender specific nor academic qualification specific. No mutual supportive relationship between teachers' views and the number of their teaching experience years was found, except for the unique case treated under section 4.2.2.2.

4.2.2. Teachers' Views about the Curriculum Reform

The second section of the questionnaire contained two sub-sections. The first sub-section included dichotomous statements addressing teachers' general views on the following statements (Sts.):

a) the curriculum explicitly lists the pedagogical goals for the course and provide methodological guidelines;

b) the methodological guidelines are helpful for teaching;

c) the curriculum is provided with workbooks and other methodological means;

d) the curriculum considers Algerian teachers'/learners' society and culture; and

e) the curriculum gives teachers autonomy in instrumental and educational decision-making.

The second sub-section included one dichotomous question about whether textbooks are teachers' primary sources of input or not, and one MC question addressing teachers' views

on textbook series in terms of *content*, *organization and style,* and *physical features* addressing the following statements:

- ✓ ***Content:*** a) matches the curriculum objectives; b) linguistic content is well-graded; c) linguistic content is appropriately selected; and d) present up-to-date, accurate information;
- ✓ ***Organization and style:*** a) textbooks are clearly written; and b) use language and style appropriate for learners
- ✓ ***Physical features:*** a) attractive cover; b) well-designed page layout; and c) durable binding.

The following section represents a description of teachers' views regarding each of the above mentioned statements.

4.2.2.1. Teachers' views about the curriculum 2003. Frequency distributions for answers about participants' views on curriculum indicate that almost all participants expressed similar negative views about it. The majority (102 - 65.4%) claimed that the curriculum does not explicitly list the pedagogical goals for the course. 128 participants (82.1%) claimed that those guidelines are not helpful for teaching; and 123 participants (78.8%) claimed that the curriculum is not provided with workbooks and other methodological means. 116 participants (74.4%) were with the view that curriculum is not relevant to teachers' and learners' society and culture. Finally, 140 (89.7%) participants trusted that the curriculum does not give them autonomy in both instrumental and educational decision-making.

Table 4.4
Summary table regarding teachers' views about the curriculum

St. (a)		Frequency	Percent		St. (b)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	102	65,4		Valid	No	128	82,1
	Yes	54	34,6			Yes	28	17,9
	Total	156	100,0			Total	156	100,0

St. (c)		Frequency	Percent		St. (d)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	123	78,8		Valid	No	116	74,4
	Yes	33	21,2			Yes	40	25,6
	Total	156	100,0			Total	156	100,0

St. (e)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	140	89,7
	Yes	16	10,3
	Total	156	100,0

4.2.2.2. Teachers' views about textbook series. Table 4.5 below indicates that teachers' views are divided almost equally between those who use the textbooks as their primary sources of input (51.9%) and those who do not (48.1%). This means that for 81 participants school textbooks serve as the basis for the English language teaching that occurs in their classroom. For the remaining 75 teachers, textbooks may serve chiefly to supplement teachers' instruction. When analyzing the relationship between teachers' teaching experience and their views about textbooks as primary sources for their input or not; contingency table 4.5 below shows that novice teachers are the ones who rely the most on textbooks to structure their lessons and classrooms. A textbook in the case of novice teachers may serve as a form of teacher's training.

Table 4.5
Relationship between teachers' teaching experience and the their use of textbooks

		Textbooks are teachers' primary source of input		Total
		No	Yes	
Teachers' Teaching Experience	First Year	0	8	8
	Two to Five Years	2	15	17
	Six to Ten Years	11	10	21
	More than Ten Years	70	40	110
Total		75	81	156

Descriptive analysis of teachers' answers about their views on textbooks contents as illustrated in table 4.6 below indicate that teachers displayed similar negative attitudes towards textbooks content. Most teachers (112- 71.8%) believe that textbooks contents do not match the curriculum objectives. 134 (85.9%) teachers believe that the linguistic content (grammar, vocabulary, skills and comprehensible input) is not well graded; and 132 (84.6%) believe that the selection of linguistic content in textbooks is not appropriate. Nevertheless, most teachers (102 - 65.4%) showed a high percentage of overall satisfaction with the accuracy and up-to-datedness information the textbooks offer.

Table 4.6
Summary table regarding teachers' views about textbooks contents

St. (a)		Frequency	Percent	St. (b)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	112	71,8	Valid	No	134	85,9
	Yes	44	28,2		Yes	22	14,1
	Total	156	100,0		Total	156	100,0

St. (c)		Frequency	Percent	St. (d)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	132	84,6	Valid	No	54	34,6
	Yes	24	15,4		Yes	102	65,4
	Total	156	100,0		Total	156	100,0

Moreover, results revealed that a large proportion of teachers (104 - 66.7%) believe that textbooks are not clearly written and do not use language and style appropriate for learners (108 - 69.2%) (see table 4.7 below). Teachers' views on textbooks' physical features indicated that the majority of them believe that textbooks covers are not attractive (102 - 65.4%); that their page layout is not well-designed (118 - 75.6%); and that their hardcover binding is not durable (136 - 87.2%) (see table 4.8 below).

Table 4.7
Summary table regarding teachers' views about textbooks organization and style

St. (a)		Frequency	Percent		St. (b)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	104	66,7		Valid	No	108	69,2
	Yes	52	33,3			Yes	48	30,8
	Total	156	100,0			Total	156	100,0

Table 4.8
Summary table regarding teachers' views about textbooks physical features

St. (a)		Frequency	Percent	St. (b)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	102	65,4	Valid	No	118	75,6
	Yes	54	34,6		Yes	38	24,4
	Total	156	100,0		Total	156	100,0

St. (c)		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	136	87,2
	Yes	20	12,8
	Total	156	100,0

4.2.3. Curriculum Implementation

The third section of the questionnaire included two questions. One question was about teachers' perceived degree of easiness for curriculum implementation. The other question was about the perceived duration of time after which teachers might feel confident with the planning, teaching, and assessing aspects of the curriculum. Results on teachers' implementation reported that for the majority of participants (128- 82.1%) curriculum implementation was neither very easy nor very difficult for them. It was, however, sometimes easy and sometimes difficult. As table 4.9 below indicates, teachers would undergo between one to three years period to master the curriculum implementation skills. There was a minor difference between those who believe that confidence with curriculum implementation would take place after a one to two years period (50-32.1%), and those who opted for a two to three years period (68-43.6%).

Table 4.9
Teachers' implementation of the curriculum

		Frequency	Percent			Frequency	Percent
Valid	Sometimes easy & sometimes difficult	128	82,1	Valid	Less than 1 year	10	6,4
					1-2 years	50	32,1
	Difficult	22	14,1		2-3 years	68	43,6
	Very difficult	6	3,8		3-4 years	14	9,0
					More than 4 years	4	2,6
	Total				Do not know	10	6,4
		156	100,0		Total	156	100,0

4.2.4. Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation

The fourth section of the questionnaire aimed to examine key hindering and facilitating factors to teachers' curriculum implementation. For organization and clarity purposes, the factors recorded were categorized into four lists: curriculum factors, instructional factors, organizational factors, and institutional factors. Results reported on table 4.10 below show that the major curriculum factors that hindered teachers' implementation were the fact that the reform was not planned (78.8%) and imported (74.4%), and the lack of teachers' participation in the reform process (66%). Many teachers (61.5%) believe that the

non-clarity of reform affects their implementation whereas 79 of the participants (50.6%) believe that the top-down nature of the reform does not hinder their implementation.

Table 4.10
Curriculum factors affecting teachers' curriculum implementation

Curriculum Factors	Top-down imposed reform	Lack of teachers' participation in the reform	Non-clarity of the reform	Imported reform	Unplanned reform
No	79 – 50.6%	53 – 34.0%	60 – 38.5%	40 – 25.6%	33 – 21.2%
Yes	77 – 49.4%	103 – 66.0%	96 – 61.5%	116 – 74.4%	123 – 78.8%
Total	156	156	156	156	156

Results from table 4.11 below indicate that teachers acknowledged the presence of implementation difficulties with regard to instruction. As shown in the table, most teachers rated the statements 'lack of conduct of classroom research (89.7%)' and 'inadequate exposure to new trends in teaching (89.1%)'. 138 (88.5%) participants rated 'lack of teachers' motivation, incentives and rewards'. 136 (87.2%) teachers rated 'lack of in-service training'; 134 (85.9%) rated 'examination dominated teaching'; 129 (82.7%) rated 'inadequate knowledge of subject matter, methods, and learner assessment'; and 126 (80.8%) rated the statement about the 'mismatch between teachers' beliefs and curriculum goals'. 120 (76.9%) teachers believe that textbooks are overloaded. 50 participants commented that the most overloaded textbook is the one meant for first year secondary school learners. 116 (74.4%) participants rated the 'lack of professional development'; 110 (70.5%) reported a 'lack of learners' interest' whereas only 72 (46.2%) believe that teachers' attachment to old practice is one of the instructional factors inhibiting effective curriculum implementation.

Table 4.11
Instructional factors affecting teachers' curriculum implementation

Instructional Factors	Yes - %
Teachers' attachment to old practice	72 – 46.2%
Mismatch between teachers' beliefs and curriculum goals	126 – 80.8%
Lack of professional development	116 – 74.4%
Lack of in-service training	136 – 87.2%
Inadequate knowledge of subject matter, methods, and learner assessment	129 – 82.7%
Lack of teachers' motivation, incentives and rewards	138 – 88.5%
Inadequate exposure to new trends in teaching	139 – 89.1%
Lack of conduct of classroom research	140 – 89.7%
Examination dominated teaching	134 – 85.9%
Overloaded textbooks	120 – 76.9%
Lack of learners' interest	110 – 70.5%

Evidence from table 4.12 below shows that high percentages of participants shared the same views on certain types of inhibiting organisationl factors. Chief to these factors is the lack of communication between teachers, inspectors and principals (132 - 84.6%). Moreover, 130 (83.3%) teachers suffer from the influence of bureaucracy and 118 (75.6%) teachers' rated the lack of coordination. 116 (74.4%) teachers believe in the absence of a supportive mechanism. As regards the institutional factors (see table 4.13. below), 132 (84.6%) participants reported a lack of school teaching supplies. The same percentage characterized teachers' shortage of time. Additionally, 127 (81.4%) participants reported short class period and the same percentage was reported with the statement about the lack of support for teachers' initiatives. 118 (75.6%) participants reported a lack of parental support, 117 (75%) reported a lack of school reference materials and the same number (117) rated the problem of class size.

Table 4.12
Organisational factors affecting teachers' curriculum implementation

Organisational Factors	Absence of a supportive mechanism	Lack of coordination	Lack of communication	Influence of bureaucracy
No	40 – 25.6%	38 – 24.4%	24 – 15.4%	26 – 16.7%
Yes	116 – 74.4%	118 – 75.6%	132 – 84.6%	130 – 83.3%
Total	156	156	156	156

Table 4.13
Institutional factors affecting teachers' curriculum implementation

Institutional Factors	Yes - %
Lack of support for teachers' initiatives	127 - 81.4%
Class size	117 - 75%
Short class period	127 - 81.4%
Shortage of time	132 - 84.6%
Lack of school teaching supplies	132 - 84.6%
Lack of school reference materials	117 - 75%
Lack of parental support	118 - 75.6%

Results obtained from question thirteen of the questionnaire, as shown in table 4.14, showed that the factors that appeared to have supported and encouraged the participants the most in their implementation of the curriculum were peer support (69.2%) and inspectors (67.9%) assistance. 77 (49.4%) teachers reported the use of books and journals as a facilitating factor to curriculum implementation. 56 (35.9%) participants get support from

teachers in other schools; 52 (33.3%) participants depend on their own classroom research findings while 35 (22.4%) participants collaborate with university teachers. It is noteworthy that no participant reported the significance of his/her university education as a facilitator of the implementation of the reform. This clearly shows the gap between university education and in-service training. Teachers reported no other inhibiting or facilitating factors in the spaces provided for further additions.

Table 4.14
Teachers' curriculum implementation facilitating factors

Statements	Yes / %
University education	00 - 00%
Inspectors	106 - 67.9%
Other teachers in the school	108 - 69.2%
Collaboration with university lecturers	35 - 22.4%
Teachers in other schools	56 - 35.9%
Books and journals	77 - 49.4%
Your own research findings	52 - 33.3%

4.2.5. Teachers' Training and Professional Development

Results from the fifth section of the questionnaire, as illustrated in table 4.15, indicated that teachers are trained twice per year in all the secondary schools involved in the present study. The training provided for teachers (see table 4.16) was reported to be mostly theoretical (136 – 87.2%). Moreover, most training events, as table 4.17 indicates, had been in the form of plenary sessions (55.1%); education conferences and seminars (51.9%); and pedagogical workshops (50%). Some participants also resorted to peer-observation at their own schools (56 - 35.9%). 40 (25.6%) participants attended to examples of good practice. Some participants (30 - 19.2%) underwent collaborative classroom inquiries, while others (26 - 16.7%) participated in teacher professional development networks and used e-Learning resources (16 - 10.3%). Results showed also that only few supervisory training practices were organized in the secondary schools explored in the present study (only 14 (9%) participants rated this statement).

Table 4.15
Number of training events organised per school

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Two per year	156	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 4.16
Nature of training events organized per school

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Theory-based	136	87,2
	Practice-based	10	6,4
	Both	10	6,4
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.17
Types of training events that teachers attended

	Yes / %
Plenary sessions	86 - 55.1%
Pedagogical workshops	78 - 50%
Education conferences or seminars	81 - 51.9%
Examples of good practice	40 - 25.6%
Supervision	14 - 9%
E-learning	16 - 10.3%
Peer observation at own school	56 - 35.9%
Participation in a networks of teachers for TPD	26 - 16.7%
Collaborative classroom research	30 - 19.2%

In the space provided for further additions of that question, 53 teachers reported that they use the internet as a self-study or training strategy. Two teachers reported that they travel to English language speaking countries in order to overcome the language divide, enrich their cultural background and enhance their English communicative skills. Four teachers did resort to some educational television channels to gain inspiring and effective classroom teaching practices. Two teachers acknowledged the pedagogical benefits of You Tube instructive videos and interactive training modules for their professional development; and 30 teachers acknowledged the benefits of the British Council's yearly organized workshops.

4.2.6. Impact of Training Events on Teachers' Development of Curriculum Implementation Skills

Table 4.18 indicates that amongst the 86 (55.1%) teachers who attended training plenary sessions, 26 (16.7%) believe that those training events have not impacted their development of curriculum implementation skills. 14 (9%) teachers reported that the events have had moderate impact on their implementation skills development and 4 (2.6%) claimed that the sessions have had a large impact. The majority of teachers (42 - 26.9%), however, believe that in general terms plenary sessions have had a small impact on their implementation skills.

The same observations about plenary sessions were marked with education conferences and seminars in table 4.19, where the majority of teachers (50 - 32.1%) reported that these latter were of a small impact. 20 (12.8%) participants reported that conferences and seminars were of no impact; 8 (5.1%) reported that these latter have had moderate impact and 4 (2.6%) reported the large impact they felt post to attending this type of training.

As regards pedagogical workshops, table 4.20 indicates that 41 (26.3%) out of 78 (50%) participants who attended such workshops believe that these latter were of no impact. A slightly similar percentage (35 – 22.4%) of participants reported that the workshops were of a small impact, and two participants (1.3%) believe in a moderate impact of the workshops on the development of their implementation strategies. No one participant reported that pedagogical workshops were of a large impact.

Table 4.18
Impact of plenary sessions on teachers

Plenary Sessions		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	70	44,9
	No impact	26	16,7
	Small impact	42	26,9
	Moderate impact	14	9,0
	Large impact	4	2,6
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.19
Impact of conferences and seminars on teachers

Conferences & Seminars		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	74	47,4
	No impact	20	12,8
	Small impact	50	32,1
	Moderate impact	8	5,1
	Large impact	4	2,6
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.20
Impact of pedagogical workshops on teachers

Pedagogical Workshops		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	78	50,0
	No impact	41	26,3
	Small impact	35	22,4
	Moderate impact	2	1,3
	Total	156	100,0

Evidence as summarized in tables 4.21 and 4.22 below indicates that the majority of teachers who observe other teachers (15.4% out of 35.9%) and learn from good examples of practice (14.1% out of 25.6%) reported that these practices left a small impact on their development as curriculum implementers. 16 (10.3%) teachers reported that peer observation was of a moderate impact; 10 (6.4%) reported that this latter had no impact and 6 (3.8%) participants acknowledged large impact to observing peers. On the other hand, 10 (6.4%) teachers reported that learning from examples of good practice was of a moderate impact and 8 (5.1%) participants reported that it had no impact on their implementation of the curriculum.

Table 4.21
Impact of peer observations on teachers

Peer Observation		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	100	64,1
	No impact	10	6,4
	Small impact	24	15,4
	Moderate impact	16	10,3
	Large impact	6	3,8
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.22
Impact of demonstrations of good practice on teachers

Examples of Good Practice		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	116	74,4
	No impact	8	5,1
	Small impact	22	14,1
	Moderate impact	10	6,4
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.23
Impact of collaborative classroom research on teachers

Collaborative Classroom Research		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	126	80,8
	Moderate impact	5	3,2
	Large impact	25	16
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.23 above indicates that 16% out of 19.2% of the participants who are used to undertake collaborative classroom research reported that this practice left a large impact on their development as curriculum implementers. 5 (3.2%) participants think that the latter practice was of a moderate impact whereas no one of participants reported that collaborative classroom research was of no impact.

Table 4.24
Impact of participation in TPD networks on teachers

Participation in TPD networks		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	130	83,3
	Moderate impact	10	6,4
	Large impact	16	10,3
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.24 above shows that 10.3% out of 16.7% of participants who participated in teacher professional development (TPD) networks claimed that these latter left a large impact on them. The rest (10 - 6.4%) of participants reported that the impact that participation in such networks brought was moderate. As to the use of e-Learning resources, table 4.25 indicates that 7.7% out of 10.3% of the participants reported that such a usage largely impacted their implementation. The rest of participants claimed that e-Learning resources left only a moderate impact on their implementation of the curriculum. Finally, while reporting their views about the impact that supervisory training activities had on their implementation of the curriculum, table 4.26 shows that 6.4% out of 9% of teachers reported that these latter brought a large impact whereas the rest (2.6%) viewed this impact as only small.

Table 4.25
Impact of E-learning on teachers

E-Learning		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	140	89,7
	Moderate impact	4	2,6
	Large impact	12	7,7
	Total	156	100,0

Table 4.26
Impact of supervision on teachers

Supervision		Frequency	Percent
Valid	∅	142	91,0
	Small impact	4	2,6
	Large impact	10	6,4
	Total	156	100,0

4.2.7. Teachers' Involvement in Curriculum Development

When asked whether teachers should be involved in curriculum development or not, 148 (94.9%) teachers answers were confirmative. Yet, eight (5.1%) participants stated that teachers should not be involved in the developmental process of curriculum. Participants who were for the argument of teachers' involvement reported that teachers' involvement in curriculum development will ensure curriculum ownership (80.1%); teachers' commitment (65.4%) as well as teacher's professional development (TPD) (51.3%). Nonetheless, no participant reported that such an involvement will bridge the gap between teachers and curriculum specialists (table 4.27 and table 4.28).

Table 4.27
Teachers views on the idea of their involvement in curriculum development

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	8	5,1	5,1	5,1
	Yes	148	94,9	94,9	100,0
	Total	156	100,0	100,0	

Table 4.28
Benefits of teachers involvement in curriculum development

Ownership			PD			Commitment		
Frequency		Percent	Frequency		Percent	Frequency		Percent
No	31	19,9	No	76	48,7	No	54	34,6
Yes	125	80,1	Yes	80	51,3	Yes	102	65,4
	156	100,0		156	100,0		156	100,0

Table 4.29 below show that six teachers who were against the argument of involving teachers in curriculum development reported that teachers are limited in terms of time (3.8%) and four reported that the involvement of teachers in curriculum development is not feasible due to the lack of teachers' training (2.6%).

Table 4.29
Reasons to teachers' non-involvement in curriculum development

Limited time		Frequency	Percent	Limited training		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	150	96,2	Valid	No	152	97,4
	Yes	6	3,8		Yes	4	2,6
	Total	156	100,0		Total	156	100,0

Teachers' responses to the question on whether every teacher fit to be involved in the curriculum development process received a 100% definite no from all the participants as table 4.30 displays. All participants (100%) believe that for such an end to be achieved an adequate teacher training is imperative (see table 4.31 below). Also, nine teachers (5.8%) reported that besides teachers' limited training, teachers lack time. No other barriers were reported by the participants for this question.

Table 4.30
Teachers' suitability to be involved in curriculum development

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	156	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 4.31
Boundaries to teachers' suitability to be involved in curriculum development

Limited time		Frequency	Percent	**Limited training**		Frequency	Percent
Valid	No	147	94,2	Valid			
	Yes	9	5,8		Yes	156	100,0
	Total	156	100,0				

To understand better how the process of curriculum development on Sétif grounds runs, the last question of the questionnaire aimed to investigate the exact roles that teachers were playing in the change process. Table 4.32 highlighted that teachers' roles entailed mostly putting into practice the official prescribed curriculum where they collaborate with colleagues to teach certain topics. Two participants did organize school based training workshops; these were the form teachers. Two teachers were trainers who did organize training for student teachers and 20 (12.28%) participants took part in marking national examination papers.

Table 4.32
Types of teachers' roles in curriculum development

Teachers' Roles	**Yes / %**
Work with CD teams to compose textbooks for secondary school level	**00 - 00**
Evaluate textbooks	**00 - 00**
Align content of curriculum with learners' needs in the classroom	**00 - 00**
Organize school based workshops	**02 - 1.28%**
Organize training for teachers	**02 - 1.28%**
Help teachers on how to teach some topics	**156 - 100%**
Mark national examination	**20 - 12.82%**

In the space provided for further comments and suggestions, 11 remarks were recorded. One teacher stated, *'the national educational system will go right once decisions will be taken by the base (teachers)'*. In the same respect, another teacher reported *'for our educational reforms to be successful; we need both top-down and bottom-up approaches to curriculum development'*. Both applied linguists and teachers have to cooperate in curriculum development, according to that participant. When commenting on the inhibiting factors to curriculum implementation, four teachers reported that *'the authorities must provide the basic working conditions before thinking about change'*; *'there is a serious lack of materials in Algeria'*; *'some teachers as well as some pupils are not prepared for the reforms'*; and *'the level of pupils is low'*.

Commenting on the statement whether the actual curriculum considers teachers' and learners' society and culture, one teacher stated:

> 'I can say that curriculum reforms do not take into account the regional differences and the specificities of our country. The textbook is based mainly on the culture of the northern and centre cities whereas the southern cities are nearly ignored. I remember, I was teaching a text about lifestyles, and I came across an idea that my students and I found very weird. In Algiers they eat masfouf with peas. It was very difficult to explain this cultural difference to my teenagers'.

The same teacher further added, *'I strongly emphasis involving the teacher the core element in the educational process in any attempt to reforming the curriculum'*. Still talking about the textbook, another teacher complained, *'the textbook is most of the time irrelevant to the curriculum'*. When considering the key role teacher training plays in delivering successful curriculum implementation, one teacher commented, *'we need a lot of training about the competency based approach and continuous assessment'*; another teacher added *'seminars organized by inspectors are always theoretical'*. The last teacher suggested that *'freedom should be given only to teachers who produce'*.

4.3. Report and Analysis of the Interview

This section will present the data and its analysis gathered through the asynchronous interviews conducted with the five National Education inspectors (secondary school level).

The section will start first by providing basic demographic information about the interviewees. The focus of the interview was an exploration of the views and experiences of the inspectors regarding the curriculum 2003 and its implementation at the grassroots level. To explore these views and experiences, a number of major themes were identified from the literature review and were already set out in the interview protocol.

The mode of data analysis inferred through the views and experiences of the participants was qualitative to understand the process of educational change management in Algeria. The process of analysis was built upon the techniques of thematic analysis: familiarization with the data; coding; searching for themes; reviewing themes; defining and naming themes; and producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The analysis started therefore with the repeated readings of the interviews transcripts to get an overall sense of the data, to be categorized subsequently into different themes.

The transcripts were then read and coded. The next step was to list the codes and to scrutinize the meanings of these codes and their relevance for the research. As a result, some of the codes, which were similar in meaning, were combined and some codes not relevant to the research, for example, comments on teachers, were discarded. The selected codes became the categories to organize the data (see table 4.33 below). No emergent categories around the themes explored through the interviews were recorded.

Table 4.33
Thematic analysis

Global Theme	Inspectors' views and experiences		
Organising Themes	**The enacted curriculum (C2003)**	**The implemented C2003**	**Teacher education**
Codes	-Rationale for C2003 -Cultural relevance and practical feasibility of C2003 - C2003 dissemination strategies	-Teachers' receptivity to C2003 -Teachers' marginalization -Assessment	-Training -TPD and Action Research

In practice, the qualitative data of the interview was analysed manually. The process of coding, re-coding, categorizing and grouping the categories into themes was inductive as codes and categories had emerged from the data. The allocated identity of the respondents was in the form of a specific number for every inspector respondent (denoted as IN1, IN2, IN3, IN4, and IN5). After the data was organized under categories within the supreme themes, a comprehensive and representative summary of all evolving issues was developed for each

category. This section presents the data analysis in the form of these summaries along with illustrative quotes with allocated identifiers from the data.

4.3.1. Basic Demographic Information on Interviewees

Table 4.34 below displays the five interviewees' demographic information based on their gender, qualification, and job category before, during, and after the curriculum reform of 2003. The five inspectors worked in the public education sector as inspectors during the year 2015. Four inspectors (except IN2) were basically teachers with significant experience and were all together (the time of collecting data) responsible for the supervision of schools at seven different provinces: Algiers, Béjaia, Boumèrdès, Médéa, Sétif, Tipaza, and Tizi-Ouzou.

Table 4.34
Interviewees' demographic information

Inspector	Gender	Qualification	Before 2003	In 2003	From 2003 to 2015
IN1	Female	License Degree	PES teacher	PES teacher	Inspector since 2009
IN2	Male	License Degree	Inspector	Inspector	Inspector
IN3	Male	License Degree	PES teacher	PES teacher	Inspector since 2009
IN4	Male	Magister Degree	PES teacher	PES teacher	Inspector since 2008 Textbooks co-author and proof reader
IN5	Male	License Degree	PES teacher	PES teacher	Inspector since 2011

4.3.2. The Intended Curriculum

The first section of the interview which was about the intended curriculum embodied questions relevant to the rationale, cultural relevance and practical feasibility of the curriculum; and curriculum dissemination strategies. Inspectors reported that there is a significant difference between the Curriculum 2003 and the previous one. According to them, the Curriculum 2003 explicitly lists the goals and objectives of English language teaching; provides information about the CBA; and lists the content to be taught as well as the teaching strategies and methods.

IN1 reported that the *'curriculum of 2003 contains a considerable amount of information'*. IN2 stated that *'all experiences that affect the learner inside and outside the classroom are included in the curriculum of the year 2003'*. Nevertheless, all inspectors were affirming many times that teachers do not read the curriculum and rely instead totally on

textbooks. IN5 specified that *'when it comes to implementation, many novice teachers resort to the textbook'*.

Another basic difference reported by inspectors was about the structure of the language. Grammar, according to inspectors, is no longer taught as an end but as a means and the finality is productive communication. Inspectors reported that the curriculum became learner-centred rather than teacher-centred, where learners are encouraged to be active participants in the learning process. Teachers on the other hand are required to focus on competencies, support project-based approach, integrate group work, and use ICTs and different types of assessment in class, they further indicated. *'The general objectives, the teaching approach and content themes are the basic aspects of the curriculum that have undergone change'*, IN4 specified. Unlike the previous curriculum, Curriculum 2003, according to IN5, *'aims at getting learners and teachers out of classroom practice to act in society as social agents'*.

Though analyses of teachers and learners needs are vital for a rigorous educational programme, interviewees of the present study stated that no needs analyses were carried out prior to launching Curriculum 2003. The only perceived demand for change was, according to them, to meet the needs of the 21st century. This evidence was indeed uncovered in Chapter 1.

> 'The changes that occurred in 2003 were due to the fact that the Algerian society needed to integrate into the modern world. Learners today do not learn English for educational purposes only, to communicate and interact with people all over the world became a necessity', IN1 stressed.

'It was a legitimate right of the nation to cope positively with the tremendous change brought by globalization and the free market. So, it was a necessity to prepare good citizens for all challenges', IN2 highlighted.

Inspectors showed different views as regards the relevance of the curriculum to the Algerian teaching context. IN1 stated:

> 'Yes, the curriculum is relevant. Algeria is part of the world and we do not live alone. There are certainly certain fundamental features that distinguish Algeria like our religion, traditions, language, citizenship,

and values which, and these are already included and taken into account in the curriculum'.

IN2 did not see any irrelevance of the curriculum to the country's context. Still, IN3 claimed that the curriculum is not relevant since it does not reflect matters that concern the Algerian society. IN4 argued that *the curriculum has a universal dimension, and thus it can also fit any region in the country'*. IN5 was hesitant in his answer and his reply was: *'probably, yes'*.

When asked whether the Algerian curriculum gets the nation anywhere in terms of learners' and teachers' needs, IN1 and IN2 indicated that if well understood and implemented in accordance with the guidelines it will get the nation anywhere. IN5 argued that this fact requires a parallel training for both teachers and supervisors. According to IN4, the curriculum gets the nationwide, yet some parts of its content need to be adjusted to teachers' and learners' needs. IN3 totally disagree with the other inspectors and believe that the curriculum 2003 cannot cater for Algerian teachers' and learners' needs as long as it is irrelevant to the local context.

Inspectors' answers about the compatibility of the textbooks with the curriculum objectives revealed that three out of five inspectors believe that textbooks are mostly not in line with the curriculum in terms of objectives and content of teaching. IN2 believes that the textbooks contents and methodology need to be reviewed to be compatible with the curriculum philosophy. IN4 thinks that only secondary school textbook year one is compatible with the curriculum goals, the two other textbooks are not according to him. IN3 stated that textbooks are not coherent with curriculum aims. Nevertheless, IN1 and IN5 were with the argument that there is compatibility between textbooks and curriculum intents.

When asked whether teachers have a clear understanding of the curriculum, only IN5 believes they do. IN1 emphasized that for a better understanding of the curriculum, teachers need to take the time to read it. According to this inspector, teachers do not read the curriculum. IN2, IN3, and IN4 stated that most teachers do not really have a sufficient depth understanding of the curriculum. This latter fact, according to those inspectors, will affect negatively teachers' engagement and enthusiasm. Moreover, implementation will not attain its desired outcomes, the inspectors further added.

Inspectors' answers to the interview questions about curriculum dissemination strategies showed that the curriculum was communicated to teachers through two main ways: the administration and inspectors. The cascade training model was also a major means for disseminating information. *'The in-service training sessions were major means for disseminating the information during the implementation stage'*, IN5 highlighted. The teachers were provided with textbooks, the teacher's guide, the curriculum, the supporting documents which explain the curriculum, and the Algerian English framework. Besides, inspectors clarified that teachers are always encouraged to select any supplementary materials that can help them in their teaching.

Inspectors' answers to the last question of the interview's first section indicated that there was a surface but not a deep change brought by the curriculum 2003. IN1 claimed, *'the change was very superficial'*. According to IN3, there was little change and the reform was a failure. IN2 argued:

> 'From the outset, the reform was conducted in a top-down process and
> hastily; the main stakeholders were marginalized. This was against the
> philosophy of the approach itself. The latter approach recommends the
> participation of all the stakeholders (decision-makers, parents,
> teachers and learners).... Teachers and learners, in secondary schools,
> were not well prepared and trained to implement the new approach'.

IN3 argued, *'the problem is not with the curriculum but it is with the society which has a tendency not to accept foreign languages'*. According to IN4 and IN5, the change was superficial since both teachers and learners are usually, in their views, reluctant to embrace educational reforms.

4.3.3. The Implemented Curriculum

The second section of the interview pointed to reveal the extent of teachers' receptivity to the curriculum reform of 2003 and their marginalization in the process from the inspectors' lenses. According to all the inspectors, resistance to C2003 reform was an inherent aspect during the implementation process. IN1 contended that embracing the reform spirit was not an easy matter, *'teachers were reluctant; they felt comfortable in what they were doing before 2003'*. Resistance, according to IN1, was due to the fact that *'teachers were not prepared and did not take the time to read and understand the official documents'*.

IN2 argued that embracing the reform spirit resulted in a total failure, *'learners cannot simply be the centre of the learning processes'*, IN2 specified. IN3 stated that, *'teachers adopted the curriculum laboriously and are up to now encountering difficulties'*. According to IN4, even learners were resistant to the new tendency. As to IN5, this latter claimed that novice teachers were not resistant, and that *'old teachers have a tendency of a built in refusal to any change'*.

As regards the challenges that teachers face when implementing the reform, the interviewees aired some of the curriculum, instructional and institutional factors. The curriculum factors included the non-clarity of the reform. Moreover, IN2 stated that *'some (textbooks) themes are not compatible with the CBA approach; they are to some extent not relevant to the Algerian context, and thus do not interest pupils'*. The instructional factors reported by the inspectors included teachers' attachment to old practice; inadequate knowledge of subject matter, CBA, and learner assessment; lack of teachers' motivation and commitment; lack of learners' interest and lack of conduct of classroom research. IN5 indicated that *'teachers do not take risks to make their own decisions about their classes needs and expectations'*. As regards the institutional factors, the inspectors highlighted large classes' size and the lack of school teaching supplies (computer labs and internet).

When questioned about whether teachers are allowed to participate in curriculum development, four inspectors' answers were negative. IN2 stated that *'few teachers participated in the preparation of textbooks contents with no prior probation and feedback later (after their participation)'*. Teachers are not allowed to participate. IN1 thinks that *'teachers are automatically involved in the evaluation of textbooks through their class practices'*. *'The teacher is the most important element in the whole process of reform'*, IN3 added.

> 'Teachers must be involved in the process of curriculum development because they are on the grounds and can detect any problem during the implementation stage. Teachers must be given a complete opportunity to decide about what learners should know and be able to do', IN2 emphasized.

Question fourteen, in the second part of the interview, sought to reveal whether the national curriculum actually empowers or limits teachers' decision-making freedom. Inspectors' responses showed that though teachers are expected to adhere so strictly to the

national curriculum, they are also allowed to select, adapt, reject and use extra materials at the classroom level. *'The curriculum is limiting teachers' decision-making freedom as regards themes and topics, yet, teachers can adopt some texts as long as these texts allow the achievement of the set goals'*, IN2 declared. IN4 and IN5 were convinced that we cannot say whether the curriculum is empowering or limiting teachers' instructional freedom given that the teachers are *'slaves to textbooks'*, IN5 clarified.

The last question of the second section of the interview sought to check the existence of backwash effects of national examination. IN1 stated, *'we are actually testing only the interpretive and productive competences. The interactive competence is not taken into consideration'*. According to this inspector, the BAC exam should be reviewed and updated. According to IN2 and IN3, the national test tests what it is supposed to test, yet, the oral aspect is always ignored. IN4 claimed, *'most of the time teachers focus on grammar just in order to prepare their students for the test (especially secondary school year three)'*. He added, *'learners do not learn English for English's sake; they learn it as a subject among many others. Their main motive is to get good marks'*.

IN5 shared the same views of the other inspectors. He claimed:

> 'The national test rather focuses on the knowledge of the language at the expense of the communicative competence of the learners. Some teachers prepare their learners for the tests only. This type of test turned learners to marks seekers'.

4.3.4. Teacher Education

The third and last section of the interview aimed to describe the policies, procedures, and provision designed to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills required for them to perform their teaching job effectively. Inspectors explained that prospective teachers go through a probation period in which they follow theoretical lessons comprising various modules and practice in class. Once they become trainees, they attend training sessions with their supervisors. The structure of the training takes the form of different activities, including seminars, demonstration classes, debates about lessons, workshops followed by teachers' presentations and inspectors' feedback, collaborative works, and observation sessions. Teachers are trained by inspectors and some experienced teachers, and supervisors are trained by lecturers from local and foreign universities.

Inspectors' responses revealed that no analyses about teachers' responses to training were carried out. Trainers will therefore not ensure that teachers receive sufficient training to teach the programme. This truth was confirmed by inspectors' replies. IN1 stated, *'we never know whether the training is helpful for teachers to understand and implement the curriculum'*. According to this inspector, however, this fact depends on teachers' commitment, *'some teachers are really willing to learn even if they receive little training'*, he further added. According to IN2, the training will not help teachers *'unless it is practical (delivered in classes)'*. Moreover, in order to get an efficient implementation of the curriculum, *'the training should be teacher-centered, not theoretical'*, IN3 added.

Inspectors' answers showed that learning is not running properly in rural schools. Those schools are progressing less than expected because the learning process is disturbed by the lack of teachers, facilities, and coordination. The learning process in some schools was also affected by strikes actions, what IN4 called *'instability'*. *'It is neither the reform nor the curriculum that are behind the less progress of some schools, but other factors that relate to institutions, teachers, learners, etc.'*, IN4 further added.

Inspectors' answers showed also that novice teachers (four inspectors were cited) and experienced ones (two inspectors were cited) are progressing less than the others. According to the five inspectors, novice teachers often have problems implementing the curriculum in their classrooms due to many elements (lack of knowledge, experience, skills) that affect the general direction of the lesson. Experienced teachers, on the other hand, have well-established routines that they can call upon when teaching. Experienced teachers will automatically resist any change that might threaten their zone of comfort, and thus, they will progress less than the others according to the inspectors.

In order to accelerate teachers to expert levels, IN1 recommended personal growth and development as a critical component that all teachers should embrace in order to maximize their potentials. IN2 suggested that training courses should be organized with the participation of foreign experts and cited Algerian English Language Teachers' Professional Network (AELTPN) workshops as good examples of practice. IN3 advised long periods for training (including summer, winter, and spring holidays) and participation of teachers. The inspector stated, *'trainees have to be considered as partners and not as passive recipients'*. IN4 and IN5 called for collaboration between schools, universities and ENSs; and the organization of seminars on materials design.

Although inspectors' responses indicated that there is no system or process in place for systematic teacher professional development, inspectors do encourage teachers professional development and acknowledge its benefits. Inspectors also confirmed that some teachers carry out small-scale classroom research individually as well as in groups to achieve best practice of the curriculum and they encourage these practices. Nevertheless, IN3 stated that not many teachers conduct classroom research due to lack of motivation from their parts and large classes' size.

4.4. Comparison and Integration of the Questionnaire and Interview Data

In this section data from the questionnaire with teachers and interviews with inspectors will be compared and integrated in order to establish reliability and validity of the entire research findings and how these relate to the main research problem. For the sake of clarity, the various questions of the questionnaire and interview were divided into themes and relevant data collected from both instruments was discussed under each theme.

4.4.1. Participants' Views on the Broader Process of Curriculum Development

Data collected from the questionnaire and interview showed that teachers and inspectors expressed different views with regard to the curriculum reform process. Teachers' attitudes on the curriculum and textbooks were mostly negative. Teachers believe that the curriculum pedagogical goals are not explicitly listed and that its methodological guidelines are not helpful for their teaching. The problem related to resources (workbooks and other methodological means) was also a focused concern of teachers. Additionally, the suitability of the curriculum reform to the teaching and learning context in the schools under study was questionable. Most teachers felt that the curriculum was unsuitable. Moreover, teachers specified that their autonomy in both instrumental and educational decision-making is restricted.

Inspectors' views differed markedly from teachers' perspectives on curriculum change. Inspectors trust that the curriculum is context-relevant under some conditions. They also believe that the curriculum explicitly lists the goals and objectives of the English language teaching course; provides information about the CBA; and lists the content to be taught as well as the teaching strategies and methods. The teachers were provided with textbooks, the teacher's guide, the curriculum, the supporting documents which explain the curriculum, and the Algerian English framework. According to inspectors, these documents

170

are deemed good enough for teachers to understand and implement the curriculum. Besides, inspectors clarified that teachers are always encouraged to use any extra materials in their implementation. Inspectors also aired another concern, which was the misunderstanding of the curriculum. The inspectors held teachers liable for this fact.

As regards textbooks, data collected from the questionnaire showed that teachers' reliance on textbooks differed almost equally between those who depend on textbooks as an approved major source for their input, and those who view textbooks as only one of several tools. Results showed also that novice teachers over rely on textbooks and consequently might not consider other aids. This latter evidence echoed with inspectors perspectives, where data collected from the interview revealed that novice teachers (four inspectors were cited) were advancing less than their experienced counterparts (two inspectors were cited). One inspector termed teachers who over rely on textbooks *'slaves'*. Another inspector stated,

> 'When it comes to implementation, many novice teachers resort to the
> textbook. It is high time to urge all of them to read the curriculum to
> make the best of it and use supplementary materials to implement the
> curriculum efficiently and effectively' (IN5).

Curriculum implementation had therefore difficulty progressing between the novice and experienced teachers. Nonetheless, the bulk of teachers, novice and experienced, believe that textbooks are overloaded and their contents do not match with the curriculum objectives. Three inspectors shared this concern too. The majority of teachers also believe that the contents are neither well graded nor appropriate to learners. Though they seemed to hold secondary school textbooks in high regard with respect to the accuracy and up-to-datedness of the information these latter provide; organization and style, and physical features stood out as areas where textbooks were rated low by teachers.

4.4.2. Participants' Implementation of the Curriculum

Data collection from the questionnaire showed that classroom level implementation was sometimes easy and other times difficult for teachers. Most teachers reported that it might take them from one to three years to be capable to implement the curriculum confidently. It is worth mentioning that the curriculum change was in line with global changes that make learners at the centre of learning. However, inspectors reported that teachers resisted the change. The problem does not seem to be with the curriculum per se, but with many factors,

reported by both teachers and inspectors, that might affect teachers to resist change. The challenges faced by teachers in the implementation of the reform were mainly grouped around four themes: curriculum, instructional, organizational, and institutional factors.

As regards the curriculum factors, teachers reported that the reform was imported, unplanned, and unclear. The other main factor that hindered the successful implementation of the change identified by teachers was their non-involvement in the process of planning and policy formulation of the curriculum. The instructional factors included lack of conduct of classroom research; poor exposure to new teaching trends; lack of knowledge of subject matter, methods, and assessment; lack of teachers' motivation, incentives and rewards; lack of training; lack of professional development; lack of learners' interest; examination dominated teaching; and mismatch between teachers' beliefs and curriculum goals. Nevertheless, most teachers reported that attachment to old practice is not one of the instructional inhibiting factors to effective curriculum implementation.

One inspector held contradictory beliefs as regards the issue of teachers' attachment to old practice. According to that inspector, teachers' (experienced ones) continued usage of old methods is an obstacle to effective curriculum implementation. Inspectors also raised the issues of lack of conduct of classroom research; teachers' inadequate knowledge of subject matter, CBA and learner assessment; lack of teachers' motivation and commitment; and lack of learners' interest which were in line with what teachers reported. Inspectors also highlighted that examinations do not test what they are purported to test (four inspectors were cited) and shapes at the same times the content of the curriculum. Teaching is therefore geared to prepare learners for the test than to teach the curriculum (two inspectors were cited).

Teachers experienced similarities regarding the organizational factors. Top on the list of these were cited the lack of communication between teachers, inspectors and principals; and the influence of bureaucracy on teachers' commitment. Lack of coordination and the absence of a supportive mechanism were also estimated as challenges for teachers. Moreover, most teachers expressed their misgivings about the institutional factors and their concerns included scarcity of resources and school supplies; short teaching time and large class size; lack of support for teachers' initiatives; and lack of parental support. Likewise, inspectors highlighted the issue of large classes' size and lack of school teaching supplies (computer labs and the internet). According to inspectors, learning was not running properly in rural schools. Those schools were affected by the lack of teachers, facilities, coordination, and strikes.

Teachers recognized some of the factors that fostered their readiness for implementation and encouraged them to cope with the demands of the reform. Teachers acknowledged peer and inspectors support; their own use of extra materials; and their collaboration with colleagues and classroom research. Still, teachers were blamed for the failure of reform (two inspectors were cited). According to inspectors Curriculum 2003 has not articulated any deep change. Learners, society, the non-involvement of teachers in the curriculum reform as well as the lack of teachers' preparedness were all quoted as reasons for the reform's failure.

4.4.3. System's Approach to Teacher Training

Data collected from the questionnaire showed that teachers are officially trained by their inspectors two times during the whole school year. The training events, which were available for teachers to attend, included plenary sessions, conferences and seminars, pedagogical workshops, collaborative classroom research and observation, examples of good practices, and supervisory training practices. Some teachers resorted to e-Learning resources to improve their educational quality. Other teachers participated in teacher professional development networks to connect with colleagues across the country and boost their professional development.

Teachers showed concerns towards the quality of the trainings they attended. Though classroom research, supervisory training practices, e-Learning resources, and teachers' participation in TPD networks impacted teachers' pedagogical qualification largely; the rest of the listed training events remained limited, not to say non-effective. Although no feedback surveys were conducted to uncover teachers' dissatisfaction; inspectors had also asserted their implicit dissatisfaction with the types of trainings offered to teachers (three were cited). Inspectors recommended that the small time period provided for teacher's training should be extended; and that the process of the training should be collaborative, including teachers, inspectors, ENSs and foreign experts. One inspector recommended that training should stop being theoretical, a fact that was in line with most teachers' believes about the nature of training events.

4.4.4. Participants' Roles in Curriculum development

Participants in this study were never involved in the process of curriculum development and inspectors confirmed this evidence. Results from the questionnaire pointed

out that teachers' roles entailed mostly applying the developed curriculum. Though this role is significant in the application phase of the curriculum development process; in this role teachers have the minimum of responsibility and involvement in the whole process. For sure, not any teacher can be involved in the process of curriculum development. Participants recognized this fact. An effective and functional involvement requires professionally trained and committed teachers. Further, participants of the present study showed high awareness of the benefits of teacher involvement in curriculum development, namely curriculum ownership, commitment and professional development.

4.5. Conclusion

The use of both the questionnaire and interview for this study proved to be very useful for providing insights into teachers' views about the issue of curriculum development and their marginalization in such a process. The above discussion highlighted many perceived hurdles towards a successful curriculum development and a subsequent involvement of teachers in the whole process. The above discussed findings from both the questionnaire and interview call for a thorough look into the realities of curriculum development processes and the challenges teachers face when implementing the curriculum. The challenge is to attempt to change the current status quo of having teachers at the receiving end of curriculum decisions, towards making them equal and valuable cohorts in curriculum development. In the next and last chapter the researcher will consider ways and strategies that should be considered towards the eradication of impediments to a meaningful teacher involvement in curriculum development.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is a reflection on the overall thesis and highlights the main points of the present study. The main focus of the chapter is to bring together findings from the data analysis presented in Chapter 4 to answer the research questions set forth in the General Introduction. The chapter also discusses the contributions of this work to the knowledge base related to teacher involvement in curriculum development, at the secondary school level, for English language teachers in Algeria; along with some implications for theory, methodology, practice, policy makers, and the impact of the whole research process on the present researcher's professional development. The chapter then points out the possible weaknesses of the study. After that, recommendations will be made in terms of a model for teacher involvement in curriculum development. The chapter then concludes with an identification of some suggested areas for further work. To start with, a brief evaluation of the findings related to the research questions is presented below:

5. 1. Revisiting the Research Questions

The first research question of this study was: *What are secondary school English language teachers' views on Curriculum 2003 reform?*. Results showed that attitudes towards the reform varied among the participants of the study. Inspectors had more positive attitudes towards the reform than teachers. Data indicated that most teachers were unenthusiastic about the reform. Indeed, teachers' lack of awareness, knowledge and understanding of the curriculum pedagogical goals was limited and led to misconception and confusion. This latter fact might eventually threaten the teachers' ability to maximize implementation potential.

Unlike inspectors, teachers believed they lacked the appropriate resources as well. The official documents the inspectors talked about (see Chapter 4, section 4.4.1) were phrased in terms of what the proposed curriculum required and expected of teachers. However, it is what teachers and learners do in the classroom that determines what a curriculum reform will achieve in any setting. Equally, even if change is received well, there is no guarantee that it would be implemented successfully and result in the intended outcomes because of the gaps between policy and practice (Hopkins, 1994). Moreover, most teachers commented that the curriculum was irrelevant to the social and cultural circumstances of the Algerian context. Undeniably, if the reform is not relevant to the teachers, its sustainability is questionable.

Thus, it is concluded that the implementation of the reform was not harmonious and failed to meet the expectations of the key participants, the teachers.

Despite the varied degree of reliance on school textbooks between experienced teachers, who use textbooks as just one tool; and novice teachers, who over rely-on textbooks and may not consider other aids or material; overall results showed that there was an underlying negativity that expressed itself repeatedly as regards school textbooks. Generally speaking, the perspectives of teachers with regards to textbooks contents, organization and style, and physical features were negative. Nevertheless, it is difficult to find out how teachers use textbooks without actually observing them do so. By the same token, it is easy to deduce that the strict control of textbooks by the government is one of the reasons why some teachers tend to follow the textbooks closely.

The second research questions was: *What factors inhibit or enhance teachers' ability and/or desire to implement the Curriculum 2003 reform?*. Curriculum implementation on Sétif grounds was not an easy matter for teachers and had been bedeviled with numerous challenges. Teachers identified different factors, which posed challenge to them in the process of adopting the spirit of change and seeking to achieve the objectives of the reform. These constraints included curriculum, instructional, organizational, and institutional issues. From the findings it was concluded that the implementation of the curriculum was done without clear plan, direction and scope; and depended mainly on directives. When the implementation stage is not well planned and structured, it may result in unexpected outcomes and even in strong resistance to policies (Dyer, 1999). The curriculum implementation was a top-down business indicating that the reform was initiated at some distance from the context and excluded teachers.

Likewise, there was a perceived lack of conduct of teacher classroom research; poor exposure to new teaching trends; and lack of skills and understanding on the part of teachers. Lack of teachers' motivation, incentives and rewards also figured strongly when considering instructional factors that constrained teachers' effective implementation. Negative feelings and lack of profound understanding resulting from the reform was aggravated by a lack of ongoing professional development and training that would ensure that teachers understood what was required of them. Teachers were rushed during the orientation to comprehend the curriculum which they were then expected to implement in their classes. This fact resulted in incongruence between their beliefs and curriculum goals. The findings had also highlighted

176

the mismatch between the curriculum that aimed to ensure a learner-centred model and the examinations that focused on teaching discrete skills as well as learners' lack of interest in the course.

The hierarchical set of the curriculum development process was intensified by a lack of communication between teachers, inspectors and principles. The influence of bureaucracy, which was indicated by teachers, made it difficult to instigate an immediate and appropriate change on the grounds. Teachers rated many constraints, which described their isolation since they work independently with no coordination with and encouragement from the system. Teachers complained about the lack of school facilities and resources. If teachers, for instance, want to execute their own activities which they believe are suitable for a given lesson, and they are encouraged to do so, the lack of facilities may deter them to effect what they want to do. The teaching time also surfaced as one of the main institutional constraints. Managing a learner-centred classroom and performing all the tasks required obviously need sufficient time. Moreover, extra-large classes' size made the change hard to achieve.

Though teachers individual efforts, peer support and supervision by inspectors was considered as an effective factor for sustaining interest in the continuing implementation of the curriculum change; the lack of support for teachers' initiatives, as indicated by the research findings, will leave teachers frustrated and unsure of their technical abilities and effectiveness. Further, teachers indicated no parental support in the curriculum implementation process. Teachers concerns go deeper than the surface problems of the context. The situation seems symbolic of a lack of commitment from the reform policy, and teachers are affected by this. Moreover, this situation illustrates neglect at the pre-implementation stage of the curriculum change process to carry out a thorough and effective account about the critical components of the curriculum change, school environment and internal and external resources.

The research findings (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.4) indicated that there was no initial inquiry about what teachers did know in order to establish what needed to be developed and what needed to be kept in place in the curriculum. From the findings about teachers' perceptions on the training events afforded for them, it was concluded that the dissemination strategies of the reform were not effective in the knowledge building of the teachers and brought low impact. The training events focused on theories more than practice and did not involve the teachers in the preparation of the training materials. The training was transmissive

and teaching behavior was modeled through a series of hierarchical levels via a top-down process. This indicates a breakdown between the reform creators in their aims and the actual implementation of these reforms.

In the absence of adequate teacher training and support during the implementation stage, teachers may rely on their prior beliefs and experiences in interpreting the enacted curriculum. This will ultimately contribute to the discrepancy between what the curriculum aims to achieve and what actually happens in the classroom. It is therefore the responsibility of teacher training and development programs to provide teachers with opportunities to redirect their beliefs and reflect upon their classroom practices, so that maximum targeted reforms can be implemented.

The third research question was: *How does Curriculum 2003 reform marginalize teachers?*. The research findings showed that although teachers are widely recognized as the real driving force in educational reforms, the Algerian government is not acting accordingly. Teachers are marginalized and as a consequence disempowered by the Algerian reforms. Though their engagement is vital in the implementation of a successful reform, the research findings indicated that teachers were never consulted in designing and planning the reform. They held no responsibility other than teaching their classes. Yet, it appears that teachers had created informal means of supporting one another through the implementation process. This was through the cooperation of different teachers. Teachers cannot be taken for granted or viewed simply as technicians who loyally realize a developed curriculum in accordance with the directives of a top-down authority. Teachers are supposed to be active and autonomous participants in the creation of classroom initiatives acting of course in light of their own concerns and perceptions of the relevant teaching situation.

The fourth research question was: *is every teacher fit to be involved in the curriculum development process?*. Research findings indicated that the participants were aware that not every teacher fit to be involved in the curriculum development process. Successful curriculum development involving teachers from the design to the implementation process requires early and adequate teacher education. The training events need to stop being theoretical and start giving teachers new skills, attitudes and knowledge they need to design then implement change. Additionally, the training events need to expose the teachers to the knowledge of the design, dissemination, implementation and evaluation of curriculum. Inspectors recommended teacher professional growth and development, long training sessions, and collaboration between the different stakeholders with participation of teachers.

The last research question was: *What is the best balance of government and teachers' roles and responsibilities in curriculum development to improve curriculum?*. The general conclusion that the researcher draws from the overall research findings of the present thesis suggests that Algeria has a long way to go to sustain the intended educational change. The findings portrayed the domination, power, and authority of the central government. Nevertheless, the process of educational change is also influenced by a number of other factors. To achieve the best balance of government and teachers' roles and responsibilities in curriculum development to improve curriculum; teachers, school staff and government structures are expected to collaborate in curriculum policy making in order for reforms to become effective.

The participation of teachers is advocated because it has been realized throughout history (literature) that these are the people who are the recipients and are always interacting with the curriculum. As such, excluding them from participation in such process in unfair. Furthermore, getting teachers involved in the reform process together with an adequate teacher education equips the teachers with skills required for the change, and enables them to apply the change to local circumstances. Regarding the government structures, these have vital role in disseminating and implementing the reform agenda and making better use of human and physical resources. In short, consorting with stakeholders allows the creation of multi-stakeholder dialogue that leads to achieving intended goals.

5. 2. Contribution

Although much has been written about educational change and reform elsewhere, the curriculum reform movement in Algeria is a relatively recent phenomenon with little systematic literature as yet. Hence, this study aims to bridge the gap in this knowledge by investigating the English language curriculum 2003 reform in the Algerian context represented in Sétif province. The researcher faced difficulty in this research to write about this system as a result of lacking local resources. This study contributes to the knowledge based on curriculum reform in Algeria in several ways including teachers' views on the broader process of curriculum development; teachers' implementation of the curriculum; system's approach to teacher education; and teachers' roles in the whole process of curriculum development. To the best knowledge of the researcher, no study has been conducted in the same area and context. It is hoped that this study provides researchers and

stakeholders with useful data and information about the secondary school education and curriculum reforms.

5. 3. Implications

The implications for curriculum development theory and practice in the Algerian context are developed in this study. The following subsections reveal the implications for theory, methodology, practice, policy makers and the career of the present researcher.

5. 3. 1. Implication for Theory

The study builds on the current literature that relates to educational change, specifically curriculum development and teachers involvement in it in foreign contexts. This is in order to place the local context within the global one. This study has illuminated practitioners (teachers) voices and experiences as well as some of their concerns from inspectors' lenses to be evident to other stakeholders. It is also useful to think about the implications of the findings of this study to examine if the results can be transferable or applicable to other provinces on the Algerian territory.

5. 3. 2. Implication for Methodology

In terms of the methodological contribution, the study was not limited to the involvement of English language teachers but it also involved national education inspectors both at the provincial and national level which helped in providing a wider insight to the investigation. The study was also not limited to one element of curriculum development such as teachers' views and perceptions but it covered other relevant elements as well.

5. 3. 3. Implication for Practice

The findings of this study are very important to shed light on the actual practices of secondary school English language teachers within the context of Algeria's education system. The link between research and practice is very important to develop effective educational change. The practical findings illuminate concerns and perceptions of the practitioners that could be useful to be presented and highlighted in the Algerian context. This might be helpful to the policy makers in Algeria. The participants harbored negative feelings about C2003 reform. These feelings along with the real challenges affecting their implementation negatively impact their involvement in and commitment to implementing reform. It would be useful if this could be considered when making decisions about future education reforms.

Considering the practitioners views is essential in any context intending to involve teachers in education reform leadership.

The major implication for practice is that power relations in the Algerian policy making need to be balanced between the parties concerned, herein the policy makers and implementers. In other words, it is likely that the highly centralized and bureaucratized Algeria government emphasizes democracy in the decision making and curricula development processes, and bring the voice of teachers, students, parents and other stakeholders. As a result, Algerian schools could use and produce citizens who are able to participate in the democratic process that, in turn, would affect the whole society.

5. 3. 4. Implication for Policy Makers

The interest of this study would reflect issues and experiences, which are important to be considered by policy makers to achieve the curriculum reform objectives. This study is important in terms of timing, as a new policy innovation scenario is on the way. This research provides therefore policy makers with insights into actual practice and real life context within Algerian secondary schools. It opens up a hitherto largely ignored, but fast developing field, of curriculum change and teachers involvement in it. It is hoped that it will encourage further national studies about the topic. In addition, this study highlighted some professional development needs for teachers, for example, providing teachers with adequate training to be able to deal with change and reduce resistance. Teachers' needs are therefore to be considered by policy makers in order to improve the whole education system.

5. 3. 5. Impact on the Present Researcher's Professional Development

The long journey of this research process has really been a mixture of learning, frustration and enjoyment. The process of carrying out the present research comprised a number of major stages which led to varied experiences. During the course of the research, the researcher benefited greatly from the experience of investigating this topic. This experience helped the researcher to learn more about the actual secondary school system, culture of schools, and practices which differ from those ones in the time of the researcher's schooling. The researcher has also gained much more knowledge in the field setting compared to the knowledge that she could gain when working as a university teacher. It was a great experience for the researcher, on the practical side, to step back from the current work environment for a while, to become a researcher and look at the system with a critical eye.

Finally, the researcher feels that she has improved herself academically and technically by broadening her knowledge in the area of research in general and the local context in particular.

5. 4. Possible Weaknesses of the Study

The researcher had desired that the study could have had a much wider impact than it did, in order to enhance the quality of the findings. However, after careful scrutiny of the entire research process several factors were subsequently identified that could be possible shortcomings to drawing more strong conclusions for this study. The findings drawn in this study were based mainly upon teachers' points of views. The researcher, apart from the five inspectors, wished to involve a large number of stakeholders in data collection for the study. A large number of education decision makers would have enhanced the scope of the research project and also its findings and recommendations. But, people of this kind were not available. Still, it was the researcher's view that it would have been useful for the purpose of the present study to engage teachers as main participants in the investigation where they could have reflected on the entire curriculum development process as well as their possible involvement in it. The aim was to elicit useful ideas for ensuring meaningful probable future teachers' involvement in such process.

5. 5. Recommendations

This study, in the opinion of the researcher, has provided valuable acumens into hurdles towards a meaningful and effective teacher involvement and participation in the curriculum development process. The findings of this research along with the literature and context discussed in Chapters 1 and 2 revealed the need to empower teachers on issues of curriculum decision making and development as well as provision of appropriate knowledge and skills. Further, the findings of the study raised a number of issues, which affected teachers and might eventually affect the entire education system. Nonetheless, the present study did not aim simply to portray teachers as victims of a highly centralized and undemocratic system. The study purported to alert both teachers and policy makers to consider seriously and acknowledge the delicate role and status that teachers should have and play in curriculum development. Based on the findings of this study, and following the order of themes as raised from the research instruments, the following recommendations can be made:

- Policy makers should no longer assume that curriculum reform is a process that translates directly into classroom reality. The design of policy alone cannot regulate what happens at the classroom level. Teachers are the ones who ultimately decide the fate of any reform when implementing it. Teachers' attitudes, feelings and perceptions should therefore not be diminished before the launching of any innovation. Lack of such consideration is likely to lead to discrepancy between the system and teachers' beliefs. Thus, it is the policy makers' job to identify, analyze and address any discrepancies between teachers' opinions and ideas offered for curriculum innovation.

- In order to change the attitudes of teachers towards reform in case of resistance, teachers need first to trust the education reform. Thus, for teachers to trust the reform, they must be included in its shaping so that they can personally invest in it.

- The process of curriculum dissemination cannot be done effectively through only directives and guidelines. Successful curriculum implementation requires passage from guidelines and seculars that are communicated to teachers to constant and democratic coordination and communication between all stakeholders before issuances of those directives. Moreover, official documents should be clear and comprehensive; curriculum aspects should be explicitly stated; and proper guidance should be included. To achieve clarity of the dissemination policy of the reform, the intended principles and guidelines need to be outlined to the concerned people at different levels.

- It is vital that an appropriate democratic environment and sufficient resources which support implementation of the curriculum are made available in schools. More extra resources and incentives need to be made available for teachers as well to inspire them to take ownership of the desired innovations.

- The curriculum should be constructed in light of the factors existing in Algeria and how these factors change, such as culture, religion, and the ideology of the nation.

- The Algerian administrative system should encourage teacher autonomy and individual initiatives as regards textbooks usage and implementation of reforms.

- Inspectors reported that some teachers tended to rely more on the textbooks than on the curriculum standard document in preparing their lessons. Awareness of the importance of referring to the curriculum standard document needs therefore to be urgently addressed and emphasized to the teachers. This is vital in ensuring that

teachers are not guided only by the textbook but that they are co-creating the curriculum with their colleagues.

- The challenges in introducing and implementing curriculum change should not be underestimated. Problems such as fallacy and misunderstanding of the curriculum, resistance to change, inadequate resources or insufficient time for teacher training should be anticipated in advance. Thus, policy makers have to acknowledge those challenges that generally dictate practice at ground level and the possibility of diverging from them. They have to make room for such complexities, so that strategies for tackling them can be formulated. This could be done within forums held for all stakeholders to express their ideas, frustrations and propositions for successful implementation. Likewise, a formal online platform where teachers can benefit from successful implementations of the curriculum as well as how they can solve the common problems faced will broaden the horizons of teachers.

- The ministry should ensure that the assessment corresponds with the emphasis of the curriculum so that its relevance will be made clear.

- Teachers' participation in curriculum development can bring positive results. Hence, this principle needs to be urgently endorsed in the system, so that teachers' professional status will not be placed in jeopardy.

- Findings revealed that the implementation of the curriculum was also problematic due to factors such as large classes, loaded textbooks' content, and time constraint, to name few. Therefore, it seems that more financial investment should be considered for the provision and successful implementation of the curriculum.

- Policy makers and inspectors should not assume that all teachers would be familiar with, or knowledgeable about the curriculum goals and objectives. A possible reason to explain the unfamiliarity with new curricula is that teachers have never a say in its development. Teachers' curriculum knowledge and skills need therefore to be frequently developed and updated to keep up with the latest teaching trends. Moreover, teachers in principle should be encouraged to develop curricula because they use them on a regular basis. They should be consulted because they are well aware of their learners' needs.

- The MEN and MESRS should think of creating a Master's degree in curriculum development studies for licensed student-teachers and experienced ones (see Figure 5.1 below) who are not seeking a new degree, but seeking to serve as curricular and

instructional leaders. The course will then allow teachers to apply the knowledge they acquire in order to enhance the curriculum development process within their schools in particular and the system in general. Expert teachers need then to be identified. The identification and selection of the expert teachers should be based on clear and objective criteria. Further, the criteria should be clarified and set in the legal means.

- The government should make curriculum studies, textbook evaluation, materials adaptation studies, and critical competences development important aspects of both the Master's degree course and in-service teacher education programmes (see Figure 5.1 below).

- The selected teachers should be involved and afforded the opportunity to interpret draft policy documents from the onset of any curriculum development before decisions are actually taken. Then those teachers will engage in curriculum development projects and activities. This could be realized by setting teacher curriculum working groups at school, provincial and national level. In this way, action research will be encouraged in schools.

- Direct prior consultation and needs analysis should form an important stage of any reform planning. Prior consultation will eradicate the assumption that policy makers are not in touch with classroom realities. This consultation would also ensure for the public that teacher involvement was incorporated in good time and thus gets the public support.

- The MESRS and MEN should ensure sufficient competent local and foreign curriculum advisors to supervise and facilitate the work of teacher curriculum development groups. The in-service training programmes should therefore train teachers to promote their autonomy in order to act responsibly to the needs of their learners (see Figure 5.1 below).

- Secondary schools will also need to reconsider issues of timetabling in such a way that provision will be made for professional and curriculum development activities.

- Currently, no formal feedback procedures are in place in the public secondary school education system. However, it may prove useful for inspectors to collect feedback from everyone involved in the implementation of the curriculum, namely teachers and learners. The feedback could measure whether the curriculum and materials are suitably challenging or not, and whether all valid comments and suggestions are implemented. Equally, policy makers must plan regular and proper evaluation of

policy reforms to measure actual implementation of the change through strategies such as action research.

− Policy makers, with or without the involvement of teachers in the process of curriculum development, should be comprehensive and concerned towards school level implementers. If things go wrong, the blame must be shared not thrown on one of the groups involved.

− Last but not least, a reward system should be considered for innovative teachers and those who are ready to do extra work hours to help in the curriculum development process.

5. 6. Model for Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development for Algeria

In order to make provision of the recommendations stated above, the researcher designed a model for teacher involvement in curriculum development for the Algerian context. A summary of the model is indicated in the schematic self-designed form below:
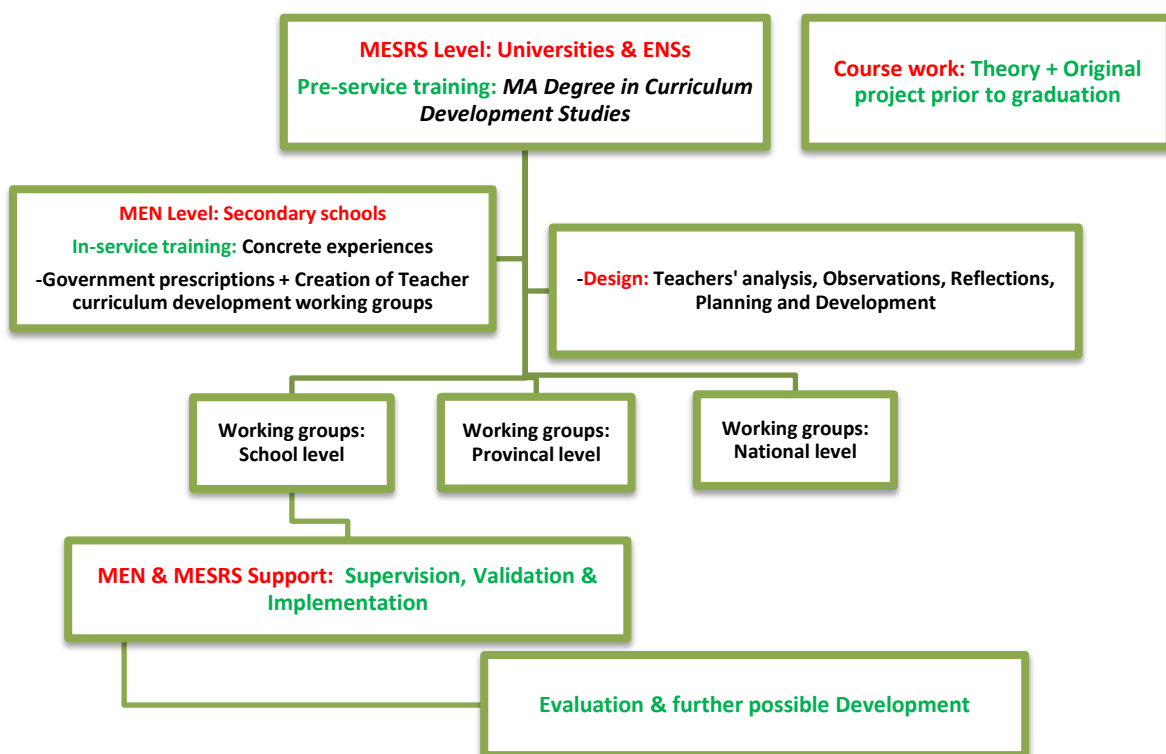
Figure 5.1. Model for teacher involvement in curriculum development for Algeria

5. 7. Suggestions for Further Research

The present study focused on public secondary schools, so further studies can be done to include private schools and thus comparison can be conducted between the two types of schools. Moreover, the study was located within secondary schools in one context (Sétif province). Implementation in other levels may not necessarily result in similar findings and comparison can be conducted. Nevertheless, extending the present study to other provinces was not possible due to both financial and time limitations. A similar research-based enquiry from teachers of other subjects could also produce useful results for better planning and implementation of the future reforms.

Another area for further research might be the inclusion of learners in the investigation and analysis of their perspectives on the education reform in general and curriculum in particular. This possibility can extend the scope of the research from the implementation phase to the institutionalization phase, where learners will be considered not as targets of the reform but as important stakeholders in the process. Further, it is not enough to look at how a policy was produced and how it was put into practice. A research should go further than that and look at what impact it had on the larger community outside the classroom.

The researcher of the present study would strongly advice studying the impact of curriculum in a longitudinal study. Such investigation, through repeated observations, may help provide more concrete evidence and illustrations which reflect the realities of the context such as the practices of implementation and the challenges encountered by the implementers. It may hypothetically provide more depth of and focus on the teachers' individual behavior.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

> Change is everywhere, progress is not. The more things change the
> more they remain the same, if we do not learn our lessons that a
> different mind- and action- set is required. (Fullan, 1991, p.345).

Taking into account the crucial role teachers play when involved in curriculum reforms, the principal aim of this study was to recommend a model to curriculum development that seeks to combine top-down government prescriptions with bottom-up school-based initiatives. The model, if adopted, will aim to ensure the conservation of national standards, and provide elasticity for teachers to take account of their classroom teaching needs in planning curriculum. More specifically, the study aimed at exploring and identifying perceptions, views and concerns of secondary school English language teachers' on their implementation of Curriculum 2003 for English language teaching in an Algerian context (Sétif).

The study also aimed at revealing barriers to teachers' autonomy and involvement in curriculum development. Barriers needed to be uncovered in order to pave the way for deeper understanding and planning towards the involvement and later participation of teachers in the development of the English language curriculum. Eventually, the ultimate purpose of the investigation was to illustrate how teacher action research can be encouraged in secondary schools to allow for teachers' initiatives to supply top-down endeavours to develop curricula.

Prior to undertaking this study, the researcher conducted a thorough review of the literature to determine whether there were any previous investigations dealing with the topic of curriculum development through teacher classroom action research in the Algerian context. Research confirmed that no studies of this type existed, and that there was scant evidence of reform programmes being subject to external review and enquiry elsewhere. The study attempts therefore to fill this gap in knowledge in Algeria.

The first two chapters (Chapter 1 and 2) provided a background to Algerian national education, and the administrative, constitutional and legal contexts of the education reform. The aim was to provide the context and background for the research. The literature review looked at education change, specifically curriculum reform in an international and Algerian context. The aim was to: critically review the research related to the thesis topic, establish a

theoretical framework for the subject area, define key terms and terminology, and identify studies supporting the present work.

The methodology utilized in this study (see Chapter 3) used the critical paradigm, where data was collected through school level implementers (156 teachers) and policy people at the national level (five inspectors). The data was collected into two different phases. In the first phase, a questionnaire survey for teachers was designed and implemented with the aim of exploring teachers' general views about C2003 and their implementation of it as well as the factors influencing this implementation, their training experiences and how these impacted them. In the second phase, five inspectors were involved through an asynchronous email interview to talk about the enacted and implemented Curriculum 2003 as well as policy provisions for teacher education.

As evident from the groups involved, where teachers were the main participants, this was a study of the perspectives of those who implemented curriculum reform in their secondary school classes. The findings of the study as discussed in Chapters 4 and 5 drew a sense of what happens, when a top-down mandated reform, that excludes teachers' participation and involvement in it, reaches the schools. Gaining an insight into the views and experiences of those in schools was critical because classrooms are the places where the policy of reform must be translated into actual practice.

From exploration of the curriculum change process as received, perceived and experienced by teachers, a reader can map out the model of educational change applied in Algeria. There is a point of caution that this model represents the views of a representative sample associated with one level of a diverse education system, working in a particular geographical location (Sétif) of a culturally, socially and economically diverse country and focuses on one reform programme, that of the English language. However, as evident from data, there are some concerns reflected in teachers' and inspectors' responses, namely factors influencing curriculum implementation and factors relating to teacher education and these issues are common across the centralized education system of Algeria.

REFERENCES

Abachi, L. (2006, Avril 30). Boumerdès: Grève illimitée des professeurs du lycée des Frères-Draoui à partir du 2 mai. *Le Soir d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.lesoirdalgerie.com

Abachi, L. (2013, May 21). Il y a dix ans, la terre tremblait à Boumerdèse. *Le Soir d'Algérie*, p. 5.

Abdoun, M. (2003, Novembre 27). Le gouvernement menace les enseignants: Grève des lycées fixant un ultimatum à samedi prochain. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Abrams, K., Wang, Z., Song, Y. J., & Galindo-Gonzalez, S. (2014). Data richness tradeoffs between face-to-face, online audio-visual, and online text-only focus groups. *Social Science Computer Review*, *33*(1). http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0894439313519733.

Adel, M. (2009, Novembre 23). Vers une année blanche: Les syndicats boudent la commission mixte de Benbouzid. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Afroun, N. (2003a, Septembre 29). La grève des enseignants prend de l'Ampleur. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Afroun, N. (2003b, Octobre 5). Une Journée d'action le 05 Octobre: Education. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Afroun, N. (2003c, Octobre 30). L'année scolaire compromise: La grève des lycées s'éternise. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Afroun, N. (2003d, Décembre 3). Les lycéens soutiennent leurs profs. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Afroun, N. (2003e, Décembre 6). La grève des lycées suspendue. Les cours reprendront Lundi. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Afroun, N. (2003f, Décembre 8). Comment sauver l'année scolaire. La rentrée a lieu Aujourd'hui. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Afroun, N. (2008, Janvier 9). Deux jours de grève à partir de samedi prochain: Point de presse du CNAPEST. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Afroun, N. (2010, Février 4). Les enseignants en grève dès le 16 février selon le ministère de l'Education, les indemnités réclamées ne sont pas justifiées. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Ageron, C.R. (1991). *Modern Algeria: A history from 1830 to the present*. Translated by Michael Brett. London, UK: Hurst.

Ait Ouarabi, M. (2013, Janvier 6). Appel à une grève le 16 janvier CNAPEST. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Akinbote, O. (1999). NCE Teachers Education Programme for Nigerian Primary Schools; Expectations for the 21st century. *Teaching and Teacher's Preparation in the 21st century, 2*(5), 9-12.

Akkouche, S. (2011, Mars 23). Ils squattent toujours la Présidence. Les enseignants contractuels menacent d'une grève de la faim. *Le Soir d'Algérie*. Retrieved from www.lesoirdalgerie.com

Akkouche, S. (2015, Juillet 26). Le point sur la réforme de l'éducation. École : quel diagnostic ?. *Le Soir d'Algerie*. Retrieved from www.lesoirdalgerie.com

Albury, D. (2005). Fostering innovation in public services. *Public Money & Management Journal*, *25*(1), 51-56. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9302.2005.00450.x.

Alderson, J. C., & Wall, D. (1993). Does washback exist? *Applied Linguistics, 14*, 115–129. https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/14.2.115.

Allen, L., & Glickman, C.D. (1998). Restructuring and renewal: Capturing the power of democracy. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 505-528). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Altrichter, H., Posch, P. & Somekh, B. (1993). *Teachers investigate their work. An introduction to the methods of action research*. London, UK: Routledge.

Alvior, M. G. (2014, December 13). The Meaning and Importance of Curriculum Development. *Simply Educate Me*. Retrieved from http://simplyeducate.me/2014/12/13/the-meaning-and-importance-of-curriculum-development/.

Amabile, T. M. (1998). How to kill creativity. *Harvard Business Review*, *76*(5), 77-87. PMID: 10187248.

Amiot, C. E., Gaudreau, P., & Blanchard, C. M. (2004). Self-determination, coping, and goal attainment in sport. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 26*, 396-411. https://dx.doi.org/10.1123/jsep.26.3.396.

Amir, N. (2003, Décembre 3). La grève des enseignants du secondaire persiste à travers le pays: Les lycéens envahissent la rue. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Amir, N. (2004, Octobre 3). Le Cnapest et le CLA lancent un appel à la grève: Benbouzid sous pression. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Amir, N. (2005, Décembre 26). Problèmes rencontrés dans les écoles: Benbouzid renvoie la balle dans le camp des directeurs. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Amir, N. (2006, Février 11). Secteur de l'éducation. La base opte pour la grève de trois jours. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Amir, N. (2009, Octobre 21). Education nationale : Les établissements du Grand Sud en grève. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Amir, N. (2010, Février 8). Syndicats autonomes de l'éducation nationale: Mouvement de grève à partir du 16 février. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Amir, N. (2011, Mars 30). Plus de six années de persévérance. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Ammara, S. (2006, Janvier 16). Les syndicats autonomes paralysent le secteur de l'éducation. *Le Soir d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.lesoirdalgerie.com

Anderson, G., & Arsenault, N. (1998). *Fundamentals of educational research* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Taylor & Francis.

Andrews, S. (2004). Washback and Curriculum Innovation. In L. Cheng & Y. Watanabe (Eds.), *Washback in language testing* (pp. 37-50). London, UK: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Aoudia, K. (2010, Février 13). La grève de l'éducation est inévitable. Les syndicats peaufinent leur stratégie en vue d'une nouvelle contestation. *Le Temps d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.letempsdz.com

Apple, M.W. (1996). *Cultural politics and education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Arab, F. (2013, Octobre 6). Grève illimitée dans l'éducation à partir de demain. Le CNAPEST menace de paralyser les établissements scolaires. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Aran, A., & Aron, E. (2002). *Statistics for the behavioural and social sciences. A brief course* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Arezki, S. (2003, Novembre 6). Un large suivi: Tizi Ouzou. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Arksey, H., & Knight, P. T. (1999). *Interviewing for social scientists: An introductory resource with examples*. London, UK: SAGE.

Ash, R. L., & Persall, J. M. (2000). The principal as chief learning officer: Developing teacher-leaders. *NASSP Bulletin, 84*(616), 15-22. Retrieved from the Proquest Database www.proquest.com.

Asuto, T. A, Clark, D. L., Read, A. M. McGree, K., & deKoven Pelton Fernancez, L. (1994). Roots of reform: Challenging the assumptions that control change in education. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

Asuto, T. A., Clark, D. L., Read, A. M. McGree, K., & deKoven Pelton Fernancez, L. (1994). *Roots of reform: Challenging the assumptions that control change in education.* Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation

Baala, H. (2014). *Le British Council au soutien de l'enseignement de l'anglais en Algérie*. Retrieved from http://www.huffpostmaghreb.com/2014/09/10/british-council-anglais-a_n_5797690.html

Babbie, E. (2010). *The practice of social research* (12th ed.). California, USA: Wardsworth, Cengage Learning.

Bampton, R., & Cowton, C. J. (2002). The E-interview. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, *3*(2). Retrieved from http://www.qualitativeresearch.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/848.

Banegas, D. L. (2011). Teachers as reform-doers: Developing a participatory curriculum to teach English as a foreign language. *Educational Action Research, 19*, 417-432. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2011.625654

Bantwini, B. D. (2010). How teachers perceive the new curriculum reform: Lessons from a school district in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development, 30*(1), 83-90. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ857510.

Barfield, A., Ashwell, T., Carroll, M., Collins, K., Cowie, N., Critchley, M., Head, E., Nix, M., Obermeier, A., & Robertson, M. C. (2002). Exploring and defining teacher autonomy: A collaborative discussion. In A.S. Mackenzie & E. McCafferty (Eds.), *Developing Autonomy* (pp. 217-222). Proceedings of the JALT CUE Conference 2001. Japan Association for Language Teaching College and University Educators Special Interest Group.

Barnard, R. & Burns, A. (Eds.). (2012). *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Barrow, R., & Milburn, G. (1990). *A critical dictionary of educational concepts.* New York, NY: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Barth, R. (1990). *Improving schools from within.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bartlett, S., & Burton, D. (2006). Practitioner research or descriptions of classroom practice? A discussion of teachers investigating their classrooms. *Educational Action Research, 14*(3)*, 395-405.

Bascia, N., & Hargreaves, A. (2000). Teaching and leading on the sharp edge of educational change. In N. Bascia & A. Hargreaves (Eds.), *The sharp edge of educational change* (pp. 1-26). London, UK: Routledge.

Bates, R. (2008). Teacher education in a global context: Towards a defensible theory of teacher education. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 34*(4), 277-293. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/2607470802401388.

Beane, J.A., & Apple, M.W. (2007). The case for democratic schools. In M.W. Apple & J.A. Beane (Eds.), *Democratic schools: Lessons in powerful education* (pp. 1-29). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Bebbouchi, A. (2003a, Septembre 27). Menace de grève illimitée CNAPEST. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Bebbouchi, A. (2003b, Septembre 28). Revendications du corps enseignant: La grève paralyse les lycées d'Algérie. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Bebbouchi, A. (2003c, Décembre 3). Agitation dans les établissements. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Bedar, L. (2008, Novembre 18). Un rassemblement et 7 jours de grève: L'intersyndicale menace. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Bedar, L. (2009, Novembre 25). Les enseignants veulent reprendre les cours. Grève dans l'éducation nationale: La grande confusion. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Bedar, L. (2010, Février 4). Le débrayage reprendra le 16 février: Education Nationale. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Bedouani-Kernane, H. (2013, Janvier 22). Algérie éducation : Réforme ou faux espoir ?. *Arabies.* Retrieved from www.arabies.com

Bedouani-Kernane, H. (2013, Janvier 22). Economie/Éducation Algérie: Réforme ou faux espoir ?. *Arabies.* Retrieved from www.arabies.com

Begg, A. (2005). Statistics curriculum and development: New ways of working. In G. Burrill & M. Camden (Eds.), *Curricular development in statistics education: International Association for Statistical Education* 2004 *Roundtable* (pp. 10-20). Voorburg, the Netherlands: International Statistical Institute.

Bekalo, S. & Welford, G. (2000). Practical activity in Ethiopian secondary physical sciences: Implications for policy and practice of the match between the intended and the implemented curriculum. *Research Papers in Education*, *15*(2), 185-212. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/026715200402498.

Belaïdi, M. (2003a, Novembre 27). Lycées: risques de dérapages. Le gouvernement va sévir, les syndicats maintiennent la grève. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Belaïdi, M. (2003b, Novembre 29). Syndicats, gouvernement: La bagarre ! La grève continue, l'ultimatum expire aujourd'hui. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Belaïdi, M. (2003c, Décembre 1). Profs: radiés, remplacés et poursuivis. Le gouvernement met à exécution ses menaces contre les grévistes. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Belaïdi, M. (2004, Juillet 20).Une année scolaire chaotique: Conséquence de plusieurs semaines de grève décrétée par les syndicats autonomes. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Belgacem, F. (2003, Septembre 15). Rentrée scolaire attention à la casse!. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Bell, J., & Gower, R. (2011). Writing course materials for the world: A great compromise. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 116-129). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Benalia, S. (2003a, May 20). Benbouzid menace: Il s'est réuni hier avec les syndicats de l'éducation. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Benalia, S. (2003b, Septembre 21). Problématique à Alger. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Benford, P., & Standen, P. (2011). The use of email-facilitated interviewing with higher functioning autistic people participating in a grounded theory study. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 14*, 353-368. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2010.534654.

Benhocine, A. (2009, Novembre 8). Pas d'école cette semaine ? Les enseignants en colère tentent de paralyser le secteur de l'éducation. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Benkeddada, M. (2013, Octobre 18). Le CNAPEST décide de poursuivre le mouvement. Grève illimitée dans les lycées. *Horizons*. Retrieved from www.horizons-dz.com

Benkeddada, M. (2014, Décembre 13). Les parents d'élèves exigent une trêve. Grèves dans l'Education. *Horizons*. Retrieved from www.horizons-dz.com

Bentahar, M. (2009, Décembre 1). Trois semaines de grève, c'est plus qu'assez: Reprise des cours oui, mais… . Réflexion. Retrieved from www.reflexiodz.net

Beretta, A. (1990). Implementation of the Bangalore Project. *Applied Linguistics, 11*(4), 321-337. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.4.321.

Berman, P. (1978). The study of macro- and micro-implementation. *Public Policy, 26*(2), 157-184. PMID: 10308532.

Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1976). Implementation of educational innovation. *The Educational Forum, 40*(3), 345-370. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00131727609336469.

Bersali, A. (2015, Septembre 1). Relation Benghebrit-Syndicats : Une paix provisoire. El Watan. Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Bezzina, M. (1991). Teachers' perceptions of their participation in school based curriculum development: A case study. *Curriculum Perspectives, 11*(2), 39-47.

Bishop, P., & Mulford, B. (1999). When will they ever learn? Another failure of centrally imposed change. *School Leadership and Management, 19(2)*, 179–187.

Black, P., Harrison, C., Lee, C., Marshall, B., & Wiliam, D. (2002). *Working inside the black box: Assessment for learning in the classroom.* London, UK: King's College.

Blase, J. (1998). The micropolitics of educational change. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one*, (pp. 544-557). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Blaxter, L., Hughes, C., & Tight, M. (2001). *How to Research* (2nd *ed.*). Buckingham/Philadelphia, England: Open University Press

Blenkin, G.M., Edwards, G., & Kelly, A.V. (1992). *Change and the curriculum.* London, UK: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Blidi, A. (2010, Mars 7). Des mesures prises pour 'radier' les enseignants récalcitrants: Benbouzid tente un passage en force. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Bobbit, F. (1918). The Curriculum. Boston, USA: Houghton Miffin Company.

Borg, M. (2001). Teachers' beliefs. *ELT Journal, 55*(2), 186-188. https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eltj/55.2.186.

Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System, 39*(3), 370–380. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.009.

Bouabdellah, K. (2009, Février 19). Brèves de l'est. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Boulahbal, F. (2009, Octobre 5). Les lycées en grève aujourd'hui à l'appel de plusieurs syndicats autonomes. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Boumediène, F. (2003, Décembre 4). 'Pas d'année blanche, pas de vacataires': Les lycéens crient leur désarroi dans les rues. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Bovey, W.H., & Hede, A. (2001). Resistance to organizational change: The role of defence mechanisms. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 16*(7), 534-548. https://dx.doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000006166.

Bowker, N., & Tuffin, K. (2004). Using the online medium for discursive research about people with disabilities. *Social Science Computer Review, 22*(2), 228–241. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894439303262561.

Brady, L. (1995). *Curriculum development*. Sydney, Australia: Prentice Hall.

Brahimi, L. (2008, Décembre 27). La grève maintenue: Réunion entre le Cnapest et le ministère de l'Education. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemdid-dz.com

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*, 77-101. http://dx.doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa.

Breen, M., Hird, B., Milton, O., & Thawaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 22*(4), 470-501. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/22.4.470.

Brindley, G., & Hood, S. (1990). Curriculum innovation in Adult ESL. In G. Brindley (Ed.), *The second language curriculum in action* (pp. 232-248). Sydney, Australia: Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Brindley, G., & Hood, S. (1990). Curriculum innovation in adult ESL. In G. Brindley (Ed.), *The second language curriculum in action* (pp. 232-248). Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Brindley, G., & Hood, S. (1990). Curriculum innovation in adult ESL. In G. Brindley (Ed.), *The second language curriculum in action* (pp. 232-248). Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Brookfield, S. (2000). The concept of critical reflective practice. In A. L. Wilson & E. R. Hayes (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education* (pp. 33-49). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, S., & McIntyre, D. (1978). Factors influencing teachers' responses to curriculum innovation. *British Educational Research Journal, 4*(1), 19-23.

Bryant, M. (2006). Talking about change: Understanding employee responses through qualitative research. *Management Decision, 44*(2), 246-258. https://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251740610650229.

Bryant, M., & Wolfram Cox, J. (2006). The expression of suppression: Loss and emotional labour in narratives of organizational change. *Journal of Management and Organisation, 12*(2), 116-130. https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S1833367200004065.

Bryman, A. (2001). *Social research methods*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods* (3rd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bsikri, M. (2010, Février 3). Le SNAPEST en grève répétitive à partir du 16 févier. Le secteur de l'éducation toujours en ébullition. *Le Temps d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.letempsdz.com

Burns, E. (2010). Developing email interview practices in qualitative research. *Sociological Research Online, 15*(4), 8. https://doi.org/10.5153/sro.2232.

Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods* (4th ed.). London, UK: Sage.

Byer, J. M. (1981). Ideologies, values, and decision-making in organisations. In P. C. Nystrom & W. H. Starbuck (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational design* (vol.2, pp. 166-202). London, England: Sage Publications.

Caldwell, S. D., Herold, D. M., & Fedor, D. B. (2004). Towards an understanding of the relationships between organizational change, individual differences, and changes in person-environment fit: A cross-level study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 868-882. https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.868.

Campbell, R. J., Kyriakides, L., Muijs, R. D., & Robinson, W. (2003). Differential teacher effectiveness: Towards a model for research and teacher appraisal. *Oxford Review of Education, 29*(3), 347-362. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03054980307440.

Carl, A. E. (2009). *Teacher empowerment through curriculum development theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Cape Town, South Africa: Juta & Ltd Company.

Carl, A.E. (1995). *Teacher empowerment through curriculum development: Theory into practice.* Kenwyn, Truro: Juta & Co. Ltd.

Carless, D. (1998). A case study of curriculum implementation in Hong Kong. *System, 26,* 353-368. *Retrieved from* www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042813027833.

Carless, D. (1999). Factors affecting classroom implementation: Task-based curriculum renewal in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Educational Reform, 8*(4), 374-382.

Carnall, C. (1986). Toward a theory for the evaluation of organizational change. *Human Relations, 39*, 745-766. https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/001872678603900803.

Carnall, C.A. (2003). *Managing change in organizations* (4th ed.). London, England: Prentice Hall.

Carnoy, M. (2003). Globalisation and education reform. In N. Stromquist & K. Monkman (Eds.), *Globalisation and education: Integration and contestation across cultures* (pp.43-61). Oxford, UK: Rowman and Littlefield.

Carr, W. (1995). For education: Towards critical education inquiry. Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

Carr, W. (1996). Thinking about the Curriculum. In W. Carr, *The Foundation Module* (pp. 1-20). Sheffield, UK: Division of Education, University of Sheffield.

Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1983). *Becoming critical: Knowing through action research*. Geelong, Victoria: Deakin University Press.

Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1986). Becoming critical: Education, knowledge, and action research. London, UK: The Falmer Press.

Carter, K. (1998). School effectiveness and school improvement: Meaning and traditions. In R. Halsall (Ed.), *Teacher research and school improvement: Opening doors from the inside* (pp. 3-27). Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

Castle, K. (2004). The meaning of autonomy in early childhood teacher education. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education, 25*(1), 3 -10.

Caswell, H., & Campbell, D. (1935). *Curriculum development*. New York, NY: American Book Company.

Chaffee, Ellen E., & Lawrence, A. Sherr. (1992). *Quality: Transforming postsecondary education.* Washington, D.C.: George Washington University.

Chan, F. K. H. (2002). The cognitive element of curriculum change. In V. Crewe, C. Davison & B. Mak (Eds.), *Reflecting on language in education* (p.227-250). Hong Kong, China: Hong Kong Institute of Language in Education.

Chang, M., & Goswami, J. S. (2011). Factors affecting the implementation of communicative language teaching in Taiwanese college English classes. *English Language Teaching. 4*(2), 3-12. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n2p3.

Cheballah, M. (2011, Septembre 29). Le SNTE en débrayage à partir du 10 octobre en raison des engagements non tenus par la tutelle. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Chebbine, M. (2008, Février 21). Le SNAPEST maintient sa grève en dépit des assurances du gouvernement. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Cheng, L. (1997). How does washback influence teaching? Implications from Hong Kong. *Language and Education, 11*(1), 38-54.

Cheng, L., & Watanabe, Y. (2004). *Washback in language testing: Research contexts and methods.* London, UK: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cheng, L., Watanabe, Y., & Curtis, A. (Eds.) (2004). W*ashback in language testing: Research contexts and methods*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cheserek, G. J., & Mugalavai, V. K. (2012). Challenges and reforms facing Kenyan education system in the 21st century: Integrating the principles of vision 2030 and constitution 2010. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS), 3*(4)*,* 471–478.

Chih, A. (2003, Octobre 19). Gare aux grévistes. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Chilisa, B. (2011). *Indigenous research methodologies*. London Thousand Oaks, UK: Sage.

Chin, R., & Benne, K. (1976). General strategies for effecting changes in human systems. In W. Bennis, K. Bennis, & R. Chin (Eds.), *The Planning of Change* (pp. 22-45). New York, NY: Rinehart and Winston.

Chisholm, L., & Leyendecker, R. (2008). Curriculum reform in post-1990s sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development, 28*, 195–205. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2007.04.003.

Cho, J. (1998, April). *Rethinking curriculum implementation: Paradigms, models and teachers work*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.

Choi, I. C. (2008). The impact of EFL testing on EFL education in Korea. *Language Testing, 25*(1), 39-62. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0265532207083744.

Ciment, J. (1997). *Algeria: The fundamentalist change*. New York, NY: Facts of File.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1992). Teacher as curriculum maker. In P. W. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum: A project of the American Educational Research Association* (pp. 363-401). New York, NY: Macmillan.

CNP. (2009). *Référentiel général des programmes*.

CNRSE. (2000). *Le rapport de la commission benzaghou.*

Coghlan, A. (2007). Towards an integrated image-based typology of volunteer tourism organizations. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15*, 267-287. http://dx.doi.org/10.2167/jost628.0.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (5th ed.). London, UK: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2009). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). London, UK: Routledge.

Cohn, M., & Kottkamp, B. (1993). *Teachers: The missing voice in education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Colonna, F. (1975). *Instituteurs algériens, 1833-1939*. Paris, FR : Presses de la Fondation nationale des sciences politiques.

Connelly, F. M., & Lantz, O. C. (1991). Definitions of curriculum: An introduction. In A. Lewy (Ed.), *The international encyclopedia of curriculum* (pp. 15-18). New York, NY: Pergamon Press.

Connelly, F.M. & Clandinin, D.J. (1988). *Teachers as curriculum planners: Narratives of experience.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Cook, C. (2012). Email interviewing: Generating data with a vulnerable population. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 68*(6), 1330-1339. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2011.05843.x.

Coolican (1994). *Research methods and statistics in psychology*. London, UK: London Bath.

Cooper, R., Slavin, R. E., & Madden, N. A. (1998). Success for all: Improving the quality of implementation of whole-school change through the use of a national reform network. *Education and Urban Society, 30*(3), 385–408. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013124598030003006.

Cornbleth, C. (1990). *Curriculum in Context*. London, England: The Falmer Press

Coultas, J.C., & Lewin, K.M. (2002). Who becomes a teacher? The characteristics of student teachers in four countries. *International Journal of Educational Development, 22,* 243-260. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0738-0593(01)00066-9.

Cowley, T., & Williamson, J. (1998). A recipe for success?. Localised implementation of a (flexible) National Curriculum, *The Curriculum Journal*, 9(1), 79-94. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0958517970080107.

Craft, A. (2000). *Continuing professional development: A practical guide for teachers*. Florence, KY, USA: Routledge.

Craig, C., & Ross, V. (2008). Cultivating the image of teachers as curriculum makers. In F. M. Connelly (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of curriculum and instruction* (pp. 282-305). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design* (2nd ed.). Britain, UK: Sage Publications, Inc.

Croll, P. (1996). *Teachers, pupils, and primary schooling: Continuity and change*. London, UK: Cassell Education.

Cuban, L. (1988). Constancy and change in schools, 1880s to the present. In P.W. Jackson (Ed.), *Contributing to educational change: Perspectives on policy and practice* (pp. 85-106). Berkeley, CA: McCutcheon.

Cuban, L. (1998). How schools change reforms: Redefining reform success and failure. *Teachers College Record*, *99*(3), 453-477. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ572727.

Curasi, C.F. (2001). A critical exploration of face-to-face interviewing vs. computer-mediated interviewing. *International Journal of Market Research, 43*(4), 361–375. Retrieved from: http://www.websm.org.

Curdt-Christiansen, X. L., & Silver, R. E. (2012). Educational reforms, cultural clashes and classroom practices. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 42*(2), 141–161. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0305764X.2012.676631.

Dadds, M. (1997). Continuing professional development: Nurturing the expert within. *British Journal of In-service Education, 23*(1), 31-38. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13674589700200007.

Dahlstrom, L., Swarts, P., & Zeichner, K. (1999). Reconstructive education and the road to social justice: The case of post-colonial teacher education in Namibia. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 2(3)*, 149-164. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13603124.1999.11509462.

Dahlstrom, L.O. (1995). Teacher education for independent Namibia: From the liberation struggle to a national agenda. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 21*(3), 273-88.

Dahlstrom, L.O. (1996, April). *Teacher Education for a Non-Racist Society*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association (AERA) Annual Meeting, New York City, NY.

Dalin, P., Rolff, H., & Kottkamp, R. (1993). *Changing the school culture*. London, England: Cassell.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1998). Policy and change: Getting beyond bureaucracy. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change*, *part one* (pp. 642-667). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Darling-Hammond, L., & McLaughlin, M.W. (1995). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76(8),* 597-604. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/003172171109200622.

Datnow, A., & Castellano, M. (2000). Teachers' responses to success for all: How beliefs, experiences, and adaptations shape implementation. *American Educational Research Journal, 37*, 775-799. http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00028312037003775

Davison, R., & Martinsons, M. G. (2002). Empowerment or enslavement? A case of process-based organizational change in Hong Kong. *Information Technology and People, 15*(1), 42-59. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09593840210421516.

Day, C. (1993) Reflection: A necessary but not sufficient condition for professional development. *British Educational Research Journal*, *19*(1), 83-93. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0141192930190107.

Day, C., Elliot, B., & Kington, A. (2005). Reform, standards and teacher identity: Challenges of sustaining commitment. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*(5), 563-577. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.03.001

De Lano, L., Riley, L., & Crookes, G. (1994). The meaning of innovation for ESL teachers. *System, 22*(4), 487-496.

De Luca, C. (1994). The impact of examination systems on curriculum development: An international study. Paris, France: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/31_45.pdf

Dembélé, M., & Lefoka, P. (2007). Pedagogical renewal for quality universal primary education: Overview of trends in sub-Saharan Africa. *International Review of Education, 53*, 531–553.

Denscombe, M. (2002). Ground rules for good research: A 10 point guide for social researchers. Buckingham/Philadelphia, UK: Open University.

Dillman, D.A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Dilworth, M. E., & Imig, D. G. (1995). Professional Teacher Development. *The Eric Review*, *3*(3), 5-11.

Dimond, J., Fiesler, C., DiSalvo, B., Pelc, J., & Bruckman, A. (2012). Qualitative data collection technologies: A comparison of instant messaging, email, and phone. In *Proceedings of the 17th ACM international conference on supporting group work* (pp. 277-280). ACM.

Djadi, M. (2005, Février 8). Mouvement de débrayage du CLA. Les protestataires reprennent les cours. *Le Soir d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.lesoirdalgerie.com

Djama, Y. (2009a, Octobre 6). Les lycées paralysés à 100%, selon les syndicats: Grève dans le secteur de l'éducation. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Djama, Y. (2009b, Novembre 9). Un suivi 'massif et inattendu' selon les syndicats: Grève dans le secteur de l'Education. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Djama, Y. (2013, Janvier 5). Le CNAPEST annonce une grève nationale pour le 16 janvier pour protester contre le manque d'engagement de la tutelle. *La Tribune*. Retrieved from www.latribunedz.com

Djekhar, N. (2009, Octobre 6). La grève à travers les différentes wilayas. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Djouadi, F. (2011, Mars 20). Des centaines d'enseignants manifestent devant la Présidence. Maghreb Emergent. Retrieved from www.maghrebemergent.com

Doll, W. (1993). Post-modern perspective on curriculum. New York, NY: Teachers College.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. New Jersey, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Doyle, W. & Ponder, G.A. (1977). The practicality ethic in teacher decision-making, *Interchange*, *8*(1), 1-12. https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF01189290.

Du Plessis, M. (2007). The role of knowledge management in innovation. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *11*(4), 20-29. https://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13673270710762684.

Dubin, F., & Olshtain, E. (1986). *Course design: Developing programs and materials for language learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Dyer, C. (1999). Researching the implementation of educational policy: A backward mapping approach. *Comparative Education*, *35*(1), 45-61.

East, L., Jackson, D., O'Brien, L., & Peters, K. (2008). The benefits of computer-mediated communication in nursing research. *Contemporary Nurse*, *30*, 83–88. http://dx.doi.org/10.5172/conu.673.30.1.83.

Ecole Nationale Polytechnique, une école, un histoire, un label. Retrieved from www.emp-oran.dz

Ecole Normale d'Instituteurs d'Oran de 1933 à 1962. Retrieved from www.normaliens-d-oran.com

Education International. (2014). *Algeria : Fourth week of strikes in education sector*. Retrieved from https://www.ei-ie.org/en/news/news_details/2876

Egan, K. (2003). What is curriculum? *Journal of the Canadian Association for Curriculum Studies, 1*(1), 9-16. Retrieved from http://www.csse.ca/CACS/JCACS/1.1/CACS.1.1.c.egan.1978.pdf.

Eisner, E.W. (1992). Educational reform and the ecology of schooling. *Teachers College Record*, 93(4), 610-626. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ450826.

Elliot, J. (1997). School-based curriculum development and action research in the United Kingdom. In S. Hollingsworth (Ed.), *International action research: A casebook for educational reform* (pp. 17-28). London, UK: The Falmer Press.

Elmore, R., & Sykes, G. (1992). Curriculum policy. In P. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum* (pp. 185-215). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Esposito N. (2001). From meaning to meaning: The influence of translation techniques on non-English focus group research. *Qualitative Health Research, 11*(4), 568–79.

Etim, N. V., & Okey, S. M. (2015). Teachers' involvement and role in climate change curriculum development and implementation in Nigerian secondary educational system. *Journal of Modern Management Science & Engineering 3*(1), 21-31.

Evans, L. (2010). Teacher professional development in England: A critical perspective on current issues and priorities. In V. R. Ruus & E. S. Sary (Eds.), *Eesti õpetaja ja õpetajahariduse õppekavad 21. Saj and ialgul* [Teacher education in Estonia and European teacher education curricula at the beginning of the 21st century] Tallin, Estonia: University of Tallin.

Everard, K. B., Morris, G., & Wilson, I. (2004). *Effective school management* (4th ed.). London, England: Paul Chapman.

Fandino, Y. J. (2010). Research as a means of empowering teachers in the 21st century. *Educacion y Educadores, 13*(1), 109-124. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/722536263?accountid=28180

Fastier, M. (2016). Curriculum change, challenges and teacher responsibility. *New Zealand Geographer*, *72*(1), *51–56*.

Fattani, T. & Bebbouchi, A. (2003, Septembre 30). Les enseignants durcissent le ton: Grève des lycées. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Fattani, T. (2006, Mars 19). Nouveaux mécanismes pour la réforme: Education Nationale. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Ferhani, F. F. (2006). Algérie, l'enseignement du Français à la lumière de la réforme. *Le Français d'Aujourd'hui,* 3(154), 11-18. http://dx.doi.org/10.3917/Lfa.154.0011

Ferrag, D. (2014, Février 19). L'UNPEF cesse la grève après quatre semaines d'école buissonnière. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Ferrance, E. (2000). *Themes in education: Action research*. Brown University, US: Educational Alliance.

Fink, A. (1995). *The survey handbook* (Vol. 1). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Fink, D. & Stoll, L. (1998). Educational change: Easier said than done. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 297-321). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Flick, U. (2006). An introduction to qualitative research (3rd ed.). London, UK: SAGE.

Fontes, T., & O'Mahony, M. (2008). In-depth interviewing by instant messaging. *Social Research Update, 53*, 1-4. Retrieved from http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU53.pdf.

Fowler, F. J. (2001). *Survey research methods* (3rd ed.). London, UK: SAGE.

François Guizot, une vie dans le siècle (1787-1847). Retrieved from www.guizot.com

Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (2000). *Research methods in the social Sciences* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Worth Publishers.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2000). Extracting meaning from past affective experiences: The importance of peaks, ends, and specific emotions. Cognition and emotion. *Special Issue: Emotion, Cognition, and Decision Making, 14*, 577–606.

Freeman, D. (1993). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: Developing new understanding of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 9*(5/6), 485–497. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(93)90032-C.

Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. *Language Teaching, 35*, 1-13. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444801001720.

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 397-417. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588114.

Friedman, I. A. (1999). Teacher-Perceived work autonomy: The concept and its measurement. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 59*(1), 58-76. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164499591005.

Fullan, M. G. (1982). *The meaning of educational change*. Toronto, ON: OISE Press.

Fullan, M. G. (1991). *The meaning of educational change*. New York, NY: Teacher College Press.

Fullan, M. G. (1992a). *Overcoming barriers to educational change*. In *Changing schools: Insights* (pp. 11-20). Washington, DC: US. Department of Education, Office of Policy and Planning.

Fullan, M. G. (1992b). *Successful school improvement: The implementation perspective and beyond*. Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

Fullan, M. G. (1993a). *Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform*. London, UK: The Falmer Press.

Fullan, M. G. (1993b). *The new meaning of educational change* (2nd ed.). London, England: Cassell.

Fullan, M. G. (1998). The new meaning of educational change: A quarter of a century of learning. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. Fullan, & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *International handbook of educational change* (pp. 214-228). London, England: Kluwer Academic.

Fullan, M. G. (2001a). *Leading in a culture of change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fullan, M. G. (2001b). *The new meaning of educational change* (3rd ed.). London, England: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M. G. (2003). *Change forces: With a vengeance*. London, England: Routledge Falmer.

Fullan, M. G. (2011). *The new meaning of educational change.* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M. G., & Hargreaves, A. (1996). *What's worth fighting for in your school?*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M. G., & Miles, M. (1992). Getting reforms right: What works and what doesn't. *Phi Delta Kappan, 73*(10), 745-752.

Fullan, M. G., & Park, P. (1981). *Curriculum implementation*. Toronto, ON: OISE Press.

Fullan, M. G., & Pomfret, A. (1977). Research on curriculum and instruction implementation. *Review of Educational Research, 47*(2), 355-397. http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543047002335.

Fullan, M. G., & Stiegelbauer, S. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Fuller, G. E. (1996). *Algeria: The next fundamentalist state?* Santa Monica, CA.: RAND

Futrell, M.H., Holmes, D.H., Christie, J.L., & Cushman, E.J. (1995). *Linking education reform and teacher professional development: The efforts of nine school districts*. Occasional Paper Series. Washington, DC: Center for Policy Studies, Graduate School of Education and Human development, George Washington University.

Gahin, G., & Myhill, D. (2001). The communicative approach in Egypt: Exploring the secrets of the pyramids. *TEFL Web Journal, 1*(2). Retrieved from http://www.teflwebj.org/v1n2/Gahin_Myhill.html.

Galton, M. (1998). Making a curriculum: Some principles of curriculum building. In J. Moyles & L. Hargreaves (Eds.), *Primary curriculum: Learning from international perspectives* (pp. 73-80). London, UK: Routledge.

Geijsel, F., Sleegers, P., Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (1993). Transformational leadership effects on teachers' commitment and effort toward school reform. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *41*(3), 228-256. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578230310474403.

Geijsel, F., Sleegers, P., Van den Berg, R. & Kelchtermans, G. (2001). Conditions fostering the implementation of large scale innovation programs in schools: Teachers perspectives. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 37*(1), 130 -166. https://doi.org/10.1177/00131610121969262.

Gershberg, A. L., Meade, B., & Andersson, S. (2009). Providing better education services to the poor: Accountability and context in the case of Guatemalan decentralization. *International Journal of Educational Development, 29*, 187-200. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2008.08.002.

Ghezlaoui, S. (2011, Mars 27). 'L'intégration ou la mort'. Les enseignants contractuels bouclent une semaine de protestation. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Giacquinta, J.B. (1998). Seduced and abandoned: Some lasting conclusions about planned change from the Cambire School Study. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 163-180). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Giroux, H. A. (1988). *Teachers as intellectuals.* Granby, MA: Bergin & Garvey.

Giroux, H. A., & McLaren, P. (1989). Introduction: Schooling, cultural politics, and the struggle for democracy. In H.A. Giroux & P. McLaren (Eds.), *Critical pedagogy, the state, and the cultural struggle* (pp. xi-2). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Given, L. M. (2007). Descriptive research. In N. J. Salkind & K. Rasmussen (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Measurement and Statistics* (pp. 251-254). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage,

Glass, G. V. (2008). *Fertilizers, pills, and magnetic strips*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, Inc.

Gleeson, D. (1978). Curriculum development and social change: Towards a reappraisal of teacher action. *Journal of Higher and Further Education, 2*, 41-51. https://dx.doi.org/abs/10.1080/0309877780020206.

Golombek, P.R. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 447-464. https://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588117.

Goodson, I.F. (2003). Professional knowledge, professional lives. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Gorard, S. (2001). *Quantitative methods in educational research: The role of numbers made easy*. London, UK: Continum.

Gordon, D. C. (1978). *The French language and national identity*. The Hague, The Netherlands: Mouton.

Goulder, J., Simpson, M., & Tuson, J. (1994). The 5-14 development programme in Scottish secondary schools: The first phase. *The Curriculum Journal*, 5(1), 69-81.

GOUVERNEMENT ALGERIEN. *Décret exécutif n° 95-143 du 20 mai 1995 portant transformation du centre national d'alphabétisation en office national d'alphabétisation et d'enseignement pour adultes.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 28 du Mercredi 24 mai 1995, p.7-11.

GOUVERNEMENT ALGERIEN. *Loi n° 62-157 du 31 décembre 1962 tendant à la reconduction, jusqu'à nouvel ordre, de la législation en vigueur au 31 décembre 1962*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 2 du Vendredi 11 janvier 1963, p.18.

Graïne, L. (2003, Septembre 16). Des grèves à répétition marquent le secteur: Flash-back sur l'année dernière. *Info Soir*. Retrieved from www.infosoir.com

Graves, K. (2008). The language curriculum: A Social contextual perspective. *Language Teaching, 41(2)*, 147-181. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444807004867.

Green, A. (1994). Postmodernism and state education. *Journal of Education Policy, 8*(9), 67-83. http://dx.doi.org/abs/10.1080/0268093940090105.

Grimmett, P., & Chinnery, A. (2009). Bridging policy and professional pedagogy in teaching and teacher education: Buffering learning by educating teachers as curriculum makers. *Curriculum Inquiry, 39*(1), 125-143. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-873X.2008.01441.x.

Gross, N., Giacquinta, J. B., & Bernstein, M. (1971). *Implementing organizational innovations: A sociological analysis of planned educational change*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Grundy, S. (1987). *Curriculum: Product or praxis?*. London, England: The Falmer Press.

Guro, M., & Weber, E. (2010). From policy to practice: Education reform in Mozambique and Marrere teachers' training college. *South African Journal of Education*, *30*, 245-259.

Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 8*, 381-391.

Gwele, N. S. (2005). Implementing a new curriculum. In L. R. Uys & N. S. Gwele (Eds.), *Curriculum development in nursing process and innovation* (pp. 93-110). London, England: Routledge.

Hall, G.E., & Hord, S.M. (2010). *Implementing change: Patterns, principles, and potholes.* (3rd ed.). Englewood, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Hamed, K. (2013a, Février 26). Les écoles du Sud paralysées. La grève de trois jours entamée hier. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Hamed, K. (2013b, Octobre 6). Le CNAPEST maintient la grève de demain: Education nationale. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Hanushek, E. A, & Wöβmann, L. (2007). *The role of education quality for economic growth*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Hargreaves, A. (1994). Changing teachers, changing times. Toronto, ON: OISE Press.

Hargreaves, A. (1995). Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age (2nd ed.). London, England: Cassell.

Hargreaves, A. (1995). Renewal in the age of paradox. *Educational Leadership*, 52 (7), 1-9.

Hargreaves, A., & Shirley, D. (2011). The far side of educational reform. Ottawa, Ontario: Canadian teachers' federation. Retrieved from http://www.ctf-fce.ca/publications/Briefs/Report_EducationReform2012_EN_web.pdf.

Hargreaves, D. H. (1980). The occupational culture of teachers. In P. Woods (Ed.), *Teacher strategies: Exploring in the sociology of the school* (pp. 125-148). London, England: Croom Helm.

Harley, K., & Wedekind, V. (2004). Political change, curriculum change and social formation, 1990-2002. In L. Chisholm (Ed.), *Changing class: Education and social change in post-apartheid South Africa* (pp. 195-220). Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.

Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. London, England: Longman.

Hartley, D. (1997). *Re-schooling society: Educational change and development series*. London, England: The Falmer Press.

Hartley, J. (2004). Case study research. In C. Cassell & G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research* (pp.323-333). London, UK: Sage.

Havelock, R., & Hamilton, J. (2004). Guiding change in special education: How to help schools with new ideas and practices. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Havelock, R.G. (1969). *Planning for innovation and utilization of knowledge*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research.

Havelock, R.G. (1971). Planning for innovation through dissemination and utilization of knowledge. Michigan, US: University of Michigan Institute for Social Research.

Hayane, O. (1989). *L'Enseignement de la Langue Anglaise en Algérie Depuis 1962*. Alger, DZ: Office des Publications Universitaire.

Haynes, M. (1996). *Influences on practice in the mathematics classroom: An investigation into the beliefs and practices of beginning teachers* (Unpublished Masters Dissertation). Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Hayward, L., & Hedges, N. (2005).Travelling towards change in assessment: Policy, practice and research in education. *Assessment in Education*, *12*(1), 55-76. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0969594042000333913.

Hayward, L., Priestley, M., & Young, M. (2004). Ruffling the calm of the ocean floor: Merging practice, policy and research in assessment in Scotland. *Oxford Review of Education*, *30*(3), 397-416. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0305498042000260502.

Helsby, G. (1999). *Changing teachers' work.* Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

Henry, G. T. (1990). *Practical sampling*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Heywood, C. (2009). *Growing up in France: From the ancient régime to the third republic.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Higham, J., Sharp, P., & Priestley, M. (2000). Developing diversity through specialisation in secondary education: Comparing approaches in New Zealand and England. *Compare*, *30*(2), 145-162. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/713657461.

Hill, H. C. (2003). Understanding implementation: Street-level bureaucrats' resources for reform. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 13*(3), 265-282. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jpart/mug024.

Hodgson, S. (2004). Cutting through the silence: A sociological construction of self-injury. *Sociological Inquiry, 74*(2), 162–179. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-682X.2004.00085.x.

Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate methodology and social context*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Holliday, A. (2001). *Achieving cultural continuity in curriculum innovation*. In A. Hewings & D. Hall (Eds.), *Innovation in English language teaching* (pp.169-177). London, UK: Routledge.

Holt, D. T., Armenakis, A. A., Feild, H. S., & Harris, S. G. (2007). Readiness for organizational change: The systematic development of a scale. *The Journal of*

Applied Behavioral Science, 43(2), 232-255. http://dx.doi.org/abs/10.1177/0021886306295295.

Honig, M. I. (2004). The new middle management: Intermediary organizations in education policy implementation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 2*6(1), 65-87. https://dx.doi.org/10.3102/01623737026001065.

Hope, W. C., & Pigford, A. B. (2001). The principal's role in educational policy implementation. *Contemporary Education, 72*(1), 44-47.

Hopkins, D. (2001). *School improvement for real*. London, England: Routledge Falmer.

Houadef, M. (2006, Novembre 7). Batan: Les lycées paralysés par le Cnapest. *Le Soir d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.lesoirdalgerie.com

House, E., & McQuillan, P.J. (1998). Three perspectives on school reform. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 198-213). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Howes, A., Booth, T., Dyson, A., & Frankham, J. (2005). Teacher learning and the development of inclusive practices and policies: Framing the context. *Research Papers in Education*, *20*(2), 133-148. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02671520500077947.

Hutchinson, T., & Torres, E. (1994). The textbook as agent of change. *English Language Teaching Journal, 48*(4), 315-328. https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/48.4.315.

Hyun, E. (2006). *Teachable moments: Re-conceptualizing curricula understandings (studies in the postmodern theory of education)*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Institut National de Formation et de Perfectionnement des Personnels de l'Education, www.infpe.edu.dz.

Institut National de Recherche en Education. (n.d.). *Historique de l'INRE.* Retrieved from INRE website www.inre-dz.org

Irnatene, F. (2011, Avril 23). La grève de tous les risques. Débrayage à L'éducation le 25 Avril. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Iverson, R. D. (1996). Employee acceptance of organizational change: The role of organizational commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 7,* 122-149. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585199600000121.

Ivowi, U.M.O. (2008). Curriculum and the total person. A keynote address delivered at 21st Annual Conference of the Curriculum Organization of Nigeria held at the NERDC, Sheda- Abuja. 19th to 20th September.

Jansen, J. (2001). Explaining non-change in education reform after apartheid: Political symbolism and the problem of policy implementation. In Y. Sayed & J. Jansen (Eds.), *Implementing education policies: The South African experience* (pp.271-292)*.* Cape Town, South Africa: University of Cape Town Press.

Jaros, S. (2010). Commitment to organizational change: A critical review. *Journal of Change Management, 10*(1), 79-108. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697010903549457.

Johnson, A. P. (2005). *A short guide to action research*. Boston, MA: Pearson.

Johnson, K. E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly 40*(1), 235-257.

Jones, B. C., DeBruine, L. M., Perrett, D. I., Little, A. C., Feinberg, D. R., Law Smith, M. J. (2008). Effects of menstrual cycle phase on face preferences. *Archives of Sexual Behaviour, 37*, 78-84. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10508-007-9268-y.

Judson, A. (1991). *Changing behaviour in organisations: Minimising resistance to change*. Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell.

Kaewdang, R. (2001). *Institutional administer models and reform of learning and teaching.* Bangkok, Thailand: Office of the National Education Commission, V.T.C. Commission Ltd..

Kagan, D. M. (1992). Implications of research on teacher belief. *Educational Psychologist, 27*(1), 65-90. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2701_6.

Kamasak, R., & Bulutlar, F. S. (2010). The Influence of knowledge sharing on innovation. *European Business Review*, *22*(3), 306-317. https://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09555341011040994.

Karavas-Doukas, E. (1995). Teacher identified factors affecting the implementation of an EFL innovation in Greek public secondary schools. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 8(1),* 53-68.

Katzenmeyer, M., & Moller, G. (2001). *Awakening the sleeping giant. Helping teachers develop as leaders*. (2nd ed.)*.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Kelly, A. V. (2004). *The Curriculum: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). London & Thousand Oaks, CF: Sage Publications.

Kelly, A.V. (1989). *The curriculum: Theory and practice.* London, UK: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Kelly, A.V. (1999). *The curriculum: Theory and practice* (4th ed.). London, England: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Kennedy, C. (1987). Innovating for a change: Teacher development and innovation. *English Language Teaching Journal, 41*(3), 163-170. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/41.3.163.

Kennedy, C. (1988). Evaluation of the management of change in ELT projects. *Applied Linguistics, 9*(4), 329-342. https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/9.4.329.

Kennedy, K. (2007). Curriculum reforms and international improvement in Asia. In T. Townsend (Ed.), *International handbook on school effectiveness and improvement* (pp. 807-824). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer.

Kennedy, T.L.M. (2000). An exploratory study of feminist experiences in cyberspace. *Cyber Psychology & Behavior, 3*(5), 707–719. https://doi.org/10.1089/1094931050191719.

Kerr, J.F. (1968). *Changing the curriculum*. London, England: University of London Press.

Kiefer, T. (2005). Feeling bad: Antecedents and consequences of negative emotions in ongoing change. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 26,* 875-897. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.339.

Killion, J., & Kaylor, B. (1991). Follow-up: The key to training for transfer. *Journal of Staff Development, 12*(1), 64-67.

Kim, E. (2011). Ten years of CLT curricular reform efforts in South Korea: An activity theory analysis of a teacher's experience. In K. E. Johnston & P. R. Golombek (Eds.), *Research on second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective on professional development* (pp. 225–238). New York, NY: Routledge.

Kimonen, E. & Nevalainen, R. (2005). Active learning on the process of educational change. *Teacher and Teacher Education, 2*(6), 623-635. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.05.003.

Kincheloe, J. L. (2003). *Teachers as researcher: Qualitative inquiry as a path to empowerment*. London, England: Routledge.

Kincheloe, J. L., & McLaren, P. (2000). Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research. N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.) (pp. 279-313). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

King, N., & Anderson, N. (1995). Innovation and change in organisations. London, England: Routledge.

Kirk, D., & Macdonald, D. (2001). Teacher voice and the ownership of curriculum change. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *33*(5), 551-567. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00220270010016874

Kirkgoz, Y. (2008). A case study of teachers' implementation of curriculum innovation in English language teaching in Turkish primary education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*(7), 1859-1875. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.02.007.

Koehler, M. S., & Grouws, D. A. (1992). Mathematics teaching practices and their effects. In D. A. Grouws (Ed.), *Handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning* (pp. 115-126). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Krahnke, K. (1987). *Approaches to syllabus design for foreign language teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kritek, W. L. (1976). Lessons from the literature on implementation. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 12*(3), 86-102. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013131X7601200307.

Lambright, W. H., & Flynn, P. J. (1980). The role of local bureaucracy-centred coalitions in technology transfer to the city. In J. A. Agnew (Ed.), *Innovation research and public policy* (pp. 243-282). Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press.

Lamie, M. (2004). Presenting a model of change. *Language Teaching Research, 8*(2), 115-142. http://dx.doi.org/10.1191/1362168804lr137oa.

Laukkanen, R. (2008). Finnish strategy for high-level education for all. In N. Soguel & P. Jaccard (Eds.), *Governance and performance of education systems* (pp. 305-324). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Lawton, D. (1983). *Curriculum studies and educational planning*. London, England: Hodder and Stoughton.

Lefstein, A. (2004). [Review of the book *Standards deviation***:** *How schools misunderstand education policy,* by Spillane, J.P.]. *Education Review*. Retrieved from http://edrev.asu.edu/reviews/rev333.htm.

Leigh, J. H., Lucas, G. H. Jr., Woodman, R. W. (1988). Effects of perceived organizational factors on role stress: Job attitude relationships. *Journal of Management, 14*(1), 41-58. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920638801400105.

Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., & Mascall, B. (2002). A framework for research on large-scale reform. *Journal of Educational Change, 3*(1), 7-33. https://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1016527421742.

Lewin, K.M., & Stuart, J.S. (2003). *Researching teacher education: New perspectives on practice, performance and policy*. Brighton, Centre for International Education: University of Sussex.

Li, D. (1998). It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine: Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(4), 677-703. https://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588000.

Li, L. (2004). Teacher empowerment in school-based curriculum. *Theory and Practice of Education, 19*(4), 45-47.

Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (1999). *Teachers: Transforming their world and their work.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lieberman, A., Saxl, E. R., & Miles, M. B. (2000). Teacher leadership: Ideology and practice. In A. Lieberman, E.R. Saxl & M.B. Miles (Eds.), *The Jossey-Bass reader on educational leadership* (pp. 339-345). Chicago, IL: Jossey Bass.

Little, J. W. (1993). Teachers' professional development in a climate of educational reform. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 15*(2), 129-151.

Liu, Y., & Perrewe, P. L. (2005). Another look at the role of emotion in the organizational change: A process model. *Human Resource Management Review, 15*(4), 263-280. https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2005.12.001.

Locastro, V. (2001). Large classes and student learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 35*(3), 493-496. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588032.

Lockheed, M., & Levin, H. (1993). Creating effective schools. In H. Levin & M. Lockheed (Eds.), *Effective schools in developing countries* (pp. 1-19). London, UK: The Falmer Press.

Lodico, M. G., Spaulding, D. T., & Voegtle, K. H. (2006). *Methods in educational research: From theory to practice*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lokmane Khelil, S. (2003a, May 19). Benbouzid dit 'non': Report des épreuves du Bac à Alger. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Lokmane Khelil, S. (2003b, Octobre 7). Un Comité est né: Défense des Libertés Syndicales. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Lokmane, S. (2003, Novembre 13). Echec des négociations tutelle-FNTE: Le syndicat maintient son mot d'ordre de grève. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Lounes, S. (2014, Décembre 14). L'Association des parents d'élèves aux syndicats: Arrêtez les grèves. *Info Soir*. Retrieved from www.infosoir.com

Lowe, C. (2009, November 9). Algerian teachers' strike over inflation. *Reuters*. Retrieved from www.reuters.com

Macdonald, D. (2003). Curriculum change and the post-modern world: Is the curriculum-reform movement an anachronism?. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *35*(2), 139-149. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00220270210157605.

Madani, M. (2009, Octobre 21). La grève du CNAPEST suivie à 85%: Les lycées d'Aïn Témouchent paralysés. *La Voix de l'Oranie*. Retrieved from www.voix-oranie.com

Makedhi, M. (2010, Mars 7). Alors que le CNAPEST réserve sa décision pour demain: L'UNPEF cesse la grève. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Malcolm, H. & Byrne, M. (1997). *5-14 in the primary school: The first four years.* Edinburgh: Scottish Council for Research in Education. Retrieved from http://www.scre.ac.uk.

Malley, R. (1996). *The call from Algeria: Third worldism, revolution, and the turn to Islam*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Mammeri, A. (2003a, Novembre 29). Les grévistes persistent et signent après les menaces du gouvernement. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Mammeri, A. (2003b, Décembre 6). La date du BAC reportée: Il sera organisé le 10 juillet. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Manfra, M. M. (2009). Action research: Exploring the theoretical divide between practical and critical approaches. *Journal of Curriculum and Instruction (JoCI) 3*(1), 32-46.

Mann, C., & Stewart, F. (2000). *Internet communication and qualitative research: A handbook for re-searching online*. London, UK: Sage.

Mansour, F. (2013). *Algeria reviews school reform*. Retrieved from http://www.magharebia.com/en_GB/articles/awi/features/2013/04/11/feature-03

March, C. (1992). *Key concepts for understanding curriculum*. London, England: The Falmer Press.

Markee, N. (1997). *Managing curricular innovation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Marsh, C. J. (2004). Key concepts for understanding curriculum (3rd ed.). London, England: Routledge Falmer.

Marsh, C. J., & Willis, G. (2007). Curriculum: Alternative approaches, ongoing issues. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Marsh, J, C. (1997). *Planning, management and ideology: Key concepts for understanding curriculum 2*. London, England: The Falmer Press.

Matheny, J. A., & Smollan, R. K. (2005). Taking change to heart: Exploring emotions experienced through change events. In N. M. Ashkanasy, W. J. Zerbe & C. E. J. Hartel (Eds.), *The effect of affect in organizational settings* (pp. 173-210). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Matland, R. E. (1995). Synthesizing the implementation literature: The ambiguity conflict model of policy implementation. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 5*(2), 145-174. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/1181674?origin=JSTOR-pdf.

McBeath, J., & Mortimore, P. (2001). School effectiveness and improvement: The story so far. In J. McBeath & P. Mortimore (Eds.), *Improving school effectiveness* (pp. 1-21). Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

McBee, M. (2004). The classroom as laboratory: An exploration of teacher research. *Roeper Review*, *27*, 52-58. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02783190409554288.

McClure, M. W., Woo, R. C., Lugg, C., Ree, C., & Ross, M. (1998, December). Teachers as school board members: Democratic communities, professional associations, and the generational trust. Paper presented at the The Research Group, National Educational Association. Retrieved from http://www.pitt.edu/~mmcclure/NEA/nea.htm.

McKernan, J. (1996). *Curriculum action research: A handbook of methods and resources for the reflective practitioner*. London, England: Kogan.

McLaughlin, M. W. (1987). Learning from experience: Lessons from policy implementation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 9*(2), 171-178. https://dx.doi.org/10.3102/01623737009002171.

McLaughlin, M.W. (1998). Listening and learning from the field: Tales of policy implementation and situated practice. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 70-84). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

McMillan, J. H. (2004). *Educational research: Fundamentals for the consumer* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Meho, L. (2006). E-mail interviewing in qualitative research: A methodological discussion. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, *57*(10), 1284-1295. https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.20416.

Meho, L.I., & Tibbo, H.R. (2003). Modeling the information-seeking behavior of social scientists: Ellis's study revisited. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology, 54*(6), 570–587. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/asi.10244.

Mekla, S. (2009, Octobre 10). Le CNAPEST décide d'une semaine de grève reconductible à partir de la mi-novembre. Instruction d'Ouyahia sur le régime indemnitaire. *Le Temps d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.letempsdz.com

Merkouche, R. (2003, May 20). L'ultimatum de Benbouzid: Grève des Etablissement du secondaire. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Mertens, D. (2009). *Transformative research and evaluation*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Miles, M. (1998). Finding the keys to school change: A 40-year odyssey. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 37-69). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Miller, L. (1998). Redefining teachers, reculturing schools: Connections, commitments and challenges. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, Part One* (pp. 529-543). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Ministère de l'Education Nationale (2005). *Programme d'Anglais deuxième langue étrangère (première année secondaire)*. Algérie, DZ : Commission Nationale des Programmes.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE (MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT FONDAMENTALE). *Décret exécutif n° 81-125 du 20 juin 1981 portant création d'un centre national de formation des cadres de l'éducation (C.N.F.).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 25 du Mardi 23 juin 1981, p.613-11.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE (MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT FONDAMENTAL). *Décret n° 82-485 du 18 décembre 1982 portant statut particulier des maitres de l'école fondamental.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 54 du Mardi 21 décembre 1982, p.1831-1833.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE (MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT FONDAMENTAL). *Décret n° 82-511 du 25 décembre 1982 portant statut particulier des professeurs de l'enseignement fondamental.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 56 du Mardi 28 décembre 1982, p.1920-1923.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE (MINISTERE DE L'ORIENTATION NATIONALE). *Décret n° 64-134 du 24 avril 1964 portant création de l'Ecole*

Normale Supérieure. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Vendredi 29 mai 1964, p.613.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE (MINISTERE DES ENSEIGNEMENTS PRIMAIRE ET SECONDAIRE). *Ordonnance n° 76-35 du 16 avril 1976 portant organisation de l'éducation et de la formation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 33 du Vendredi 23 avril 1976, p.428-432.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE (MINISTERE DES ENSEIGNEMENTS PRIMAIRE ET SECONDAIRE). *Décret n° 70-115 du 1 août 1970 portant création d'instituts de technologie de l'éducation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 67 du Vendredi 7 août 1970, p.749-750.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 92-243 du 9 juin 1992 portant création d'un centre national de documentation pédagogique.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Mercredi 10 juin 1992, p.1016-1019.

Ministère de l'éducation Nationale. (2005). *La refonte de la pédagogique en Algérie. Défis et enjeux d'une société en mutation.* Programme d'appui de l'UNESCO à la réforme du système éducatif PARE. UNESCO-ONPS.

Ministère de l'éducation Nationale. (2006). Réforme de l'éducation et innovation pédagogique en Algérie. Programme d'appui de l'UNESCO à la réforme du système éducatif PARE. UNESCO-ONPS.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Arrêté interministériel du 14 janvier 2009 complétant l'arrêté interministériel du 28 février 1998 portant organisation interne de l'institut national de recherche en éducation (I.N.R.E).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 42 du Dimanche 19 juillet 2009, p.16.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Arrêté interministériel du 19 octobre 2008 fixant l'organisation interne de l'observatoire national de l'éducation et la formation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 18 du Dimanche 22 mars 2009, p.8-9.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Arrêté interministériel du 24 janvier 1988 portant organisation interne du centre d'approvisionnement et de maintenance des équipements et moyens didactiques (CAMEMD).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 16 du Mercredi 20 avril 1988, p.492-493.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Arrêté interministériel du 24 août 2015 fixant les modalités d'organisation, la durée ainsi que le contenu des programmes de la formation pédagogique préparatoire des personnels enseignants durant le stage probatoire.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 55 du Mercredi 21 octobre 2015, p.23-24.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Arrêté interministériel du 25 février 2007 fixant l'organisation interne du centre national pédagogique et linguistique pour l'enseignement de Tamazight.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 21 du Mercredi 28 mars 2007, p.18-19.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 12-240 du 29 mai 2012 modifiant et complétant le décret exécutif n° 08-315 du 11 octobre 2008 portant statut particulier des fonctionnaires appartenant aux corps spécifiques de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Dimanche 3 juin 2012, p. 13-27.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 16-315 du 1 décembre 2016 portant création et suppression de lycées.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 72 du Mardi 13 décembre 2016, p.7-11.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 15-307 du 6 décembre 2015 fixant les attributions, la composition, l'organisation et le fonctionnement du conseil national des programmes.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 66 du Mercredi 9 décembre 2015, p.9-13.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 01-288 du 24 septembre 2001 portant modification du statut du centre national d'enseignement généralisé par correspondance, radiodiffusion et télévision.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 56 du Dimanche 30 septembre 2001, p.8-12.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 03-470 du 2 décembre 2003 portant création, organisation et fonctionnement d'un centre national pédagogique et linguistique pour l'enseignement de Tamazight.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 76 du Mardi 9 décembre 2003, p.5-8.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 03-471 du 2 décembre 2003 portant création, organisation et fonctionnement d'un centre national d'intégration des innovations pédagogiques et de développement des technologies de l'information et de la communication en éducation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 76 du Mardi 9 décembre 2003, p.8-12.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 04-342 du 4 novembre 2004 complétant le décret exécutif n° 01-288 du 24 septembre 2001 portant modification du statut du centre national d'enseignement généralisé par correspondance, radiodiffusion et télévision.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 70 du Dimanche 7 novembre 2004, p.5.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 04-343 du 4 novembre 2004 portant statut-type des instituts de formation et de perfectionnement des maitres de l'école fondamentale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 70 du Dimanche 7 novembre 2004, p.6-9.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 05-404 du 17 octobre 2005 modifiant et complétant le décret exécutif n° 90-174 du 9 juin 1990, modifié, fixant les modalités d'organisation et de fonctionnement des services de l'éducation au niveau de la wilaya.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 70 du Mercredi 19 octobre 2005, p.10-11.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 08-287 du 17 septembre 2008 fixant les conditions de création, l'organisation, le fonctionnement et le contrôle des établissements et centre d'accueil d la petite enfance.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 53 du Mercredi 17 septembre 2008, p.11-17.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 08-315 du 11 octobre 2008 portant statut particulier des fonctionnaires appartenant aux corps spécifique de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 59 du Dimanche 12 octobre 2008, p.3-26.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 09-318 du 6 octobre 2009 portant organisation de l'administration centrale du ministère de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 58 du Dimanche 11 octobre 2009, p.3-10.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 10-130 du 29 avril 2010 complétant le Décret exécutif n° 95-143 du 20 mai 1995 portant transformation du centre national d'alphabétisation en office national d'alphabétisation et d'enseignement pour adultes.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 30 du Mercredi 5 mai 2010, p.4.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 10-228 du 2 octobre 2010 fixant l'organisation et le fonctionnement de l'inspection générale du ministère de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 57 du Dimanche 3 octobre 2010, p.6-8.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 10-229 du 2 octobre 2010 fixant l'organisation et le fonctionnement de l'inspection générale de la pédagogie du ministère de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 57 du Dimanche 3 octobre 2010, p.8-9.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 10-230 du 2 octobre 2010 fixant les dispositions relatives à l'organisation et au fonctionnement du lycée.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 57 du Dimanche 3 octobre 2010, p.10-12.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 12-240 du 29 mai 2012 modifiant et complétant le décret exécutif n° 08-315 du 11 octobre 2008 portant statut particulier des fonctionnaires appartenant aux corps spécifique de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Dimanche 3 juin 2012, p.13-27.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 2000-35 du 7 février 2000 portant réaménagement du statut du centre national de formation des cadres de l'éducation et changement de sa dénomination en institut national de formation et de perfectionnement des personnels de l'éducation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 05 du Mercredi 9 février 2000, p.3-6.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 90-11 du 1 janvier 1990 portant création de l'office national des publications scolaires (ONPS).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 02 du Mercredi 10 janvier 1990, p.51-54.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 90-174 du 9 juin 1990 fixant les modalités d'organisation et de fonctionnement des services de l'éducation au niveau de la wilaya.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 24 du Mercredi 13 juin 1990, p.692-993.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 94-265 du 6 septembre 1994 fixant les attributions du ministre de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 57 du Mercredi 14 septembre 1994, p. 5-7.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 95-82 du 15 mars 1995 portant création d'une inspection générale au ministère de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 16 du Dimanche 26 mars 1995, p.13-14.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret exécutif n° 96-72 du 27 janvier 1996 portant réaménagement du statut de l'institut pédagogique national et changement de sa dénomination en 'institut national de recherche en éducation' (INRE).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 08 du Mercredi 31 janvier 1996, p.10-14.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 2000-36 du 7 février 2000 portant réaménagement du statut des instituts de technologie de l'éducation et modification de leurs dénominations en instituts de formation en cours d'emploi.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 5 du Mercredi 9 février 2000, p.7-9.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 68-301 du 30 mai 1968 portant statut particulier des professeurs certifiés de l'enseignement secondaire ou technique.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Vendredi 31 mai 1968, p.600-602.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 68-302 du 30 mai 1968 portant statut particulier des professeurs d'enseignement moyen.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Vendredi 31 mai 1968, p.602-603.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 68-308 du 30 mai 1968 portant statut particulier des instituteurs.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Vendredi 31 mai 1968, p.610-612.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 68-309 du 30 mai 1968 portant statut particulier des instructeurs.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Vendredi 31 mai 1968, p.612-613.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 68-310 du 30 mai 1968 portant statut particulier des moniteurs.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Vendredi 31 mai 1968, p.613-614.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 68-425 du 26 juin 1968 fixant la durée des études à l'école normale supérieur et la situation administrative des élèves-professeurs.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 59 du Mardi 23 juillet 1968, p.863-864.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 69-114 du 29 juillet 1969 portant engagement quinquennal des élèves-maitres des écoles normales.* Journal *Officiel* de la République Algérienne n° 66 du Mardi 5 aout 1969, p.646.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 69-171 du 31 octobre 1969 portant création de la commission nationale de réforme de l'enseignement.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 96 du Vendredi 14 novembre 1969, p. 1100.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 69-54 du 12 mai 1969 portant statut des élèves-maitres des écoles normales primaires.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 47 du Vendredi 30 mai 1969, p.436-439.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 86-291 du 9 décembre 1986 portant création du centre d'approvisionnement et de maintenance des équipements et moyens didactiques (CAMEMD).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 50 du Mercredi 10 décembre 1986, p.1378-1381.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Décret n° 96-73 du 3 février 1996 modifiant et complétant le décret n° 83-353 du 21 mai 1983 portant organisation de la formation, sanction des études et statut des élèves des instituts de technologie de l'éducation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 9 du Dimanche 4 février 1996, p.4-5.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Loi n° 08-04 du 23 janvier 2008 portant loi d'orientation sur l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 04 du Dimanche 27 janvier 2008, p. 6-17.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Loi n° 84-09 du 4 février 1984 relative à l'organisation territoriale du pays.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 06 du Mardi 7 février 1984, p.101-112.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Ordonnance n° 03-09 du 13 août 2003 modifiant et complétant l'Ordonnance n° 76-35 du 16 avril 1976 portant organisation de l'éducation et de la formation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 48 du Mercredi 13 aout 2003, p. 3-4.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE. *Ordonnance n° 76-35 du 16 avril 1976 portant organisation de l'éducation et de la formation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 33 du Vendredi 23 avril 1976, p. 428-432.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR ET DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE. *Arrêté interministériel du 03 Août 1999 fixant l'organisation administrative de la faculté au sein de l'université.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 77 du Mercredi 03 novembre 1999, p. 13.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR ET DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE. *Décret exécutif n° 04-371 du 21 novembre 2004 portant création du diplôme de License 'nouveau régime'.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 75 du Mercredi 24 novembre 2004, p. 9-10.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR ET DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE. *Décret exécutif n° 08-265 du 19 aout 2008 portant régime des études en vue de l'obtention du diplôme de licence, du diplôme de master et du diplôme de doctorat.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 48 du Dimanche 24 aout 2008, p. 5-7.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR ET DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE. *Décret exécutif n° 90-149 du 26 mai 1990 portant création, organisation et fonctionnement de l'université de la formation continue.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 22 du Mercredi 30 mai 1990, p.635-639.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR ET DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE. *Décret exécutif n° 90-150 du 26 mai 1990 portant création de centres de formation continue.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 22 du Mercredi 30 mai 1990, p.639.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR ET DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE. *Circulaire n° 01 du 02 juin 2016 relative à la préinscription et à l'orientation des titulaires du baccalauréat au titre de l'année universitaire 2016-2017.* Retrieved from www.mesrs.dz

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret exécutif n° 04-371 du 21 novembre 2004 portant création du diplôme de licence 'nouveau régime'.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 75 du Mercredi 24 novembre 2004, p.9-10.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 02-319 du 14 octobre 2002 portant création du diplôme de maitre de l'enseignement fondamental, du diplôme de professeur de l'enseignement fondamental et du diplôme de professeur de l'enseignement secondaire.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 68 du Mercredi 16 octobre 2002, p.14.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 08-210 du 14 juillet 2008 portant transformation de l'école normale supérieure d'enseignement technique à Oran en école hors université.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 40 du Mercredi 16 juillet 2008, p.5.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 09-21 du 20 janvier 2009 portant création de l'école préparatoire en sciences de la nature et de la vie.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 06 du Dimanche 25 janvier 2009, p.11.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 09-22 du 20 janvier 2009 portant création de l'école préparatoire en sciences et techniques.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 06 du Dimanche 25 janvier 2009, p.11-12.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 09-23 du 20 janvier 2009 portant création de l'école préparatoire en sciences économiques, commerciales et sciences de gestion.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 06 du Dimanche 25 janvier 2009, p.12.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-202 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'une école normale supérieure en sciences fondamentales à Mostaganem.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.859.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-203 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'une école normale supérieure en éducation physique et sportive*

à Oran. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.859.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-204 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'une école normale supérieure en sciences fondamentales à Oum El Bouaghi.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.859.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-205 du 18 août 1984 portant création d'une école normale supérieure d'enseignement technique à Oran.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 août 1984, p.860.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-206 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'une école normale supérieure en lettres et sciences humaines à Alger.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.860.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-207 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'une école normale supérieure en lettres et sciences humaines à Oran.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.860.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-208 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'une école normale supérieure en lettres et sciences humaines à Constantine.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.860-861.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-215 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences médicales à Alger.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.866.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-216 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences médicales à Oran.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.867.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-217 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences médicales à Constantine.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.867-868.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-218 du 18 août 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences médicales à Annaba.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.868-869.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-219 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en agronomie à Blida.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.869.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-220 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en électronique à Blida.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.869.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-221 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en mécanique à Blida.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.869-870.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-222 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en architecture à Blida.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.870.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-223 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en langue et littérature arabes à Tizi Ouzou.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.870.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-224 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences économiques à Tizi Ouzou.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.870-871.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-225 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en informatique à Tizi Ouzou.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.871.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-226 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en génie civil à Tizi Ouzou.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.871-872.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-227 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences administratives à Tizi Ouzou.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.872.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-228 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en électrotechnique à Tizi Ouzou.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.872.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-229 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en agronomie à Tizi Ouzou.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.872-873.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-230 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en agronomie à*

Tiaret. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.873.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-231 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en génie civil à Tiaret.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.873.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-232 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en chimie industrielle à Mostaganem.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.874.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-233 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en biologie à Mostaganem.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.874.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-234 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en électrotechnique à Sidi Bel Abbés.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.874-875.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-235 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en biologie à Sidi Bel Abbés.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.875.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-236 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en informatique à Sidi Bel Abbés.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.875.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-237 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences administratives à Sidi Bel Abbés.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.875-876.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-238 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en langue et littérature arabes à Tlemcen.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.876.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-239 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences économiques à Tlemcen.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.876.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-240 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en biologie à Tlemcen.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.876-877.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-241 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en hydraulique à Tlemcen.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.877.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-242 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en culture populaire à Tlemcen.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.877.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-243 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en informatique à Sétif.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.878.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-244 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences économiques à Sétif.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.878.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-245 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en électronique à Sétif.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.878-879.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-246 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en mécanique à Sétif.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.879.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-247 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en chimie industrielle à Sétif.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.879.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-248 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en biologie à Sétif.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.879-880.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-249 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en langue et littérature arabes à Batna.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.880.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-250 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en agronomie à Batna.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.880.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-251 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en sciences*

économique à Batna. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.881.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-252 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en mécanique à Batna.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.881.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-253 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en architecture à Biskra.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.881-882.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-254 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en hydraulique à Biskra.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.882.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 84-255 du 18 aout 1984 portant création d'un institut national d'enseignement supérieur en mécanique à Oum El Bouaghi.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 34 du Mardi 21 aout 1984, p.882.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Décret n° 94-255 du 24 juillet 1994 portant création du diplôme national d'agrégation de l'enseignement secondaire.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 50 du Mercredi 3 aout 1994, p.3.

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR. *Loi n° 08-06 du 23 février 2008 modifiant et complétant la loi n° 99-05 du 4 avril 1999 portant loi d'orientation sur l'enseignement supérieur.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 10 du Mercredi 27 février 2008, p.33-37.

MINISTERE DE LA FORMATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT PROFESSIONNEL. *Arrêté ministériel n° 83 du 28 septembre 2009 portant création de la classe passerelle DEP2/BTS.* Retrieved from www.mfep.gov.dz.

MINISTERE DE LA FORMATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT PROFESSIONNEL. *Décret exécutif n° 08-293 du 20 septembre 2008 fixant le statut-type des instituts d'enseignement professionnel.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 54 du Dimanche 21 septembre 2008, p.12-15.

MINISTERE DE LA FORMATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT PROFESSIONNEL. *Décret exécutif n° 08-294 du 20 septembre 2008 fixant les modalités de création du diplôme d'enseignement professionnel du premier degré (DEP1) et du diplôme d'enseignement professionnel du second degré (DEP2).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 54 du Dimanche 21 septembre 2008, p.15-16.

MINISTERE DE LA FORMATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT PROFESSIONNEL. *Décret exécutif n° 08-295 du 20 septembre 2008 portant création de centres de formation professionnelle et de l'apprentissage (CFPA).* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 54 du Dimanche 21 septembre 2008, p.16-17.

MINISTERE DE LA FORMATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT PROFESSIONNEL. *Décret exécutif n° 09-345 du 22 octobre 2009 fixant les modalités de création des diplômes sanctionnant les cycles de formation professionnelle initiale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 61 du Dimanche 25 octobre 2009, p.15-17.

MINISTERE DE LA FORMATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT PROFESSIONNEL. *Loi n° 08-07 du 23 février 2008 portant loi d'orientation sur la formation et l'enseignement professionnels.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 11 du Dimanche 2 mars 2008, p.4-6.

MINISTERE DE LA SOLIDARITE NATIONALE, DE LA FAMILLE ET DE LA CONDITION DE LA FEMME. *Arrêté interministériel du 13 mars 2014 fixant les modalités d'ouverture de classes spéciales pour enfants handicapés au sein des établissements d'éducation et de l'enseignement publics relevant du secteur de l'éducation nationale.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Dimanche 27 juillet 2014, p.26-28.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 03-05 du 14 juin 2003 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2003.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 37 du Dimanche 15 juin 2003, p.3-6.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 03-22 du 28 décembre 2003 portant loi de finances pour 2004.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 83 du Lundi 29 décembre 2003, p.3-30.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 07-12 du 30 décembre 2007 portant loi de finances pour 2008.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 82 du Lundi 31 décembre 2007, p.3-25.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 11-11 du 18 juillet 2011 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2011.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 40 du Mercredi 20 juillet 2011, p.4-18.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 12-12 du 26 décembre 2012 portant loi de finances pour 2013.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 72 du Dimanche 30 décembre 2012, p.3-28.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 13-08 du 30 décembre 2013 portant loi de finances pour 2014.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 68 du Mardi 31 décembre 2013, p.3-43.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 14-10 du 30 décembre 2014 portant loi de finances pour 2015.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 78 du Mercredi 31 décembre 2014, p.3-48.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Loi n° 15-18 du 30 décembre 2015 portant loi de finances pour 2016.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 72 du Jeudi 31 décembre 2015, p.3-39.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Ordonnance n° 05-05 du 25 juillet 2005 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2005.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 52 du Mardi 26 juillet 2005, p.3-11.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Ordonnance n° 06-04 du 15 juillet 2006 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2006*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 47 du Mercredi 19 juillet 2006, p.3-11.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Ordonnance n° 07-03 du 24 juillet 2007 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2007*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 47 du Mercredi 25 juillet 2007, p.3-9.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Ordonnance n° 09-01 du 22 juillet 2009 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2009*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 44 du Dimanche 26 juillet 2009, p.4-22.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Ordonnance n° 10-01 du 26 aout 2010 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2010*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 49 du Dimanche 29 aout 2010, p.3-20.

MINISTERE DES FINANCES. *Ordonnance n° 12-03 du 13 février 2012 portant loi de finances complémentaire pour 2012*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 08 du Mercredi 15 février 2012, p.10-14.

Ministry of Education and Culture. (1993). *Towards Education for All: A development brief for education, culture and training,* Ministry of Education and Culture. Windhoek, Namibia: Gamsberg Macmillan.

Mize, D.W. (1978). *Algeria: A study of the educational system of Algeria and guide to the academic placement of students in educational institutions of the United States*. Washington, D.C: National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials.

Mkpa, A.M., & Izuagba, A.C. (2004). *Curriculum studies and innovation*. Enugu, Nigeria: Book- Konsult.

Mokrani, K. (2009, Janvier 24). Reprise de la protestation dans le secteur de l'éducation à l'initiative du Conseil des lycées d'Alger. *La Tribune.* Retrieved from www.latribunedz.com

Mokrani, K. (2014, Février 3). Paralysie progressive des établissements scolaires à travers le pays. Les syndicats de l'éducation défient le ministère. *La Tribune*. Retrieved from www.latribunedz.com

Mokua, B. (2010). *An Evaluation of the Curriculum Development Role of Teachers as Key Agents in Curriculum Change* (Master's thesis, North-West University, South Africa). Retrieved from http://www.dspace.nwu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10394/Mokua-B.pdf

Monson, M. P., & Monson, R. J. (1993). Who creates the curriculum? New roles for teachers. *Educational Leadership, 2*, 19-21.

Morgan, D. L. (1998). Practical strategies for combining qualitative and quantitative methods: applications for health research. *Qualitative Health Research, 8*(3), 362-376. https://doi.org/10.1177/104973239800800307.

Morisson, M. (2007). What do we mean by educational research. In R. J. Briggs & M. Coleman (Eds.), *Research methods in educational leadership and management* (2nd ed.) (pp. 13-36). Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

Morris, P. (1998). *Curriculum: Development, issues and politics*. Hong Kong, China: Hong Kong University Press.

Morris, P., & Adamson, P. (2010). *Curriculum, schooling and society in Hong Kong.* Hong Kong, HKSAR: Hong Kong University Press.

Morris, P., & Scott, I. (2003). Educational reform and policy implementation in Hong Kong. *Journal of Education Policy, 18*(1), 71-84. https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0268093032000042218.

Morris, P., Chan, K. K., & Ling, L. M. (2000). Changing primary schools in Hong Kong: Perspectives on policy and its input. In C. Day, A. Fernandez, T. E. Hauge & J. Muller (Eds.), *The life and work of teachers: International perspectives in changing times* (pp.38-54)*.* London, UK: Routledge Falmer.

Morrison, K. (1998). *Management theories for educational change*. London, England: Paul Chapman.

Morrison, K. R. B. (1993). *Planning and accomplishing school-centred evaluation*. Dereham, UK: Peter Francis.

Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research, 40*(2), 120-123. https://doi.org/10.1097/00006199199103000-00014.

Mosothwane, M. (2012). The role of senior secondary school mathematics teachers in the development of mathematics curriculum in Botswana. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Education, 5*(2), 117-129.

Mulford, B. (1998). Organizational learning and educational change. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 616-641). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Munn, P. (1995). Teacher involvement in curriculum policy in Scotland. *Educational Review, 47*(2), 209-217.

Murray, C.D. (2004). An interpretive phenomenological analysis of the embodiment of artificial limbs. *Disability and Rehabilitation, 26*(16), 963–973. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09638280410001696764.

Murray, C.D., & Harrison, B. (2004). The meaning and experience of being a stroke survivor: An interpretive phenomenological analysis. *Disability and Rehabilitation, 26*(13), 808–816. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09638280410001696746.

Naïm, R. (2003, Novembre 25). Dialogue de sourds. *Info Soir*. Retrieved from www.infosoir.com

Neil, P., & Morgan, C. (2003). *Continuing professional development for teachers: From induction to senior management*. London, UK: Kogan Page.

Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *19*(4)*,* 317-328. https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0022027870190403.

Neuman, W. L. (2003). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (5th ed.). Boston, London: Allyn and Bacon.

Nicholls, A. (1983). *Managing educational innovations.* New York, NY: Allen and Unwin.

Nieveen, N. (2011, September). Teachers' professional development in curriculum design in the Netherlands. Paper presented at the European Conference for Educational Research, Berlin, Germany.

Noel, G. (1974). The factors (positive or negative) in educational innovations at secondary level in the French system. In *Creativity of the school*. CERI Technical Report Number 1. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Noffke, S., & Somekh, B. (Eds.). (2009). *Handbook of educational action research.* London, England: SAGE.

Nunan, D. (1988). *The Learner-centred curriculum*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Nusair, N., Ababneh, R., & Bae, Y. (2012). The impact of transformational leadership style on innovation as perceived by public employees in Jordan. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, *22*(3), 182-201. https://dx.doi.org/10.1108/10569211211260283.

OBG. (2008). The report: Emerging Algeria 2008 [Google Books Version]. Retrieved from https://books.google.dz/books?isbn=1902339096

Office national des examens et concours, www.onec.dz.

Oloruntegbe, K. O. (2011). Teachers' involvement, commitment and innovativeness in curriculum development and implementation. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, *2*, 443–449.

Olson J., James, E. & Lang, M. (1999). Changing the subject: The challenge of innovation to teacher professionalism in OECD countries. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *31*(1), 69-82.

Olson, J. (2002). Systemic change, teacher tradition: Legends of reform continue. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 34(2), 129-137. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00220270110085697.

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology, 15*(1), 73-101. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13594320500451247.

Ornstein, A. C., & Hunkins, F. P. (2004). *Curriculum: Foundations, principals and issues* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon

Oulebsir, N. (2011a, Avril 1). 'Depuis le début du sit-in, il n'était pas question de rentrer bredouilles', Meriem Maârouf, porte-parole du Conseil national des enseignants contractuels. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Oulebsir, N. (2011b, Mars 25). Les enseignants contractuels assiègent la Présidence: 7 jours. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Oulebsir, N. (2011c, Avril 22). Grèves dans les écoles à partir de lundi: 7 jours. *El Watan.* Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Ouyahia, M. (2008, Janvier 3). Journée de grève generale des fonctionnaires publics: Les syndicats autonomes en action le 15 janvier prochain. *Le Soir d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.lesoirdalgerie.com

Owen, J. G. (1973). *The management of curriculum development*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Owston, R. (2007). Contextual factors that sustain innovative pedagogical practice using technology: An international study. *Journal of Educational Change, 8*(1), 61-77. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10833-006-9006-6.

Paechter, C. (1995). *Crossing subject boundaries: The micropolitics of curriculum innovation.* London, UK: HMSO.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307-332. http://dx.doi.org/abs/10.3102/00346543062003307.

Palmer, C. (1993). Innovation and experienced teacher. *English Language Teaching Journal, 47*(2), 166-171. https://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/47.2.166.

Pandian, A. (2002). English language teaching in Malaysia today. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 22*(2), 35–52.

Parsons, C. (1987). *The curriculum change game*. Lewes, London: The Falmer Press.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. (3rd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Paulsen, N., Callan, V. J., Grice, T., Rooney, D., Gallois, C., Jones, E., Bordia, P., & Jimmesion, N. (2005). Job uncertainty and personal control during downsizing: A comparison of survivors and victims. *Human Relations, 58*(4), 463-496. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0018726705055033.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System, 29*, 177-195. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0346–251X(01)00010–0.

Pearson, L. C., & Hall, B. W. (1993). Initial construct validation of the teaching autonomy scale. *Journal of Educational Research, 86*(3), 172-177. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00220671.1993.9941155.

Pearson NCS www.pearsonncs.com

Pelletier, C. (1991). Teachers' voices: The missing link. *Education Reform, 5*(1), 49-53.

Pence, K., Justice, L., & Wiggins, A. (2008). Preschool teachers' fidelity in implementing a comprehensive language-rich curriculum. *Language, Speech, & Hearing Services in Schools, 39*(3), 329-341. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18596290.

Pennington, M. (1999). *Asia takes a crash course in education reform.* Retrieved from http://www.unisco.org

Penuel, W. R., Fishman, B. J., Yamaguchi, R., & Gallagher, L. P. (2007). What makes professional development effective? Strategies that foster curriculum implementation. *American Educational Research Journal, 44*, 921–958. http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0002831207308221.

Perlman, D., & Takacs, G. J. (1990). The ten stages of change. *Nursing Management, 21*(1), 33-34. PMID: 2330180

Phipps, S. (2007). What difference does DELTA make?. *Cambridge ESOL Research Notes, 29*, 12–16.

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring Tension between Teachers' Grammar Teaching Beliefs and Practices. *System, 37*(3), 380-390. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002.

Pinar, W. F., Reynolds, W.M., Slattery, P., & Taubman, P.M. (2000). Understanding curriculum: An introduction to the study of historical and contemporary curriculum discourse (Counterpoints, Vol. 17) (5th ed.). New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Pratt, D. (1994). *Curriculum planning: A handbook for professionals*. Toronto, ON: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Prawat, R. (1990). *Changing schools by changing teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning*. East Lansing, MI: Centre for the Learning and Teaching of Elementary Subjects, Institute for Research on Teaching.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Décret présidentiel n° 89-18 du 28 février 1989 relatif à la publication au Journal Officiel de la République algérienne démocratique et populaire, de la révision constitutionnelle adoptée par référendum du 23 février 1989.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 9 du Mercredi 1 mars 1989, p.188-210.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Décret présidentiel n° 03-406 du 5 novembre 2003 portant création, organisation et fonctionnement d'un observatoire national de l'éducation et de la formation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 68 du Dimanche 9 novembre 2003, p.5.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Décret présidentiel n° 03-407 du 5 novembre 2003 portant création, organisation et fonctionnement d'un conseil national de l'éducation et de la formation.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 68 du Dimanche 9 novembre 2003, p.8-11.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Loi n° 91-05 du 16 janvier 1991 portant généralisation de l'utilisation de la langue arabe.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 03 du Mercredi 16 janvier 1991, p.38-41.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Loi n° 02-03 du 10 avril 2002 portant révision constitutionnelle*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 25 du Dimanche 14 avril 2002, p.11.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Loi n° 16-01 du 6 mars 2016 portant révision constitutionnelle*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 14 du Lundi 7 mars 2016, p.3-38.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Loi n° 64-230 du 10 août 1964 relative à la formation des maitres de l'enseignement du 1ᵉʳ degré et à la création d'écoles normales primaires.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 66 du Vendredi 14 août 1964, p.902-903.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Loi n° 82-13 du 28 aout 1982 relative à la constitution et au fonctionnement des sociétés d'économie mixtes.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 35 du Mardi 31 aout 1982, p.1189-1194.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Loi n° 86-14 du 19 août 1986 relative aux activités de prospection, de recherche, d'exploitation et de transport, par canalisation, des hydrocarbures.* Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 35 du Mercredi 27 août 1986, p.1019-1026.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Ordonnance n° 05-07 du 23 aout 2005 fixant les règles générales régissant l'enseignement dans les établissements privés d'éducation et d'enseignement*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 59 du Dimanche 28 aout 2005, p.8-9.

PRESIDENCE DE LA REPUBLIQUE. *Ordonnance n° 96-30 du 21 décembre 1996 modifiant et complétant la loi n° 91-05 du 16 janvier 1991 portant généralisation de l'utilisation de la langue arabe*. Journal Officiel de la République Algérienne n° 81 du Dimanche 22 décembre 1996, p.5-6.

Pridmore, P. (2007). Adapting the primary school curriculum for multigrade classes in developing countries: A five-step plan and an agenda for change. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 39*(5), 559-576.

Priestley, M. (2005). Making the most of the *Curriculum Review*: Some reflections on supporting and sustaining change in schools. *Scottish Educational Review*, *37*(1), 29-38. Retrieved from http://storre.stir.ac.uk/bitstream/1893/1202/1/making%20the%20most-SER.pdf.

Priestley, M. (2011). Whatever happened to curriculum theory? Critical realism and curriculum change. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society, 19*, 221-238. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2011.582258.

Priestley, M., & Sime, D. (2005). Formative assessment for all: A whole school approach to pedagogic change. *The Curriculum Journal*, *16*(4), 475-492. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585170500384586.

Priestley, M., Edwards, R., Priestley, A., & Miller, K. (2012). Teacher agency in curriculum making: Agents of change and spaces for manoeuvre. *Curriculum Inquiry, 42*(2), 191-214. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-873X.2012.00588.x.

Pring, R. (2000). *Philosophy of educational research*. London, UK: Continuum.

Pryor, J., Akyeampong, K., Westbrook, J. & Lussier, K. (2012). Rethinking teacher preparation and professional development in Africa: An analysis of the curriculum of teacher education in the teaching of early reading and mathematics. *Curriculum Journal*, *23*(4), 409-502. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585176.2012.747725.

Punia, R. S. (1992). *Research on teachers' planning and its use in guiding curriculum, staff and institute development*. (Unpublished M.Phil. Dissertation). University of Bath, United Kingdom.

Quinn, F. M. (2000). *Principles and practice of nurse education.* (4th ed.). Cheltenham, UK: Stanley Thornes.

Rachidou, M. (2003, Décembre 1). La radiation est effective. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Rahmani, D. (2014, Janvier 25). L'UNPEF et le SNAPEST en grève dès demain. Echec du dialogue avec leur tutelle. *El Watan*. Retrieved from www.elwatan.com

Ramparsad, R. (2001). A strategy for teacher involvement in curriculum development. *South African Journal of Education, 21*(4), 287-291. Retrieved from https://www.ajol.info/index.php/jorind.

Rédha, M. (2013, Octobre 22). Le CNAPEST annonce le gel de la grève et la reprise des cours à partir d'aujourd'hui. *La Nouvelle République*. Retrieved from www.lnr-dz.com

Remaci, N. (2014, Janvier 25). Retour à la grève. *La Nouvelle République*. Retrieved from www.lnr-dz.com

République Algérienne Démocratique et Populaire, Ministère de l'Education Nationale, www.education.gov.dz.

Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond training: Perspectives on language teacher education*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers: Strategies for teacher learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Richardson, V., & Placier, P. (2001). Teacher change. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 905–947). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Riche, B. Arab, S.A., Bensemmane, M, Ameziane, H. & Hami, H. (2005). *Teacher's Book, Getting Through, secondary education: year two.* The National Authority for School Publications.

Riding, P. (2001). Online teacher communities and continuing professional development. *Teacher Development, 5*(3), 283-296. http://dx.doi.org/abs/10.1080/13664530100200144.

Riding, P., Fowell, S., & Levy, P. (1995). An action research approach to curriculum development. *Information Research*: *An International Electronic Journal, 1*(1). Retrieved from http://www.informationr.net/ir/1-1/paper2.html.

Robertson, A. S. (1971). Curriculum building. In L. C. Deighton (Ed.), *The* e*ncyclopaedia of education* (pp. 564-575). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Robson, C. (2002). Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner researchers (2ⁿᵈ ed.). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers.

Rodgers, T. S. (1989). Syllabus design, curriculum development and policy determination. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 24-34). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Roegiers, X. (2006). L'APC dans le système éducatif algérien. In Ministère de l'Education Nationale (2006), *Réforme de l'éducation et innovation pédagogique en Algérie. Programme d'appui de l'UNESCO à la réforme du système éducatif PARE* (pp. 51-84). UNESCO-ONPS.

Roehrig, G. H., Kruse, R. A., & Kern, A. (2007). Teacher and school characteristics and their influences on curriculum implementation. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 44*(7)*,* 883-907. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tea.20180.

Rogers, E. M. (1983). *Diffusion of innovations* (3ʳᵈ ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.

Rogers, E. M. (1995). *Diffusion of innovation* (4ᵗʰ ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.

Rogers, E.M. (2003). *Diffusion of innovations* (5ᵗʰ ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.

Ross, S., Troutman, A., Horgan, D., Maxwell, S., Laitinen, R., & Lowther, D. (1997, March). The success of schools in implementing eight restructuring designs: A synthesis of first-year evaluation outcomes. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 8(1)*, 95-124.

Rouha, S. (2003, May 25). Grève des enseignants: Le ministre lâche du lest. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. (2010). *Essential research methods for social work*. Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.

Ruddock, J. (1991). *Innovation and change.* Buckingham, England: Open University Press.

Rudduck, J. (1986). Curriculum change: Management or meaning? *Journal of a School Organization, 6* (2), 107-113.

Rugg, H., & Shumaker, A. (1928). *The child centered school*. New York, NY: World Book.

Ryan, A. (2005). Teacher development and educational change: Empowerment through structured reflection. *Irish Educational Studies, 24*(2), 179-198. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03323310500435463.

Ryan, A., & Cotton, D. (2013). Times of change: Shifting pedagogy and curricula for future sustainability. In S. Sterling, L. Maxey, & H. Luna (Eds.), *The Sustainable university: Progress and prospects* (pp. 151-167). Abingdon, UK: Routledge.

Ryan, E.D. (2007). *The value of school-initiated professional development in South African schools: A case study of two schools in two Gauteng districts* (Unpublished Master's thesis). Witwatersrand School of Education, Witwatersrand, South Africa.

Saad, M., Zawdie, G., Derbal, A., & Lee, R. (2005, May). *Issues and Challenges arising from greater role of the university in promoting innovation in developing countries: A comparative study of experiences in Malaysia, Algeria and Ethiopia*. Paper presented at Triple Helix Conference, Turin, Italy.

Sackney, L. (2000, February). *Leadership for the learning community*. Paper presented to the Nelson Principals' Group, Christchurch College of Education, Canterbury, New Zealand.

Sadoun, L. (2015, Aout 31). Année scolaire / Livres distribués, pas d'annonce de grève: Une rentrée pas comme les autres. *Info Soir*. Retrieved from www.infosoir.com

Safta, D. (2015, Mars 14). Education: Le pourrissement après la décision du CNAPEST de poursuivre son mouvement de protestation. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Sahlberg, P. (2009). Educational change in Finland. In A. Hargreaves, M. Fullan, A. Lieberman & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *International handbook of educational change* (pp. 1-28). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publisher

Salama, A. (2008, Janvier 5). Grève et rassemblement à l'horizon Intersyndicale de la fonction publique. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Saqipi, B., Asante, T., & Korpinen, E. (2014). Understanding the context of teacher professionalism in education systems undergoing transition–Kosovo case. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 112*, 635–646.

Saracaloğlu, S., Yılmaz, S., Çengel, M., Çöğmen, S., Karademir, Ç. A., & Kanmaz, A. (2010). Elementary teachers' views about their roles in curriculum development and evaluation process: The case of Denizli. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2*, 2427–2434. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.349

Sarason, S.B. (1990). *The predictable failure of reform: Can we change course before it's too late?* San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass

Schifter, D., Russell, S.J., & Bastable, V. (1999). Teaching to the big ideas. In M.Z. Solomon (Ed.), *The diagnostic teacher: Constructing new approaches to professional development* (pp. 22-47). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Schumpeter, J. A (1934). *The theory of economic development*. Cambridge, UK: Harvard University Press.

Schwab, J. J. (1969). The Practical: A language for curriculum. *The School Review*, *78* (1), 1-23. http://dx.doi.org/abs/10.1086/442881.

Schwab, J.J. (1973). The practical 3: Translations into curriculum. *School Review, 79*, 501-522.

Schwandt, T. A. (2001). *Dictionary of qualitative inquiry* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Scott, D. (2000). *Realism and educational research: New perspectives and possibilities.* London, England: Routledge The Falmer Press.

Scott, F.B. (1994). Integrating curriculum implementation and staff development. *ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 67*(3), 157-161.

Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(3): 580-607. https://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256701.

Sebti, N. (2003, Novembre 25). Le gouvernement va frapper Après l'échec des négociations entre les enseignants et l'éducation nationale. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Segovia, L.P., & Hardison, D.M. (2009). Implementing education reform: EFL teachers' perspectives, *ELT Journal, 63*(*2*), 154-162. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn024.

Selwyn, N., & Robson, K. (1998). Using e-mail as a research tool. *Social Research Update*, *21*. Retrieved from http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU21.html.

Semmar, A. (2010, Février 4). Le SNAPEST en grève à partir du 16 février prochain. La Tribune. Retrieved from www.latribunedz.com

Senouci, H. (2009, Septembre 13). Le CNAPEST appelle à la grève. *La Voix de l'Oranie*. Retrieved from www.voix-oranie.com

Shavelson, R. J., & Stern, P. (1981). Research on teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgments, decisions, and behavior. *Review of Educational Research, 51*(4)*,* 455-498. https://dx.doi.org/abs/10.3102/00346543051004455.

Short, K., & Burke, C. (1996). Examining our beliefs and practices through inquiry. *Language Arts, 73*(2), 97-104.

Short, P. M. (1994). Defining teacher empowerment. *Education, 114*(4), 488-492.

Sikes, P. J. (1992). Imposed change and the experienced teacher. In M. Fullan & A. Hargreaves (Eds.), *Teacher development and educational change* (pp. 36-55). London, England: The Falmer Press.

Silverman, D. (2005). Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook (2nd ed.). London, UK: Sage Publications.

Siskin, L.S. (1994). *Realms of knowledge: Academic departments in secondary schools.* London, UK: The Falmer Press.

Skander, M. (2009, Octobre 5). Le mouvement suivi à hauteur de 75,67%: Grève des enseignants à Annaba. *Le Temps d'Algérie.* Retrieved from www.letempsdz.com

Skilbeck, M. (1998). School-based curriculum development. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. G. Fullan & D. Hopkins (Eds.), *The international handbook of educational change, part one* (pp. 121-144). London, UK: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Skilbeck, M. (Ed.). (1984). *Evaluating the Curriculum in the Eighties*. London, England: Hodder and Stoughton.

Sloyan, R. M. (2009). *Trust, sense-making and individual responses to organizational change* (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). Benedictine university, Lisle, United States of America.

Smati, S. (2011, Novembre 2). Malgré les augmentations consenties, la Fonction publique reste en ébullition. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Smit, B. (2005). Teachers, local knowledge, and policy implementation: A qualitative policy-practice inquiry. *Education and Urban Society, 37*(3), 292-306. https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013124505275426.

Smith, L.J., Maxwell, S., Lowther, D., Hacker, D., Bol, L., & Nunnery, J. (1997, March). Activities in schools and programs experiencing the most, and least, early implementation successes. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 8(1),* 125-150.

Smollan, R. K. (2006). Minds, hearts and deeds: Cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change. *Journal of Change Management, 6*(2), 143-158. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697010600725400.

Smollan, R. K., & Sayers, J. G. (2009). Organizational culture, change and emotions: A qualitative study. *Journal of Change Management, 9*(4), 435-457. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697010903360632.

Smyth, J., McInerney, P., & Hattam, R. (2003). Tackling school leaving at its source: A case for reform in the middle years of schooling. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, *24*(2), 177-193.

Smyth, J., McInerney, P., Hattam, R., & Lawson, M. (1998). Teacher learning: The way out of the school restructuring miasma. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *1*(2), 95-109.

Snyder, J., Bolin, F., & Zumwalt, K. (1992). Curriculum implementation. In P.W. Jackson (Ed.), *The handbook of research on curriculum* (pp. 402-435). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Somekh, B., & Noffke, S. (2009) Conclusions. In S. Noffke & B. Somekh (Eds.), *Handbook of educational action research* (pp. 521-525). London, England: SAGE.

Sosniak, L. A., Ethington, C. A., & Varelas, M. (1991). Teaching mathematics without a coherent point of view: Findings from the IEA second international mathematics study. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 23*, 119-131.

Spencer, D. A. (2001). Teacher's work in historical and social context. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (4th ed., pp. 298-330). New York, NY: AERA.

Spillane, J. (1999). External reform initiatives and teachers' efforts to reconstruct their practice: The mediating role of teachers' zones of enactment. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *31*(2), 143-175. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/002202799183205.

Spillane, J. P. (2004). *Standards deviation: How schools misunderstand education policy*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Spillane, J. P., Diamond, J. B., Burch, P., Hallett, T., Jita, L., & Zoltners, J. (2002a). Managing in the middle: School leaders and the enactment of accountability policy. *Educational Policy, 16,* 731-763.

Spillane, J. P., Reiser, B. J., & Reimer, T. (2002b). Policy implementation and cognition: Reframing and refocusing implementation research. *Review of Educational Research, 72*(3), 387-431. https://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543072003387.

Stenhouse, L. (1975). *An introduction to curriculum research and development*. London, England: Heinemann.

Stiegelbauer, S. M. (1994). Change has changed: Implications for implementation of assessments from the organizational change literature. In R. J. Ansen (Ed.), *Systems reform: Perspectives on personalizing education* (pp. 7-25). DC: U.S. Department of Education, OERI, U.S. Government Printing Office.

Streb, C. K. (2010). Exploratory case study. In A. J. Mills, G. Durepos & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Case Study Research*. (pp. 372-374). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Swan, M. (1992). The textbook: Bridge or wall? *Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching, 2*(1), 32-35.

Synnot, A., Hill, S., Summers, M., & Taylor, M. (2014). Comparing face-to-face and online qualitative research with people with multiple sclerosis. *Qualitative Health Research, 24*(3), 431-438. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732314523840.

Taba, H. (1962). *Curriculum development. Theory and practice*. New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Tahraoui, A. (2003, April 26). Sit-in devant le Palais du gouvernement mardi prochain: Enseignants du secondaire. *Liberté*. Retrieved from www.liberte.dz

Takheroubt, B. (2003, Décembre 2). 281 enseignants radiés: Greve des lycées à Alger. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

Tanner, D., & Tanner, L. N. (1995). *Curriculum development: Theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill Prentice-Hall.

Tatto, M. T. (1998). The influence of teacher education on teachers' beliefs about purposes of education, roles, and practice. *Journal of Teacher Education, 49*(1), 66-77. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022487198049001008.

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Post-examination analysis of objective tests. *Med Teach, 33*, 447-58. https://doi.org/10.3109/0142159X.2011.564682.

Tawil, S. (2006). Le défi de la qualité de l'éducation en Algérie. La qualité te la pertinence de l'éducation : Un défi mondial. In Ministère de l'Education Nationale

(2006), *Réforme de l'éducation et innovation pédagogique en Algérie. Programme d'appui de l'UNESCO à la réforme du système éducatif PARE* (pp. 27-50). UNESCO-ONPS.

Taylor, P. C., & Medina, M. N. D. (2013). Educational research paradigms: From positivism to multiparadigmatic. *Journal for Meaning Centred Education, 1* (2), 1-13. Retrieved from www.researchgate.net.

Taylor, S., Rizvi, F., Lingard, B., & Henry, M. (1997). *Educational Policy and the Politics of Change*. London, UK: Routledge.

The World Bank. (2008). *Curricula, examinations, and assessment in secondary education in sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Thompson, N., & Bates, J. (1995). In-service training – myth and reality. *Curriculum, 16*(1), 53-61.

Thompson, S. K. (2012). *Sampling* (3rd ed.).New York, NY: Wiley.

Thongthew, S. (1999). Recent developments in education in Thailand. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 10,*118-123.

Touahria, M. (2009, Octobre 12). Arrêt des cours durant une semaine: Grogne au sein de l'Education. *Le Midi Libre*. Retrieved from www.lemidi-dz.com

Toualbi-Thaalibi, N. (2006). Trois années de réforme de la pédagogie en Algérie : Bilan et perspectives. In Ministère de l'Education Nationale (2006), *Réforme de l'éducation et innovation pédagogique en Algérie. Programme d'appui de l'UNESCO à la réforme du système éducatif PARE* (pp. 17-26). UNESCO-ONPS.

Trott, P. (2008). *Innovation management and new product development* (4th ed.). Harlow, England: Financial Times Prentice Hall

Troudi, S. (2006). Empowering ourselves through action research. In P. Davidson, M. Al-Hamly, J. Aydelott, C. Coombe, & S. Troudi (Eds.), *Teaching, learning, leading: Proceedings of the 11th TESOL Arabia conference* (pp.277–290). Dubai: TESOL Arabia Publications.

Tudor, I. (2001). *The dynamics of the language classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Tudor, I. (2003). Learning to live with complexity: Towards an ecological perspective on language teaching. *System, 31*(1), 1-12.

Tyack, D., & Cuban, L. (1995). *Tinkering toward utopia: A century of public school reform.* Cambridge, UK: Harvard University Press.

Underwood, P. R. (2012). Teacher beliefs and intentions regarding the instruction of English grammar under national curriculum reforms: A theory of planned behaviour perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(6), 911–925. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.04.004.

UNESCO. (2012). Données mondiales de l'éducation. Algérie. Retrieved from http://www.ibe.unesco.org

Vaccaro, I. G., Jansen, J. J. P., Bosch, F. A. J. V. D., & Volberda, H. W. (2012). Management innovation and leadership: The moderating role of organizational size. *Journal of Management Studies*, *49*(1), 28-59. Retrieved from http://econpapers.repec.org/scripts/redir.pf?u=http%3A%2F%2Fhdl.handle.net%2F10.1111%2Fj.1467-6486.2010.00976.x;h=repec:bla:jomstd:v:49:y:2012:i:1:p:28-51.

Valli, L., & Buese, D. (2007). The changing roles of teachers in an era of high-stakes accountability. *American Educational Research Journal, 44*(3), 519–558. http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0002831207306859.

Van den Akker, J.J. (1988). The teacher as a learner in curriculum implementation. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *20*(1), 47-55. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0022027880200104.

Vermeren, P. (2009). The North African educational challenge: From colonization to the current alleged islamist threat. *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies, 14* (2)*,* 49-64.

Vince, R., & Broussine, M. (1996). Paradox, defense, attachment: Accessing and working with emotions and relations underlying organizational change. *Organization Studies, 17, 1*-21. https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/017084069601700101.

Walker, A., & Cheong, C.Y. (1996). Professional development in Hong Kong primary schools: Beliefs, practices and change. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *22* (2), 197-212. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/11455/93293.

Wall, D. (1996). Introducing new tests into traditional systems: Insights from general education and from innovation theory. *Language Testing, 13*(3), 334-354. https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/026553229601300307.

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Wallace, M. J. (1998). *Action research for language teachers*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Wang, H. (2006). *An implementation study of the English as a foreign language curriculum policy in the Chinese tertiary context* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Queen's University, Belfast, United Kingdom.

Wang, H., & Cheng, L. (2005). The impact of curriculum innovation on the cultures of teaching. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly, 7*(4), 7-32. Retrieved from https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/1324/quarterly-journal/2005/12/the-impact-of-curriculum-innovation-on-the-cultures-of-teaching/

Wang, H., & Cheng, L. (2008). The impact of curriculum innovation on the culture of teaching. *Chinese EFL Journal, 1*(1), 5-30.

Wasi, P. (1998). *Educational reform: Intellectual reengineering as the way to survive national disaster.* Bangkok, Thailand: Office of the National Education Commission.

Waters, A., & Vilches, M. (2001). Implementing ELT innovations: A needs analysis framework. *ELT journal, 55*(2), 133-141. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.2.133.

Waugh, R.F., & Punch, K.F. (1987). Teacher receptivity to system wide change in the implementation stage. *Review of Educational Research, 57*(3), 237-254. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0141192930190509.

Wedell, M. (2003). Giving TESOL change a chance: Supporting key players in the curriculum change process. *System, 31*(4), 433-588.

Wedell, M. (2009). *Planning for educational change: Putting people and their contexts first.* New York, NY: Continuum International Publishing Group.

West, M. A., & Farr, J. L. (1990). Innovation at work. In M. A. West & J. L. Farr (Eds.), *Innovation and creativity at work: Psychological and organisational strategies* (pp.3-13). Chichester, England: Wiley.

White, E. (2013). *Algeria: Changing landscape for education*. Retrieved from http://www.english.globalarabnetwork.com/2013042612901/Culture/algeria-changing-landscape-for-education.html

White, P. A. (1992). Teacher empowerment under "ideal" school-site autonomy. Educational Evaluation & Policy Analysis, 14, 69-82. http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/01623737014001069.

White, R. (1987). Managing innovation. *English Language Teaching Journal, 41*(3), 211-218.

White, R. (1988). *The ELT curriculum: Design, innovation and management*. Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.

White, R. (1993). Innovation in curriculum planning and program development. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 13*, 244-259. https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S026719050000249X.

White, R. V. (1988). *The ELT Curriculum*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

White, R., Hodge, R., & Martin, M. (1991). *Management in English Language Teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

White, R.V. (1987). Managing innovation. *ELT Journal, 41*(3), 211-8.

White, S. C., & Glickman, T. S. (2007). Innovation in higher education: Implications for the future. *New Direction for Higher Education*, 137, 97-105. https://doi.org/10.1002/he.

Widdowson, H. G. (1993). Innovation in teacher development. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 13,* 260-275. https://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0267190500002506.

Wideen, M.F. (1992). School-based teacher development. In M. Fullan & A. Hargreaves (Eds.), *Teacher development and educational change* (pp. 123-155). New York, NY: The Falmer Press.

Wiles, J., & Bondi, J. (2007). *Curriculum development: A guide to practice* (7th ed.). New Jersey, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Winter, C. (2000). *Curriculum change: An ethnographic study of the politics of change in a secondary school* (Unpublished PhD Thesis). University of Sheffield, Sheffield, United Kingdom.

Wohlstetter, P. & Mohrman, S. A. (1996). *Assessment of school-based management, volume I: Findings and conclusions*. Los Angeles, CA: University of Southern California.

Wood, L., & Davis, B. G. (1978). *Designing and evaluating higher education curricula* (AAHE-ERIC Higher Education Research Report No. 8). Washington, D. C.: The American Association for Higher Education.

Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

World Bank. (1993, February 14). Algeria - Basic and Secondary Education Support Project. Retrieved from http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/139851468192267287/Algeria-Basic-and-Secondary-Education-Support-Project

Wubbels, T., & Poppleton, P. (1999). Knowledge about change and its effects on teachers. In M. Lang, J. Olson, H. Hansen & W. Bunder (Eds.), *Changing schools/changing practices: Perspectives on educational reform and teacher professionalism* (pp. 149-156). Louvain, BE: Garant.

Yalden, J. (1987). *Principles of course design for language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Yee, J. A. (1998). *Forces motivating institutional reform. ERIC Digest*. Retrieved from ERIC database (ED421179).

Young, J. H. (1979). Teacher participation in curriculum decision making: An organizational dilemma. *Curriculum Inquiry, 9*(2), 113-127.

Young, S., Persichitte, K.A., & Tharp, D.D. (1998). Electronic mail inter-views: Guidelines for conducting research. *International Journal of Educational Telecommunications, 4*(4), 291–299. Retrieved from http://staff.aub.edu.lb/~lmeho/meho-email-interviewing.pdf

Zembylas, M., & Barker, H. (2007). Teachers' spaces for coping with change in the context of a reform effort. *Journal of Educational Change, 8*(3), 235-256. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10833-007-9025-y.

Zerrouki, R. (2010, Mars 7). Gouvernement et syndicats: La guerre, les grévistes se rassemblent et menacent de durcir le ton. *La Nouvelle République*. Retrieved from www.lnr-dz.com

Zhao, Y., Pugh, K., Sheldon, S., & Byers, J. (2002). Condition for classroom technology innovations. *Teach. Coll. Record. 104*(3), 482-515. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-9620.00170

Zitouni, M. (2009, Novembre 23). La poursuite de leur mouvement se confirme. Les enseignants entament leur 3ème semaine de grève. *La Voix de l'Oranie*. Retrieved from www.voix-oranie.com

Zohrabi, M. (2014). Promoting teacher development through an interactive approach to curriculum development. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98*, 2025-2034. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.638

Zouaghi, Y. (2010, Mars 6). Les enseignants entendent poursuivre leur grève malgré la décision du ministère de l'éducation. *L'expression*. Retrieved from http://www.lexpressiondz.com

شاهر، ا. (2008). دروس في التشريع المدرسي الجزائري. المدرسة العليا للأساتذة،القبة . (Chaher, A. (2008). *Lectures in school legislation*. ENS Kouba, Algiers)

قرار رقم 151 مؤرخ في 26 فيفري 1991، يتضمن إنشاء مجالس التوجيه والتسيير وتنظيمها وعملها في مؤسسات التعليم الثانوي. (*Decree N° 151 dated February 26, 1991, on the establishment and organization of guidance councils in secondary schools*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 153 مؤرخ في 26 فيفري 1991، يحدد مهام الأساتذة في التعليم الأساسي والتعليم الثانوي. (*Decree N° 153 dated February 26, 1991, defining the duties of teachers in basic and secondary education*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490

قرار رقم 154 مؤرخ في 26 فيفري 1991، يحدد مهام نائب المدير للدراسات في مؤسسات التعليم الثانوي. (*Decree N° 154 dated February 26, 1991, defining the duties of secondary school assistant principal*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 156 مؤرخ في 26 فيفري سنة 1991، يتضمن إنشاء مجلس التنسيق الإداري وتنظيمه وعمله في المدارس الأساسية ومؤسسات التعليم الثانوي و المعاهد التكنولوجية للتربية. (*Decree N° 156 dated February 26, 1991, on the establishment and organization of administrative coordination council in basic schools, educational institutions, and institutes of education*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 157 مؤرخ في 26 فيفري سنة 1991، يتضمن إنشاء مجلس أقسام وتنظيمها وعملها في المدارس الأساسية ومؤسسات التعليم الثانوي. (*Decree N° 157 dated February 26, 1991, on the establishment and organization of class councils in basic schools and educational institutions*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 171 مؤرخ في 02 مارس سنة 1991، يحدد مهام المستشارين الرئيسين والمستشارين في التربية. (*Decree N° 171 dated March 02, 1991, defining the duties of education advisors and principal education advisors*). Retrievedfrom http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 172 مؤرخ في 02 مارس سنة 1991، يتضمن إنشاء مجالس التعليم وتنظيمها في المدارس الأساسية و الثانوي مؤسسات التعليم. (*Decree N° 172 dated March 02, 1991, on the establishment and organization of education councils in basic schools and educational institutions*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 173 مؤرخ في 02 مارس سنة 1991 يتضمن إنشاء مجلس التأديب وتنظيمه وعمله في المدارس الأساسية و مؤسسات التعليم الثانوي. (*Decree N° 173 dated March 02, 1991, on the establishment and organization of disciplinary council in basic schools and educational institutions*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 174 مؤرخ في 02 مارس سنة 1991، يحدد مهام الأساتذة المسؤولين عن المادة في التعليم الأساسي و الثانوي. (*Decree N° 153 dated February 26, 1991, defining the duties of teachers responsible of subjects in basic and secondary education*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

Decree N° 176 **قرار رقم 176 مؤرخ في 02 مارس سنة 1991، يحدد مهام مدير مؤسسة التعليم الثانوي.** *dated March 02, 1991, defining the duties of secondary school principal*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

قرار رقم 177 مؤرخ في 02 مارس سنة 1991، يحدد مهام الأساتذة الرئيسيين في التعليم الأساسي و التعليم الثانوي. (*Decree N° 177 dated March 02, 1991, defining the duties of form teachers in basic and secondary education*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490

قرار رقم 829 مؤرخ في 13 نوفمبر سنة 1991، يحدد مهام المقتصدين ومن يقوم بوظيفتهم في مؤسسات التعليم و التكوين. (*Decree N° 829 dated November 13, 1991, defining the duties of bursars in educational institutions*). Retrieved from http://www.education39.net/node/7490.

Appendices

Appendix A

Structure of the Algerian School System post to 2003
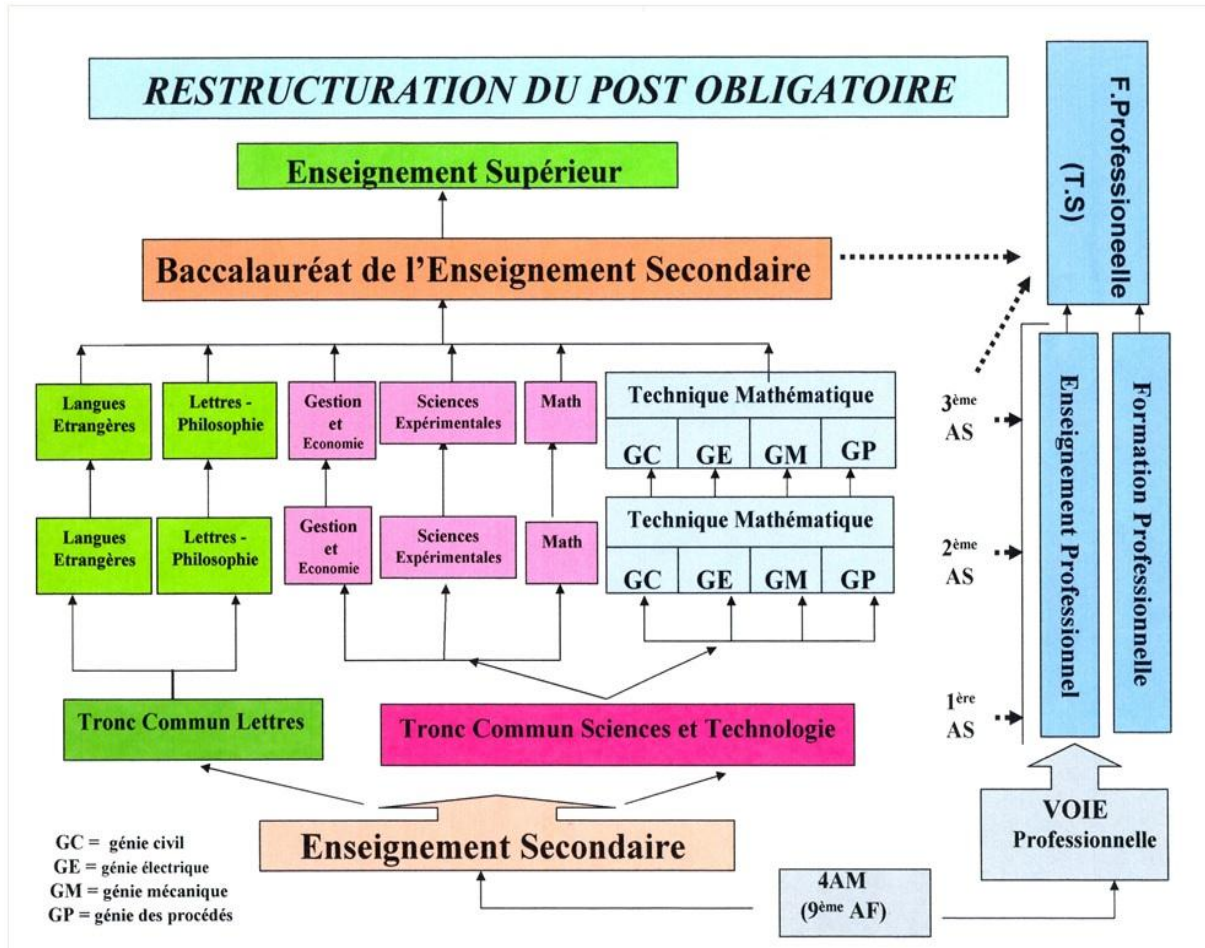
Source www.education.gov.dz.

Appendix B

Structure of the Algerian School System prior to 2003
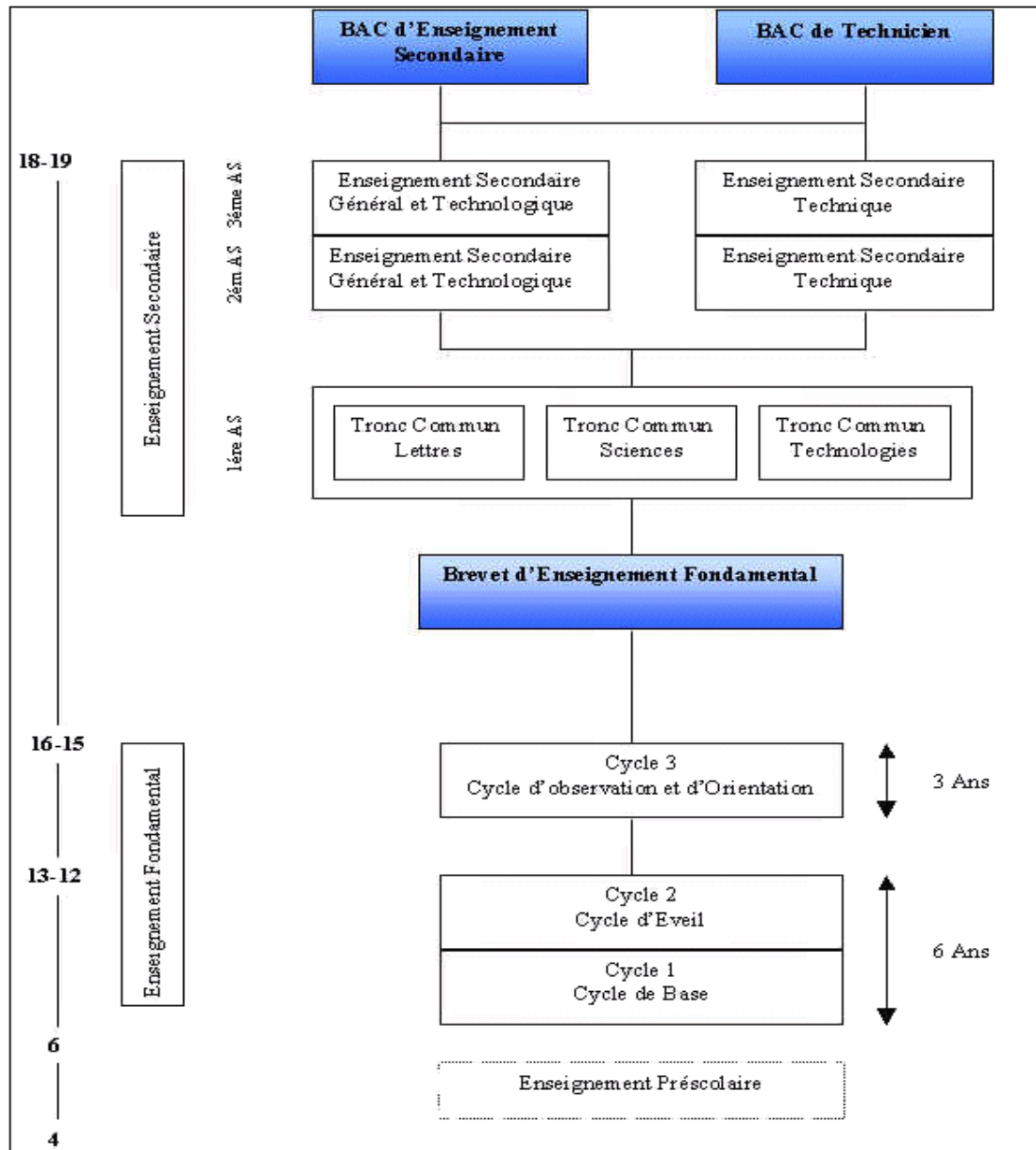
Source www.education.gov.dz.

Appendix C

Central Administration of the Ministry of Education

Le Ministre

Le Chef de Cabinet — 08 CES — 06 Attachés au cabinet

Le Secrétaire Général — 03 Directeurs d'Etudes — Bureau Ministériel de la Sureté Interne de l'Etablissement — Bureau du Courrier et de la Communication

L'Inspecteur Général de la Pédagogie — 15 Inspecteurs

L'Inspecteur Général — 10 Inspecteurs

- Direction de Gestion des Ressources Humaines
- Direction de gestion des Ressources financières et Matérielles
- Direction du Développement des Ressources Pédagogiques et Didactiques
- Direction de la formation
- Direction des Infrastructures et des Equipements

- Direction de l'Enseignement Secondaire Général et technologique
- Direction de l'Enseignement Fondamental
- Direction des Activités Culturelles et Sportives et de l'Action Sociale
- Direction de l'Evaluation et de la Prospective
- Direction desEtudes Juridiques et de la Coopération

Source www.education.gov.dz.

Appendix D

Teachers Questionnaire

Teachers Questionnaire

Dear Colleagues,

As you are one of the key and respectable participants in Algerian educational reforms, I hereby invite you to participate in the following survey, which is part of my Doctoral Research in Applied Linguistics. Your knowledge, experience and attitudes in the area of curriculum reforms and your implementation of it are of utmost importance. I would very much appreciate your cooperation. Your participation will directly affect the success of this research and, consequently, its results. So, please answer as best as you can as the results of the survey will show a better understanding of the process of curriculum change and how you responded to it. The goal is to use the information from the questionnaire to illustrate how your involvement in curriculum reforms can be encouraged and systematized in your schools to allow for your initiatives to feed in the top-down attempts to develop curricula. In other words, your roles in curriculum reforms will not be confined only to curriculum implementation, your roles are critical in curriculum development as a prerequisite for the success of the whole process.

Confidentiality
All information that is collected in this study will be treated confidentially. Results will be made available only in the research thesis and you are guaranteed that you will not be identified in any reports of the results of the study (your names are not required).

About the questionnaire
The questionnaire will be left for you to complete for a period of two weeks.
Guidelines for answering questions are typed in italics. Most questions can be answered by marking the most appropriate answer, if not stated otherwise.
Your participation is valuable to this study. However, you have the right not to participate if you do not wish to and withdraw at any time with any or no reason.
For questions and further details, please feel free to contact me at: i.gherzouli@univ-setif2.dz

Section A: General Data on Respondents Demographics
*Please put a tick [√] to your answer **to questions in all sections** and **write your answer whenever it is required.***

1. What is your gender?
☐ Female
☐ Male

2. What is your highest educational qualification?
☐ A three years License Degree
☐ A four years License Degree
☐ A five years License Degree
☐ A Magister Degree
☐ A Master Degree
☐ A Doctorate Degree (Classical System)
☐ A Doctorate Degree (LMD System)

3. How many years of teaching experience do you have?
☐ First year
☐ Two to five years
☐ Six to ten years
☐ More than ten years

4. Have you been promoted to a higher professional level and if so, which one?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Which one? …………………………..

5. How many class hours per week are you required to teach in your school? ………..

6. How maximum pupils are there in your class? ……….

Section B: Teachers' Views about the Curriculum Reform of 2003 (CR-2003)

B1- Teachers' Views about the Curriculum (Please tick all that Apply)

7. Does the Algerian curriculum comply with the following rules?

Statements	Yes	No
- Explicitly lists the pedagogical goals for the course and provide methodological guidelines		
- The methodological guidelines are helpful for teaching.		
- Is provided with workbooks and other methodological means		
- Considers Algerian teachers'/learners' society and culture		
- Gives teachers autonomy in instrumental and educational decision making		

B2- Teachers' Views about Secondary School Textbook Series

8. Are textbooks your primary source of input

☐ Yes
☐ No

9. Do the Algerian secondary school textbooks comply with the following rules? *(Please tick all that Apply for Multiple Choice Items)*

Content
☐ Matches the curriculum objectives
☐ Linguistic content is well graded
☐ Linguistic content is appropriately selected
☐ Present up-to-date, accurate information

Organization and Style
☐ Clearly written
☐ Use language and style appropriate for learners

Physical Features
☐ Attractive cover
☐ Well-designed page layout
☐ Durable binding

Section C: Curriculum Implementation (Please tick one answer)

10. How easy has it been for you to implement the CR-2003?
☐ Very easy
☐ Easy
☐ Sometimes easy and sometimes difficult
☐ Difficult
☐ Very difficult

11. From your experience in implementing the curriculum, how long did it take you to feel confident with the planning, teaching, and assessing aspects of the curriculum?
☐ Less than 1 year
☐ 1-2 years
☐ 2-3 years
☐ 3-4 years
☐ More than 4 years
☐ Do not know.

Section D: Factors Affecting Curriculum Implementation (Please tick all that Apply)

12. What are the factors inhibiting your implementation of the C2003?

Curriculum Factors
☐ Top-down imposed reform
☐ Lack of teachers' participation in the reform
☐ Non-clarity of the reform
☐ Imported reform
☐ Unplanned reform (no prior needs analysis)
☐ Others (please state): ………………………………………………………………………

Instructional Factors
☐ Teachers' attachment to old practice
☐ Mismatch between teachers' beliefs and curriculum goals
☐ Lack of professional development
☐ Lack of in-service training
☐ Inadequate knowledge of subject matter, methods, and learner assessment
☐ Lack of teachers' motivation, incentives and rewards
☐ Inadequate exposure to new trends in teaching
☐ Inadequate conduct of classroom research
☐ Examination dominated teaching

☐ Overloaded textbooks
☐ Lack of learners' interest
☐ Others (please state): …………………………………………………………………………

Organizational Factors
☐ Absence of a supportive mechanism
☐ Lack of coordination (between teachers, inspectors, principals)
☐ Lack of communication (between teachers, inspectors, principals)
☐ Influence of bureaucracy
☐ Others (please state): …………………………………………………………………………

Institutional Factors
☐ Lack of support for teachers' initiatives
☐ Class size (large)
☐ Short class period
☐ Shortage of time
☐ Lack of school teaching supplies (computer lab, internet, electricity)
☐ Lack of school reference materials (library)
☐ Lack of parental support
☐ Others (please state): …………………………………………………………………………

    13. What sources of support have been effective for your implementation of the C2003?
    (Please tick all that Apply)

☐ University education
☐ Inspectors
☐ Other teachers in the school
☐ Collaboration with university lecturers
☐ Teachers in other schools
☐ Books and journals
☐ Your own classroom research findings
☐ Others (please state): …………………………………………………………………………

Section E: Teacher Training

    14. How many teacher trainings/events per year does your school organise?
☐ One per year
☐ Two per year
☐ Three per year
☐ More than three

    15. Are the training events mostly:
☐ Theory-based
☐ Practice-based
☐ Both

    16. What types of trainings/events did you attend so far *(Please tick all that apply below)*?
    17. For every chosen type of training please indicate how much impact has it had upon your development as a curriculum implementer.

1= No impact, 2= A small impact, 3= A moderate impact, 4= A large impact

Plenary sessions	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
Pedagogical workshops	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
Education conferences or seminars	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
Examples of good practice	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
Supervision (by inspectors/*responsable de matière*)	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
E-learning (self-study)	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
Peer observation at own school	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
Participation in a network of teachers for TPD	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	
Collaborative class room research	☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4	

    Others (please state): …………………………………………………………………………..

Section F: Teachers' Involvement/non-involvement in Curriculum development

    18. Should teachers be involved in curriculum development?
☐ Yes
☐ No

If yes, will it ensure? **Tick all that apply**
☐ Ownership

☐ Professional development
☐ Commitment
☐ Bridging the gap between teachers' and curriculum specialists

If no, is it because of? **Tick all that apply**
☐ Limited time
☐ Limited training
☐ Others ……………………………………………………………………………………

     19.   Is every teacher fit to be involved in the curriculum development process?
☐ Yes
☐ No

If no, is it because of? **Tick all that apply**
☐ Limited time
☐ Limited training
☐ Others ……………………………………………………………………………………

     20.   Which roles do you play in curriculum reform (CD)? **Tick all that apply**
☐ Work with curriculum development teams to compose textbooks for secondary school level
☐ Evaluate textbooks
☐ Align content of curriculum with learners' needs in the classroom
☐ Organize school based workshops for teachers
☐ Organize training for teachers
☐ Help teachers on how to teach some topics
☐ Mark national examination
☐ Others (please state): ……………………………………………………………………….

Please use this space for further comments/suggestions:
……
……
……
……
……
……
……...........................
....
....
....
....
....

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix E

Inspectors Interview Questions

Questions to Inspectors

Dear Inspectors,

As you are one of the key and respectable participants in educational reforms, I hereby invite you to participate in the following interview, which is part of my Doctoral Research in Applied Linguistics. Your knowledge, experience and attitudes in the area of curriculum reforms and teachers' implementation of it are of utmost importance. I would very much appreciate your cooperation. Your participation will directly affect the success of this research and, consequently, its results. So, please answer as best as you can as the results of the interview will show a better understanding of the process of curriculum change and how Algerian English language secondary school teachers and inspectors cope with it.

Confidentiality

All information that is collected in this study will be treated confidentially. Results will be made available only in the research thesis and you are guaranteed that you will not be identified in any reports of the results of the study.

For questions and further details, please feel free to ask me any question.

About the Interview

Your participation is valuable to this study. However, you have the right not to participate if you do not wish to and withdraw at any time with any or no reason.

For follow-up questions and further details, please feel free to contact me at my email.

Your biography (Your name is not required. The information is needed because data about participants' profiles is required for the description of the research participants)

……

……

……

……

……………………………………………………………………………..…………………………………………………………………

Section A: Questions about the Curriculum 2003
1. How does the curriculum 2003 compare to the previous curriculum? Which aspects of the curriculum have undergone transformations?
2. Were there any carried out needs analysis?
3. Were there any specified perceived needs?
4. Is the curriculum appropriate/relevant to the Algerian teaching context?
5. Does the curriculum implemented get the nation anywhere?
6. Are secondary school English textbook series and curriculum objectives compatible?
7. Do teachers have a clear understanding of the curriculum?
8. How was the curriculum of 2003 communicated to teachers?
9. What kinds of curriculum materials are provided for teachers?
10. How deep was the change; i.e., have the beliefs of learners and teachers changed?

Section B: Teachers' Implementation of the Curriculum
11. Was there any resistance from teachers when they embraced the 2003 reforms?
12. What are the challenges that secondary school teachers face when implementing the 2003 English Curriculum?
13. Are teachers allowed to participate in curriculum development, and if they do participate, what is the nature of their participation?
14. Is the national curriculum empowering or limiting teachers' decision-making freedom?
15. What effect, if any, does the National English Test (BAC) have on teachers' implementation of the curriculum?

Section C: Teacher Education
16. What type of training is/was provided to teachers?
17. What is the structure of training/ training model?
18. Who are the trainers?
19. How does the training help teachers to understand and implement the curriculum?
20. Was there any analysis done about teachers' responses on the training?
21. How will you ensure teachers receive sufficient training to teach the programme?
22. Are some schools progressing less than expected?
23. Which teachers need extra support to implement the program as designed?
24. What additional coaching and training is needed to accelerate teachers to expert levels?
25. Is there a system or process in place for systematic teacher professional development?
26. Do teachers carry out small-scale classroom research to achieve best practice of the curriculum?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix F

Secondary Schools of Sétif Province

رقم	المؤسسات	احتياجية
1	ثا/ مليكة قايد	S
2	ثا/ فاطمة الزهراء	S
3	ثا/ محمد قيرواني	S
4	ثا/ المعز لدين الله الفطمي	S
5	ثا/ ابن رشيق	S
6	ثا/ ابن علوي صالح	S
7	ثا/ ابن خلدون	S
8	ثا/ عمر حرايق	S
9	ثا/ حي 1014 مسكن	S
10	ثا/ أبي بكر قراوي	S
11	ثا/ الشهيد احمد زهراوي	4
12	ثا/ حي يحياوي	7
13	ثا/ مالك بن نبي الهضاب	7
14	ثا/ عين الطريق	4
15	ثا/ لولو علي	6
16	ثا/ مالك بن نبي	5
17	ثا/ مولود قاسم نايت بلقاسم	3
18	ثا/ الشهيد سعال بوزيد	4
19	ثا/ الطيب بوعجاجة	5
20	ثا/ احمد قسوم	4
21	فجال	4
22	ثا/ مرزوقي علاوة	5
23	ثا/ معزو السعيد	6
24	ثا/ شرفة المكي	2
25	ثا/ بوقندورة الشريف	6
26	ثا/ عين السبت	4
27	ثا/ الشهيد بوقروة الذوادي	5
28	ثا/ الاخوة رحال	5
29	ثا/ تيزي نبشار	5
30	ثا/ البشير قصاب	6
31	ثا/ البصائر	5
32	ثا/ الامام مالك بن أنس	6
33	ثا/ زابر بكر	5
34	ثا/ العربي بن المهيدي	4
35	ثا/ طارق بن زياد	7
36	ثا/ دردار بوزيد	5
37	ثا/ بازر سكرة	5
38	ثا/ البار بن قانة	3
39	ثا/ هواري بومدين	6
40	ثا/ معيزة محمد النذير	4
41	ثا/ العربي بوحرود	4
42	ثا/ دايخ البشير	5
43	ثا/ محمد الصديق بن يحيى	3

رقم	المؤسسات	احتياجية
44	ثا/ العربي بليليطة	5
45	ثا/ لخضر بلمداني	5
46	ثا/ بن نويوة عبد القادر	4
47	ثا/ دحمان خلاف	5
48	ثا/ بالي الشلالي	5
49	ثا/ الشهيد سراي ضحوي	3
50	ثا/ رفيعي البشير	5
51	ثا/ رابح بقرار	4
52	ثا/ الاخوين عيكوس	3
53	ثا/ محمد بلعباس	4
54	ثا/ بوطالب	3
55	ثا/ محمد بعيطيش	8
56	ثا/ عين ازال الجديدة	5
57	ثا/ سعد مرابط بنرحدادة	4
58	ثا/ عبد الحميد بن باديس	4
59	ثا/ بيضاء برج الجديدة	4
60	ثا/ البشير الابراهيمي	5
61	ثا/ عمار خلوفي	4
62	ثا/ بورقبة العيفة	3
63	ثا/ محمد تومي	4
64	ثا/ عيسى هداجي	3
65	ثا/ بوجادي بوقرة	4
66	ثا/ بني وسين حبايلي	3
67	ثا/ نصر الدين ناصر	4
68	ثا/ نعطوي عبد الله	4
69	ثا/ لخضر مقلاتي	4
70	ثا/ تيزي نبراهم	4
71	ثا/ ارزقي كحال	2
72	ثا/ الطاهر ارغيب	7
73	ثا/ الـ 45 معدوم	4
74	ثا/ سليمان عميرات	4
75	ثا/ عين لقراج	4
76	ثا/ الشيخ ارزقي كتاب	4
77	ثا/ بني موحلي	2
78	ثا/ شوف لكداد	2
79	ثا/ صالح باي الجديدة	4
80	ثا/ الباز الجديدة	3
81	ثا/ بن توائي محمد - قاوة	4
82	ثا/ اولاد عدوان	3
83	ثا/ معاوية	2
84	ثا/ عين الحجر الجديدة	3
	المجموع	374

Source General Direction of Education, Sétif 2014-2015

Résumé

Au 21ème siècle, le besoin des pays de faire face aux enjeux de la mondialisation en concevant des programmes scolaires qui lui y sont adaptés était évident, d'où la réforme des programmes qui a eu lieu en Algérie en 2003. En ce sens, la présente étude a pour objectif de recommander un modèle d'élaboration de programmes visant à associer les enseignants dans ce processus, compte tenu du rôle crucial qu'ils jouent lorsqu'ils y sont impliqués, en combinant les instructions gouvernementales descendantes avec des initiatives ascendantes basées sur eux. Plus explicitement, l'étude vise à explorer et à identifier les perceptions, les points de vue et les préoccupations des professeurs d'Anglais du secondaire quant à leur mise en œuvre du programme de 2003 dans l'enseignement de cette matière. L'étude tend aussi à révéler les obstacles à leur autonomie et à leur implication dans l'élaboration du programme pour parvenir à une compréhension et une planification profondes vers une telle implication. Enfin, le but principal de l'enquête est de démonter comment la recherche-action des enseignants peut être encouragée dans les écoles afin de permettre à leurs initiatives d'aboutir à des approches descendantes pour la conception des programmes.

Le paradigme critique réside le cadre conceptuel guidant la présente recherche avec des données obtenues grâce à une enquête par questionnaire pour les professeurs d'Anglais du secondaire dans la wilaya de Sétif, et des entretiens par courrier électronique asynchrones avec cinq inspecteurs nationaux de l'enseignement secondaire. L'échantillonnage aléatoire stratifié proportionnel a fourni les 156 participants de l'étude. Les données quantitatives ont été analysées à l'aide du logiciel statistique pour les sciences sociales SPSS 23.0, tandis que le processus d'analyse des données qualitatives a été construit sur les techniques d'analyse thématique.

Les résultats ont préconisé l'existence d'une relation de pouvoir déséquilibrée entre le gouvernement et les enseignants avec l'ancien programme basé sur contrôle et les directives, ainsi que l'exclusion des enseignants de tout le processus de conception du programme. De plus, bien que les bonnes intentions du programme de 2003 soient reconnues, celles-ci ont été limitées par une multitude de facteurs liés au programme, mais qui sont aussi pédagogiques, organisationnels et institutionnels. D'autre part, plusieurs préoccupations à prendre en compte pour la formation et le soutien des enseignants découlent de l'analyse de leurs perceptions de la réforme du programme et sa mise en œuvre.

Pour conclure, les résultats et les recommandations de cette recherche devraient inciter les enseignants et les décideurs à prendre sérieusement en compte le rôle délicat que les professeurs d'Anglais devraient jouer dans l'élaboration du programme et le statu quo dont ils devraient jouir à cet égard. Les conclusions de l'étude ont également des implications pour les décideurs, qui peuvent soit encourager, soit décourager les réformes du programme et donc affecter la durabilité du pouvoir de l'enseignement et l'efficacité globale de l'éducation.

ملخص

اتضحت في القرن الحادي والعشرين حاجة البلدان عبر العالم الى مواكبة تحديات العولمة من خلال تصميم مناهج مدرسية تتكيّف معها، وهذا ما أدى إلى إصلاح المناهج الدراسية في الجزائر عام 2003. وفي هذا الصدد، تسعى هذه الدراسة إلى اقتراح نموذج لتطوير المناهج الدراسية في الجزائر و الذي يسعى إلى إشراك الأساتذة ، نظرا للدور الحاسم الذي يلعبونه ازان إسهامهم في هذه الاصلاحات، وذلك من خلال الجمع بين التعليمات الحكومية الهبوطية والمبادرات التصاعدية القائمة على الأساتذة. تهدف هذه الدراسة كذلك إلى استكشاف وتحديد تصورات أساتذة التعليم الثانوي للغة الإنجليزية حول آرائهم ومخاوفهم بشأن تنفيذهم للمنهاج الدراسي لسنة 2003 في تدريس هذه المادة. كما تسعى الدراسة أيضا إلى الكشف عن العوائق التي تحول دون استقلاليتهم وإشراكهم في تطوير هذا المنهاج من أجل تمهيد الطريق أمام فهم وتخطيط أعمقان نحو هذا الإشراك. وفي الأخير، يتجلّى الغرض الأساسي من التحقيق المجرى في إطار هذه الدراسة إلى توضيح كيف يمكن تشجيع بحث وعمل الأساتذة في المدارس حتّى تثمر مبادراتهم بمحاولات هبوطية لتطوير المناهج الدراسية.

ويكمن الاطار المنهجي الذي يسترشد به البحث الحالي في المنهج الانتقادي بالإضافة الى بيانات تم الحصول عليها من خلال استبيان موجه لأساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الثانوية لولاية سطيف ومقابلات عبر البريد الإلكتروني غير متزامنة مع خمسة مفتشي التربية الوطنية للتعليم الثانوي. نتائج العينات العشوائية الطبقية النسبية انتهت بالحصول على 156 مشاركا في الدراسة. وتم تحليل البيانات الكمية باستخدام الحزمة الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية SPSS 23.0، في حين تم بناء عملية تحليل البيانات النوعية على تقنيات التحليل المواضيعي.

كشفت النتائج عن وجود اختلال وعدم توازن فيما يخص علاقة السلطة بين الحكومة والأساتذة بحيث ان المنهاج السابق مؤسس على الرقابة والتعليمات، فضلا عن استبعاد الأساتذة من عملية تطوير المناهج الدراسية برمتها. وعلى الرغم من ايجابيات المنهج الدراسي لسنة 2003، إلا أنّ هذا الاخيركان مقيد بعدد كبير من العوائق المنهاجية والتعليمية والتنظيمية والمؤسسية. بالإضافة الى العديد من الشواغل التي ينبغي النظر فيها كتكوين الأساتذة ودعمهم من خلال تحليل تصوراتهم لإصلاح المناهج الدراسية وتنفيذها.

ومن المرجو أن تحث نتائج وتوصيات هذا البحث كل من الأساتذة و صانعي القرار على النظر بجدية في الدور الحساس الذي ينبغي أن يلعبه الأساتذة في تطوير المناهج الدراسية والمكانة التي يستحقونها في هذه العملية وكذا الاعتراف بهما. ولنتائج الدراسة أيضا آثار على صانعي القرارات الذين يمكنهم إما تشجيع أو تثبيط إصلاحات المناهج الدراسية، وبالتالي ربما التأثير على استدامة وفعالية التدريس.