Universidad de Granada

Departamento de Filología Inglesa

Doctoral Thesis

THE IDENTIFICATION OF QUALITY INDICATORS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING:

A STUDY IN COMPULSORY AND NON-COMPULSORY SECONDARY LEVEL LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCE OF GRANADA.

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TESIS presentada para aspirar al grado de Doctor en Filología Inglesa (Área de conocimiento de lingüística aplicada: Enseñanza de lenguas) por la Universidad de Granada, bajo la supervisión del Doctor Tony Harris, Profesor Titular del Departamento de Filología Inglesa, y el Doctor Daniel Madrid Fernández, Catedrático del Departamento de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura, de la Universidad de Granada.

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Fdo. Dr. Tony Harris   Fdo. Dr. Daniel Madrid Fernández

To Ores, Aileen and Borja,
who have shown me the true
meaning of positive expectations.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ALM	Audiolingual Method
ALTE	Association of Language Testers in Europe
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance between Groups
BOCyL	Boletín Oficial de Castilla y León
BOE	Boletín Oficial del Estado
BOJA	Boletín Oficial de la Junta de Andalucía
BS	British Standards
CAL	Computer Assisted Learning
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CBLL	Content-Based Language Learning
CBLT	Content-Based Language Teaching
CEF	Common European Framework
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CoE	Council of Europe
DEE	Department for Education and Employment (England)
DIALANG	Diagnostic Language Testing
EAQUALS	The European Association for Quality Language Services
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EFQM	European Foundation for Quality Management
EGB	Educación General Básica
ELP	European Language Portfolio
ELT	English Language Teaching
EQA	European Quality Award
EQAO	Education and Quality Accountability Office (Ontario)
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESO	Educación Secundaria Obligatoria
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FL	Foreign Language
FLT	Foreign Language Teaching

GRETA	Granada English Teachers Association
GT	Grammar Translation
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
INCE	Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Evaluación
INRA	International Research Associates
ISO	International Organisation for Standardisation
ITT	Initial Teacher Training
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
LGE	Ley General de Educación
LOCE	Ley Orgánica de Calidad de la Educación
LOCFP	Ley Orgánica de las Cualificaciones y de la Formación Profesional
LODE	Ley Orgánica Reguladora del Derecho a la Educación
LOE	Ley Orgánica de Educación
LOGSE	Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo
LOPEG	Ley Orgánica de la Participación, la Evaluación y el Gobierno de los Centros Docentes
LOU	Ley Orgánica de Universidades
MDS	Multidimensional Scaling
MEC	Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia
MECD	Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte
MFL	Modern Foreign Languages
MLT	Modern Language Teaching
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
Ofsted	The Office for Standards in Education
PAAU	Prueba de Acceso a la Universidad
PISA	Plan for International Student Assessment
PRIMA	Croatian Association of Language Schools
PSOE	Partido Socialista Obrero Español
QA	Quality Assurance

SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLL	Second Language Learning
TESOL	Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages
TPR	Total Physical Response
TQM	Total Quality Management
UCLES	The University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate
UG	Universal Grammar
UNESCO	United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

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ABSTRACT

Recent reforms in the Spanish education system have highlighted the need for the improvement of educational standards. As in other international contexts, the term quality has been emphasised at different stages of national school reforms, including *Ley Orgánica 10/2002 de Calidad en Educación* (LOCE) and *Ley Orgánica 2/2006 de Educación* (LOE). Furthermore, the concepts of quality assurance and quality management are increasingly being applied to language instruction at international levels. Competence in language learning itself has been identified by the European Union as a key indicator of quality in education, and in Spain, national policy-makers have called for research into the development of quality plans in the teaching and learning of foreign languages (MECD, 2001a; 2003). Although quality, with its current multi-faceted manifestations, is a relatively new development, it by no means entails entirely unfamiliar approaches to the promotion of more effective teaching and learning. The search for improving standards in areas such as teacher education, pedagogical input, classroom processes, and learner performance has existed long before the globalised adoption of modern-day quality paradigms. However, the current focus on quality as an instrument of change and control has recently taken centre stage in educational policies and practices.

The aim of this study is to examine quality issues in English language teaching (ELT) and other related fields and to find a consensus on what constitutes quality in this subject area in the specific context of secondary school instruction in southern Spain. Two surveys of key stakeholders in ELT were carried out in the

Abstract

province of Granada, in the first case to identify, and in the second, to validate a series of quality indicators for this area. The intended outcome of this process is the development of a series of illustrative indicators which, while not generaliseable, may be selectively employed by language departments in order to assess contextualised input factors, processes and results with a view to facilitating the identification, prioritisation and enhancement of key areas of improvement.

PART I:
INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Global Trends in School Reform and Quality in Education

Teachers in language departments all over the world share a number of common challenges with colleagues from other subject areas, prevalent among these is the unprecedented concern with improving *quality* in teaching and learning both in advanced and developing countries, where higher standards in education are being linked with improved levels of quality of life (UNESCO, 2005). Particularly within those more affluent regions, such as Europe, teaching practices are being profoundly affected by globalisation and developments in the fields of science, as well as in general and information technology (Carnoy, 1999). Alongside the phenomenon of globalisation, communication in modern foreign language (MFL) teaching has surfaced as an international goal (Cameron, 2002) and language policies have been affected by the internationalisation of accepted practices (Nunan, 2003; Truchot,

1998). Furthermore, common European approaches to language teaching, learning and assessment have emerged in conjunction with growing similarities in syllabus design, textbook contents, locally implemented curricula and classroom methods (Newby, 2003, p. 18). Finally, proposals have been developed to provide teacher education with a common European standards framework (see Kelly, Grenfell, Allan, Kriza, & McEvoy, 2004). This international convergence in areas which many would consider to be vital determinants of language learning quality is perhaps to be anticipated given the fact that proficiency in languages is perceived as an advantage in furthering career opportunities in a global economy (Uber Grosse, 2004, p. 361); furthermore, increased levels of communication and mobility between language experts and the implementation of the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework for Languages* (CEF) inevitably give rise to shared perceptions and procedures (Newby, 2003, p. 18). We can observe, therefore, that international trends are beginning to affect local contexts, in many cases encouraging regional or national decision-makers to adopt common policies and leading language teaching professionals towards similar pedagogical practices.

Linked to these global trends in language education is the parallel development of school reform (and often counter-reform) through the introduction of standards-based learning and external accountability measures, which, while also taking place on an international scale, give new responsibilities to schools and staff (Mahony, Menter & Hextall, 2004).[1] This may be considered by some within the teaching profession as constituting a challenging burden, particularly if the results anticipated

[1] In order to avoid confusion, further references to Mahony, Menter and Hextall (2004) will be made using Mahony *et al.* (2004a), while the later cited Mahony, Hextall and Menter (2004) will be made using Mahony *et al.* (2004b).

from successive systems of reform fail to fulfil either governmental or individual teacher expectations. In the recent past, evidence in relation to the effectiveness of reform initiatives has often been lacking (Hopkins, 2001; Hopkins & Reynolds, 2001; Wrigley, 2001; Yair, 1999). As Hopkins (2001) reports, schools in many countries have been subjected to new legislative and policy changes affecting numerous aspects of education systems, including curriculum, assessment and financing. The Spanish system has not escaped these policy changes, although it is perhaps in a unique position in the sense that several reform measures have been overridden without actually having had the chance to be appropriately analysed or even fully implemented.

In many contexts, school reform incorporates the measurement of staff performance, apparently justified by higher public demands for accountability (Mahony *et al.* 2004a). This, it appears, is becoming a more prevalent reality for certain subject areas which are progressively being placed under greater levels of international scrutiny:

The *quality* of national education systems is increasingly being compared internationally. This has placed increased emphasis on mathematics and science curricula, English as a foreign language, and communication skills. Testing and standards are part of a broader effort to increase accountability by *measuring* knowledge production and using such measures to assess education workers (teachers) and managers.

Carnoy (1999, p. 16)

In Europe, education is particularly influenced by these global transformations; but here, it is necessary to consider certain specific issues, including the fact that cooperative efforts between member states of the European Union has increased considerably in the last two decades, arguably leading not only to a series of *common principles*, but also to a *European model* of education (Hingel, 2001, p. 7). Such developments are possibly determined by socio-economic objectives, as can be seen in the speech made by President Nicole Fontaine at the Lisbon European Council, in which the strategic goal for the first decade of the new millennium was, according to her, "to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth, with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion" (European Parliament, 2000, p. 11). The focus on goals and performance management in Europe, therefore, has transcended the boundaries of economic policy and is becoming ever more common in education (Mahony *et al.*, 2004a). This paradigmatic shift inevitably entails reform, whereby recent global tendencies appear to be generating deep transformations in formal instructional settings, placing higher levels of emphasis on accountability and the inclusion of many concepts directly extracted from market-economy discourse.

Historically, it has often been the case for school reform to have been presented under various banners of new movements; this has occurred, for instance, with the School Improvement and School Effectiveness models (see Bolívar, 1997; Hopkins & Reynolds, 2001). While these frameworks and their implications for this national context will be discussed at a later stage, suffice it to say at this point that there is a growing perception that they are merging as educational programmes for improvement (Reynolds, Bollen, Creemers, Hopkins, Stoll & Lagerweji, 1996), and

that among the levels of convergence we find that improvement models are beginning to place higher levels of importance on accountability and are simultaneously adopting the traits of economic rationalism (Wrigley, 2004). Systems of improvement and accountability in the form of total quality management (TQM) or quality assurance (QA), traditionally applied to manufacturing and commerce, are now being employed in education at a global level.[2] For this reason, it is not uncommon to observe widespread public endorsement for the adoption of specific quality models by a number of educational administrations, as can be observed in Quality in Education (2001) in Great Britain. Similarly, in the case of the Spanish educational administration, there has been a tendency to support a particular framework of quality, based on the Excellence Model provided by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM). This is evidenced in the promotion of the framework both at university and at secondary school levels (see Consejo de Universidades, 1998; MEC, 2001a). Quality, then, seems to have become accepted as an important philosophical and instrumental vehicle for global transformation in education, and in Spain, like many other European countries, has received growing levels of attention in recent years.

Nonetheless, several challenges may be associated with the implementation of school reform based on new systems of accountability, standards and quality models. Firstly, there is a need to provide teachers with working knowledge of the basic operational characteristics of quality frameworks employed at whole-school levels, yet it is difficult to find agreement as to the conceptualisation of generic terms such

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[2] This is a global trend and it has even been hypothesised that such movements are innately connected with the phenomenon of globalisation itself (Vidovich, 2004, p. 342).

as quality, and, indeed, different approaches involved in such implementation depending on whether a school opts for quality assurance or quality management modalities. Secondly, teachers must be able to accept the fundamental premises of these models, such as collaborative professional development, reflective practice and openness to change and this has not always proved easy (see Hargreaves, Earl, Moore & Manning, 2001). Furthermore, the new systems of quality and accountability might be construed as being gendered in their use of performance management philosophies and language (Forrester, 2005; Mahony, Hextall & Menter, 2004), or rejected by teachers unwilling to accept top-down approaches to reform (Hargreaves *et al.* 2001; Welsh & Metcalf, 2003). Furthermore, changes in education based on these systems may fail as a consequence of poor design, the inclusion of unrealistic objectives, or simply because they are politically suspect, too complex, or objectionable in that they may be perceived as trying to shame teachers into submission (Hargreaves, 2002, p. 189). In addition, the movement towards performance management in instructional settings, observed in constructs like efficiency and economy, is seen as potentially incompatible with public sector services (Erridge, Fee & McIlroy, 1998; López, 2000) and standing in conflict with aspects more traditionally linked to education such as equity and caring (Bottery, 2006; Forrester, 2005). Finally, whole-school improvement frameworks may suffer rejection if, as previously mentioned, teachers consider that they are ineffective and have limited impact on classroom instruction and learning outcomes.

It is possible that for language teachers in Spain many of the concepts of quality in terms of QA or TQM, along with its ensuing challenges are yet to form part of their everyday working lives; however, it is not likely that this will remain so

for much longer. In the case of Europe, the goals of accountability and quality presented in general education directives are inevitably translated into aims specifically targeting language learning. This is exemplified in the report from the European Commission (2001a), which includes, among three objectives, that of improving the quality of education and training systems in the European Union. The report specifically refers to language development and states:

> Improving foreign language learning is essential if Europe is to achieve its potential, be it economic, cultural or social. Europe is multilingual and foreign language teaching should reflect this – as it increasingly does. The learning of foreign languages as part of education and training is important not only for the cultural enrichment of the individual but also as a contribution to mobility and European competitiveness.
>
> European Commission (2001a, p. 14)

These objectives coincide with the introduction of the discourse of quality and performance management which is becoming ever more prevalent in European language education policy. Language learning itself has been identified as an indicator of quality (European Commission, 2001b) and specific descriptors of quality have been recommended for initial language teacher training (see Kelly *et al*., 2004). Similarly, the Council of Europe has been engaged in a number of projects concerned with enhancing the quality of language learning and instruction. The most prominent of these actions is, undoubtedly, the creation of the CoE's (2001) *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. As the name implies,

and as is made explicitly clear at the beginning of the document, this framework is one of reference, presented with a view to developing FL teaching and learning by finding a way to compare objectives and learner performance in a variety of national and local contexts (Morrow, 2004, p. 6). The CEF may not initially strike teachers as being a document that bears any sort of resemblance to TQM or QA, but it has been directly associated with both (see Heyworth, 1999, p. 6).

Although the CEF holds a prominent position as a frame of reference, is by no means the only Council of Europe initiative which may be linked to quality in language teaching. Other bodies, including the CoE sponsored European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML), have been concerned with the development of descriptions of good practice and quality frameworks, which have been developed both for mainstream modern language instruction such as the QualiTraining project (Muresan, 2003; Muresan, Heyworth, Matheidesz, & Rose, 2003) and bilingual instruction, seen in the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Matrix (Marsh, 2005). These concerns have been reinforced in the ECML's calls for project proposals for 2008-2011, where the new medium-term programme has placed *quality*, *competence* and *teacher empowerment* as central areas of investigation for teacher trainers, language teaching researchers and key multipliers.[3]

Outside Europe, and most visibly in the field of English as a Second Language (ESL), the establishment of quality indicators has been more firmly established, (see Nunan, 2002). These indicators have been used both as performance benchmarks for quality in language education (e.g. TESOL, 2002) and as illustrative descriptors for

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[3] The medium-term programme is entitled *Empowering Language Professionals: Competences – Networks – Impact – Quality* (see http://www.ecml.at/)

internal programme development and improvement (e.g. Keltner, 1998). Given the scope of application and experience gained in their implementation, these models of quality, while intended for different contexts, are potentially of considerable interest to language professionals here in Spain.

As suggested in Hughes (2004a) the application of organic quality models in language instruction may have some benefits over top-down, whole-school improvement models since they focus more specifically on the needs of language learners and allow for the setting of realistic goals within individual instructional contexts. On the other hand, there are still several problems associated with such an application; not least of these is the lack of research on the subject. Indeed, as previously indicated, many of the quality models currently applied to language instruction come from other related fields, such as Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), or accreditation bodies catering mainly for the private sector, like the European Association for Quality Language Services (EAQUALS). Despite the fact that these organisations may provide some insights into improvement frameworks for language instruction, they are not intended specifically for the local context within which this study is being completed. Other projects (e.g. QualiTraining), have been involved in piloting frameworks and disseminating knowledge related to key areas of quality applied to language teaching and, although the above-mentioned project, for example, appears to represent an important contribution to this field of study, its applications are still relatively general as it attempts to simultaneously take on board private and public sector education at primary, secondary, university and language school levels within a European context. Education and the specific learning environments, however, are intimately linked

(Harris, 2002; Noyes, 2004), and any system aiming to improve language learning must take into account the diverse contextual factors present in those situations where such learning is to take place (Hedge, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2002; Richards, 2001; Seedhouse, 1995). Thus, while international goals, studies and guidelines may offer a useful basis upon which to construct, it is apparent that there is also a need both to consider these matters in specific instructional settings and also to question them.

1.2 Theoretical Justification and Precedents

As the previous section attests, global trends in general and foreign language education are creating new conceptual frameworks and challenges for those professionally responsible for language learning. A major paradigm which is increasingly being applied to FL teaching and, particularly, ELT is that of quality, most frequently in terms of quality assurance and total quality management. At national and international levels there is a large body of literature detailing the concepts and applications of quality models in education in general (Álvarez, 1998; Lomax, 1996; Murgatroyd & Morgan, 1993; Riley & Nuttall, 1994; Rinehart, 1993). In contrast, analyses of quality applied to the specific case of language instruction are less abundant. Some authors have, to varying degrees, examined what quality may imply for language teaching (e.g. Grey, 2001; Nunan, 2002; Thomas; 2003; Walker, 1998; White, 1998). Nonetheless, the practical implications of the adoption of quality movements in language education remain elusive (Crabbe, 2003, p. 9).

It does seem that, as in European Commission guidelines or CoE sponsored models, a number of current projects either offer or promise to present more

comprehensive insights into the application of quality to language education through case studies and theoretical models. In relation to guidelines, for example, Kelly *et al.* (2004) develop a profile for initial language teacher education that is heavily influenced by quality assurance. In terms of project results, the dissemination of TQM and QA practices applied to language teaching and learning from various CoE undertakings are forthcoming. However, while these studies, both completed and on-going, may prove valuable, they do not target the area under investigation here, which lies within a concrete geo-political context, the teaching of a specific language (i.e. ELT) and a defined curricular level of instruction (compulsory and non-compulsory secondary education). This analysis, then, hones in on the application of quality indicators at a subject-specific level and, as can be observed from what has been stated, the main justification for the investigation is one of context.

Although very little comparative data exists with regards to foreign language competence in Spain, there is evidence to substantiate the need to reappraise several aspects of language education. Perceived levels of communicative competence in this country are comparatively lower than other affluent nations despite a continued increase in educational spending (COM, 2005) and the Spanish administration has, on numerous occasions, identified the need to develop plans to increase the quality of language education (MECD, 2001a; 2003). This has been directly or indirectly translated into national and regional policies and plans, visible in those aspects relating to language education within legislation, including LOCE (*Ley Orgánica 10/2002*) and LOE (*Ley Orgánica 2/2006*), the White Paper LEA (*Proyecto de Ley de Educación de Andalucía*), and in projects such as Consejería's (2005a) initiative

to introduce multilingualism is the Andalusian school system through the *Plan de Fomento de Plurilingüismo*.

However, it may be the case that there is a need to carry out more research in language teaching management in order to allow policy makers, inspectors and instructors to evaluate what quality in language instruction in context may entail. On an international scale, language management research is traditionally used at macro levels in order facilitate policy and planning. It has been observed, nevertheless, that micro levels of planning for language education are not only valuable, but also underrepresented in the literature in the field (Baldauf, 2005, p. 964). This may be particularly true for Spanish secondary education, which, as Wikeley, Stoll and Murillo (2005) indicate, has traditionally constituted an overly centralised system and has often discouraged teachers from initiating change, meaning that reform measures and initiatives often originate from outside the school rather than as a result of reflective practices. Language management and the search for organic forms of departmental improvement are prime concerns in this study, and while the exploration inevitably revises areas related to quality in general education and in foreign or second language teaching, the current investigation is centred on the use of quality indicators in the teaching of English within secondary schools.

This is by no means intended to be seen as yet another promotion of linguistic imperialism.[4] Instead, it takes into account both the reality that English as a foreign language has been identified as an international indicator of quality, and as such, is perhaps subject to more international scrutiny than most other languages (see

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[4] The concern for linguistic imperialism goes beyond the scope of this study and for further appraisal of this matter we would initially refer readers to Pennycook (1994), Edwards (2004) and Modiano (2001).

Carney, 1999, p. 16). It also accepts that the majority of schools in Spain teach English as a first foreign language as opposed to other FL subjects, as may be observed in participation levels in this subject in national and regional high-stake examinations, and in the demand for English bilingual schools in Andalusia, which is much higher than for other specific language subjects (see Consejería, 2005b; Consejería, 2006).

Furthermore, while it is true that the possibility exists to widen any study of FL management to incorporate other languages, given that schools in Andalusia are obliged to offer a second foreign language, the conditions under which each subject develops are different. The class time allocated to the main compulsory FL, normally English, is up to four hours per week in *ESO*; in contrast, the second choice for FL, normally French, is not compulsory for all students, and only two hours per week are spent on this subject. This creates difficulties for the second FL which legislation has yet to address, particularly when students move on to post-compulsory secondary education, since those with previous knowledge of the language may find themselves in classes with others who have none. So, while recognising that there should, in theory, be much common ground between the teaching of all modern languages, the particular characteristics of first and second foreign language learning in Andalusia, make finding agreement on quality indicators between subject-specific experts a more challenging task. This study may be of most interest, then, to parties responsible for the teaching and learning English, particularly since much of the literature and the entirety of the participants involved in this research come from a background that is professionally linked to the teaching of this subject, as opposed to other areas of language instruction. In addition to the specific scope of this

investigation, another potential limitation may be found in the fact that the majority of the respondents who took part in the empirical study are teachers. Although the investigation has been carried out with the cooperation and triangulation of experts from the field of language pedagogy and applied linguistics, and has taken place in consultation with the provincial school inspectorate at various stages, as discussed below, the indicators generated in this study are based mainly on the views of the teachers themselves.

1.3 Aims of this Study

From the outset, it should be stated that the aim of this study is not to produce stipulations, wide-ranging or local, with regards to the many and complex processes involved in language teaching; nor are there any intentions to challenge the diversity of the practicing professionals in their individual settings. The final objective of this investigation is to enhance perspectives on quality in language teaching and to facilitate reflection in context. Consequently, the principal research question may be formulated as follows: Which quality indicators may be used for secondary school language teachers in the province of Granada? In order to begin to construct a series of indicators for a specific learning environment, it would seem necessary to take into account the multiple factors involved within the context where this research takes place as well as external elements that inevitably influence practices. In the present examination, this involves several considerations related to the issue of quality in general education and in the professional field of language pedagogy; it also entails an exploration into more localised issues of policy and the pragmatics of practice. Ultimately, while bearing in mind these concerns, the empirical dimension

of the investigation takes on board the perceptions of stakeholders who are directly involved in ELT; in this case, adopting the use of a predominantly qualitative paradigm and accompanying quantitative methods to validate interpretative patterns. For the reasons provided above, the main research question is supported by five inter-related objectives intended to facilitate the understanding of the application of quality in context and to establish a knowledge base upon which to construct an illustrative framework of indicators intended for use mainly by English language departments. These objectives are described below.

> Objective 1: To identify viable change agents in language teaching management.

Quality in education is often understood as a move towards improvement, involving reform and change. In the development of a framework, it is perhaps necessary to identify the most viable and effective agents of change within specific settings. It is also argued here that there is a need to ascertain important contributory characteristics of agents in the search for improvement. Since the literature regarding change in language education is not as widely available as that detailed in common educational practices, the main focus will initially be on the dimensions of national, group and individual agents involved in general educational quality and improvement processes. Of particular relevance at this point is the quality movement itself, both in terms of its contribution to the creation of acceptable standards and its potential capacity, by means of organic models of improvement, to generate internal organisational enhancement. These issues are discussed in terms of the viability of

top-down approaches and the external establishment of indicators in contrast to other potential internal sources of improvement, such as the department, understood as an established professional community of practice within secondary school education.

> Objective 2: To provide an insight into the development of standards in language teaching at national and international levels.

In this study, we are dealing with quality and standards in language teaching and learning; yet despite the recent attention given to both issues, neither are entirely new concepts. Language pedagogy has a historical epistemology consisting, among other areas, of general education, language acquisition theory, and language methodology (see Newby, 2003; Stern, 1992). Particularly in the field of L2 pedagogy, new perspectives are emerging in the advent of quality. In order to determine which standards in the language learning process are seen to be important in diverse contexts, and with the purpose of comparing and contrasting these standards with opinions collected from the qualitative study, it would appear necessary to examine current perspectives on the applications of quality assurance in language teaching and learning, particularly in relation to the establishment of indicators. Language teaching is also shaped by the specific legislative and organisational context in which instructional processes are ultimately undertaken. Again this takes place both in terms of general and L2 education policy, which not only makes recommendations with regards to practice but also configures the objectives and actions of teachers through stipulated curricular contents, pedagogical guidelines, teacher education and learner assessment procedures, including the

implementation of high-stakes examinations. Here, we are dealing with a specific educational context, with its own history and teaching culture shaped, in part, by the above-mentioned areas. It is proposed that these factors should be acknowledged and examined so that the perceptions from respondents in the qualitative part of the study may be contextualised.

The method of inquiry employed when dealing with these questions is partly epistemological and ontological in nature, but because of the large number of intervening factors involved, the review must necessarily be a selective one, accentuating aspects which, while often existing as international concerns, are most relevant to the specific context of instruction under study.

Objective 3: To examine current applications of organic quality models in language instruction.

The establishment of indicators in language education, although potentially useful, is not enough in itself to facilitate improvement in teaching and learning. It is proposed here that these should be employed critically and within a framework that allows for both reflection and continuous improvement. The notion of organic models of development has been firmly established in general education through various studies on teacher effectiveness and school improvement (see Harris, 2000), and in the specific case of L2 pedagogy, through the contextualised use of diverse instruments for language teacher self-evaluation and in the promotion of action research as a framework for reflective and collaborative language teaching (Burns, 1999; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999). These models, however, take on a new meaning in the light of more recent applications of quality management and the examination

of new paradigms may provide insights into the possible inclusion of illustrative indicators within a wider improvement framework.

Objective 4: To obtain the perspective of teachers in the context of study.

It has been stated that teachers are *at the heart of educational improvement* (Hopkins & Stern, 1996, p. 501), and the justification for highlighting the views of practising professionals themselves lies in the fact that it is the teachers as qualified practitioners who are most familiar with the context in which they are working, and that in order to develop a framework of organic indicators, the process must take into account perceptions of those upon whom the establishment of systems of improvement ultimately depends. Therefore, to facilitate the production of a series of illustrative indicators relevant to the context of study, it is considered necessary here to obtain the perspectives of stakeholders engaged in language teaching at a local level. The elaboration of these indicators takes place through the use of surveys completed by participants professionally involved in English language teaching in the province of Granada and the procedures employed in gathering and analysing data are outlined in the following section.

Objective 5: To provide teachers with descriptive reference tools for continous improvement.

The audience for whom this study is most closely directed is that of English language departments in secondary schools, working as professional communities of

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practice (see Ayres, Sawyer & Dinham, 2004; Harris, 2001). It is suggested at this point that effective forms of continuous improvement based on the search for pedagogically sound principles and targeting precise areas of language classroom processes depend less on individual teachers working in isolation or on general whole-school approaches to quality management. Instead, it is argued that benefits may be gained by gathering the views from other specifically associated practitioners working as a team within the department in order to mutually enrich perspectives, develop realistic context-based policies and potentially guarantee continuity in the application of identified best practices between instructional levels. For this reason, apart from detailing a specific case study of the application of a continuous improvement framework during the review of the literature, this study concludes by providing a non-prescriptive framework of indicators based on those collected during the empirical investigation.

1.4 Research Techniques Employed

Within Part I, chapters Two to Four deal with the first three objectives of the study. The intention here is not only to examine the multiple contexts which configure ELT in these specific settings, but also to examine alternatives to the current state of practice. The participants, instruments, methods, procedures and results obtained in the empirical study are described in Part II. In this investigation, it is considered that the elaboration of quality indicators specific to this teaching context should be conducted by obtaining high levels of consensus among the subjects involved. The method of inquiry entails the use of iterative questionnaires responded by experts in the field under investigation and allows for the collection

and ratification of participants' views. The use of this method to develop quality indicators has precedents both in general education (e.g. Beamish & Bryer, 1999; Clark & Wenig, 1999) and language teacher-training (Kelly *et al.*, 2004). Given the method employed in the research design, this study does not begin with a specific hypothesis, but instead aims to generate multiple hypotheses through qualitative research (see Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). These hypotheses are extracted by means of the textual analysis of responses to an open questionnaire that asks informed participants to offer their views with regards to possible quality indicators in ELT in secondary level education. The analysed texts are grouped into relevant major categories and converted into individual items to be resubmitted for validation in order to determine levels of acceptability as indicators of quality.

1.5 Contributions to the Field

The application of quality to language education has been of increasing interest to researchers involved in L2 pedagogy in recent years (Alderson, 2004; Heyworth, 1999; Nunan, 2002; Thomas, 2003; White, 1998). The need for further research into the application of quality to language education can be identified in regional, national and international studies, as well as government recommendations (see Consejería, 2005a; Crabbe, 2003; MECD, 2003) and is evident in the previous work in ECML projects such as QualiTraining or CLIL matrix and in their current call for proposals for the years 2008-2012, which includes the establishment of quality frameworks for language teaching.

Because of the local nature and scope of this thesis, the combined research undertaken both in the review of the literature and in the qualitative study will be

most relevant to those who are responsible for language instruction in state secondary schools in Andalusia. This may include teachers, heads of department, teacher-trainers and teacher assessors, and inspectors. At a wider level, the analysis of the origins of the quality movement and its application to language instruction may prove useful to other researchers interested in language educational practices in Spain. Finally, it is intended that the identification of non-prescriptive contextualised indicators might serve, on the one hand, as the basis for the development of self-assessment and improvement instruments on the part of interested language departments in the local settings, and, on the other, as a possible referential contribution for the creation of indicators in a wider context.

CHAPTER TWO

QUALITY IN EDUCATION

2.1 Origins and Key Concepts of Quality

The application of quality programmes has had a steadily growing influence on manufacturing worldwide for several decades and is increasingly being used in the service sector. Given its success in private enterprises, it may seem logical for governments to encourage the introduction of principles and systems commonly employed in commerce and industry to public sectors, including education (Smyth, 1997). In the case of the United Kingdom under the Conservative Government, quality was seen as a central component of the New Right's plans to reduce waste and to increase public sector standards and performance without increasing spending (Erridge *et al.*, 1998, p. 343). The search or even imposition of quality in the British education system began to all intents and purposes with the 1988 Education Reform Act which lay down the foundations for the promotion of TQM (Doherty, 1994).

This drive towards quality in schools eventually lead to the establishment of externally controlled and enforced performance indicators for schools and individual teachers.

Despite the comparatively early and wide-spread implementation of quality in the UK, the incorporation of the quality paradigm in educational reform is clearly not limited to this region, and the adoption in the 1990s and at the turn of the millennium of similar policies based on the EFQM Model of Excellence and others may be observed throughout Europe (see EIPA, 2002). Arguably as a result of the rapid changes in communication and international cooperation, shared scientific studies which point to common goals and deficiencies as well as international comparative studies on learner performance, there has been a swift emergence of common policies in EU nations which underscores quality as a methodical approach to improving systems of education in an international context where competiveness is key (López, 2000). A certain degree of predictability, then, is to be found in the Spanish administrations' successive promotion of a *quality education for all* both in LOCE in 2002 and LOE in 2006.

In Europe today, the expansion of the quality movement is discernible in the rising number of organisations in the public and private industrial and service sectors, which have adopted forms of quality certification, including the ISO 9000[5] series, or the EFQM Excellence Model and its corresponding European Quality Award (EQA). [6] Despite this proliferation, however, there appears to be several varying, and sometimes conflicting ideas as what quality actually entails, particularly

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[5] This is the name for the International Organisation for Standardisation and derives from the Greek word meaning equal.
[6] EQA: The European Quality Award promoted by the European Foundation for Quality Management (van den Berghe, 1997, p. 9).

in relation to its application in non-profit entities such as the public school system. In general terms, among the many definitions of quality, Karatsu (1991, p. 9) describes the movement as the third industrial revolution; in addition, he maintains that one of the basic functions of quality control entails gathering data and finding guilty parties (ibid., p. 59). For Gitlow (1991, p. 9), it is an appraisal clients have of a product or service. Juran and Gryna (1993, pp. 21-22) describe the two most important definitions of quality as being: a) a group of characteristics that satisfy the needs of clients and hence make the product satisfactory; and b) zero deficiencies. In the field of education, Rhodes (1994, p. 403) defines quality as a type of value added management system, whereby the talent of those involved is used creatively in the ongoing development of an organisation. Finally, in an extensive review of the literature, Fuentes (2002, p. 309) tentatively concludes that quality is a management system based on customer orientated principles, continuous improvement and teamwork.

In the light of the apparent difficulties in presenting a complete and unifying definition of this concept, a description of the possible application of a system of quality in education may prove to be an even more challenging task. Although the term is undoubtedly familiar to all qualified professionals working in the field of education, its practical implementation as a possible instrument of organic improvement in this specific field is perhaps less well-known. Indeed, there is a certain degree of confusion as to what the quality actually refers, and recognition that quality in education internationally is not interpreted in a unified way (UNESCO, 2005, p. 30).

Pérez (2000, pp. 15-17) points to three main reasons behind the generalised confusion which surrounds this multi-dimensional concept. Firstly, there is a large degree of reductionism existing in relation to the very term *quality*; it may be considered by some, for example, that quality is synonymous with performance results, measured solely in terms of the extent to which an individual institution or company attains its pre-established goals. In contrast, for others, output measurements cannot constitute lone-standing quality indicators and must be complimented with other values of contributing process indicators. Secondly, there is the question of context and how one specific sector, such as non-profit public education, may differ radically in its objectives from those companies whose objectives are strictly economical. Finally, internationally recognised quality models like ISO and EFQM do not necessarily share the same operational characteristics and may focus on completely different aspects of an institution in order to control and/or improve upon services provided.

Because of the possible confusion existing with regards to this concept, and in order for us to be able to critically appreciate any theoretical or practical application of quality to language education, it would appear useful to provide a brief description of some of the basic principles and quality approaches currently employed in general education. Because of the wide array of quality programmes, the provision of the selective overview of the most common applications will inevitably be brief, moving from universal concepts of quality applied internationally and underscoring those areas that are of more direct relevance to its implementation in the context of education in Spain.

2.1.1 Historical Overview of the Quality Movement

López (2000) suggests that quality and its systematic focus on improvement goes beyond the analytical perspective originally inspired by Descartes and incorporates the concept of synergy, based on the Aristotelian *dictum* which theorises that the whole is greater than the sum of the individual parts. In terms of the development of quality as we know it today, James (1997) affirms that quality control has had three eras of development. The first of these was marked by the application of quality inspection techniques and the second came about from the introduction of quality control in production lines through the use of statistics. Finally, the third era of quality control was characterised by the introduction of a more flexible system which controlled both process and product stages of manufacture and saw the arrival of quality assurance bodies of BS and ISO.

During the history of the development of quality, it is possible to allude to several well-known proponents; for the purposes of this study, however, reference will be made so a small but important number of individuals who are representative or instrumental at these critical stages of the movement. One of the first major developments in the history of quality control, for example, can be traced back to Frederick Taylor (1911) and his publication of *The Principles of Scientific Management*. Taylor has been recognised for eliminating rule-of-thumb methods among workers and arbitrary management procedures in industry, promoting instead the scientific analysis and control of manufacturing processes; he is also considered to have contributed to the reduction of waste and unproductive work habits, the simplification of tasks and the establishment of incentives, while reconciling the need to appease both workers and managers in the process (Tsutsui, 1998, p. 8). The

statistical control of processes came to the fore during the Second World War, where there was a need to produce machinery *en masse* which would be reliable and cost efficient. This meant that control, both of the workforces and manufacturing procedures, was to increase dramatically. An important figure during this time was Edward Deming, whose theory on management has been said to be based on humanistic philosophy, having its roots in the belief that all individuals have the ability to learn, the desire to do a job well and the need for self-esteem (Tribus, 1994). In contrast to this background, Deming's methods were scientific and in the United States his approach of Statistical Process Control (SPC) was employed during the training of engineers and technicians involved in the production of war materials (Wren, 1998, p. 207). [7]

Nonetheless, the foundations of current applications of quality control and quality management were to progress most rapidly in Japan, where industries during the years following the Second World War began to concentrate on ways to further improve manufacturing (Álvarez, 1998). After his involvement in improving production in the US during World War II, Deming was to help turn the struggling Japanese economy not only through the use of SPC, but also by introducing other major changes in management philosophy and work-line production, examining both the processes and the people involved. The ensuing economic success was attributed to this consistent attention to quality, and soon, other nations began to show a great deal of interest in the quality movement as a means to improve their own flagging economies.

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[7] SPC is a quantitative method used to measure process performance. Processes may be considered to be controlled when they fall within normal mean scores (conventionally within ± 3 standard deviations); outliers are considered to have common causes and must be treated systematically (Beckford, 1998, p. 72).

Deming was obviously not alone in his attempts to control quality in production and management. Joseph Juran, who worked alongside Deming in the 1950s, was also a prominent figure in the quality movement. Juran's approach to quality control and quality improvement adopted a top-down strategy, which Beckford (1998) believes reflected Juran's belief that the responsibility for quality was largely attributable to management. For Juran, quality was only attainable by planning and the use of specific, measurable objectives; he also argued for high levels of training, which he considered essential for all company members and which had to be instigated from the top (ibid., p. 113).

Another important figure was Kaoru Ishikawa who, apart from applying statistical methods to improvement, also placed a great deal of emphasis on qualitative factors including attitude and participation as well as simple, direct, horizontal and vertical communication processes (ibid., p. 108). Deming, who later saw the importance of these factors after applying SPC methods Japan in the 1950s, was to become involved again in industrial production processes in the US, most prominently, perhaps, with his contribution as a consultant to the Ford Motor Company, where he introduced changes in work processes and management philosophy that were to have a significant effect on sales.

Thus, two main strands of thought emerge from the history of quality. The first of these, quality standards, is concerned with external validation and the statistical control of processes and results, as well as the elimination of defects. Examples of such models are ISO and BS. The second, total quality management, provides self-evaluation models, and although it is also involved in quantitatively examining process and performance, in essence it incorporates a humanistic approach, wherein

there is a prime concern with enabling companies to identify their own problems and implement organic improvements and simultaneously satisfy the needs of all stakeholders. Strategic frameworks based on TQM are to be found, for example, in the EFQM Excellence Model in Europe and in the Malcolm Baldridge Quality Award in the United States.

Sun (2000) reports that while TQM was exported from Japan to the US between the 1970s and 1980s and was introduced to Europe in the 1990s, the ISO 9000 standards system began in Europe and conversely spread to the US and Japan. These two methods, TQM (and related self-assessment models like EFQM) [8] and ISO have become the emerging quality improvement systems which directly or indirectly influence diverse European educational contexts. Even though various different types of quality programmes and certification bodies exist, either one or other of these two basic strands of control and management can be seen to embody the quality movement today. Therefore, while recognising the existence of other strands of quality,[9] the current examination will deal primarily with the essential methodological characteristics of those strategic systems most commonly employed within educational settings.

2.1.2 ISO and Quality Standards

Pujo and Pillet (2002) describe a duality between the concepts of *quality* and *control* stating that these complimentary components of quality assurance systems

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[8] Larsen and Haversjo (1998, p. 152) describe the EFQM model as "an operationalisation of the rather vague and differently described concept of total quality management".

[9] A number of improvement systems have also emerged from individual authors often considered as 'gurus' in the development of quality. Among others, these include Deming's *14 Steps Plan* (Deming, 1986), or Ishikawa's (1985) *Quality Control Guide*. In addition, newer versions of quality management, such as Six Sigma, are being applied in international contexts.

often pose a contradiction in terms. For these authors, quality is defined as "the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs"; control, on the other hand, is described as a "function aimed at optimizing the efficiency of the use of a production entity" (ibid., p. 101).

Intimately linked to quality control is the concept of quality assurance. As its name implies, quality assurance is concerned with providing a certified guarantee that certain processes employed and outputs obtained reach specific recognisable levels of acceptability. This occurs mainly through an external audit process and, under normal circumstances, only those organisations fulfilling the pre-established standards obtain subsequent certification. Both processes, quality control and quality assurance, can be seen to form the basis of the international quality certification known as the ISO 9000 series.

The ISO system, which dates back to the development of the US military industry in the 1950s, has become the main *de facto* quality standard for many sectors in European industry (van den Berghe, 1998, p.20). The United Kingdom alone boasts of approximately 80,000 to 90,000 ISO registered firms (Bendell & Boulter, 2004, p. 295), and it is estimated that there are 350,000 users worldwide (Sallis, 2002, p. 39). Perhaps the main advantage of this system lies in the fact that the standards it includes are recognised on an international basis and, depending on the specific standard employed, this guarantees consumers at home and abroad that specific readings have been made of the main process and/or performance measures of products or services, and hence, gives ISO certified companies an image of reliability.

Table 2.1

Components of ISO 9000

Standard	Characteristics
ISO 9000	This presents an outline of QA and QM standards, defines key concepts of quality and offers guidance for ISO 9001, 9002 and 9003.
ISO 9001	This offers a comprehensive certification standard and provides a detailed description of a model of quality assurance for design and development, production, installation, and activities related to servicing; furthermore the supplier must meet the ISO 9001 quality conditions and undergo external audits.
ISO 9002	This deals mainly with prevention, detection and correction of problems that may occur during installation and production; this model applies only to businesses providing installation and production services.
ISO 9003	This is used with companies that perform testing and inspection activities and is concerned with the detection and control of problems.
ISO 9004	This offers guidance in the developing and implementing a quality management system.

Note. Based on "The ISO 9000 International Quality Registration: An Empirical Analysis of Implications for Business Firms," by S. Ragothaman and L. Korte, 1999, International *Journal of Applied Quality Management*, *2*, p. 60.

The ISO 9000 series is a quality system comprised of five related standards numbered 9000 to 9004 (see Table 2.1). Users of this series are required to record and consistently follow documented procedures and, once the system has been implemented, it is evaluated by an independent body, which in turn provides official certification (Quazi, Hong & Meng, 2002, p. 53). It is worth noting that the first of these standards, ISO 9000, does not provide a quality guarantee on products, but instead is concerned with aspects of management, organisation and processes, and, in this facet at the very least, an important part of the ISO series is, in theory, directly

linked to TQM. In fact, this system also has some underlying principles that are closely linked to self-assessment models like the EFQM, including a focus on leadership and continuous quality improvement. Yet one of the most widely employed and perhaps familiar applications of ISO is the 9001 standard, which involves a comprehensive documented assessment of a company using pre-established indicators developed by technical committees, measuring, among other aspects, levels of product conformity, and involving the rigorous control of processes and internal testing. Here, there is also a concern for the establishment and control of quality management processes.

It is suggested that ISO has a number of possible benefits and drawbacks when applied to education. Among the advantages, van den Berghe (1998) considers that the certification process may be seen as a vehicle for the promotion of a high quality image, as a means of appeasing external pressures (i.e. governmental or other stakeholder interests), and as a way for developing a quality system that improves the entire organisation; on the other hand, potential disadvantages include the need for substantial investment in terms of time and money, higher levels of bureaucracy, as well as problems with interpretation and application (ibid., p. 24).

2.1.3 The EFQM and Self-Assessment

The use of self-assessment models based on TQM philosophy has emerged in Europe as a viable means to organically enhance process and performance. As the name implies, TQM is a holistic model of quality improvement which aims to penetrate all aspects of an organisation and depends strongly on leadership, quality strategy and human resource development as contributors to performance (Sun,

2000). Many elements of this movement may be traced back to Ishikawa (1985), who was concerned with the improvement of the entirety of the company, its stakeholders and all relevant processes and products. This preoccupation for improvement in the totality of the organisation continues today, as can be seen in Van de Berghe's (1997, p. 8) description of TQM as essentially being "an organisational strategy and a management approach which involves all employees and is aimed at continuously improving the organisation's effectiveness in achieving customer satisfaction".

In the Spanish educational context, TQM principles and practices are perhaps most visibly present in use of the above-mentioned model proposed by the European Foundation for Quality Management, initially employed in private schools and increasingly adopted during the last decade in the public sector. The EFQM was founded in 1988 and built on the work of previously implemented US total quality models while taking into account the idiosyncrasies of the European dimension. According to Larsen and Haversjo (1998), the EFQM model can be considered to be "a systematic framework for evaluating one's own organisation and its quality endeavours; as a sort of grid or catalogue assuring all-round balanced evaluation of the activities and results" (ibid., p. 152). Since its initiation, this foundation has attempted to apply a series of principles to a large number of companies and institutions in the public and private sectors. The basic framework for this system is essentially the same for small businesses as it is for education, this is exemplified in the terminology of "clients" and "suppliers", employed frequently in the publication of CECE-ITE's (1998) manual *Modelo Europeo de Gestión de Calidad: Centros Educativos o Formativos no Universitarios*. The main ideological precepts and practical strategies contained within TQM, including the concept of totality,

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benchmarking and information sharing, are to be found in the principles of the above cited EFQM model; these include (CECE-ITE, 1998):

1. the inclusion of all activities in the business;

2. the promotion of quality as an individual responsibility;

3. satisfaction of the internal client;

4. an emphasis on prevention;

5. the promotion of participation and collaboration;

6. the promotion of work well done and continuous improvement;

7. the promotion of teamwork;

8. the involvement of suppliers in improvement process;

9. the promotion of information, communication and recognition;

10. satisfaction of the client in terms of quality, cost and time periods.

These general principles are integrated into nine criteria (Fig. 2.1), which in turn form the basis for groups of individually identified indicators established by an internal quality committee under the supervision of an externally contracted facilitator. The criteria are then measured using the indicators through a combined process of self and external evaluation, whereby qualitative and quantitative data are gathered and documented leading to a final score being given to the participating institution.

Most TQM organisations and related models such as EFQM share a common series of operational characteristics. Among these, we can find the formulation of a clear mission and vision statement, the establishment of a quality manual, systematic

training of staff, decision-making delegated to the lowest possible levels, and constant feedback from customers (van den Berghe, 1997a, p. 29). Similarly, a high degree of importance is attributed to the practice of *benchmarking* in order to improve upon processes and results.

Figure 2.1

EFQM Assessment Criteria
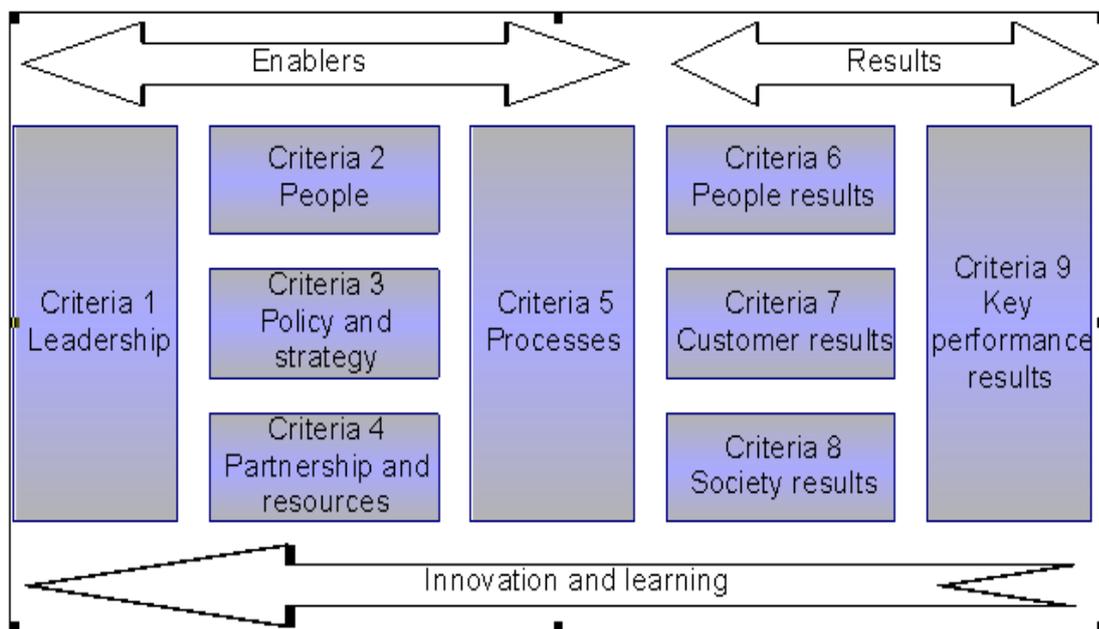
Note. From *School Self-Assessment Using the Excellence Model and Improvement Techniques*, 2002 (CD-Rom). London: Lloyds TSB. Copyright 1999-2003 by EFQM. Used with permission.

In education, Kelly (2001) indicates two modalities of benchmarking. The first is essentially a comparison of outcomes measured against an established statistical attainment; the second is a "comparison of critical processes against those in another organisation acknowledged to be more effective" (ibid., p. 1). In other words, one form of benchmarking deals more with statistical quality control of

results and comparison of output measures with other departments within the school or with performance levels obtained by external institutions; this could involve comparisons, for example, between results obtained in high-stakes examinations. The alternative procedure of benchmarking aims to gain an insight into possible ways in which processes might be developed or improved by investigating effective strategies employed in other successful departments or schools with similar concerns. The EFQM model applied to education is a manifest example of a quality movement interested both in comparative results and with this second aspect of benchmarking best practices, either within a school or with other schools which are not in a competing situation. In the case of the EFQM model applied to education in Spain, this takes place at a general level during regular benchmarking session provided for EFQM registered schools and at individual school level by members of quality commissions who visit successful institutions with related objectives.

There is also a concern TQM models for continuous improvement, which is perhaps best exemplified in the Plan – Do – Check – Act model (PDCA), shown in Figure 2.2, which is commonly employed in the EFQM framework applied to education in Spain and elsewhere (see CECE-ITE, 1998; Quality in Education, 2002). Peralta (2000) suggests that the PDCA cycle facilitates positive change by means of successive cyclical efforts to resolve improvable situations; furthermore, she claims that it constitutes is a cornerstone of TQM as it involves the analysis of data, the investigation of causes, the focus on prevention, the highlighting of preparation and planning, and the attention to underlying problems rather than simply concentrating on the results (ibid., pp. 98-99). Finally, the author considers the method to be useful in school self-evaluation processes since it allows users to

determine the extent to which objectives have been attained and simultaneously provides feedback with regards to the ways in which the evaluated process may be improved (ibid., p. 98).

Figure 2.2

PDCA Quality Circle
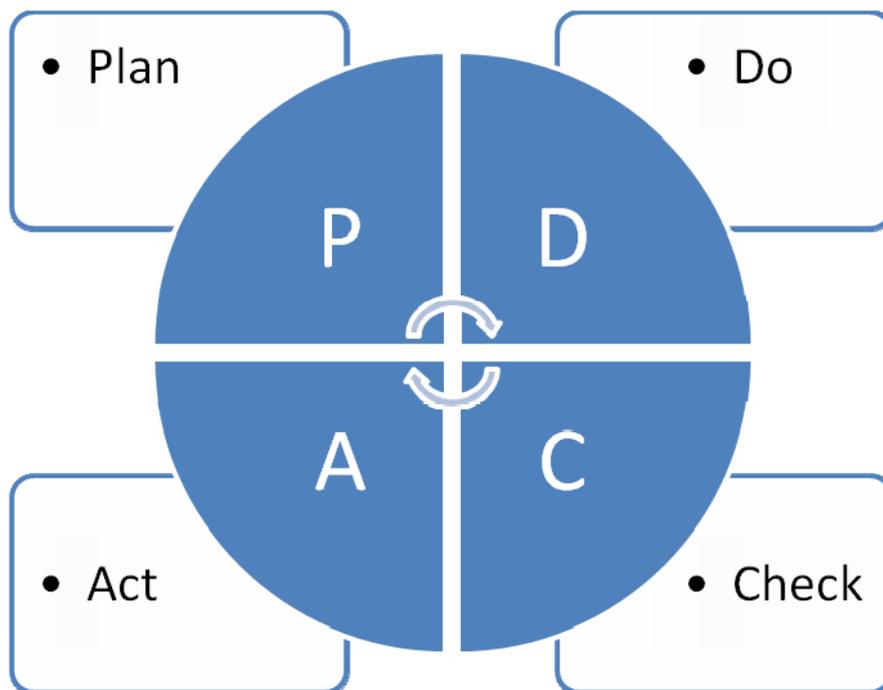
Note. The PDCA cycle is commonly attributed to Deming and the concept of continuous circles of improvement have also been employed by prominent figures such as Ishikawa. The initials used in this circle have been maintained in the Spanish version: P (*Planificar*), D (*Desarrollar*), C (*Controlar*), and A (*Ajustar*) (see CECE-ITE, 1998).

Within the quality management approach, this cycle of continuous improvement has also been developed into alternative approaches such as the IDEAL process, which details the treatment of more specific problems (Table 2.2). Again, this method seeks to systematically illustrate and examine problems, apply and

control solutions and to provide feedback for further improvements while at the same time highlighting the roles and responsibilities of all involved. Cyclical approaches to improvement are by no means unique to quality frameworks. Indeed, these have been used both to develop reflexive teaching and learning practices even before the introduction of EFQM in Europe (see Turney, 1982; Kolb, 1984). However, a central tenet of quality movements such as the EFQM is continuous cyclical forms of improvement both in terms of macro development strategies encouraged through periodic appraisals and at micro levels of specific areas of improvement.

Table 2.2

IDEAL Process of Improvement

Step	Action
Illustrate	The action team illustrates the nature and scope of improvement normally with a *problem statement* and highlight both the current and desired situations.
Do	Immediate short-term measures are implemented in a controlled way.
Examine and evaluate	The team examines the root causes using instruments which include the problem statement, process maps, measurement data and other instruments and seek solutions (which they later pilot) using instruments such as brainstorming or force field analysis.
Apply	Team members draw up an action plan detailing process to implement the solution and ensure that all parties are aware of roles and responsibilities.
Learn	The team reviews performance and compares this to pre-established, then share this information with others.

Note. Based on *School Self-Assessment Using the Excellence Model and Improvement Techniques*, 2002 (CD-Rom). London: Lloyds TSB.

Certification in this model is awarded based on internal assessment and external audit of the fulfilment of the above-mentioned criteria. The first phase of induction typically consists in familiarising staff with the model and providing training and tools to complete an extensive self-evaluation, along with strategies to implement areas of improvement. The institution, led by an external advisor and an internal commission, must then identify strong and weak points within the school. Following this, schools provide evidence that they have worked upon a series of areas of improvement and obtained preliminary results in order to gain an initial level of certification. Higher accreditation levels are awarded after further self-evaluations, work on assigned areas for improvement and additional external audits.

As in most TQM models, there is a concern in the EFQM framework for the initial and sustained motivation of participants. Indeed, this mechanism is, to a certain extent, integrated into the system with the inclusion of the criteria measuring the satisfaction of internal clients. At the same time, the proposed improvements arise from the results of the prioritisation process conducted by schools themselves and are not prescribed from the outside, as occurs in ISO 9000. In this sense, although the organisations are working within a general framework, the improvements are organically contextualised to fit their own specific needs.

A number of benefits are attributed to TQM and self-assessment models in education and training contexts; these include an improved external image, more efficient organisation, professionalism in non-educational services and, eventually, improved quality of education and training (van den Berghe, 1997a). Among the drawbacks, it is argued that the system requires a high degree of training input and a strong level of support particularly at management level (ibid., 1997a).

2.1.4 EFQM vs. ISO: The Effectiveness of the Approaches

The question of the effectiveness of EFQM and ISO systems is a controversial one and empirical research, apart from being scarce, is sometimes contradictory. Furthermore, as discussed previously, the ISO 9000 series does have components concerned with TQM, including continuous improvement and leadership, while the converse is also true and organic TQM approaches, like the EFQM, also employ statistics to control quality processes and outcomes. Thus, there are certain degrees of overlap within these versions of quality assurance and quality management. Consequently, it may be useful to remember that the operational characteristics of each approach are most importantly defined in terms of the levels of assessment and evaluation. Whereas the first is mainly employed as an externally validating model of quality assurance using pre-defined accountability measures, the second is based primarily on internal objectives, strategies and procedures arising from iterative self-evaluations facilitated by outside agents.

In their international study, Rao, Ragu-Nathan and Solis (1997) tentatively conclude that ISO 9000 registered companies have better quality management practices and better results than those companies which are either planning to get registered or who have no interest in ISO. Both of these findings, however, are disputed in research conducted by Quazi *et al*. (2002). Zhu and Scheuermann (1999) maintain that the popularity of TQM is decreasing whereas that of ISO is rising and state that one of the main reasons for this lies in the fact that TQM's success is overly dependent on management and that gains obtained within a company may be undone by changes in this very area (ibid., p. 296). Nevertheless, advantages, in the case of TQM, have been detected. Hackman and Wageman (1995), for instance, find that in

this quality approach stakeholders are provided with relevant social interaction as well as the opportunity to learn and work together through teamwork and problem-solving efforts; furthermore, work practices are meaningful and positive environments are created both in terms of cross-functional learning and acquiring knowledge about processes.

Kumar and Douglas (2002) believe that the choice for ISO over organic models such as EFQM depends on the maturity of the company, arguing that in initial stages of quality development the former may prove to be more appropriate. Other comparative studies (McAdam & McKeown, 1999; Sun, 2000) support this notion and further indicate that several aspects of EFQM are perceived to be more beneficial than ISO. For example, in Sun's (2000) study, 900 member companies of the Norwegian Quality Association participated in a survey aimed at measuring the levels of performance obtained by users of EFQM and ISO 9000 systems of quality improvement. The findings indicate that the enabling criteria of leadership, strategic management of quality and human resources in the EFQM model contribute to positive results, but the study also concludes that as individual enablers, they do not provide guaranteed improvements in outcomes (i.e. a full implementation of all criteria is needed to increase performance). In the case the ISO 9000 series of certification, the same study found that companies employing this system were more likely to reduce both defects in products and customer complaints, while it simultaneously contributed to increased productivity and profitability. The main drawback with this model, however, lay in the fact that many companies failed follow up with TQM applications contained within the ISO system and, hence, stopped working towards quality improvement after registration (ibid., p. 177).

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In summary, it is difficult to state which quality approach is more effective. One system, ISO 9000, employs pre-established standards often perceived to represent an imposed model that does not necessarily take on board the contextualised subjective needs within an organisation, and involves what may be considered to be excessive levels of documentation. With the organic TQM approach and models like the EFQM quality framework, participants establish their own quality indicators based on general criteria, and there is a central concern for stakeholder satisfaction. However, this type of model is highly dependent on management and training.

Thus, even though there is evidence to suggest that both systems are potentially beneficial, each inherently has a series of drawbacks and potential limitations. The ultimate conclusion may be that for either of these quality systems to be effective, they must both be implemented and integrated completely and in a systematic way. In essence, then, the main line of reasoning for the adoption of one model over another, particularly in education, may be based on the motivation of those who must implement the quality framework. Given freedom of choice, those who adopt improvement systems may be more prone to opt for methods that allow for internal, organic decision-making processes rather than externally developed and more prescriptive standards, strict documentation procedures and adherence to bureaucratic demands. Alternatively, administrative bodies may wish to ensure that the parameters measured within quality models are officially recognised as being critical within their enterprise even though these are not explicitly linked to contextualised needs or directly identified by the stakeholders involved in implementing the improvement system.

2.2 Quality and Educational Reform

Having briefly examined these two most commonly implemented approaches to quality, let us now turn to more specific applications of quality systems in school environments. Initially, it could be stated that the concern for quality and improving standards in education is one which arguably parallels the quality movement itself. For example, in the British education system during the latter part of the nineteenth century attempts were made to measure and reward learner performance against specific standards (Winch, 1996, p. 29) and schools in the early twentieth century have been compared with manufacturing industries, as we can see from Darling-Hammond's (2000, p. 355) affirmation that "schools developed as increasingly specialised organisations run by carefully specified procedures engineered to yield standard products".

These are not the only developments in education reflecting elements of quality assurance and quality control, indeed, Morley and Rassoon (2000, p. 181) refer to the adoption of the quality movement in Britain as a *Japanisation* of the education system and highlight the creation of a performance culture, with its emphasis on output quality and self-regulation (ibid., p. 182). As indicated below, some of the major reform groups and policy initiatives employed in education in the past, while not always explicitly linked to quality assurance or quality management, certainly share many similar characteristics.

2.2.1 Merging Trends

As mentioned in Chapter One, education internationally is undergoing a large number of profound changes whereby reforms and, at times, rapidly successive

counter-reforms are not uncommon. What is striking, perhaps, is that the nature of many of these transformations shares a global pattern. Hopkins (2001, p. 3) believes there is a centralisation of educational policy which simultaneously attempts to empower schools to become responsible for contextualised implementation and considers that "it is almost inconceivable that countries and educational systems with very different political cultures and stages of economic development should all be pursuing what to all appearances is a very similar policy agenda" (ibid., p .3). Thus, there is an apparent widespread decentralisation of education, which aims to shift accountability for the management of education from state to local levels and to empower schools and individual classroom teachers but which (Moos, 2005; Vidovich, 2004). This may allow for an attribution of faults, as and when they arise, to individual schools and not policy- makers (Hopkins, 2001, p. 3).

In examining why such trends are becoming internationalised, it would appear that the increased capacity for global communication has had an important role to play; coupled with this is the fact that it is only recently that international comparative research has begun to take centre stage in educational policy. Indicators of quality in education developed in large scale studies, including those offered by UNESCO, arguably provide governments with useful information and readily accessible comparisons. On the other hand, they also place successes and failures of educational administrations in the international spotlight, the end result being that basic indicators including enrolment percentages, national expenditure on education, student-teacher ratio, levels of literacy and grade repetition inevitably have effects on policies worldwide. At another level, international studies and projects, within which we find effective school research and school improvement practices, have also had a

part to play in the development of educational reform. Yet, as observed below, both educational theory and practice are beginning to merge with the more recent application of the paradigms of quality management and quality assurance in instructional settings.

2.2.2 Effective Schools and Quality Management

Providing a universal definition of an effective school is not an easy task, and although the world of business may be relatively able to assess a company's effectiveness based on levels of growth, production and profitability, the same cannot be said for educational enterprises. Nevertheless, the development of the effective school research and the school improvement movement have been present in education for over thirty years and an examination of these areas may be a useful starting point to see what has and has not been successful in terms of improving school processes and results and at the same time may provide an understanding as to how global trends in education are currently being affected.

In order to examine how these movements have developed, Hopkins and Reynolds' (2001) international outline of the three phases of school improvement will be adopted in conjunction with Bolívar's (1997) appraisal of the introduction of certain aspects of the improvement models involved. One of the most important agents in school improvement is the OCED coordinated International Schools Improvement Project (ISIP), which, rather than promoting externally controlled performance measures, emphasised the need for a *multi-level perspective* on school improvement and aimed to empower schools to identify and solve their own problems (Harris, 2000, p. 3). In spite of these objectives, during this period of

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educational innovation the initiatives of organisational change and school self-evaluation were not strongly linked to student outcomes; this lack of success was attributed to the fragmented and unsystematic nature of improvement projects which failed to have a serious impact on classroom practice (Hopkins & Reynolds, 2001, p. 459). After the apparent shortcomings of various bureaucratic education improvement systems, new ways to find school improvement began to appear in Spain between 1975 and 1985 (Bolívar, 1997, p. 32). During this stage, there was a theoretical focus on autonomy and local management, strong instructional leadership, high expectations for students and recognition of academic success as well as continuous development of teaching staff. Between 1980 and 1990, the school improvement model began to manifest itself in Spain for example in the adoption of specific traits of the movement preceding new school governance laws included in ministerial documents (ibid., pp. 32-34).

The second phase of school development began early in the 1990s and arose from the merging of perspectives and approaches from both the more organically oriented school improvement projects and the externally validated proposals originating from studies on effective schools. In this way, it is suggested that school effectiveness research subsequently contributed to the promotion of more appropriate methodologies for measuring school performance within the school improvement movement; it also encouraged the breaking down of schools into components of teachers and departments and attempted to provide teachers with a greater familiarity of what was considered to be valid research-based knowledge on effective methods (ibid., p. 460). Conversely, approaches to partnership-teaching which sought to facilitate the training of staff, and more classroom-oriented changes, traditionally

promoted by those in the school improvement tradition, were finding acceptance within the school effectiveness movement. Again, despite the introduction of substantial school reforms, significant evidence of success was not forthcoming, although this may have been partly due to the lack of large-scale empirical studies aimed at evaluating school improvement initiatives (Harris, 2000, p. 5).

The third phase began in the mid-to-late 1990s and within this new paradigm, we can observe the introduction of aspects which can be seen to directly reflect strategies employed in total quality management. This is most evident, perhaps in the focus on teacher behaviour and learning processes and results, the emphasis on training, the use of benchmarking strategies and data measures and the new attributes of external support mechanisms. The features distinguishing this third phase from previous improvement projects included the following (Hopkins & Reynolds (2001, pp. 462-463) :

1. a greater emphasis on student outcomes and school performance;

2. more attention to learning and instructional behaviours of teachers;

3. the creation of infrastructure allowing best practice and research findings to be more readily used and disseminated;

4. the importance of capacity-building strategies and external support agencies;

5. the use of quantitative and qualitative data to measure quality and variation as well as the audit systems on class and school processes and outcomes;

6. an increased emphasis on fidelity in programme implementation;

7. an appreciation of cultural change in order to obtain school improvement;

8. a concern that improvement systems incorporate linked training programes.

Albeit at a later stage, and with what could be contended as a lesser degree of implementation of these improvement models than in countries like Great Britain or the United States, similar developments were also to take place to a certain extent in Spain. Twelve years after the national school reform of LOGSE (*Ley Orgánica 1/1990*) and seven years after the introduction of legislation aimed at improving participation, management and school assessment through LOPEG (*Ley Orgánica 9/1995*), the Spanish Conservative government saw it necessary to initiate a reform of the previous laws through LOCE. These changes in legislation appeared to recognize several considerations mentioned in Hopkins and Reynolds's (2001) *third age*. Among other elements found in LOCE and in the subsequent development of LOE by the Socialist government, prime issues included the search for improvement in student outcomes and greater degree of orientation towards results. In practical terms, this entailed proposals for higher levels of assessment of students, teachers and of the education system as a whole. Developments in these laws also made special provision for initial and in-service teacher training and the promotion of research as a means to improve quality in education.

At a national and international level, over the last two decades many of the trends appearing in the theory and practice of school effectiveness projects have also mirrored developments in quality programmes such as ISO and EFQM. Indeed, the aims and methods proposed by effective school research, practical school improvement and certain aspects of quality management in education share a series of common characteristics. Furthermore, as in the cases of EFQM and ISO, it is possible to find two main approaches within efforts to improve school effectiveness (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3

Organic and External Models for School Improvement

Approaches	Projects	Highlighted aspects
Organic approach and general strategies	International School Improvement Project (ISIP)	This project moves away from top-down approaches, emphasises a multi-level perspective of school development and establishes the importance of the need for positive conditions for change.
	Halton Project & IMTEC approach	Both projects highlight planning and the development of decision-making structures and a collaborative culture.
	Improving Quality Education for All (IQEA)	This is essentially a school-initiated approach that underscores development capacity and internal conditions.
External, mechanistic approach and specific strategies	Success for All models of Teaching	Within these models there is a greater attention paid to classrooms, a prescriptive approach to the use of teaching models and a strict adherence to programmes.

Note. Based on "What Works in School Improvement? Lessons from the Field and Future Development," by A. Harris, 2000, *Educational Research*, *42*, pp. 3-5. Copyright 2000 by Taylor & Francis Ltd. Reproduced with permission of the publisher.

The first of these approaches is organic and employs general strategies for improvement that are to be developed, controlled and evaluated internally, while the other is mechanistic and presents much more prescriptive and specific strategies along with higher levels of external assessment (Hopkins & West, 1994; Harris, 2000). Within these models, then, we may observe a direct parallelism between the EFQM and ISO movements of quality. On the one hand, EFQM provides a general framework of criteria that places a great deal of weight on planning, aims at building collaborative learning and attempts to find contextualised improvements. In contrast,

the quality assurance body, ISO, as previously described, is more prescriptive in nature and is based on the adherence to documented processes. The parallelisms continue if we compare the characteristics of the *third age* of educational research as described by Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) with the EFQM approach and its corresponding nine quality criteria, where we may observe a large number of overlapping areas. Furthermore, it is easy to see how EFQM criteria, like those of leadership, policy, partnerships and key performance outcomes, often match various the features currently *en vogue* in educational policy and practice. In this sense, at least, it appears that there is a high degree of convergence between recent developments in effective schooling research, school improvement projects, educational policy and total quality approaches.

Even though there is optimism about recent developments in school improvement internationally, Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) are quick to point out that, as yet, not enough research has been carried out to validate the third age movement; in addition, there is a need to make further progress in terms of context-specific school improvement systems, the enhancement of learning levels, as well as the conceptualisation, operationalisation and development of the capacity for development. All of this, as Hopkins & Reynolds (ibid.) maintain, must take place within a continued evaluation of different third age designs.

As discussed later, in the case of Spain, there may be lower levels of optimism with regards to recently introduced reform and counter-reform, and even more time will be needed before the effectiveness of measures can be judged. Nevertheless, it does appear that the adoption of strategies to encourage organic improvement, coupled with externally comparable performance measures are to take on an

increasingly prevalent role within the education system and are to be added to the existing professional responsibilities of teachers.

2.2.3 Performance Indicators and External Accountability Measures

The adoption of organic quality models in education has radically increased in the last three decades (either via effective school approaches or the application of quality management programmes). There has also been a large degree of attention paid to related elements directed at enhancing these internal systems of improvement, hence, we see increasing levels of investigation into and promotion of enabling factors such as school leadership and the creation of collaborative environments in order to facilitate positive change. However, it would be misleading to say that governments have only been interested in promoting internal approaches to school improvement. Over the past thirty years, school improvement initiatives have developed alongside educational indicator research, and while the former has centred on organic school enhancement, the latter has been concerned primarily with external measures of school accountability (Fitz-Gibbon & Koch, 2000, p. 258). Since the 1990s the use of indicators has been a fundamental contributor to the growing level of state control on schools systems, and the monitoring of schools through quality standards and indicators for teachers and teacher education, which are particularly visible in the United Sates and Great Britain, are appearing all over the world (Bates, 2004, p. 120).

Before examining the use of indicators in education, it would be useful to consider the main operational characteristics involved. Fitz-Gibbon and Koch (2000, p. 258) describe performance indictors for schools as "a statistic collected at regular

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intervals to track the performance of an education system" and underscore the following traits:

1. they must provide valid information;

2. they must be based on accepted goals;

3. staff and decision-makers must be able to influence features of a system which the indicators measure;

4. they must be credible to practitioners;

5. they must be informative, fair and useful;

6. they must be sensitive enough to reflect change.

Nonetheless, it would, perhaps, be fair to say, that externally established indicators are commonly devised by those in educational administrations, and despite the fact that a few practising teachers may play a part in their elaboration, these standards could be considered by some as representing an unacceptable form of accountability and as a contributing agent in the loss of teacher autonomy. According to Bartlett (2000), this has been the case in the UK loss of teacher autonomy and extensive control of diverse aspects of education began with the introduction of the White Papers *Teaching Quality* (DES, 1983) and *Better Schools* (DES, 1985), which lay down the foundations for teacher appraisal and the establishment of accountability measures in a profession which was hitherto relatively free from state intervention. Since then, multiple forms of external control have existed, not only for teachers themselves, but for in-service teacher training, university departments and other educational agencies. Trainee teachers, for example, are subject to compliance-

like quality checks (see DfEs, 2003), to the point of including testing to prove their mathematical and language competencies before admittance on teaching practice stages.[10] Practising teachers are similarly subject to accountability measures, established by the Teacher Training Authority (TTA) and inspected by OfSTED, which are derived mainly from student performance results and are ensured through "the imposition of significant financial penalties for non-compliance" (Bates, 2004, p. 120). In a parallel situation, with the No Child Left Behind legislation in the US, student test scores have become common indicators of teacher performance and are extensively used to judge teachers' added-value (Kupermintz, 2003). Policy decisions are backed to a certain degree by research, and it is possible that although internal improvement is a necessary component, other external factors are considered at least just as important. Carnoy and Loeb (2002), for instance, examined the strength of accountability in high-stakes mathematics examinations and its relationship to student outcomes in fifty states and found a positive significant correlation between scores obtained by students in states with high levels of accountability. Studies of this type have given the educational administrations the justification for what some would claim to be an unprecedented level of control on schools. External accountability measures imposed upon teachers and teaching, however, have had historic precedents of rejection. Bartlett (2000), for example, reports industrial action by teachers during the late 80s over the introduction of teacher appraisal, and numerous studies, some of which are discussed later, show that teachers often treat top-down approaches to school improvement with mistrust, suspicion and unwillingness. Furthermore, this type of accountability and possible

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[10] See also Hextall, Mahony and Menter (2001) for further appraisal on competence testing.

ensuing loss of teacher autonomy is rejected on several social fronts (Bates, 2004; Forrester, 2005; Mahony, Hextall, & Menter, 2004; Morley, 2005; Taylor Webb, 2002). Hence, governments seem to have found it necessary to compliment such externally imposed models of accountability with internal improvement programmes and self-regulation. This is intended to combine the advantages of informed situational diagnosis and bottom-up empowerment by means of local agents with more economically viable forms of standards regulation using internal accountability measures.

Striking a balance between organic and external models may prove difficult, and successful implementation of school improvement and accountability programmes inevitably depends on the acquiescence of individuals at ground level and on their willingness to take on board that which is determined by those who hold the purse strings of education. Even so, it appears to be the case that the administrations have found the answer to lie in the promotion of school improvement through the use of external measures in conjunction with internal, organic improvement systems, where contextual enabling factors, such as leadership, are promoted as key elements for development. Despite the continued focus on performance outcomes, therefore, there is a renewed realisation that externally imposed indicators are not enough in themselves to guarantee quality within educational institutions; in addition to results, it is also necessary to examine how the contributing variables of inputs and processes may be improved, and in order to do this, it is necessary to empower agents *in situ* who are willing and able to participate in the identification of problem areas and to use their own initiative to find effective solutions. This realisation is by no means new. In reviewing the empirical evidence

on school effectiveness in 1983, Rutter (2000, p. 25) concludes that "there is strong circumstantial evidence to suggest that schools can and do have important effects on the behaviour and attainment of pupils". [11] He also considers that the measurement of school effectiveness requires a series of indicators, which not only include performance indicators such as attainment, continuation in education and employment, but also contextual indicators such as absenteeism, classroom behaviour and attitudes to learning (ibid., p. 3). While noting that relatively little comparative research has been undertaken on the effects of contributing factors, Rutter offers various factors for which certain school characteristics are causally linked to performance outcomes. These include (ibid., pp. 25-39):

1. the expressed attitudes of staff and pupils, i.e. general climate (Brimer *et al.*, 1978; Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer & Wisenbaker, 1979);

2. academic orientation, high expectations, regular setting and correction of homework, high percentage of time spent on active teaching, group curriculum planning, and checks to ensure teachers follow plans (Brookover *et al.*, 1979; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston & Smith, 1979).

3. classroom management, including time on subject matter, interaction with whole group rather than individuals, low levels of disciplinary interventions, and clear feedback and praise (Brookover *et al.*, 1979; Rutter *et al.*, 1979);

4. pupils' exercise of responsibility in the organisation of their school lives (Reynolds & Murgatroyd, 1977; Rutter *et al.*, 1979).

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[11] Original reference: Rutter, M. (1983). School effects on pupil progress: Research findings and policy implications. *Child Development*, 54, 1-29. Reproduced in Rutter (2000).

These earlier studies have had an important impact on current trends in the establishment of standards and expectations, not only in terms of the assessment of both teacher and student performance outcomes, but also on input and process variables. This includes the attitudes of staff and pupils, devolved responsibility, attention to teaching and learning, and classroom management. All of these elements are recurring themes both in the literature on effective schools and in quality frameworks of improvement applied to education.

Since the publication of Rutter's (1983; 2000) examination of factors contributing to school success, more recent studies and reports have found elements that are becoming increasingly compatible with the quality management paradigm. This, to all intents and purposes, is the case of the report presented by Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore (1995) for the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). Like CECE-ITE's (1988) EFQM model applied to education, Sammons *et al*. (1995) show concern for leadership (EFQM Criteria 1), partnerships (Criteria 4) and shared vision and goals (Criteria 3). [12] At the same time, Sammons *et al.* (1995) indicate caution when applying research results to specific contexts and stress that findings should not be used *mechanically* without taking into account individual school variables, but instead should be used as a "useful starting point for school self-evaluation and review" (ibid., p. 2). Again, this mirrors the organic nature of the EFQM approach which, while encouraging the search for externally validated successful practices through benchmarking, aims to facilitate the provision of contextualised evaluation practices. Unlike the generic approach of EFQM, the study

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[12] As mentioned in Chapter 2, the establishment of mission statements, which include the vision of an entity, is one of the operational features of TQM. Vision is also an integral part of the construction of policy and strategy.

carried out by Sammons *et al.* does specify factors for effective schools, along with their corresponding characteristics, and this in itself may potentially be used as externally established indicators. These factors include (Sammons *et al.*, 1995, p. 8):

1. professional leadership, which is firm and purposeful with a participative approach and a focus on the leading professional;

2. shared vision and goals, which include unity of purpose, consistency of practice and development of collegiality and collaboration;

3. learning environment, which should include an orderly atmosphere and attractive working environment;

4. teaching and learning, which involves maximisation of learning time, academic emphasis and focus on achievement;

5. purposeful teaching, which consists in efficient organisation, clarity of purpose, structured lessons and adaptive practice;

6. high expectations, which includes high levels of demand, communication of expectations and provision of intellectual challenge;

7. positive reinforcement, which involves clear , fair discipline and feedback;

8. monitoring progress, which entails monitoring pupil performance and evaluating school performance;

9. pupil rights and responsibilities, which includes raising pupil self-esteem, attention to positions of responsibility and the control of work;

10. home-school partnership, which consists in parental involvement in the learning process;

11. learning organisation, which includes school-based staff development.

More direct links to quality in schools are to be seen in the adoption of quality strategies by educational administrations (see EIPA, 2002) and particularly in the explicit use of quality indicators. The compilations of quality indicators are arguably as diverse as the studies used in their identification. This complicates the analysis of such indicators since we are presented with variations that go from very generic standards to highly specific process-product measurements, all under the banner of quality indicators in education. At times, these stated indicators do not fulfil the criteria of *quality indicators* and instead fall into the category of *performance indicators*.[13] Despite the diversity in the possible development and application of such indicators, it may be possible to come to a better understanding by examining some illustrative cases at international and, where available, more local levels.

Examples of performance measurements in the European context may be seen in the well-known development of European Commission's (2001b) sixteen quality indicators for education (Table 2.4). Initially, the European Commission does not claim to set out prescriptive standards, but presents comparative international benchmarks.[14] Yet in practice, because of the fact that these points of reference put the results of individual countries into relief, it is possible to see how they could be directly adopted by educational administrations and be subsequently reflected in legislation.

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[13] Van den Berghe (1997b) offers a distinction between quality indicators and performance indicators for vocational education and training in Europe. The first of these is described as "a figure that is helpful for the assessment of a quality characteristic or the achievement of quality objectives … a quality indicator is in general also a performance indicator"; in the second case, a performance indicator is described as "a figure that indicates the (degree of) performance for an important component of an entity; in most cases, performance indicators include a process or output element" (ibid, p. 91).

[14]"The aim of benchmarks is not to set standards or targets, but rather to provide policy-makers with reference points. Benchmarks are used to identify issues which need to be investigated further and to suggest alternative routes to policy goals" (European Commission, 2000, p. 7).

Table 2.4

Sixteen Indicators of Quality in Education

General areas	Indicators
Attainment	1. Mathematics
	2. Reading
	3. Science
	4. Information and communication technologies
	5. Foreign languages
	6. Learning to learn
	7. Civics
Success and transition	8. Drop-out rates
	9. Completion of upper secondary education
	10. Participation in tertiary education
Monitoring of education	11. Evaluation and steering of school education
	12. Parent participation
Resources and structures	13. Education and training of teachers
	14. Participation in pre-primary education
	15. Number of students per computer
	16. Educational expenditure per student

Note. From *European Report on the Quality of School Education: Sixteen Quality Indicators*, European Commission, 2001. Retrieved January, 21, 2005, from http://europe.eu.int/comm /education/indic/ rapinen.pdf. Copyright 2001 by European Communities.

If we examine these indicators alongside developments in national and regional legislation, it does not appear coincidental that recently introduced laws in Spain should highlight areas already underlined in European guidelines. In LOCE, for example, indicators of success and transition were used to partially justify the need for a new law; four years later in LOE, provision was made to increase expenditure for students to EU levels; and since 2004 in Andalusia, there has been a dramatic increase in the establishment of schools with special information communication and

technology (ICT) status (*Centros TIC*), as well as the establishment of the Multilingual Plan and subsequent promotion of bilingual schools. Furthermore, as discussed later, in 2006 the regional government began to implement a plan to control school outcomes in diverse competences in the areas of mathematics and language through a series of comprehensive diagnostic tests for students in *ESO* (see Consejería, 2006b). Therefore, these general indicators outlined by the European Commission essentially provide very basic benchmarks to enable governments to compare their results with other nations. In addition, when these indicators are measured within an individually assessed country or region, the corresponding educational administration is, in theory, able to detect where the system is failing and to take meaures while at the same time making schools aware of their own results in comparison to other similar educational contexts. This in turn permits the administration to apply pressure on schools to find ways to solve problem areas and to set specific performance targets.

In contrast to this broad set of indicators, essentially aimed at providing comparative measures, a more specific school-based set of indicators can be seen in Scheerens (2004). In his study, Scheerens presents various models that have been used as a basis for the construction of indicators in instructional settings. Within the various frameworks presented, that of context, inputs, processes and results is one which has enjoyed a large degree of acceptance among those involved in quality management and policy development in education (Fig. 2.3). This model goes well beyond the arguably reductionist scales provided by simple performance indicators and begins to examine some of the most important areas contributing to success, including school and teacher variables. Furthermore, results are not analysed in a

totally independant way, but are instead considered in conjunction with other contextual factors, such as students' previous knowledge and levels of intelligence. This type of model is arguably more useful for schools interested in achieving quality than the more basic performance indicators mentioned above.

Figure 2.3

Scheerens' Model of Context, Input, Process and Outputs

Context

- achievement stimulants from higher administrative levels
- development of educational consumerism
- 'co-variables', such as school size, student body
- composition, school category, urban/rural

Inputs

- teacher experience
- per-pupil expenditure
- parent support

Process

School Level

- a degree of achievement-oriented policy
- educational leadership
- consensus, cooperative planning of teachers
- quality of school curricula in terms of content covered and formal structure
- orderly atmosphere
- evaluative potential

Classroom level

- Time on task (including homework)
- Structured teaching
- Opportunity to learn
- High expectations of pupils' progress
- Degree of evaluation and monitoring of pupils' progress
- Reinforcement

Outputs

Student achievement adjusted for:
- previous achievement
- intelligence
- SES

Note. From "Perspectives on Education Quality, Education Indicators and Benchmarking," by J. Scheerens, 2004, *European Educational Research Journal, 3*, p. 121. Used with permission of the author.

One administration which has adopted the essential elements of this model is that of Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) in Ontario (Fig. 2.4). In addition to the specific indicators used in this context, guidelines provided by EQAO (2005) address other quality concerns. For example, there are recommendations that school leaders generate a culture of quality, seek voluntary participation, gather all relevant contextual and attainment data and establish areas of improvement (ibid., p. 5); there is also an emphasis on team building and benchmarking best practices, which are seen as enabling the enhancement of the quality process. Integrated within these indicators is a whole philosophy of continuous improvement, reflected in EQAO's guidelines for quality and improvement planning; there is also a key concern for accountability and transparency through the identified need to share results with the rest of the community (ibid., p. 13). Finally, promotion is made of the involvement of the entire educational community which, in terms of teacher involvement, entails reflective developmental practices, including engagement in action research (ibid., p. 17).

The overall strategy promoted by EQAO can similarly be observed in Europe by examining the indicators established by non-governmental groups whose experience in quality management transcends the mere establishment of performance outcomes. A case in point is the EFQM model of excellence applied to education, which, like EQAO, takes into consideration not only the results, but also the diverse contexts, inputs and processes and in the same way places high levels of importance on leadership, training, data gathering and community involvement. In contrast, however, the EFQM model does not pre-establish the indicators to be employed, but instead allows involved stakeholders to determine what is to be measured.

Figure 2.4

EQAO Quality Indicators in Education

Context	Processes
• Enrolment • Socio-economic status • Country of birth and language background • Student mobility • Preschool experience • Readiness-to-learn scale	• Teachers' professional development, planning and collaboration • Teaching and assessment strategies • School leadership, planning and decision-making climate • School climate and safety • Parental involvement
Inputs	**Results**
• Student attendance • Support personnel • Types of special education programs • Class size and organisation • Teachers qualifications and experience • Accessibility and use of instructional materials • Accessibility and use of assessment materials • Use of computers • Community-school relationships • Education funding • Physical facilities	• Commercial standardised assessments • Classroom assessments • Report card mark distribution • Provincial achievement results • National and international achievement results • Suspensions • General public's, parents', students' and teachers' perception of and satisfaction with education • Student attitudes • School leavers' destinations • Rate of high-school completion • Rate of credit accumulation

Note. Based on *EQAO Guide to School and Board Improvement Planning: A Handbook for School and Board Leaders*, by EQAO, 2005, pp. 7-9. Toronto: Education Quality and Accountability Office.

The EFQM model, which has been adapted and included in state and regional studies and orders in Spain (BOCyL, 2004; MECD, 1999; MECD, 2001a), is currently being used, albeit at a limited level, in a number of secondary schools. In

the version of the model proposed by the Spanish educational administration (MECD, 2001b), schools are given information to enable them to devise their own indicators of quality. The version of the framework adapted by the Ministry, which is virtually identical to that employed by the private sector in CECE-ITE (1998), uses the nine general criteria previously shown in Figure 2.1. These criteria are divided into sub-criteria, which in turn include "areas", or measurable indicators. These measures are then used as benchmarks in order to establish the extent to which objectives and criteria are being fulfilled and are systematically scored by means of iterative self and external assessment and evaluation procedures (see Fig. 2.5). The resulting information provides users with knowledge in terms of the effectiveness of existing improvement plans (which may be subsequently adjusted) and with the means to identify further areas of development. Thus, the basic philosophy behind the PDCA circle, shown previously in Figure 2.2, can be seen to grow into a much more detailed continuous self-evaluation and improvement strategy.

In the original EFQM model applied to education (CECE-ITE, 1998; Quality in Education, 2002), enabling indicators are measured by means of a matrix in terms of approach (*enfoque*) and deployment (*despliegue*), whereas results are calculated on the basis of general results (*magnitud*) and scope (a*lcance*), each on a five-set percentage scale (0-100% with 25% intervals). In terms of approach, the matrix measures whether or not this is well-founded and appropriately linked to policy and strategy; while results are compared to pre-established objectives and are judged against other similar contexts and trends.[15]

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[15] Positive trends start to become significant after 3 years (score = 50%), strongly positive trends also begin after 3 years (score = 75%), and strongly positive or sustained excellent trends take on their greatest value after 5 years (score = 100%).

Figure 2.5

Sample Performance Measures for School Quality

Criteria — 6. USER RESULTS

Subcriteria — 6a. Perception measures / 6b. Performance measures

Areas — External image of school / Organisation and functioning / Loyalty of school users / School processes

Sample indicators

- Academic results in assessments.
- Number and nature of innovation and/or improvement projects in which the school partakes.
- Number of personal interviews with students (by tutors, Head of Studies or Department of Orientation).
- Number of personal interviews with families (by the principal, tutors, head of studies, Department of Orientation.
- Treatment of complaints: speed and quality of the reply.
- Readjustments made as a consequence of complaints.
- Readjustments made from suggestions and initiatives received from parents and students.
- Achievements in comparison to predicted objectives.

Note. Based on *Modelo Europeo de Excelencias*, by MEC, 2001b. Madrid: Ministerio de Educación, Cutura y Deporte.

As can be seen, even when we are dealing with a single set of performance measures as in Figure 2.5, which falls into the category of results in the EFQM assessment criteria, there are a large number of individual standards that extend well

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beyond the sixteen quality indicators outlined by the European Commission, and which, if applied, offer a much more robust description of the state and quality of a school system.

2.2.4 The Emergence of Leadership as a Vehicle for Change

The subject of leadership has been discussed at several stages of this study and, as we may observe, it is a central concern in quality management practices. Indeed, such is the significance of this attribute that Hopkins (2001) accepts as "a truism that effective leadership is a cornerstone for effective schooling" (ibid., p. 14). Given the importance of this feature, both in the quality movement (regardless as to whether or not it is applied to public or private, business or service sectors) and in the literature on general educational improvement practices, it would appear necessary to briefly examine some of the major characteristics involved in the theory and praxis of leadership when applied to school organizations.

In the field of business management, Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002, p. 47) indicate that the emotional climate in the work place is an important factor in attaining desired results and that the way in which workers feel in this environment depends between 50% and 70% on the leader. In terms of education, leadership is similarly indicated as being an important factor to bring about positive change (Briggs & Wohlstetter, 2003; Glickman, 2002; Lieberman, 1988; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sammons *et al.*, 1995). Good and Brophy (1996, p. 3) identify the teacher as a potential leader and consider that the very act of teaching itself requires the capacity to make decisions, often immediately. Kahne and Westheimer (2000, p. 372) believe that induction in leadership should begin during the stages of teacher education and

that it needs to be included in the curriculum of teacher training programmes. Newton and Tarrant (1992, p. 87) maintain that effective leadership in school head teachers is characterised by several factors, including "an enthusiastic but judicious approach to innovation", while Slater's (2005) analysis of the same professional group indicates that effective leadership is a highly collaborative and affective process. Leadership has been underlined in effective school research as an important factor in producing desired outcomes and has become one of the key features in the provision of school enhancement. In examining quality in education, strong leadership is described as being one of the "potentially important factors having a direct impact on teaching and learning" (UNESCO, 2005, p. 27). In the EFQM Model of Excellence applied to education, leadership in the school is the first quality criteria; it is also used as a quality indicator in EQAO (2005); and in Ofsted (2005), apart from appearing eighty-nine times in the text, it is directly attributed to school success:

> Typically, head teachers' leadership is significantly better than that of other staff…: there are often fewer opportunities for other staff to demonstrate leadership…Weak leadership has an effect on pupils' achievement: schools in which achievement is weak are likely to be those with unsatisfactory or poor leadership and management.
>
> Ofsted (2005, p. 2)

Perhaps one of the first approximations to leadership applied to class teachers may lie in mentioning that there is a difference between a leadership and

management [16]; indeed, in Ofsted (2005) head teachers are judged on their leadership and management skills separately. Yet while these roles may coincide in one person, the leader does not have to hold any official responsibilities in management. As Hopkins (2001, p. 114) indicates, "the leadership function in those schools which are most successful in adopting school improvement values does not necessarily rest exclusively with the head teacher". This opens the way for the empowerment of teachers not only within the class, but also inside the department and throughout the wider school community. However, there are a number of ethical questions regarding leadership that may need to be taken into account when developing strategies involving others; among other aspects, this may involve the ethics of justice, critique, care and other ethical issues inherent in the teaching profession (Shapiro, 2005). Democratic leadership is posited as an imperfect and idealistic yet necessary solution (Starrat, 2003) and one model which may provide a useful insight into the practical functioning of this modality in schools is that of invitational leadership, offered by Novak (2002). Novak (ibid., p. 21) states that invitational education has its foundations on three interconnected principles: a) democratic ethos (i.e. anyone may meaningfully participate in their own self-rule); b) perceptual tradition (which emphasises that individuals need to be understood according to their perceptions), and c) self-concept theory (which underlines the view that all individuals are naturally motivated to maintain and enhance their self-image).

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[16] Goleman *et al*. (2002, p. 39) make a clear difference between the *de facto* leader and those with formal management positions suggesting that the former is the person who is more concerned with the emotional aspects of group members.

Table 2.5

Levels of Inviting in Educational Leadership

Level	Definition	Effects / Characteristics
1. Intentionally disinviting	Purposeful behaviour which negates someone's worth	This diminishes a person's sense of identity or potential.
2. Unintentionally disinviting	Unpurposeful behaviour which still negates someone's worth	This is as diminishing as intentionally disinviting behaviour.
3. Unintentionally inviting	Unpurposeful behaviour	This may have positive, but limited effects.
4. Intentionally inviting	Purposeful behaviour exercised for defendable reasons	This demands educational integrity and sensitivity to context, as well as creativity in informing people about their own worth, value and responsibilities.

Note. Based on *Inviting Educational Leadership: Fulfilling Potential and Applying an Ethical Perspective to the Educational Process*, by J. Novak, 2002, pp. 25-28. London: Pearson Education. Adapted with permission.

Building on these principles, Novak presents four levels of invitational leadership (Table 2.5) and maintains that leaders need to be aware of these levels and should strive to *intentionally* invite change to take place through an integrative, ethical and democratic approach rather than through manipulative or authoritarian means (ibid., pp. 20-28). Knowing if or when to apply directive, non-directive or invitational approaches to leadership may prove to be a challenging experience. Nevertheless, it might be suggested that having wider perspectives on a variety of theoretical considerations could help in developing useful leadership styles.

The ultimate purpose of developing leadership skills is in all likelihood to promote appropriate changes in attitude and action. According to Hopkins (2001, p. 132), transformational leadership is appropriate for schools, however, he argues that leadership in itself is insufficient and reasons that for this trait to be effectively implemented the following aptitudes are necessary (ibid., p. 133):

1. the ability to convey vision and values based on learning and performance;

2. the ability to connect principles and behaviours;

3. an understanding of a variety of teaching approaches and their impact on learning and performance;

4. the existence of strategic orientation;

5. an understanding of the nature and role of organisational capacity in sustaining and enhancing change;

6. a commitment to the promotion of enquiry.

Despite the fact that leadership has been identified as a key element in the provision of quality in many international educational studies and policies, it would appear that in Spain much more needs to be done in order to raise consciousness of its importance. It is somewhat striking, for example, that leadership (i.e. in the form of *líder* or *liderazgo*) is not mentioned in either of the most important recently passed laws in Spanish education, LOCE and LOE; although it is recognised in some projects promoted by the government and is inherently present in the development of quality indicators for head teachers. One Ministerial document that explicitly makes reference to leadership is MECD (2001b), which lists quality subcriteria (Fig. 2.6)

and indicators for the development of leadership within the EFQM-based plan on school quality.

Figure 2.6

Subcriteria for Leadership

Subcriterion 1a
Development of aims, objectives and values on the part of the school management team and of other responsible parties, as well as the actions of these, taking a framework of continuous improvement as a model of reference

Subcriterion 1c:
Involvement of the school management team and of other responsible parties with the beneficiaries of the educational service, with other educational and institutional centres in the area and with the educational administration.

CRITERIA 1: LEADERSHIP

Subcriterion 1b:
Personal involvement of school management team and other responsible parties in order to guarantee the development and establishment of continuous improvement processes in the school

Subcriterion 1d:
Timely recognition and appreciation on the part of the management team and of other responsible parties of the efforts and achievements of the people or interested institutions [i.e. stakeholders] in the educational centre.

Note. Based on *ModeloEuropeo de Excelencias*, by MEC, 2001b. Madrid: Ministerio de Educación, Cutura y Deporte.

It appears that the importance given to leadership in schools will continue to develop in the future, although it is likely that more attention will be paid to the role of the teacher, as opposed to simply focusing on the principal. Cogan (2004), for example, points to the identified need in the US to have participative leadership in schools, whereby the teacher and other stakeholders may be able to be included in

decision-making processes. Similarly, in a wider study involving the analysis of views of senior educators and policy-makers from the US, New Zealand, Australia, Hong Kong and Korea, there has been a perceived need for "skilled leadership from teachers and principals to effect change" (Halse, Kennedy, & Cogan, 2004, p. 591). This requisite for more shared forms of leadership, particularly in relation to the management of change, is also summarised by Harris (2000) who states that "school improvement necessitates a reconceptualization of leadership where managers and teachers engage in shared decision-making and risk-taking" (ibid., p. 6).

Recent moves towards shared forms of leadership, however, are not without challenges. Harris (2004) tentatively indicates that a possible advantage of distributed leadership is that it may have a more positive impact on learning outcomes; however, she also finds that there is a need to find stronger correlations between leadership and improvement at class level. Furthermore, the question of shared leadership presents potential difficulties which reside in the complex micro-political climates within schools and the existing interpersonal relationships; shared leadership, while beneficial, may cause formal leaders to feel threatened by others taking on leadership roles and could provoke conflicts and possible estrangement between teachers. In Spain, although reference is not explicitly made to this key element in new laws, the ministerial promotion of quality projects and the renewed focus on quality indicators for headteachers seems to suggest that this area will receive more attention than it has to date. However, much has still to be done in terms of the promotion of and provision of training in leadership skills, and in recognising the benefits and dangers of distributed leadership, particularly in the case of teachers who do not belong to school management teams.

2.2.5 Quality and Reform in Spain: LOCE and LOE

While the respective educational administrations of many countries have undertaken substantial policy reform within the last decade, Spanish education has the somewhat unique experience of having been subjected to eight laws to regulate the system since 1970 (Table 2.6). Various aspects extracted from a number of these laws are currently in force (see Riu, 2003), whereas others, namely those addressed in LOE, are in the initial stages of application. Because of their recency and the impact they have upon the present state of secondary education, two of these laws, LOCE and LOE, are of particular importance to this chapter.

Table 2.6

Summary of Educational Legislation

Law	Introduced
Ley General de Educación (LGE)	1970
Ley Orgánica Reguladora del Derecho a la Educación (LODE)	1985
Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo (LOGSE)	1990
Ley Orgánica de la Participación, la Evaluación y el Gobierno de los Centros Docentes (LOPEG)	1995
Ley Orgánica de Universidades (LOU)	2001
Ley Orgánica de las Cualificaciones y de la Formación Profesional (LOCFP)	2002
Ley Orgánica de Calidad de la Educación (LOCE)	2002
Ley Orgánica de Educación (LOE)	2006

December 2002 witnessed the passing of a law aimed at improving the quality of process and product within the Spanish education system. This legislation, *Ley orgánica 10/2002*, commonly known as *La Ley de Calidad* or LOCE came at the final stages of implementation of the previous educational reform, LOGSE. The Conservative government responsible for the establishment of LOCE deemed LOGSE to be unsatisfactory in providing a quality education and argued that substantial reform was needed. To a certain extent this reform was supported by the media, where the standards of education in Spain were seen in a negative light (Ferrer, 2003, p. 159). In spite of this, LOCE was not without its detractors, indeed, numerous bodies representing teachers and students had voiced their protests even before it became law. LOCE's most important critic was undoubtedly the Socialist Party (PSOE), at the time in opposition. Having subsequently won the general elections, the PSOE appeared to be willing to change many aspects of this law and, although it was not able to abolish it entirely, did manage to subject the legislation to substantial modifications by introducing their own law, LOE.

According to Ferrer (2003), the introduction of LOCE represented a reform of LOGSE particularly in the area of compulsory secondary education (*ESO*), although it also went beyond these parameters to include reforms at other levels. LOGSE itself was introduced as a reform of previous legislation, but for diverse reasons it was considered ineffective in obtaining the necessary results in student and teacher performance and motivation. One of the reasons behind the supposed failure of LOGSE indicated by Bolívar and Rodríguez (2002) is the length of time it took to develop and apply this law. Other causes that may have encouraged the perceived need to make changes in legislation are noted by Gil (2003), these include unrest in

the classrooms and the difficulties involved in teaching in an era characterised by change. The bureaucracy present in LOGSE is also an area which has been criticised; indeed, one of the failures of the previous reform perhaps lies in the official procedures involved in the development of organisational frameworks in schools and departments known as *Proyectos Curriculares*, *Programaciones Didácticas*, and *Programaciones de Aula*. For some years, teachers in Spain had been given the necessary task of planning and executing their classes, and had supposedly done so according to ministerial guidelines. With the advent of LOGSE, however, there seems to have been a failure in the frameworks designed to help teachers plan their courses. Bolívar and Rodríguez (2002, p. 142) believe this detracted from the professionalism of the teacher and led to a highly bureaucratic organisation of schools. In response to this, a new phenomenon in course planning appeared and is prevalent today in the form of pre-fabricated classroom curricular projects, units of work and even individual lesson plans offered by publishers, who competitively lend an additional service to teachers in the light of legislative demands. In some cases, as Riu (2002, p. 140) indicates, this has led to teachers passively following publishers' guidelines without taking into account their specific educational contexts. If the intention of the previous reform was to encourage autonomy and responsibility, the planning frameworks stipulated by the previous legislation seem to have encouraged the opposite (Bolívar & Rodríguez, 2002, p. 142).

One of the main justifications for change presented in the preliminary sections of LOCE was the failure of the previous reform to ensure the attainment of high standards and to prevent dropout levels (*Ley Orgánica 10/2002,* Exposición de Motivos), which had been made apparent in studies of OECD countries (Table 2.7).

Dropout levels were not the only failures of the Spanish education system evidenced by international bodies. As previously mentioned, the European Commission's (2001b) sixteen quality indicators were developed with a view to strengthening co-operation among European countries and provided the basis for common points of reference. The report also offered results from contrastive studies, in which Spain fell well below average in areas such as mathematics and reading. There was data, then, to indicate that Spain was performing comparatively below standard and the law aimed to change this situation, arguably through an explicit underscoring of quality and effectiveness, which is evident in the forty-one appearances of the former term and thirteen variants of the latter in this thirty-page document, and in its creation of "Principles of Quality" (Appendix I).

Table 2.7

Average Rank in Five Measures of Educational Disadvantage

Nation	Dropout percentage	Nation	Dropout percentage	Nation	Dropout percentage
Korea	1.4	Sweden	10.8	Norway	14.2
Japan	2.2	Czech R.	12.2	USA	16.2
Finland	4.4	N. Zeland	12.2	Germany	17.0
Canada	5.0	France	12.6	Denmark	17.0
Australia	6.2	Switzerland	13.0	Spain	18.6
Austria	8.2	Belgium	14.0	Italy	20.2
UK	9.4	Iceland	14.0	Greece	23.2
Ireland	10.2	Hungary	14.2	Portugal	23.6

Note. From *A League Table of Educational Disadvantage in Rich Nations*, by UNICEF, 2002. *Innocenti Report Card No.4*, p.4. UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre: Florence.

If LOCE aimed to raise externally visible performance standards and reduce the percentage of students who abandoned the education system, the way in which this was to take place appears to have been through a series of general and specific improvements and demands aimed at changing the philosophies and approaches present at whole-school and individual teacher levels. Among the various developments LOCE proposed for education we find the promotion of a culture of effort, higher academic standards, innovation initiatives, appropriate classroom climate, positive teacher expectations, equal opportunities and improved working conditions (*Ley orgánica 10/2002*). Included in the specific measures to ensure that this culture of effort would take place and that standards would be raised was the presentation of plans to introduce external diagnostic tests at primary and secondary level.[17] Up until the development of LOCE, Spain had stood alone as the only country in the European Union where students could obtain *Bachillerato* or equivalent with no type of external control and in this sense, at least, the law followed European trends (Ferrer, 2003, p. 170).

The government responsible for LOCE seemed to have been convinced enough by the evidence supporting the need for change as to carry out a reform of LOGSE in a relatively short space of time from the full implementation of the previous law and gave such importance to the establishment of standards and indicators of quality that the term quality (*calidad*) is applied in the very title of this law. Yet the extent to which the package of measures included in LOCE could effectively bring about change, and indeed, the way in which reform was introduced was questioned.

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[17] This has recently been implemented in Andalusia and is presented in Consejería (2006).

It was suggested, for instance, that this law came about with no previous diagnosis of the education system (Feito, 2003, p. 225; Marchesi, 2003, p. 73). Similarly, Ferrer (2003, p. 158) claims that LOCE failed to complete a holistic study of the education system and instead carried out a series of partial diagnoses. Another criticism provided by Feito (2003) and Marchesi (2003) is that there was no serious attempt at arriving at a political and social agreement in the introduction of new legislation. In addition, Gil (2003, p. 193) considers that the law was published using undefined concepts like *quality* and *effort*, while Marchesi (2003, p. 73) and Torres (2003, p. 290) indicate that, at the time, there were no financial proposals in place to bring about real change in schools. Finally, Gil (2003, p. 193) and Torres (2003, p.294) maintain that LOCE represents a return to a Conservative past and Gil (2003, p. 194) goes further to claim that the law represents a step towards elitism in schools, which in turn entails the beginnings of social exclusion.

Some crititics of LOCE, then, appeared to link the introduction of quality to right-wing strategies, perhaps in ways not unsimilar to Erridge *et al.* (1998), who saw the introduction of TQM and Charterism in the United Kingdom as projects designed to compliment Conservative policy. However, while it is the case (coincidentally or not) that specific quality improvement measures may have found their legislative beginnings under right-wing administrations in the UK and Spain, as indicated below, the upholding and promotion of quality principles is evident in both nations under New Labour and the PSOE.

Given the fact that LOE has only recently been approved, the literature currently available on the matter is much scarcer than previous legislation.

Nevertheless, since much of the actual text has been available since 2005, [18] some authors have made certain observations that are arguably valid for specific aspects of the law currently in place. One such author is Feito (2005), who states that the law fails to fully address social inequalities and does not question the fact that students from economically disadvantaged backgrounds are consistently more likely to underachieve than their more privileged peers. He goes on to criticise LOE for incurring in discrepancies between objectives proposed for *ESO* and *Bachillerato*, and considers that goals for compulsory secondary education are relatively undemanding, whereas those of post-compulsory secondary education are much more challenging; similarly, he suggests that that there has still not been sufficient analysis of the reasons behind school failure in order to contribute to these reforms (ibid., p. 83).

Yet it does appear that LOE has taken some measures which go some way to avoid the criticisms labelled at LOCE. One step has been to pledge financial support in order to implement policy changes, stipulating an intention to reach the average level of European Union spending on education by the year 2012; another has been to open up the debate to the educational community to a much greater degree than previous legislators. However, there have been varying levels of opposition to the new law, manifest in various public demonstrations emanating mainly from church and private and semi-private sector schools on the one hand, who see the law attacking the freedom of choice for religious education, and student organisations, on the other, who see it as representing a weakening of the public school system. In addition, teachers who may already be disenchanted with previous reforms (i.e.

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[18] The White Paper for LOE: Anteproyecto de Ley Orgánica de Educación, de 30 de marzo de 2005.

LOGSE), have had to come to terms not only with a counter-reform, but also a further reform in the space of three years. The extent to which these rapid innovations in education may be received with scepticism or resistance among practising teachers is yet to be seen, and may, as discussed later, prove to be a challenge to the successful implementation of legislation (see Hargreaves *et al*. 2001).

2.2.6 Quality and Reform in Andalusia

While LOCE attempts to shift paradigms by incorporating quality as a central tenet in educational policy and LOE makes efforts to avoid the major criticisms of this law in terms of expanding the provision of equity, seeking consensus and specifying spending, those responsible for developing regional legislation based on the Central Government's national legislation have had more time, perhaps, to learn from the individual strengths of each law and seem to have made efforts to readdress the apparent weaknesses of LOCE. The White paper for *Ley de Educación de Andalucía* (LEA), which was passed by the Regional Education Council (*Consejería de Educación*) in June, 2007, tackled the question of consensus by surveying democratically elected representative members of all state funded primary and secondary schools belonging to school governing bodies (*Consejo Escolar*). This arguably provided the administration with information regarding the needs and aspirations of the school community as well as possible solutions as to the low levels of performance in the education system. Additionally, the issue of financing, which was left unmentioned in LOCE but treated in LOE, is again addressed in the regional governments pledge to increase spending by more than 36% between 2007 and 2012.

Finally, attempts are made to further the balance between measures to guarantee quality on the one hand (two chapters are dedicated to evaluation individual schools and of the education system) and equity on the other (three chapters are dedicated to this matter). The law also establishes the Andalusian Agency for Educational Evaluation (*Agencia Andaluz de Evaluación Educativa*) which, in terms of whole-school improvement, aims to promote a culture of self-assessment and evaluation in schools, collaborate in the continuous improvement processes in schools, and favour the attainment of educational objectives established by schools (LEA, art. 154). These objectives are supported not only by the establishment of new powers, functional frameworks and financing within the agency, but also through new roles for school inspection, particularly in terms of teacher appraisal (discussed below).

2.3 Quality and Individual Teachers

A sizeable proportion of the educational budget in many countries (between 70% and 90%) is employed on teachers salaries and, given that the quality of education depends largely on the figure of the teacher, much has been invested in determining effective teacher profiles (Anderson, 1991, p. 9). Up to this point, the main concern of this study has been with the quality of education systems and the transference of policy to individual institutions using whole-school models of improvement. In this section, attention will be paid to a number of aspects related to the characteristics and effectiveness of individual teachers, looking firstly at those elements that have traditionally been considered traits of *good* teachers and, in the following section, at specific quality indicators which are currently used as benchmarks for teacher performance within specific educational contexts.

2.3.1 General Characteristics of Effective Teachers

Anderson (1991) sees teacher effectiveness as being made up of two components: the first of these is concerned with the teacher's *possession* of knowledge and skills (competence), while the second depends on *the ability to use* knowledge and skills in context (performance). These two basic elements provide a theoretical basis for examining the effectiveness of teachers; however, it appears necessary to add to the latter definition of performance the component of appropriate goal attainment:

> Effective teachers are those who attain goals they set for themselves or have set for them by others…As a consequence, those who study and attempt to improve the effectiveness of teachers must be cognizant of the goals imposed on teachers, the goals that teachers establish for themselves, or both.

> (Anderson, 1991, p. 16)

These notions of teacher competence and performance are seen to be interconnected, but research shows that there is variability in the extent to which certain teacher traits normally considered to enhance student outcomes are indeed correlated. In reviewing the literature on teacher performance, for example, Darling-Hammond (1999) identifies various characteristics that have been historically linked to student mastery and have even been used as indicators of teacher quality. Several suggested correlates, such as general ability and knowledge of teaching and learning, reveal a strong bearing on student outcomes, whereas others, including teacher

experience, are shown to have a less significant relationship and, at times, appear to

be dependant on other characteristics possessed by teachers (Table 2.8).

Table 2.8

Teacher Characteristics and Learner Performance

Area	Evidence
Academic ability and intelligence	A positive correlation has been shown by several studies between this area and performance, but most are not statistically significant.
Subject matter knowledge	Some large and small scale studies do not show significant correlation. This may be explained in part by the argument that once the basic areas of mastery are covered, teacher subject matter knowledge which goes beyond the needs of the curriculum does not necessarily come into play.
Knowledge of teaching and learning	This has higher and more consistent levels of correlation with student outcomes. Both pre-service and in-service training may influence this area as the recency of educational experience is also related to performance.
Teaching experience	Significant differences are present between inexperienced and more senior teachers, although after 5 years of teaching, these differences level off. This may be due to the fact that that not all teachers continue to learn and grow professionally.
Certification status	This typically involves the state-approved certification of the teacher both in terms of subject knowledge and teaching and learning through graduate and/or postgraduate level. Traditionally trained and fully certified teachers obtain higher outcomes than those who are not trained and those who reach teaching by alternate routes.
Teacher behaviours and practices	No single strategy has been found to be unvaryingly successful, but some instructional practices have positive correlations with student outcomes, most important of these, perhaps, is the teacher's skill in using a number of different approaches.

Note. Based on *Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence*, by L. Darling-Hammond, 1999, pp. 6-14. Washington: Centre for the Study of Teaching and Policy. Adapted with permission.

In her own empirical analyses of public sector teaching in the US, Darling-Hammond (ibid., p. 29) found that of the teacher quality characteristics mentioned above, those of certification status and degree in the subject area to be taught were "very significantly and positively correlated with student outcomes", while other variables, such as the percentage of teachers with masters' degrees had positive relationships, but were not such powerful predictors of performance.

As indicated in Table 2.8, teacher behaviour may account for varying degrees of successful student performance, but strong relationships between individual strategies and abilities are difficult to determine. Some studies, however, have shown that students' perceptions, of interpersonal teacher behaviour are often a significant measure for the quality of a teachers' pedagogical ability, and indeed may act as a better measure than the teacher's self-perception in this area (Wubbles, Brekelmans & Hooymayers, 1991, p. 153). The existence of a mismatch between student and teacher perceptions has been found to be larger for teachers whose students perform less well; in addition to this, there are certain types of teacher behavioural styles that are more likely to result in favourable outcomes than others (ibid., p. 158). It appears, then, that much can be learned by consciously gathering feedback from students as a way to judging the reality and appropriateness of teaching styles and strategies employed while simultaneously gaining a deeper insight into students' learning difficulties. As far as specific classroom approaches are concerned, Harris (1998) reviews a number of strategies and skills that are considered to be pedagogically effective, including time spent teaching, classroom control and considerations for presentation of new material, structuring of input, questioning and feedback. Among the most effective strategies, we find the following (ibid., p. 171):

1. the establishment of clear structures and routines (Soar & Soar, 1979);

2. the effective organisation of teaching and maximisation of class time, minimisation of presentation (Powell, 1980);

3. the structuring of subject content with clear presentation, provision of feedback and effective questioning (Bennet *et al.*, 1981; Clark *et al.*, 1979; Smith & Land (1981); Wragg, 1984;

4. explicit stepwise instruction with an emphasis on student learning and cognitive achievement (Rosenshine, 1983).

In terms of structuring learning experiences, Rosenshine (1986) indicates that several researchers find that when effective teachers explicitly present concepts and skills, they often begin lessons with a statement of goals and revise previous learning, they present material in small steps with detailed instructions, they also give students the opportunity to actively practice providing guidance at initial stages; they also monitor student learning, ask questions and offer systematic feedback.

In order to carry out these and other actions, it is necessary for teachers to consciously plan for learning events (see Clark & Peterson, 1986). The organisation of learning is not always a straightforward process and planning involves linking year, unit and lesson plans in a way which is logically sequenced, fulfils previously established objectives and takes into account the contextual variables present within individual classrooms (see Anderson, 1991). Gage and Berliner (1992, p. 503) maintain that there is a hierarchy of planning needs in the classroom (Fig. 2.7), whereby the establishment of planning for classroom management precedes all other areas of instruction.

Figure 2.7

Hierarchy of Planning Priorities
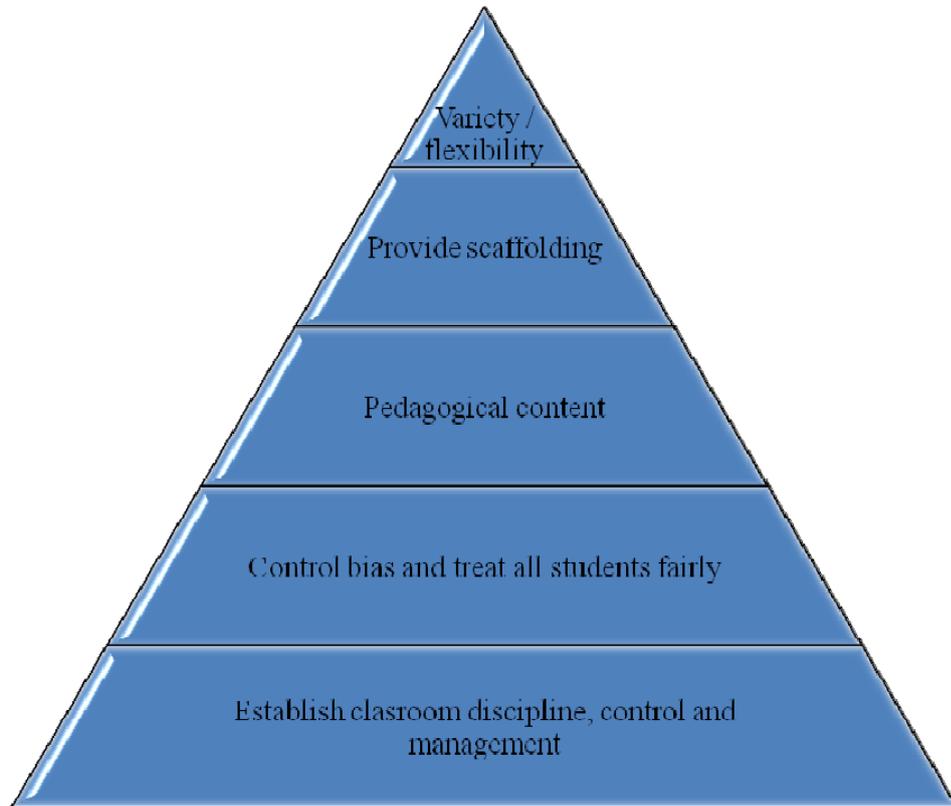
Note. From Educational Psychology by N. Gage and D. Berliner, 1992, pp. 509-510. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. Copyright 1992 by Houghton Mifflin Company. Used with permission.

This concept is often passed over by subject-specific pedagogical literature and teacher-training sessions, not least of which in the ELT profession, where there are countless attempts made to find ways to make classes more interesting and varied but perhaps a lesser treatment of elements such as classroom management. It seems that while motivation should play a key role in effective teaching, it is dependant on there being a system that enables the teacher to control the class and ensure the conditions exist for students to be on task. Similarly, lesson and curricular planning do not appear to be a matter of simply sequencing a series of learning experiences; among

other areas, planning is also important for the creation of rules and routines, the use of resources and assessment of progress (Anderson, 1991).

Apart from the ability to implement specific planning and structuring strategies, more recent studies build on previously cited research and incorporate additional characteristics of effective teachers. In their analysis based on the OCED's 1993 international comparative study on teachers in practice, Hopkins and Stern (1996, pp. 504-507) identify six key characteristics of high quality teachers: a) teacher commitment; b) love of children; c) mastery of subject-specific didactics; d) a repertoire of multiple models of teaching and learning; e) collaboration with other teachers; and f) reflection on practice. Even though it may by difficult to establish individual measures for all of these characteristics, the study shows an explicit concern for the quality of teaching and constitutes a further step in the identification of features possessed by "quality teachers".

Other general characteristics of effective teachers are provided by Good and Brophy (1996) who describe this group of professionals as being capable of articulating expectations, able to conduct themselves as problem-solving experts and who do not accept student limitations as being unchangeable; furthermore, they are involved in developing and managing a structured learning environment through the creation of routines and procedures (ibid., pp. 18-20). Ineffective teachers, on the other hand, are considered to be less aware of students' problems, have unrealistic ideas, use limited resources or provide insufficient feedback (ibid., p. 21). Connected to a number of these general traits is the teacher's awareness of how the classroom environment affects learning (Good & Brophy, 2000). In a study of 17,805 students in four countries, Haertel, Walberg and Haertel (1981) identified a series of socio-

psychological factors that had either positive or negative consequences on student performance. Those characteristics found to positively influence outcomes included cohesiveness, satisfaction, task difficulty, formality and goal direction; on the other hand, friction, cliqueness, apathy, favouritism and disorganisation were seen to have negative effects (ibid., p. 27). Other contributory factors include the establishment of common goals, the sharing of responsibility, mutual support and the acceptance of constructive criticism (see Harris, 2000; Van der Linden, Erkens, Schmidt, and Renshaw, 2000).

Some studies have indicated that the interpersonal behaviour of teachers as perceived by students is an important variable which may affect student outcomes. For example, Jules and Kutnick (1997) found that one of the key aspects of good teaching lay in the quality of the teacher-student relationship. In another study, Den Brok, Brekelmans, and Wubbels (2004) examined behaviour of 45 physics teachers and 32 EFL teachers and their respective secondary school classes, and concluded that student perceptions of teacher cooperativeness was important for their motivation, although in this specific study it was seen to be less important for achievement. In the treatment of EFL, the investigation also indicated that the association between interpersonal teacher behaviour and student outcomes (understood as being both affective and cognitive) explained between 3.5% and 50% of class-level variance.

Another possible contributor to positive classroom environments and effective learning can be seen to take place when opportunities are given for cooperative learning through pair and group work (Slavin, 1990). Collaboration, however, is not limited to student-student interaction within the classroom, it appears that student-

teacher collaboration can also provide an enhanced environment for effective learning while reducing perceptual teacher mismatch (Moll & Whitmore, 1993). At the same time, a positive climate is necessary for student involvement, which is important for successful learning outcomes (Anderson, 1991, pp. 75-83). Therefore, there is some evidence to link teacher behaviour with classroom climate and to correlate positive learning environments with enhanced student performance, although the degree to which this occurs is not entirely clear, and it may be assumed that variance depends not only on teacher characteristics, but also on other contextual factors.

Empirical studies, often carried out for the purposes of policy-making, are not our only source of information with regards to teacher effectiveness, and it is possible to find other complimentary accounts which further our insight into those characteristics which are linked to competence and performance. Writing primarily for school management teams, Glickman (2002, pp. 87-90) provides a descriptive framework for assessing effectiveness, placing teachers into four categories based not only on their aptitude, but also on their levels of attitude or commitment (Fig. 2.8). The quadrants of this model include: a) teacher dropouts, characterised by their low level of commitment and acceptance of responsibility; b) unfocused workers who, despite being enthusiastic and diligent, often fail to reflect on problematic situations and act appropriately; c) analytical observers, who can effectively assess problem situations but are unwilling to carry out improvements; and d) professionals, both committed and in possession of a high level of abstraction who are able to think about problems, develop strategies and carry out appropriate improvement for themselves and others.

Figure 2.8

Four Types of Teacher

	Analytical observers		Professionals
	Teacher dropouts		Unfocused workers
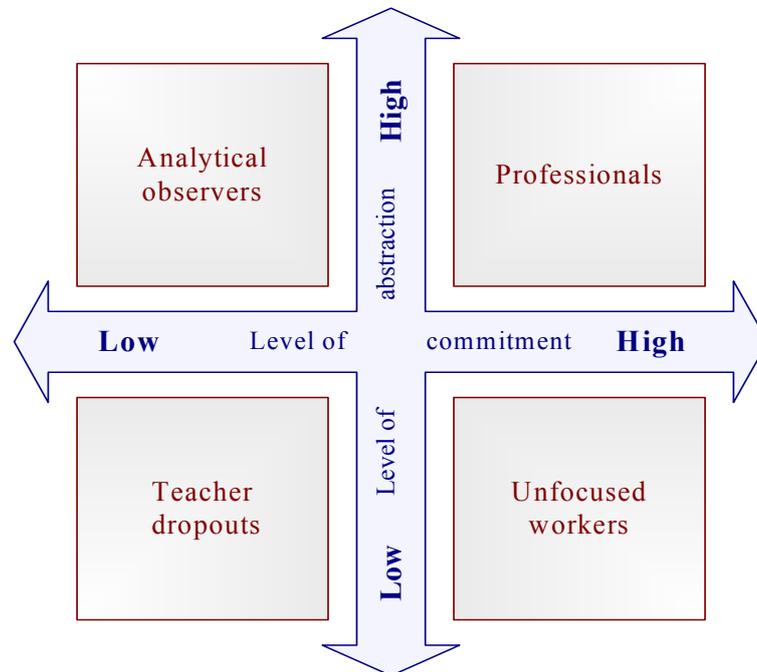
Note. From *Leadership for Learning: How to Help Teachers Succeed*, by C. D. Glickman, 2002, p.88. Virginia: ASCD. Copyright 2002 by ASCD. Reproduced with permission.

Glickman comments on the need for a body of *competent*, *qualified* and *caring* professionals who are reflective practitioners, familiar with their subjects and understanding of the developmental needs of their students and offers school leaders ways in which to develop these characteristics (ibid., p.81). Hopkins and Stern (1995) coincide with Glickman's (2002) underscoring of commitment and see this trait as one which transcends the classroom and enables other effectiveness-enhancing actions and attitudes, prompting the desire for improved student learning and performance, the search for more effective methods and collaboration with other teachers and the wider community. If, therefore, we are to take as reference points Glickman's model of effective and ineffective teachers and Hopkins and Stern's

study of characteristics of quality teachers, it is possible to observe that, in addition to teacher competence and performance, we must add the element of teacher attitude or commitment.

These levels of commitment are arguably based on teacher motivational factors, and although it may be difficult to determine how motivation may influence general teaching behaviour, it might be interesting to briefly examine the matter. In this respect, Ames and Ames (1984) provide a research-based model which suggests three basic systems of teacher motivation in the classroom: a) ability-evaluative motivation, b) motivation from moral responsibility, or c) task-mastery motivation. In the first case, the most important concern for teachers is their own self-esteem, whereby defensiveness and ego-enhancement are strong; thus, when student performance is low, it is likely that they will attribute failure to external factors rather than assume their own responsibilities. In the second case, those motivated by a sense of moral responsibility place importance on students' welfare; this keeps the teacher in a facilitating role but may encourage student dependence and a large amount of teacher self-blame for student failure. Finally, teachers motivated by task-mastery are concerned not with demonstrating their own ability, but with enabling the accomplishment of important student goals. In this rational approach, less energy is spent attributing blame for failure and more is given to the search for improvement strategies.

By examining this paradigm of teacher motivation, it is possible to discern how teachers' attitudes and reactions to everyday classroom situations may vary depending on the predominant motivational attribute involved. We could also postulate that these traits can be modified, but in order to do so, a certain degree of

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conscious-raising may be needed. This, however, would require a level of commitment and openness to self-evaluation that may not always be present, by dint of the very motivational attributes present within the teachers themselves.

Figure 2.9

Suggested Components of Teacher Effectiveness
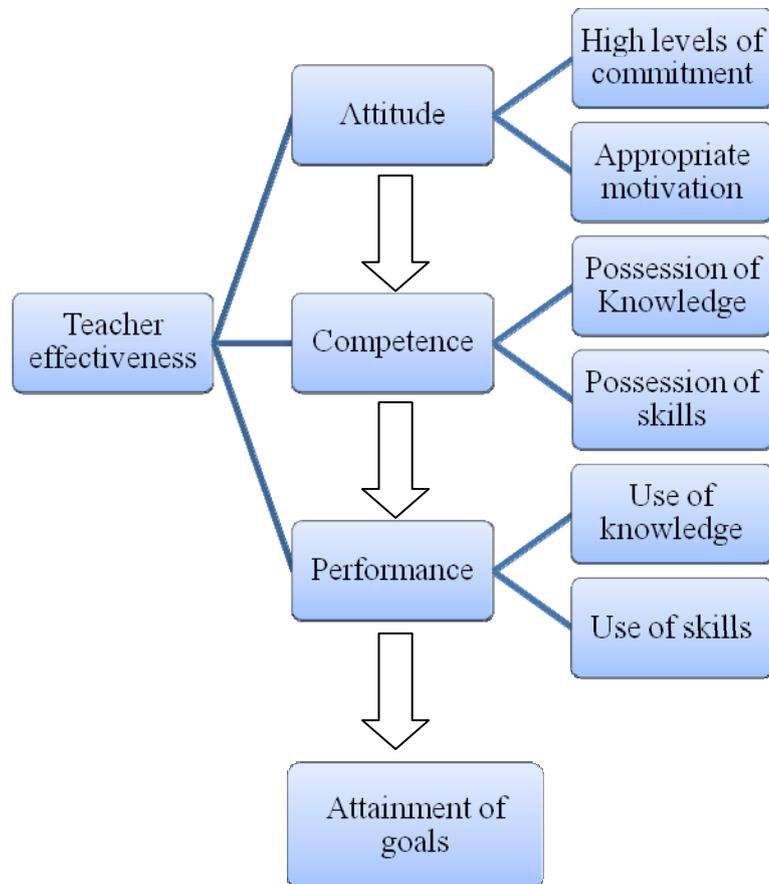
From this brief overview of some of the most important characteristics in teacher effectiveness, it is possible to draw some conclusions (see summary in Figure 2.9). Firstly, high levels of teacher commitment may lead to a number of enabling factors which contribute to student learning; these factors could include elements such as increased levels of continuing professional development and keenness to

address valued learner needs. Linked to commitment is motivation, whereby orientation towards student task-mastery and the rational solving of problem areas is considered to be more appropriate than a defensive justificatory position. Teacher competence, in terms of knowledge and skills may also be related to student performance and, while experience is considered to be somewhat important, so too are at appropriate levels of recent engagement in pedagogical and of subject-specific development activities. This competence, however, may depend on the previously described attribute of teacher attitude. Similarly, willingness to put both possessed knowledge and skills into practice, not only in terms of providing expert knowledge, but also of creating the necessary environment for student involvement and task-mastery, appears to be a necessary component of teacher effectiveness. Ultimately, evidence of effectiveness will arguably lie in the extent to which appropriate internal and external objectives are met.

2.3.2 Quality Indicators and Individual Teachers

The use of indicators to judge individual teacher performance has become common practice in many educational contexts. Often, such indicators are externally established and are based on national or international studies and are later included in teacher appraisals carried out by the schools inspectorate or other bodies responsible for accountability. Alternatively, as mentioned earlier, they may be identified organically by improvement teams working within the schools themselves. A number of studies (e.g. Darling-Hammond, 1999; Hopkins & Stern) present quantitative or qualitative data that point to characteristics which are either attributable to teacher quality or which are promoted directly as quality indicators. Some go further and

highlight the evidence supporting the use of accreditation boards responsible for upholding and enforcing the quality standards which are proposed (see Carnoy & Loeb, 2002; Darling-Hammond, 1999). These indicators may be used by different agents at various levels, including state administrations, schools inspectorate, head teachers or other school bodies and employed in official reviews of teacher performance.

Appraisals of this type, although common in many countries, including the United States and the United Kingdom, are not equally applied throughout regions in the European Union. In Andalusia, for example, teachers are not generally subject to regular appraisals or inspections by the administration. At present, the main opportunity the local education authorities have to systematically judge the relative merits of teachers in service is that provided during the "practice" phase of teaching, which takes place the first year of service in public sector schools. [19] Here, the inspectorate assigns a tutor-supervisor who is an experienced teacher in the subject-specific area, and who generally partakes in a single pre-notified observation session. Thus, the teacher theoretically can stage the performance of a class and then continue *as normal*.

One exception to this which provides evidence that teacher appraisal is quickly gathering momentum in Andalusia lies in the assessment of head teachers (see *Orden de 12 de septiembre de 2005*). This general process is supervised by the inspectorate and the appraisal itself is carried out by the School Council, made up by parents, students and local representatives. The School Council's review of the head teacher's

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[19] This process is not compulsory for semi-private (*centros concertados*) or private schools entitled to provide compulsory primary and secondary education. A minority of private schools do employ appraisal systems involving individual class inspections or appraisals by management.

performance is based on five criteria, which are in turn subdivided into a total of fifty

indicators used to measure the each individual criterion (Fig. 2.10) and the results are

remitted to the school's inspector.

Figure 2.10

Quality Indicators for Head Teachers in Andalusia
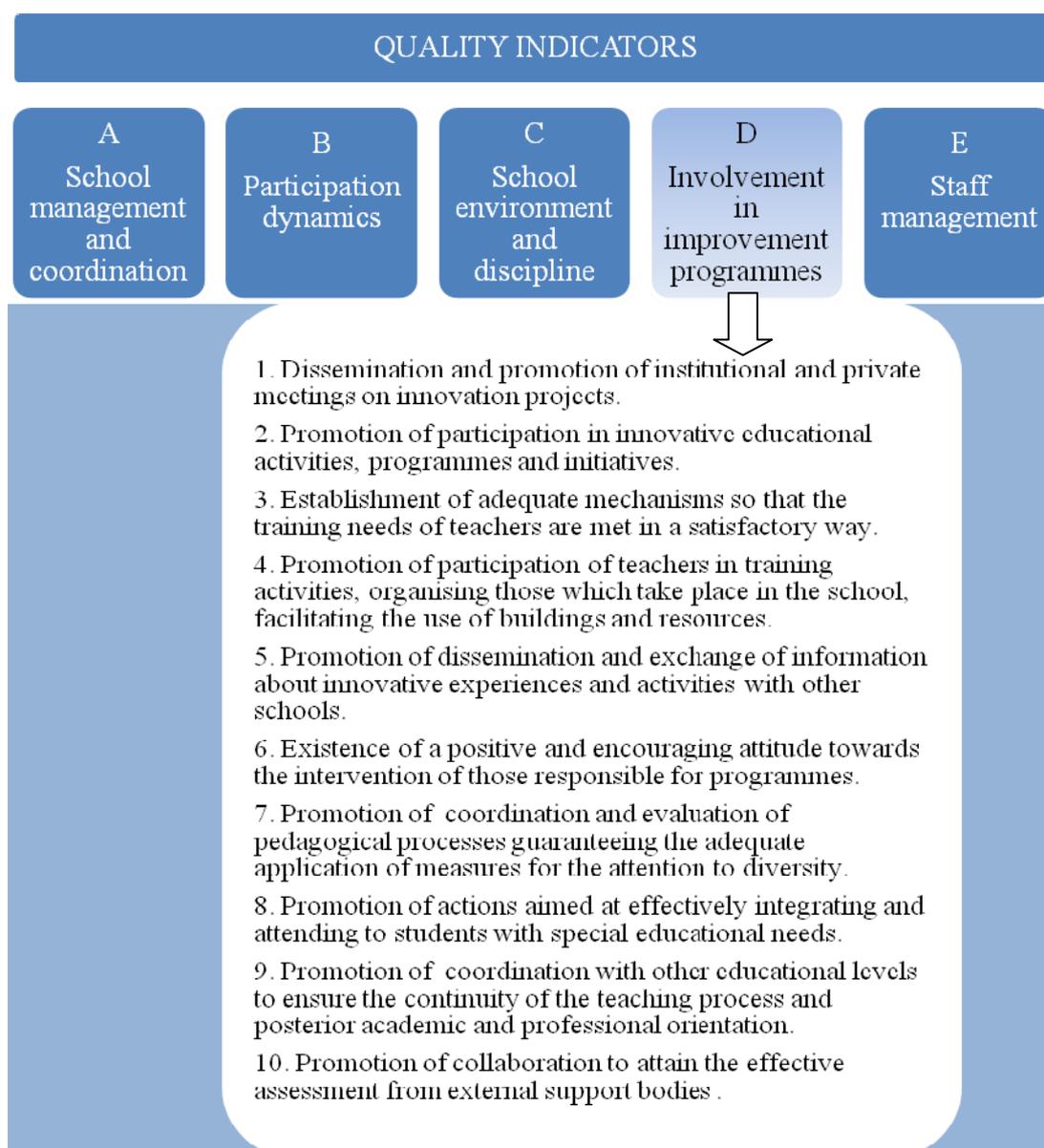
Note. Based on "Orden de 12 de septiembre de 2005, por la que se establece el procedimiento para la evaluación del ejercicio de la Dirección en los Centros docentes públicos de Andalucía," *Boletín Oficial de la Junta de Andalucía, núm 195*, pp. 11.

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Despite the fact that this is considered to be an important measure in terms of the regulation of school management in that it is used to consolidate the status of head teachers, and indeed, is linked to economic rewards, there are various problems with this appraisal system. The first of these may lie in the validity of the indicators themselves. For instance, no reference is made in the document of the control of student attendance in the centre, so, theoretically, the head teacher could be fulfilling all of the established quality criteria within a school where high levels of absenteeism exist. Another problem lies in the fact that, apart from the indicators themselves, the administration offers no instruments, such as scaled questionnaires with which to measure performance; nor does it ask for specific documented evidence in order to validate results. Essentially, the appraisal is left up to the School Council, which, with the exception of individual cases of informed and trained members, is made up of members who have little or no experience in quality management or in the processes of data collection or evidence provision involved in auditing and appraising. In the end, this may lead to a high degree of subjectivity and subsequent questionable reliability of the process itself.

Notwithstanding the possible limitations of this appraisal system, it is clear that the educational administration has recognised a need to establish quality indicators for headteachers. This is further evidenced in a more recently developed White Paper[20] which, just two years after the introduction of the previously mentioned *Orden de 12 de septiembre de 2005*, offers a more finely tuned set of quality criteria and indicators upon appraisal of the head teacher. Contained within

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[20] Proyecto de orden por la que se establece procedimiento para la evaluación de los directores y directoras en los centros docentes públicos de Andalucía, a excepción de los universitarios.

this proposed legislation, the major differences with the previous decree include a yearly appraisal of the head teacher by the School Council based upon six quality criteria, each with eight corresponding indicators. In terms of the final appraisal upon completing a four year headship term, the performance of the head teacher is judged by a committee of members assigned by the local education authority and formed by a) the local delegate for Education; b) the local head of the Inspectorate; c) the head of school organisation and planning; c) the head of personnel; d) the local inspector; e) two headteachers; and f) a member of the provincial educational administrative body, who acts as secretary. This appraisal leads to a final score for the head teacher which will determine continuance or discontinuance in the post.

Currently, the use of quality indicators for individual teachers is not employed on a regular and widespread basis within the Andalusian education system. For this reason, if we wish to examine the systematic use of such indicators for this professional body, it is necessary to turn to other educational localities. One context where appraisal systems and quality indicators have been in development for the last two decades is that of the UK. Indeed, in this area, quality indicators are employed not only for practising professionals, but also for aspiring teachers during their pre-service training and at early stages of employment, whereby, in order to be able to practice as fully-fledged teachers, candidates must be in possession of the Qualified Teacher Status certification. This accreditation process involves the assessment of performance in three general areas: a) professional values and practice; b) knowledge and understanding; and c) teaching (DfEs, 2003, p. 3). Each of these standards is measured through a corresponding set of individual performance indicators (Fig. 2.11).

Figure 2.11

Sample Standards for Qualified Teacher Status

Standard 1 Professional values and practice

- They have high expectations of all pupils; respect their social, cultural, linguistic, religious and ethnic backgrounds; and are committed to raising their educational achievement.
- They treat pupils consistently, with respect and consideration, and are concerned for their development as learners.
- They demonstrate and promote the positive values, attitudes and behaviour that they expect from their pupils.
- They can communicate sensitively and effectively with parents and carers, recognising their roles in pupils' learning, and their rights, responsibilities and interests in this.

Standard 2 Knowledge and understanding

- They have a secure knowledge and understanding of the subject(s) they are trained to teach. For those qualifying to teach secondary pupils this knowledge and understanding should be at a standard equivalent to degree level.
- They know and understand the values, aims and purposes and the general teaching requirements set out in the National Curriculum Handbook. As relevant to the age range they are trained to teach, they are familiar with the Programme of Study for citizenship and the National Curriculum Framework for personal, social and health education.
- They are aware of expectations, typical curricula and teaching arrangements in the Key Stages or phases before and after the ones they are trained to teach.

Note. Samples from *Qualifying to Teach: Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training*, by DfEs, 2003, pp. 7-13. London: Teacher Training Agency.

In terms of judging the merits of practising teachers in England, diverse elements of the appraisal process can be seen in DEE (2000). Firstly, the head teacher determines the appraisal cycle of the teacher, which normally lasts for one year, and between nine and eighteen months for first appraisals (DEE, 2000, art. 8). Previous to this appraisal cycle, the school teacher and the appraiser, who is nominated by the head teacher, seek to agree objectives relating to the improvement

of the teacher's professional practice and pupil progress (ibid., art. 12). The appraisal itself involves the observation of at least one class (ibid., art. 13). At the end of the cycle, an interview takes place between the appraiser and teacher in order to review performance, judge the extent to which agreed objectives have been met, and identify future training needs (ibid., art. 14). Finally, appraisal statements are provided by the appraiser and a report is presented by the head teacher. These documents are subsequently used to determine performance-related pay as well as promotion, or as the basis for disciplinary actions, including dismissal of the school teacher (ibid., art. 20).

The appraisal system is not the only measure used to determine quality standards; as can be observed in Ofsted (2001a), other instruments are employed by the inspectorate to determine how well teachers are performing. Among the many different performance measures, quality of teaching is just one. Sample indicators of this area are presented below:

1. teacher's knowledge and understanding;

2. management of pupils;

3. effectiveness of teacher's planning;

4. effectiveness of teaching methods;

5. use of time, resource staff and resources;

6. teacher's expectations;

7. teaching of basic skills;

8. use of homework;

9. quality and use of engaging assessment.

It is possible to see, then, that both the nature and implementation of quality indicators depends very much upon the individual national or regional contexts in question. Some settings offer a wide and in-depth range of indicators for all areas of educational institutions, whereas others are yet to provide a systematically implemented, extensively applied and revised framework for the appraisal of teachers in context. To date, this has been the case in secondary schools in Andalusia; however, current trends, evident particularly in the introduction and prompt revision of the quality appraisal process for head teachers, and in the promotion of teacher appraisal provided in *LEA*, suggest that this state of affairs is to change. It is possible that this relatively tardy concern for quality indicators may bring with it the advantage of allowing the regional administration to learn from previously implemented experiences, providing decision-makers with a greater awareness of the potential limitations in the application of quality principles to teaching. It may also be the case, however, given the scarcity of the systematic implementation of quality programmes, that resistance to change may be higher than those contexts where such programmes are already commonplace.

2.4 Limitations of the Application of Quality

2.4.1 Critique of Quality in General Education

Up until this point, relatively little has been said either in terms of evidence for the effectiveness of a quality assurance or quality management approach to education, or in relation to the possible dangers of the implementation of standards-based education. In the first area, Wilkinson and Willmot (1994, p. 55), writing on quality management in general, give early indications of an unquestioning

acceptance of the adoption of such a system without empirical evidence to show it works. They also state that there are uncertainties related to quality and ask the following questions (ibid., pp. 62-63):

1. Does the advocacy for effectiveness and efficiency take on board use human values, or does it use them as a means to an end?

2. Are employees able to get rid of incompetent managers?

3. Is quality used as a strategy to reduce management workloads?

4. Do initiatives allow employees to develop a collective sense of purpose and shared identity, or is it the case that they make employees increase their workloads and bind them to externally defined objectives?

Fuentes (2001), in studying business in Spain indicates that the adoption of quality systems does not always work, and while many may promote the successes of such systems, a number of empirical studies have shown failures in obtaining desired results (ibid., p. 79). Among the factors which lead to failure mentioned by Fuentes are those of the focus on minimum standards, excessive bureaucracy and the lack of demand for radical change. Another challenging element of the introduction of quality systems is the initial burden it creates on those who decide to implement it. Fuentes finds evidence to show that although quality systems have the potential to provide benefits in the long-term, at initial stages it can create pressures that are testing for individual and collective compromise with continuous improvement. In education, we could add to this list the fact that individual teachers may see improvement schemes as being top-down or externally imposed (Cheong, 2003),

even if they are initiated by the school management team (Welsh & Metcalf, 2003). Furthermore, it may take a long time for real improvements to be felt at specific classroom levels (Harris, 2001), or it may be seen as relegating teachers to the status of technicians (Taylor Webb, 2002).

Quality has become synonymous with accountability and performance, yet for some, it should also take into consideration values of fairness and equity (Morley & Rassool, 2000, p. 181). This does not always occur and it has been contended that the whole concept of quality, performance management and external accountability measures may erode local initiatives, advocate a narrow-sighted emphasis on performativity, and go against social justice and democracy (Williams, 2005, p. 321). Furthermore, several authors (Forrester, 2005; Mahony, Hextall, & Menter, 2004; Morley, 2005) have observed that the movement towards performance management potentially represents the remasculisation of a historically gendered profession. The implementation of regulatory models of effectiveness and accountability arguably rely on masculinised paradigms expressed as the "individualistic and competitive notions of motivation, achievement and performance" (Mahony *et al.*, 2004b, p. 138). Male rationality and the masculinised discourse of educational performance management on the one hand, sit alongside the constraining neutrality of polity, which depicts the teacher as an abstract entity who is encouraged to attain goals and standards, disregarding the meaningfulness of the connections developed between learner and teacher (see Dillabough, 1999; Morley, 2005). The rise of this type of culture within schools has involved changes, particularly among female teachers, who appear to be encouraged to adopt a more masculine approach to performance in detriment of more nurturing qualities (Forrester, 2005). Furthermore, the

contemporary notion of professionalism, which serves as a reference point for the concept of the modern day teacher and which is conceived as the rational capacity to behave in a competent and efficient way, has the potential to undermine teachers' political authenticity and, as previously mentioned, can essentially lead to forms of technical control (Dillabough, 1999, p. 375). Other problems attributed to the implementation of quality assurance in education cited by Harvey are (2005, pp. 271-273):

1. it is a burdensome and overlapping processes;

2. there is a high degree of attention on compliance and accountability;

3. there is a low degree of attention on learning and transformation;

4. there may be a lack of trust among staff subjected to quality processes;

5. added workloads arise from self-assessments;

6. there may be superficial levels of buy-in by staff.

Furthermore, Harvey (ibid.) believes there may justifiably be a certain degree of criticism with regards to theatricality in quality assurance audits and considers that the external evaluation can be seen as a stage-managed form of review, whereby institutions attempt to present their best features and favour compliance rather than providing opportunities for constructive dialoguing to obtain improvement (ibid., p. 272). Although there has been renewed attention given to quality systems in education, it may be the case that unless the adopted framework places an emphasis on mutual trust and underscores professional learning and development, improvements are not likely to take place (see Moos, 2005; Sun, 2000).

In contrast to these judgements, those who favour quality control may justifiably claim that the use of such systems, while questionable, do attempt to offer certain guarantees to the users. Education, it could be argued, is not, as many politicians would express it, a service that is entirely free; it essentially comes from tax-payers' contributions. In this sense, as with any other paid-for-service, it should guarantee that students are given acceptable standards of education. Therefore, if there is no appraisal of teachers in place, the system as a whole has no way of knowing if teaching is getting better or worse, and therefore, is limited in its ability to take actions where such actions are required. It appears, then, that an effective and acceptable application of quality to education could prove to be challenging since a number of sometimes conflicting aspects must be considered. Among the concerns which need to be addressed, the following might be suggested:

1. the need for a clear focus on teaching and learning in the classroom when considering whole-school improvement;

2. the promotion of an ethical approach to leadership that encourages teacher freedom, respects authenticity and allows for teacher empowerment in a non-manipulating way;

3. the need to take into account the views of all stakeholders in order to adjust and realign teaching practices;

4. the need for teachers to work in collaboration with others and not in an isolated fashion;

5. the establishment of collaborative, democratic, reliable and valid forms of teacher appraisal and promotion of self-assessment.

At the moment, the basic tendency for educational administrations seems to be one of striking a balance between guaranteeing that certain standards are met while at the same time allowing stakeholders to organically identify and respond to prioritised areas of improvement. However, there are complex areas involved in this dual process of accountability and self-regulation; chief among these may be the levels of resistance encountered both in attempts to implement external models of control and in proposals for the use of organic improvement systems.

2.4.2 Acceptance and Resistance to Quality in the Spanish Educational Context

In Spain, much of the philosophy used in EFQM model was taken on board by the Spanish government with the introduction of LOCE in 2002 (Bolívar & Rodríguez, 2002, p. 106). This is not surprising as the government was involved in piloting and promoting the model in 1998 (MECD, 2001a). It has not been the only European government to do so since, in Great Britain, Estelle Morris, at the time the Secretary of State for Education had, indeed, promoted the use of EFQM quality tools in schools (see Quality in Education, 2002 a, p. 5). The current law, LOE, also places an emphasis on quality in education, although it hints that in the previous proposals for education in LOCE, quality is reserved for a privileged few and, as a major distinguishing feature of new legislation, it binds the principle of quality to that of equity, describing the two features as "inseparable" concepts and stating that the benefits of improved quality in education must reach all young people "without exclusion" (*Ley Orgánica 2/2006*).

Various recent regional legislative changes and initiatives, including the adoption of quality indicators in the appraisal of head teachers (*Orden de 12 de*

septiembre de 2005) and the expressed need to monitor the quality in bilingual schools (Consejería, 2005a) seem to point to a future where quality management and quality assurance will become ever present. There has, however, been a series of criticisms labelled against quality in LOCE, some of which may also be applicable to LOE. The confusion and lack of consensus surrounding the very term *quality* has led to varying degrees of caution towards legislative initiatives. Indeed, Riu (2003, pp. 41-47) reasons that neither LOCE nor its predecessor, LOGSE, provide a clear meaning of the expression *quality in education*, and, in a comparative analysis of the *factors of quality* in LOGSE and *principles of quality* in LOCE, even points to discrepancies in the definitions of the term. In a less favourable examination of LOCE, Muñoz (2002, p. 170) states that nothing sensible can be stated about quality until the term is fully understood and sees a danger in unquestioningly adopting quality as an all powerful, almost miraculous umbrella to justify the introduction of this legislation in Spain.

Apart from these general deliberations, it is necessary to consider the that in the specific national and regional context, teaching professionals may appear to be resistant to change, not as a result of some form of natural conservatism, but because of the fact that teachers, particularly those who have specialist subjects, have been expected to come to terms with new models of teaching without having received the corresponding training by the administration; furthermore, it is suggested that these changes may have led to an undermining of teacher identity (Bolívar, Fernández, & Molina, 2004; Domingo & Pérez, 2005).

The case of resistance to change as mentioned in the Spanish context is not an isolated one. It has been observed that change, particularly in the teaching profession

in the context of educational reform, is an intellectually challenging experience (Hargreaves *et al*., 2001, p. 145) and very often is a process that finds many areas of opposition (Fullan, 2002, pp. 62-63). Studies carried out on nationwide educational reform offer interesting parallels (including possible limitations and ways of dealing with these) with the micro-systems of specific departmental change and offer insights useful for those involved in understanding the processes involved behind the assimilation of such changes.

Among the possible constraints that prevent change we find those identified by Hargreaves *et al.* (2001, pp. 128-135), who believe that challenges emerging from reform measures must be addressed in order to create the necessary conditions for improvement to take place. Firstly, there are a series of technical constraints, which implies that some teachers find difficulties with regards to the assimilation of new knowledge, abilities and behaviour. Secondly, cultural constraints mean that educators might have difficulties in understanding the changes they are facing. The politics of power and the way in which this power is exerted over others, who directs changes and underlying interests may also be a potential cause for rejection. Finally, challenges introduced by post-modernity, such as the rapid advances in communication, knowledge and the current climate of constant change and reform may also prove burdensome for some teachers. It could be argued, then, that change requires the progressive development of collaborative associations, training, freedom and leadership; it also requires a sense of direction and an awareness of the emotional factors involved in abandoning familiar systems in order to explore other perspectives and behaviours.

Table 2.9

Factors to Support and Aid Change

Factors	Benefits
The development of a collaborative culture among teachers	This has a proven positive correlation on effective learning, facilitates initiatives, and provides energy for change. This collaboration is not limited to the relationship between teachers from the same school but can be enriched by extending collaborative action in inter-school projects.
Professional learning	Some of the most effective forms of professional development are those which take place within the work place. This, however, requires time; not only for learning technical aspects, but also to develop the necessary *group spirit*.
Professional freedom	Independence to explore new territories, establish new collaborative relations and go beyond traditional curricula enhances intellectual and emotional growth. Teachers must be given space to exercise this freedom.
School leadership	Leadership is necessary to create an environment that supports change. The three areas of leadership identified as being most important are: a) Intellectual leadership; b) Cultural and emotional leadership; c) Strategic leadership.

Note. Based on *Aprender a cambiar: La enseñanza más allá de las materias y los niveles* [Learning to change: Beyond subjects and standards], by A. Hargreaves, L. Earl, S. Moore, S and S Manning, 2001, pp. 167-191. Barcelona: Ediciones Octaedro.

In examining the motivation of change, Goleman *et al.* (2002) describe a framework that encourages the individual to initiate and develop positive forms of change. This model includes the need for a vision of the ideal situation compared to the reality of the present circumstances, the establishment of a philosophy or stated values, the recognition of the need for change, and an awareness of the emotional reality of the groups or teams involved. Some these perspectives are supported by

Hargreaves *et al.* (2001), who identify collaboration, learning, professional freedom and leadership as potential enabling characteristics in supporting and maintaining change (Table 2.9). If the Spanish context is to find its way forward in introducing quality systems, it appears that the areas of leadership, training and collaboration at all levels are to be key strategic areas. Of these three, leadership appears to have a direct influence on the other two in that through this trait, encouragement can be provided to find better professional development practices while recognising when teachers need space and independence to grow; similarly, it is also through leadership that more collaborative environments may be created.

2.4.3 Limitations to Individual Teacher and Whole-school Models of Effectiveness

From previous examples of systems of accountability, it is possible to observe that, depending on the context, the quality of teaching and the application of indicators to schools and individual teachers themselves may be controlled at several different levels, at times simultaneously. In some cases, teaching may be appraised by the head teacher or the inspectorate in a systematic way; on other occasions, the responsibility for maintaining standards may rest solely with the teachers themselves. In certain school contexts, quality systems oblige staff to follow and document numerous procedures, whereas others encourage participants to identify their own strong and weak points and priorities for improvement. Each of these systems appears to have both advantages and limitations. For example, if we begin with the assumption that teachers work within a context made up not only of individual classroom situations, but also the school and department settings, it could be stated that if effective teaching is to take place in a specific instructional environment, it

must form part of a concerted effort and not take place in isolation of others. In reviewing the empirical evidence on the effectiveness of schools, Rutter (2000, p. 41) indicates that individual teachers may contribute to the success of a school; he also finds that there are school wide influences that increase or decrease the probability of teachers working effectively. Teaching, however, is an area prone to isolationism, and teachers may, at times, consider their work to be limited to their classroom (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 1998). McLaughlin and Talbert (1993) believe that teachers need to develop critical and supportive professional communities in order to be able to transform practice; unfortunately, as De Jong (1995) indicates in reference to the area of language instruction, this is not always the case:

> Even if teachers do have a careful plan of the trajectory they wish to cover and do indeed manage to move the students somewhat in the desired direction, they often have little or no information on the position of the previous team member from whom they are to pick the student up, or on what might be the position of the next team member.
>
> De Jong (1995, p. 441)

As in many other secondary education contexts, teaching in Spain is coordinated by department heads, and although individual teachers within a department may be successful at classroom level, if others are not, then the quality-continuum of teaching and learning could possibly be seen to be affected. The effective individual teacher working in isolation, therefore, could be described as having a reduced impact on the overall performance of students within a school. On

the other side of the spectrum, a number of limitations have been identified with regards to national and whole-school models of change, not only in terms of school improvement models, but also in relation to the quality movement. One argument is that teachers may regard changes initiated from above in an unfavourable light (Welsh & Metcalf, 2003, p.36); in addition, individual teachers are not often asked for their opinion when it comes to making decisions that will influence teaching nationwide. Thus, while some may adopt new policies unquestioningly, others may pay lip service to reforms but continue with their own personal agendas. Another problem lies in the fact that it is often difficult for policy initiatives to penetrate school systems (Hopkins & Stern, 1996, p. 516) and, as was the case of LOGSE in Spain, it sometimes takes a long time for national changes in educational policy to filter down to the individual teacher or for new systems to be fully implemented. A final problem with nationwide educational reform lies in the matter of feasibility and the question of the extent to which reforms can simultaneously take into account the diversity of individual school contexts, increase teacher acceptance, and provide desired results in student performance.

Despite advances towards empowering schools and teachers in their own instructional environments, it is often the case that even now improvements in many contexts are still initiated by external agents. In researching the opinions of policy makers in the United States, Cogan (2004) finds that there is a perceived need to move away from top-down improvement models and to form partnerships with the purpose of creating an educational policy which includes teachers in decision-making processes; he also finds that this will require innovative leadership from all those who participate in such a course of action (ibid., pp. 579-582).

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As mentioned, the implementation of major improvement strategies generally takes place at national levels (through reform) and at school levels (as a result of reform). Yet even when initiated at school level, changes and systems of improvement often depend on school management and may still be perceived to arise as a result of external or top-down processes that may have no direct impact on specific classroom situations.

2.5 The Department as an Alternative Agent of Change

Harris (2001) states that the department is underused as an area for improving teaching and learning and, drawing on empirical evidence from two research and evaluation projects at secondary school level in England, she asserts that this professional body may succeed in areas where other methods have failed. Among the findings reported, Harris (2001, p. 480) underlines the following: [21]

1. training helps to improve departmental effectiveness;

2. departmental improvements often encourage whole-school improvements;

3. developments at departmental level can lead to positive student outcomes.

Secondary schools do not appear to be the only beneficiaries of collaborative departmental practices. In Andalusia, Coronel, Carrasco, Fernández and González (2003) report similar findings for a teacher-education department at the University of Huelva. Their experience provides initial evidence that collaborative and democratic

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[21] It is interesting to note that student GSCE grades were used as a measure of success in these areas. Indeed, for the study in question, at least, results in these standard assessments are considered to be 'an important indicator of department improvement' (Harris, 2001, p. 480).

partnerships lead to improvements in teaching, student results, enhanced professional opportunities and positive organisational change.

In contrast, Visscher and Witziers (2004) show some limitations in the ways this educational component functions. Within the school departments under study in their investigation, they found that there was a low frequency of reflective dialogue, classroom observation and the provision of feedback on each other's work. They also mentioned that the departments were characterised as mechanical units rather than professional communities aimed at improving teacher development. Furthermore, they refer to other research which suggests that teachers often prefer to work autonomously (Lortie, 1975) and, when they do function as a department, they are more prone to deal with day-to-day problems rather than look for long-term solutions (Kruse & Louis, 1997). In their conclusions, Visscher and Witziers (2004) find that most leaders and heads of department merely fulfil a perfunctory role both within the department and in the instructional system (ibid., pp. 796-797).

Nevertheless, even though their study describes a number of weaknesses of the departments participating in the investigation, it also detects various positive features in specific cases. Among the strengths, they found that departments had the potential to be cohesive, well developed units of work, where teachers could share values, agree about areas of subject matter to be taught and discuss evaluation of student progress. This view is corroborated by several other studies (Ayres *et* al. 2004; Harris, 2001; Harris, Jamieson & Russ, 1995), which offer a more positive outlook and show how the department can often play a vital role in successful teaching and learning. Harris (2001), for example distinguishes between departments and other change agents, indicating that, in conjunction with other modalities of improvement,

the former may be a more effective way to enhance student learning, influence classroom practice and generate a higher internal capability for change (ibid., p. 485). Furthermore, the author finds several factors that increase the effectiveness of departments; these included leadership, communication and collegiality, a central focus on teaching and learning, and enquiry and reflection. It seems, then, that while departments do not always function as cohesively as they could, it is possible to have a positive impact on their effectiveness and enable them to act, in some cases, as more effective agents of change.

2.5.1 Departmental Environment and Communication

In terms of business management, Goleman *et al.* (2002, p. 43) indicate that a positive environment helps people to assimilate information and aids the organisation of logical thought processes. In this area, the leader has a particularly important role to play in creating and sustaining environments conducive to the favourable development of teamwork, team learning and shared decision-making. This includes building group cohesiveness, providing reasonably challenging but attainable goals, and providing a democratic environment to allow for the sharing of initiatives and responsibilities. In a similar way, the existence of a positive environment in departments appears to be conducive to more effective and productive work methods. In a study carried out by Ayres *et al.* (2004), a total of 25 instructors who had been identified as effective teachers of high-achieving students attributed their success to different factors. Among these was that of faculties (also known as departments) in effective schools, which they found to be "warm, friendly, cohesive and stable"; furthermore, "there existed within-faculty cooperation, a fairly uniform

approach to teaching, and help given to new members" (ibid., p. 143). This initial assessment indicates that one of the key components to the development of an effective department is the quality of interpersonal relationships existing therein. Furthermore, an important part of the cooperation entails integrating new teachers into the department and establishing mentoring schemes, which often takes place through the head of department (ibid., p. 153). The development of mentoring and coaching systems are also highlighted by Visscher and Witziers (2004) as a possible way to enhance the growth of this professional community. Communication and collegiality are two further features of effective departments noted by Harris (2001), whereby effective departments have clear communication systems within department and between the department and the rest of the school as well as strong levels of teamwork, including peer observation and review (ibid., p. 482). Similarly, Visscher and Witziers (2004) found that effective departments are able to transform their joint vision and readiness to cooperate in ways that enabled the creation of teaching and learning systems and goals (ibid., p. 798)

2.5.2 The Department's Commitment to Teaching and Learning

According to Joyce, Calhoun and Hopkins (1999) our main goal as teachers should be enhanced student learning. It stands to reason that one of the most important roles of the department, therefore, should be that of improving both the teaching and learning processes. Harris (2001) believes that having a central focus on teaching and learning is an important characteristic of effective departments; furthermore, it would appear that the department's capacity to directly improve what goes on in the classroom is greater than that brought about by whole-school models

of improvement alone. In her study, those departments with higher levels of success not only concentrated on these aspects as a means to creating the internal capability for improvement, but also undertook significant developmental work in the teaching and learning process itself. Similarly, in Visscher and Witziers (2004), the enhancement of collaborative relationships, the establishment of goals and data gathering in effective departments are all geared towards the improvement of instruction and learning. This may be seen as a major differentiating factor given the fact that whole-school models of change may prioritise more general organisational areas of improvement rather than the specific enhancement of teaching and learning in the classroom.

2.5.3 Knowledge and Professional Development

It has been pointed out that having a positive environment is conducive to learning, and the department, as has been indicated by Ayres *et al.* (2004), may be seen as a viable context for staff learning. It is possible that due to several existing challenges, including a tendency for some teachers to prefer to work in isolation, the existence of time constraints or other previously mentioned factors contributing to resistance to change, some teachers may not be willing to partake in such developmental practices. However, while encouraging teachers to develop their insights and skills in order to enhance student outcomes may prove difficult, the learning process involved in professional development at departmental level has a series of advantages over other areas of training which, some may contend, make the effort worthwhile. The most important of these, perhaps, is that the centre of improvement efforts may be directly related to pedagogical processes and outcomes

within the context where teaching and learning take place. Among the actions taken inside the department, it is suggested in Hughes (2004a) that a number of initiatives may be used to improve professional development. These include reporting on action research taken within the classroom, using data-measurement, goal-setting and priority-establishing tools, reporting on conferences or literature reviews on general and subject specific pedagogical theories and interventions, and participating as a team.

As can be observed, the scope for professional development within the department may include not only the sharing of knowledge and skills important for teaching, but also life-skills, including the management of interpersonal relations and participation in decision-making processes. More importantly, however, as Ayres *et al.* (2004) report, teachers identified as being effective indicated that their professional development "had significantly influenced their classroom practices" (ibid., p. 162). It is interesting to note that ten of the twenty-six teachers in their study had identified the department as the most important source of professional development. This often took the form of formal staff activities, such as reporting on professional meetings and providing demonstrations.

Of course, this is not the only form of professional development. In the context of Spain, for example, González, Iniesta, Martín, Nieda, Prada and Urbón (1995) in a nationwide study, detected teacher preferences for professional in-service modalities of training in terms of how they thought development could best be achieved (Table 2.10). The absence of the department in this study as an area for professional development is, perhaps, just as striking as its presence in the study conducted by

Ayres *et al*. (2004), and may indicate the degree to which this officially recognised unit is underused in certain contexts.

Table 2.10

Teacher Preferences for Professional Development

Form of professional development	Very much	A lot	Fair	A little	Not at all
Courses organised by *CEPs*	7.6	20.5	22.3	23.1	19.2
Reading of scientific and/or pedagogical literature	22.9	46.3	19.6	4.6	0.6
Courses organised by private entities	15.6	30.2	28.6	11.8	4.1
Courses organised by the university	22.9	40.1	22.0	8.2	1.2
Participation in Pedagogical Renovation Movements	13.2	29.2	25.3	16.7	7.6
Authorised leave for professional development	37.0	33.8	13.1	6.8	2.8

Note. From *Evaluación del Profesorado de Educación Secundaria*, by M.C. González, A. Iniesta, J. Martín, J. Nieda, M. D. Prada, and F. Urbón, 1995, p. 107. Madrid: Ministerio de Educación.

In summary, from the studies provided by the above mentioned sources, it would appear that professional development may allow department members to maximise their pedagogical knowledge and also provide important motivational factors through participation and generation of new ideas. Furthermore, there is also

evidence indicating that development is linked to enhanced student performance. In-service training, however, is not the only valuable source of knowledge, and decisions may be more informed, as discussed below, through action research practices, observation schemes and the gathering of contextualised data.

2.5.4 Use of Data

By increasing the amount of data available to the department to an adequate and workable level, it would seem that the possibility of making better decisions could be increased. Visscher and Witziers (2004), for example, link the obtaining of data on student performance with effective departmental practices and point to the importance of providing feedback to improve the quality of teaching and learning at individual, team and organisational levels. Apart from data gained through the examination of student performance levels, another important source of information is that obtained through observation and reflective practices. In this area, Harris (2001) associates departmental effectiveness with enquiry and reflection and affirms that effective departments are often engaged in action research (ibid., p. 484). In this sense, data collection may also involve teacher self-assessment in order to enhance practices and to avoid identifiable weak points. This is common practice in business management; Goleman *et al.* (2002), for instance, recommend leaders to carry out 360 degree feedback with superiors, colleagues and subordinates in order to minimalise perceptual mismatches. Ideas similar to these have been applied to language teachers within the classroom (see Brown & Rogers, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Data collection is just the first step towards improvement, for knowing the strong and weak points of a system are not in themselves enough to enhance what is already being done well and to create necessary modifications in deficient areas. In order for changes to take place, new goals must arguably be set and actions taken. At initial stages, however, information allows the department to begin the process of developing a vision and goals for the future.

As far as vision is concerned, Sammons *et al.* (1995) indicate that this constitutes an important factor in school effectiveness, and Harris (2000) points to evidence which not only confirms this, but also suggests that clear vision should be linked to high quality support and that it needs to be shared and revised in order to avoid confusion, rejection and failure (ibid., p.6). The creation of goals within the department has also been linked improvements in teaching and learning (Visscher & Witziers, 2004, p. 798). Thus, it might be suggested that the development of a vision and the creation of objectives based on data and shared perspectives may be translated into realistic and workable departmental policies.

2.5.5   Departmental Policy

If policy affects practice, it could be the case that the creation of shared, pedagogically sound departmental principles has the potential to enhance teaching and learning outcomes. For this reason, it may be useful to see some examples of policies that are reported to be benefit teaching practices. Ayres *et al.* (2004), for instance, state that effective teachers in their study "alluded to, and practised, a policy of mutual respect in their classrooms" (ibid., p. 160), which served as a useful preventative measure for classroom discipline and management. Visscher and

Witziers (2004) link departmental effectiveness with the existence of an appropriate policy on evaluating student outcomes, a consistent structuring of the instructional process, and on the creation of explicit teaching priorities. Realistic departmental policies developed through a process of consent appear to have a number of advantages. Firstly, they allow for an interchange of perspectives on contextualised best practices, providing the opportunity for the creation of agreed actions. Secondly, the implementation of policies have the potential to create a continuum in the student learning, whereby objectives at each stage of learning and methods to obtain these are linked in a logical process that is familiar to students, independently as to which teacher is in charge of classroom instruction and management.

It appears, however, that some preconditions exist if departmental policies are to be accepted and effectively implemented. Based on the EFQM quality assessment criteria employed in general education (see CECE-ITE, 1998; Quality in Education, 2002), it could be suggested that departmental policies should be a) pedagogically sound; b) born from a consensus of the majority of the department; c) written and incorporated in programmes of study; d) systematically implemented; and e) revised periodically. As discussed below, it would also appear important to have the necessary leadership skills in place in order to bring about the exchange of perspectives and develop the consensus that could enhance the quality of the pedagogical basis of departmental policy.

2.5.6 Departmental Leadership

Leadership has been linked in various studies to departmental effectiveness (Harris, 2001; Visscher & Witziers, 2004). In general education, there is a growing

trend among school reformers to encourage teachers to become leaders who, as Kahne and Westheimer (2000) express it, "will work together across corridors, departments and disciplines to foster educational reform" (ibid, p. 372). Indeed, in the United Kingdom the quality of department heads is linked with other sectors of the school community as indicated by DfEs (2002), where it is stated that "at secondary level, the quality of leadership given by head teachers is often closely related to the quality of that of heads of department" (ibid., p. 6). When, Harris (2001) links the leadership factor to departmental effectiveness, she affirms that there is a clear shared vision for the development of departments (ibid., p. 482). Leadership, rather than authoritarian, is more democratic and devolved; it should also be decentralised, facilitative and encourage intellectual interaction for improvement in schools, although in certain circumstances more directive forms of leadership may be advocated for the department (Visscher & Witziers, 2004, p. 797). Like whole-school distributed leadership, however, there may be a series of interpersonal and micro-political barriers which stand in the way of exercising collaborative processes of innovation, which would need to be taken into account (see Harris, 2004).

2.6 *Discussion*

The search for enhanced educational systems and practices is a worldwide concern and it would appear natural for national or regional education administrations to take into account not only global trends, but also the numerous studies upon which these trends are based. Systems of quality control and quality management have grown alongside school improvement projects and effective school research. At times, innovation in education has been marked by externally

imposed and rigorously enforced standards; this however, has not always been met with acceptance on the part of teachers. Among the conclusions presented in its study, UNESCO (2005) affirms that "those who work in and with schools need help to find their own solutions to improving quality" (ibid., p. 230). This statement would appear to advocate the need to empower individual educational contexts, rather than to impose rigid top-down structures of control. Governments seem to have come to a realisation that external control is not sufficient in guaranteeing quality, and today it is common to see a dichotomous reality of centralised control and the simultaneous promotion of locally-based, self-regulatory quality management strategies.

Although it would appear that while the implementation of such quality models may have general benefits at whole-school levels, there is evidence to suggest that these do not necessarily translate into more effective practices at classroom level, and that they may, indeed have detrimental effects on teacher identity. This is exemplified by Hopkins and Levin (2001) who consider that "the combination of societal trends and those influencing the school's internal context are making many educators feel more and more beset, and less and less in control of their own destiny" (ibid., p. 18). Indeed, it has been mentioned in this chapter that the introduction of models of self-assessment and improvement or, indeed, systems of accountability may be regarded as representing changes imposed by governments, local administrations or the school management, and as such, may be rejected by teaching staff. There is also a certain degree of questionability with regards to the application of market-based philosophies to public sector services and an arguably logical reticence against a discourse that, for some, may be considered politically one-sided,

gendered, or otherwise socially discriminating. In addition, if the end result of whole-school quality programmes fails to be of direct relevance to the everyday problems of those professionally involved in teaching, and in addition, create additional responsibilities, it is possible to see how such systems may be rejected by the teachers themselves.

However, if we can unravel the recipes cooked up by change management gurus, as Erridge *et al*. (1998, p.344) put it, and go beyond the mere standardisation involved in quality, it is possible, perhaps, to find that quality has provided a number of useful contributions to the education systems around the world. Firstly, the quality movement has brought with it a new focus on planning and process management in education as well as specific strategies such as benchmarking and a renewed focus on collaborative professional communities as a potential approach to transform educational practices. Quality has also provided a methodology for the creation of indicators (be they externally imposed or organically identified) against which the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process might be judged.

By taking on board the basic principles of quality management, and in order to address the possible failings of whole-school improvement initiatives, and similarly, to prevent the limitations of teacher isolationism, it is possible that the department may represent a viable alternative as an agent of change. Among the advantages of the department, we find that improvement strategies are more likely to hone in on what actually happens in the classroom and in consequence, more directly affect instructional practice. Yet for a department to function effectively, it would appear that it is necessary to have high levels of collaboration, a positive climate, rich sources of data and appropriate leadership skills, all of which are traits of quality

management systems. Particularly important here is the role of the leader, who may be decisive in bringing about changes within the department. With the correct training, adequate experience and appropriate levels of commitment and interpersonal skills, the leader could perhaps help establish a shared vision for departmental improvement, proactively manage goal-setting and improvement actions, facilitate a more collaborative intra and interdepartmental climate and encourage professional development. In essence, a department that encourages a positive environment and develops its leadership skills may represent an intermediate vehicle that can integrate the views of all members, avoid insular perspectives and have a more accurate view of the context within which it is working. It can be reasonably contended that all of these elements are necessary for effectiveness in teaching and learning.

At another level, a high degree of importance has been recently attributed to the identification of indicators in education. This includes the creation of basic indicators for general education as well as specific indicators for individual teacher quality. It has also been stated that the creation of indicators may be externally imposed and based on large-scale studies, or alternatively, they may be established by insiders working within an organic framework of self-assessment and self-evaluation. The use of either approach inevitably entails a series of advantages and limitations. In the first case, although larger studies may be more pedagogically sound in general and examine elements that are externally recognised as being important factors, they do not take into account specific contextual variables. In the second, the organic approach assumes insider knowledge of the situation, an ability to identify and prioritise specific needs, and knowledge of what resources are

available in order to bring about change; however, perspectives are more likely to be limited and there may be a risk of the establishment of less pedagogically sound objectives and procedures and a possibility of improvements not actually being implemented. A number of factors may enhance the limitations of this last approach, prime among these is the concern for effective leadership skills. Leadership in itself, however, is not enough to ensure that the right steps are taken to develop in ways that could be considered useful; there is also a need to gather and contrast data and knowledge from a variety of sources, both from within and outside contextual boundaries, and to create collaborative climates and systems of communication conducive to positive change. All of these elements inevitably involve personal effort and professional development, which while enriching, may also prove to be time consuming and challenging.

Recent changes in national and regional policy, particularly with the introduction of diagnostic tests for mathematics and Spanish language, as well as the possible future introduction of tests for the main FL taught in schools essentially aim to deal with the previously mentioned limitations of improvement programmes and improve student outcomes through external performance measures and the encouragement of internal improvement plans focused on specific skills. This is currently creating new demands for teachers, who, often without training in quality-like processes, must learn to work as a team in order to establish new types of objectives, control and implement improvement strategies and produce improved results. The current state of education in Andalusia, while full of innovation, brings with it an array of challenges, and it seems that a need has developed for teachers not only to come to terms with these new changes, but to rapidly develop insights and

skills which will allow them to successfully cope with requirements stipulated by the educational authorities.

In answer to such demands, it is possible, as stated in the introduction to this study, that examples of the use both of departmental indicators and departmental improvement processes in specific settings may provide a useful reference point for teachers working collaboratively within such settings. This may be particularly true if descriptions are tailored for a specific subject area. Up until this point, the main concern has been with teacher, department and whole-school systems of improvement in general terms. The following chapters aim to describe the possible applications of both quality control processes and more organic continuous improvement frameworks in the specific case of foreign language instruction.

CHAPTER THREE

QUALITY STANDARDS IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

3.1 Quality in Language Education: An Overview

Quality, while epistemologically identified in general education, does not share the same levels of recognition or scope of implementation as it does in language teaching. Writing for *ELT Journal*, White (1998) acknowledges that the concept of quality has been paid very little attention in the literature in the field. In the same journal, Thomas (2003) provides a useful overview of some of the major characteristics of the quality movement but she does not deal with the actual application of quality to language education either through the provision of possible language specific indicators or in the description of quality frameworks in ELT.

If like White (1998), we were to ask individual professionals to define quality when applied to a field as specific as that of language teaching and learning, the answer would inevitably depend on a series of contextual variables. To name but a

few, we are likely to find that responses from individuals will be dependant on their training, research background, experience and work settings, both in terms of FLT education and in the area of training in quality management. The combination of these variables would inevitably lead to a disparaging account of sometimes contradictory definitions, conceptual interpretations and potential forms of implementation. In relation to this study, it is suggested that in order to be able to start to deal with a contextualised concept of quality in language education, it is necessary, by definition, to examine two main areas:

1. the context where language learning takes place; and
2. the applications, both recognised and developing, of quality practices in language education.

The analysis of each area is laden with its own particular difficulties and limitations. If we take the case of language educational contexts, we can assume that the input and processes involved as well as the outputs obtained are, once more, dependant on a multitude of variables. Newby (2003), for example, gives a useful insight into several factors, including both theoretical and practical concerns, which effect FL teaching and learning in the classroom (Fig. 3.1). Yet there are other considerations that may affect teaching and learning. Without providing an exhaustive list, we could venture to say that classroom teaching and learning may also be dependant on senior and middle-management functioning, on the socio-cultural background of students, of the resources available or of the time allocated to the language programme.

Figure 3.1

The Interface Between Theory and Practice in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching
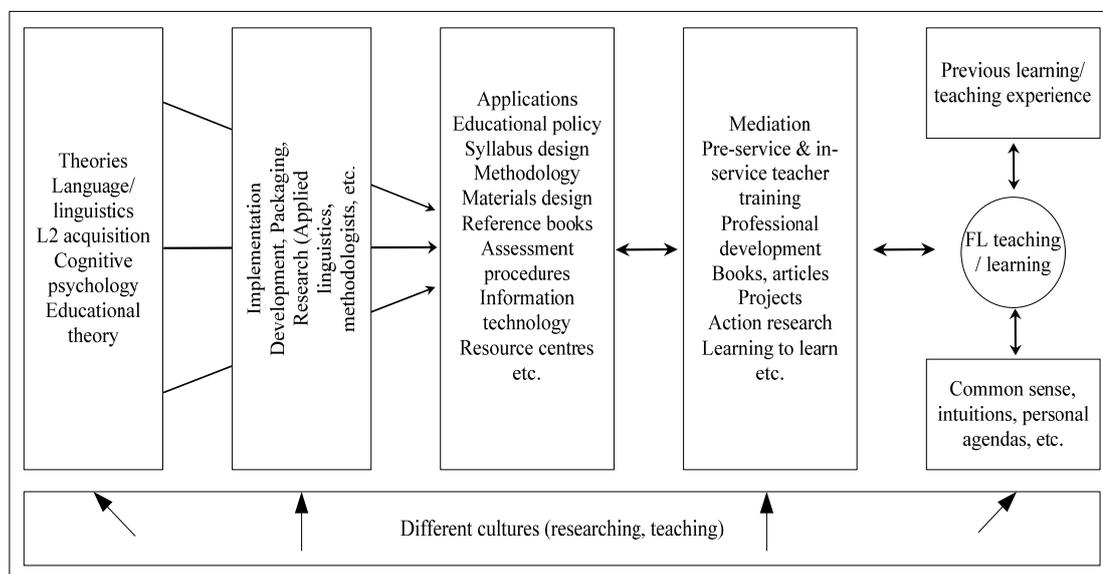
Note. From "The Interface Between Theory and Practice in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching," by D. Newby, 2003, in D. Newby (Ed.), *Mediating between Theory and Practice in the Context of Different Learning Cultures and Languages*, p.14. Copyright 2003 by Council of Europe. Reproduced with permission.

In this investigation, the intention is not to consider each and every one of these factors in an exhaustive way; however, it would appear useful to examine the current practices advocated and used in this context with a view to finding both the strong and weak points within an education system that has been subject to international scrutiny and national debate, not only in terms of learner performance in general, but also in the results specifically obtained in language learning.

As for the implementation of *quality* practices in language education in secondary schools, the consideration of models in this context is perhaps not as practicable; with a few exceptions, the use of quality assurance frameworks for language teachers has largely been reserved for other national and curricular settings.

This does not imply that there has been no search for standards within language education in Spain. Various studies, at both national and regional levels, have examined current practices with a view to improving teaching and learning processes at subject-specific level; similarly, several self-assessment instruments have been available both to pre-service and professional teachers within the context under study. Yet in contrast to other international settings, the explicit use of quality models and quality indicators have not been particularly observable either in national or in regional policy or studies on language education in secondary schools, and in this sense, in order to see possible applications of quality in FLT, it is necessary to turn to wider contexts.

In this chapter, our examination centres mainly on widely accepted approaches and subsequent policy measures which, in the past and present of language teaching and learning, have been employed with a view to improving the quality of processes and performance in the field. The initial area under examination deals with those attempts to generate improvements by means of the creation of standards or the assessment of competences originating from outside the language classroom or department, rather than the more organic approaches to quality described in Chapter Four.

At this stage of the review, two major areas in language education are considered: a) international concerns for improvement of quality in language education; and b) policy and practices in the specific contexts of Spain and Andalusia. The two domains are not mutually exclusive, since historically, national and regional policy and practice have increasingly been influenced by international trends. However, the particularities of each context, as shall be discussed, mean that

both the precise procedures employed and the results obtained will inevitably vary from one setting to another.

3.2 Standards and Methods in Language Teaching: Historical Precedents

The history of language teaching and learning could arguably be described as a continuous search for the improvement in the quality of the processes and performance involved in linguistic and, at later stages, communicative competence. As indicated below, a large part of the measurement of quality is intimately linked with methodological considerations promoted in each instructional context. The suggestion here, then, is that these methodological contexts may determine which aspects of language learning could eventually be identified as key quality indicators.

Despite the fact that certain trends in language teaching can be tentatively identified, the progression of L2 pedagogy in Spain, as elsewhere, does not appear to be quite so linear or simplistic as we would often be led to believe. The recent history of L2 pedagogy has been described as "a constant movement, of ups and downs" aimed at improving language teaching (Stern, 1992, p. 14), and one which displays "a bewildering variety of different methods and approaches" (Johnson, 2001, p. 161). Pennycook (2001) considers that the account of the history of FLT which describes a steady progression from the grammar-translation (GT) method, to the direct method, passing through stages such as the audiolingual method until reaching the communicative and task-based approaches as a highly implausible one originating from an incomplete Eurocentric vision. Several factors make it difficult to detail a clear and reliable description of the development of trends and approaches (ibid., pp. 278-279):

1. it is difficult to provide a comprehensive account of language teaching across many different contexts;

2. the concept of method lacks descriptive adequacy;

3. the history of language teaching is more cyclical than linear;

4. a historical account of language teaching also needs to examine content and curricular ideology, not just methods;

5. there is a need to obtain ethnographies from various classroom scenarios from around the world in order to understand and construct a history of language teaching.

When describing what may be seen as measures that have historically been employed to enhance quality in language education, the attempts to relate pedagogical development in this area is perhaps more challenging. Indeed, apart from the above-mentioned difficulties, it is also necessary to consider that the whole concept of quality assurance or quality management in language education is a relatively recent occurrence and would not be defined by all L2 pedagogues or professionals in the same way.

Nevertheless, it is possible to tentatively identify the appearance of a progressive concern for the improvement of both processes and outcomes at earlier stages of the development of language learning and more explicit references to quality in recent times. So, although the term *quality* may appear with a higher degree of frequency in current L2 literature, the actual matter of improving quality is not new; therefore, while this study hones in on modern applications of quality to language education, consideration shall also be given to some of the more salient

aspects of those mechanisms and procedures traditionally applied to enhance processes and performance in language teaching and learning.

3.2.1 Quality Issues in the Late Nineteenth Century

As in other European countries, the method for teaching foreign languages in Spain at the end of the nineteenth century was based on the grammar-translation (GT) method, [22] proponents of which included Ahn (1795-1865) and Ollendorf (1803-1865), whose work was adapted by Benot (1859) and used in Spain. As the name implies, this method advocated the study of grammar and the teaching of translation as a means to learning a foreign language, the assumption being that individual grammatical items could be directly translated word for word and that students could learn by simply following the prescribed method. Morales, Arrimadas, Ramírez, López and Ocaña (2000, p. 55) indicate a number of aspects of this method employed in the Spanish context:

1. it was based on the concept of language as a prescriptive group of rules;

2. the objective was to enable students to read literary works in the FL;

3. grammar acquisition was imposed through the learning of rules;

4. vocabulary was presented in written texts and through decontextualised lists;

5. the most common exercises were translations to and from the FL and sentence construction to apply grammar rules and vocabulary;

6. classes were carried out in the mother tongue and the FL was barely spoken.

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[22] The label of grammar-translation method, as Howatt (2004, p. 151) indicates, was not given by its originators, but was instead devised later by its critics in the reform movement during the late nineteenth century, who wished to highlight two of its prominent characteristics: a) isolated grammar practice and, b) the excessive use of translation.

Certain features of this method could be considered as analogous to modern-day standards of quality. For example the main *process* involved in instruction was concerned with the focus on written texts and that the most important *outcome* lay in demonstrating learning of the correct form of the literary language (Spolsky, 2002, p. 43). On the other hand, the accuracy of direct and indirect translations was "a mark of proficiency and competence in mastering a language" (Grenfell, 1999, p.11).

In Spain, it appears that the application of more practical approaches to language learning was not widespread during the late nineteenth century; however, some developments were to take place. For example, the Plan Moyano (*Ley de 9 de septiembre de 1857*) built upon previous legislation and attempted to make education a more universal reality. In this plan, one of the major advances to be seen was the inclusion of applied fields of study in the second stage of secondary education, including instruction in what was to be termed *Lenguas Vivas* (Art. 15). Fernández (1995, p. 204) believes that this law improved upon earlier developments in the Plan Pidal in 1845 (*Real Decreto Aprobando el Plan General de Estudios*)[23] insomuch as the status of modern languages was concerned, and French, the main language studied, changed from being a voluntary pre-professional subject to one which was firmly embedded in the curriculum. The Plan Moyano attempted to break away from traditional forms of instruction and began to consider foreign languages in a more practical light. This treatment of the language as a living instrument for communication was further developed in subsequent decrees.

Despite the pretensions of the legislators, to make French a more communicative and specialised discipline rather than a theoretical one, in 1866, in

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[23] Cited in Utande, 1964, pp. 39-41.

Real Decreto de 9 de octubre, the subject was, in fact, reduced under the Conservative government to a one year pre-university course that could be passed with a correct translation of a text in the French language. The teaching and learning of French in public schools in Spain, along with the other foreign languages, was to further fall into decline as subsequent Conservative legislation completely omitted the teaching of the subject, thus leaving the decision to learn in the hands and at the expense of students themselves (Fernández, 1995, p. 205). Innovations in language instruction, then, were to be short-lived after a return to a Conservative protectionism of classical values in the *Real Decreto de 9 de octubre de 1866*. This was followed by a long period of instability in educational legislation, including, as Fernández (ibid., p. 216) reports, a total of ten changes in study plans between the years 1880 and 1903. From this time on, language learning in non-university institutions during the early twentieth century was largely reserved for students of *Bachillerato* (Consejería, 2005a).

It could be the case that the more traditional forms of assessment employed at this time may have led to a washback effect within the system similar to that reported by Howatt (2004, pp. 151-153) in the case of Britain, where the GT method had effectively taken hold at institutional levels in the 1850s as a result of university designed public examinations.[24] In this way, we can see that there may have been historical precedents for the establishment of high-stakes examinations as a determinant of quality in language teaching and learning.

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[24] Alderson and Wall (1993, p. 115) state that "this phenomenon is referred to as backwash in general education circles, but it has come to be known as washback in British applied linguistics"; the authors use the term *washback*, but see no reason for preferring either label.

3.2.2 Responses to Traditional Methods

In Spain, despite the existence of more traditional forms of instruction, on various occasions since the Plan Moyano until the onset of the Civil War, there were some attempts to make language learning less theoretical and to bring it more in line with the practical needs for communication. This concurs with other European countries at the beginning of the twentieth century, where a variety of methods arose in contrast to the GT method and in response to the need for learners to use the spoken language (Mitchell & Vidal, 2001, p. 28).

Internationally, the movement away from the GT method took place under the influence of individual reformers and the reform movement itself. This movement appears to have laid the foundations for new approaches to language teaching and learning, one of the most influential of these being the natural method, devised in the late nineteenth century by Sauveur. This was to have a considerable influence on what was later to become known as the direct method (ibid., p. 28), some elements of which were eventually incorporated into educational legislation in Spain. Among the characteristics of the direct method, Urbano (2003, p. 136) includes the following:

1. teaching of the FL begins with oral language;

2. the target language is used in class;

3. new elements are presented and practiced through situations;

4. vocabulary is selected to ensure essential general vocabulary is covered;

5. grammatical elements are graded from simple to complex;

6. introduction to reading and writing is introduced and based on a sufficient lexical and grammatical foundation.

It would not be surprising to see some these key areas (e.g. target language use) figuring in an external or self-assessment observation instruments (see Madrid, 1997) or, indeed to constitute an individual quality indicator of teacher performance.

While the processes involved in direct teaching may have been aimed at improving oral skills, the actual measurement of performance appears to have been somewhat problematic. By examining the application of this method in other contexts, we may see some of the limitations that posed a challenge to its practical implementation. For instance, in his review of articles on testing and in reference to assessment procedures for the direct method, Spolsky (2000) points to the perceived lack of feasibility of oral tests for college entrance examinations in the US and to the more pragmatic use of paper and pen examinations in the early twentieth century, thus leading back to the previously mentioned phenomenon of washback. This concern aside, despite international enthusiasm for the direct method, the actual implementation of this form of instruction in the classroom was not always forthcoming. In the United States, for example, FL curriculum writers for colleges and universities did attempt to incorporate some elements of the method, but as the Coleman Report in 1929 indicated, teachers had neither the instructional time nor the speaking ability to make conversation a viable goal (Mitchell & Vidal, 2001, p. 28).

Similarly, in Britain, the direct method appears to have failed in gaining acceptance in schools for several reasons. Firstly, not all teachers were up to the task of teaching language communicatively; secondly, schools worked towards traditional examinations, and although some methods of the reformers were integrated into teaching (e.g. phonetic script), the aim of communicative ability was never really achieved (Rowlinson, 1996, p. 11). In the first half of the twentieth century in Spain,

the direct method did not manage to get a strong foothold in the official education system either. Indeed, there seems to have been no real innovation in L2 methodology during this period, although some elements of the direct method did form part of the methodological principles of the state funded language schools or *Escuela Central de Idiomas*, the predecessor of the *Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*, established in 1911 (Morales *et al.*, 2000, p. 24).

3.2.3 Standards Development after World War II

The direct method and variations of this appear to have co-existed with other more traditional approaches during the first half of the twentieth century. The demand created for language ability during World War II, however, generated an unprecedented investment in L2 research pedagogy, where the discipline of applied linguistics was to play a prevalent role. The initial recognition of the discipline of Applied Linguistics dates from the 1940s, when linguists such as Fries (1887-1967) and Bloomfield (1887-1949) applied their theoretical and descriptive work in structural linguistics to teaching during the Second World War, setting the stage for the development of the audiolingual or army method in the United States (Howatt, 2004, pp. 302-303). The method included processes such as memorising set patterns of language by means of repetitive drills, the elimination of error through continuous practice; furthermore, the target language was used for instruction, grammar learning took place through induction and competence was seen as the gaining of a large repertoire of structures and forms (Grenfell, 1999, p. 13). The theoretical ground for this approach has essentially been linked to principles employed in behaviourism by Pavlov, W. James, Thorndike and, more prominently, B.F. Skinner. In the latter case,

the publication of *Verbal Behaviour* (Skinner, 1957) had been refuted by Chomsky (1959) who maintained that language was not simply a set of sentence patterns, nor was did it depend on mere habit formation. Since this critique, several other authors, (Brown 2000, pp. 74-75; Ellis, 1997, pp. 43-44; Griffiths & Par; 2001, pp. 247-248; Mitchell & Vidal, 2001, p. 30; Rivers, 1964, pp. 117) state that this method relied heavily on repetition, memorisation and habit-formation tasks, including drills, and to a large extent was based and justified by behavioural science. However, this Skinnerian label that has been attributed to the audiolingual method has also been challenged. Castangaro (2006, p. 521), for instance, claims that that habit-formation in L2 learning was introduced by Bloomfield and structural linguistics and was not advocated by Skinner, the latter having actually criticised the term for being non-technical and misleading. Castangaro sees the link between audiolingualism and behaviourism as fictitious and criticises what he sees "an erroneous notion that operant psychology is too simplistic to take up language issues" (ibid., p. 519).

Despite the criticisms of the audiolingual method, including learner passivity and automation, and its links to behavioural science (discussed at length in other studies), there were also advances in other areas, some of which have been seen in a more positive light. Language education in the US previous to WWII had been described as being full of "shocking linguistic shortcomings" particularly in oral skills (Oblichowski, 1963, p. 609). Similarly, as reported in Kreusler's (1961) article, entitled "The drive for quality in the teaching of modern languages in the Soviet Union", language teaching was to assimilate major changes and reduced time spent on the previously all-important skill of reading in order to enhance oral

communication skills. Along with these developments, Oblichowski (1963) reports an unprecedented concern for measuring performance through standards:

> [The] urgency of linguistic purpose has given rise to countless experiments, papers and studies on how to teach and how to test. The teacher is told to quiz, test and examine with a frequency conducive to intensive learning and benefiting high seriousness of intent. To counter shoddy audiolingual performance [s]he is advised to test oral comprehension and speaking skills no less determinedly than [s]he does those of reading and writing. Nor is any care spared in placing at [her/] his disposal sets of evaluative criteria, instructions on the mechanics of scoring and elaborate rating charts.
>
> Oblichowski (1963, p. 609).

This evidently proved to be a challenge in many international contexts, although it did set the stage for several important developments. Firstly, like the direct method, audiolingualism further highlighted the use of language as a means of communication; additionally, as Alwright (1984) indicates, it brought teachers' attention to the importance of maintaining learners active and increasing their time in the classroom through pair and group work. Finally, the AL method introduced a clear focus on the measuring of the quality of diverse aspects of performance in language learning.

It should be pointed out that the AL method was developed mainly in the States and the inclusion of elements from this approach to language learning took place at more limited levels in Europe. Grenfell (1999) states that the time elapsed between

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the theoretical development of the audiolingual method and its incorporation in public education systems in Britain was considerable; when it eventually did form part of daily classroom life, it was often in conjunction with more traditional methods and later combined with situational language teaching (ibid., p.13).

The social perspective, advocated by several European linguists during the 1950s, including Firth (1957), placed emphasis on the contexts where language exchanges took place and an important development in language teaching was the use of a situational syllabus, whereby the language programme was devised in terms of situations, rather than one involving the programme being organised around structures (Johnson, 2001, pp. 179-180). Linked to this concern for context and situations, originally employed in a limited number of language materials, was the development of the audio-visual method which originated and was perfected in France (Stern, 1992, p. 10). This new method enhanced the concept of context and attempted to make learning more memorable through the use of visual aids (Johnson, 2001, p. 180). In this way, it may be inferred that the quality of language teaching and learning began to depend more extensively on the availability of learning aids and on the teachers' pedagogical skills and knowledge in using them.

In the specific case of Spain, Urbano's (2003) thesis indicates a divergence around 1957 between methods advocated for teaching of French and English. On the one hand, French teaching appeared to be based on an eclectic mixture of the traditional method[25] and the direct method, termed *método activo*,[26] whereas English

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[25] Also called the grammar method, the reading method, the translation method and the classical method.

[26] Urbano (2003, p. 130) mentions that alter an extensive review of the literature she finds only two references to this method: a) Puren (1988) and, b) Closset (1953). Fernández (1995, p. 346) links the active method to the direct method.

teaching employed characteristics of Palmer's oral method, or as Urbano (2003, p. 136) terms it, *enfoque oral situacional*. The characteristics employed in this approach in the Spanish context placed high levels of emphasis on pronunciation, reading, vocabulary, sentence production, oral automisms and graded grammar (ibid., 2003, p. 285). Although developments in policy and practice still retained aspects of more traditional methods, during the 1950s there was a greater concern, within the administration at least, for the more practical side of language learning. This is evidenced in *Decreto de 23 de mayo de 1959, de ordenación del Curso Preuniversitario*, where article 9d states that at pre-university level (*Bachillerato Superior*) all classes were to be conducted in the FL, while one class per day would be devoted to conversation, translation and the commentary of texts. The cited decree, then, seems to reflect certain elements of the direct method (e.g. classes conducted in the FL) although there are also elements from more traditional methods. As we shall see, it appears that this law represented an important starting point in the reconsideration of the importance of L2 as a subject and, within the subject itself, the recognition of the communicative dimension of the language. Like the British system, however, it was to take a considerable degree of time before elements of the audiolingual method were to be incorporated in the classroom.

From this brief overview of the years following the Second World War, it is possible to see how very different methods were employed in promoting the quality of language learning. In the 1960s, for example, the rise of the audiolingual method brought with it a specific form of input for diverse language learners in American high-school contexts, as well as an unprecedented concern for measuring performance. In contrast, methods in Spain were not only eclectic (with remnants of

the GT method combined with more direct approaches) but also varied, at times, depending on the specific modern language under study. Because of the time which had elapsed between the establishment of AL methods in the US and its introduction in Europe, before schools even had a chance to adopt the principles of the method, Chomsky had already undermined the fundamental principles of audiolingualism, setting the stage for developments in second language acquisition theory, natural methods for language learning, eminently though the work of Krashen, and, ultimately, new perspectives into how languages should be learned.

3.2.4 Communicative Language Teaching

The social aspects of language learning developed in previous decades in Britain came to the fore in the 1970s, and among other aspects, sociolinguists began to question some of the notions postulated by Chomsky, including his concept of the ideal speaker-listener, the homogeneous speech-community and his particular view of competence[27] (Johnson, 2001, p. 51). Hymes' (1972) paper went beyond Chomsky's definition of competence and argued that the speaker also possessed the ability to determine what was socially appropriate and to adjust language, not only to that which is linguistically correct, but also to the situation, topic and human relations involved (Stern, 1992, p. 73). The sociolinguistic influences on language instruction were also to take on an increasingly important role in Europe with the advent of Halliday's (1973) underpinning of communicative functions. Among the different functions provided, Brown (2000, pp. 251-252) mentions the following:

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[27] This last notion, mentioned in Chomsky (1965) essentially consists of the 'mental representations of linguistic rules that constitute the speaker-hearer's internal grammar' (Ellis, 1997, p. 12), in other words, the native speaker possesses an underlying knowledge of grammar which he or she uses to carry out correct linguistic performance.

1. instrumental function, which causes others to behave and certain actions to take place;

2. regulatory function, which involves the maintenance of control and includes approval, disapproval, behaviour control and rule setting;

3. representational function, which involves representing reality and is used to explain, report, relate facts and knowledge;

4. interactional function, which serves to ensure establish and maintain channels of conversation open; among other aspects, this *social maintenance* involves knowledge of politeness and expectations of formality, as well as slang, socio-cultural awareness, and other elements of social exchange;

5. personal function, which includes the interaction of personal cognitive, affective and cultural factors and allows a speaker to express emotions;

6. heuristic function, which entails language used to find out about the environment and elicit versions of reality from others;

7. imaginative function, which involves using language in creative ways.

This movement towards the construction of communicative language teaching (CLT) was being further developed as proposals made in the Council of Europe centred on problems in adult learning and included the need to divide language into discrete accreditable units as well as the desirability of basing the curricula on learners' needs (De Jong, 1995, p. 442). This was developed by Van Ek (1975) with the establishment of the threshold level and inventories of functions, notions, structures and lexical units, Van Ek and Alexander's (1977) publication of the waystage level, and Wilkins' (1976) development of the notional syllabus. It was

during this period, then, that the future of language teaching in Europe, where functions and notions and learner needs, not grammatical structures, were to lay the foundations for diverse national FL curricula. Canale and Swain (1980, pp. 27-28) contribute to the basic concepts behind CLT, outlining a set of five guiding principles for a communicative approach to language teaching:

1. communicative competence is composed of grammatical, socio-linguistic and strategic competence and the main goal of the communicative approach is to integrate these competences;

2. the communicative approach is based on learner needs and responds to these;

3. the language learner must be given the opportunity participate in meaningful interaction with competent language users;

4. it is important to take advantage of communicative competence previously developed from the native language, particularly at early stages of learning;

5. the main objective is to provide language learners with the necessary information, practice and experience in the second language; learners should also be taught about the language primarily in first language programmes and about socio-cultural aspects primarily in social studies programmes.

A number of the above-mentioned elements are taken up in contemporary quality models applied to language education (discussed later) and, indeed constitute

individual quality indicators in assessment and self-evaluation models. Such is the case for example in Keltner *et al*. (2004) and TESOL (2002). As Johnson (2001, p. 229) indicates, the notional-functional syllabus was adopted worldwide by Ministries of Education. This also set the stage for the many further contributions that would consolidate the concept of CLT. In this way, it may be suggested that instructors were provided with an initial set of criteria against which they could judge the attainment of language skills, and hence, obtain information with regards to the quality of learning taking place in the classroom.

Essentially, the communicative approach was to cause a paradigm shift in teaching and the main objective was to enable the language learner to master not only grammatical aspects, but also the communicative skills of the L1 speaker (Spolsky, 1989, p. 139). As the importance attributed to communication brought language teaching into new areas, there was a need to inform curriculum writers of the various notional-functional or communicative approaches (see Breen & Candlin, 1980, p. 89). It also appears to have been necessary to try and encourage both materials writers and teachers to move away from more traditional practices and to concentrate on the learner. Similarly, contemporary publications provide evidence that it was desirable to present teachers with guidelines and clarifications in terms of new concepts or approaches, including authenticity (e.g. Breen, 1985), classroom interaction, and group work (Alwright, 1984; Long, 1977), and communication strategies (Paribakht, 1985). In terms of quality, this is important since it highlights not only the imperative of carefully planned and well-organised pedagogical processes, but also in the fact that it highlights the responsibility of all agents

involved to respond to the communicative learner needs (see Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 1980, pp. 35-36).

The combined developments in CLT appear to have been readily accepted by the language teaching community. Along with this enthusiasm, however, there were also words of caution. Brumfit (1981) warned of the danger of overemphasising the importance of functional-notional syllabi and targets, stating that "syllabuses are concerned with enabling people to do things, not with doing things…goal discussion takes us too glibly into the belief that a list of things to do is a syllabus" (ibid., p. 92). Similarly, Widdowson (1980) advised against oversimplifying the aims and objectives of communicative language teaching and pointed to the need for the development of communicative strategies, elements of which are taken up in later studies on the cognitive and metacognitive strategies, seen in O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990). At the same time Cziko (1984, p. 37) pointed to the lack of empirical work carried out on the factors making up communicative competence and the need for the use of criterion-referenced language measures, as well as proper statistical analyses. Analogous concerns were expressed by Spolsky (1989), who indicated that existing theories had been unsuccessful in showing how to go from competence to performance (ibid., p. 150). Spolsky (1989) also examined some areas that appear in the current application and promotion of the Common European Framework (CoE, 2001) and the European Language Portfolio (CoE, 2004). Among these areas, he states that "except when we are dealing with a homogenous population and social context, profiles are better reports of functional ability than anything based on absolute ranks" (ibid., 1989, p. 114). Spolsky further indicates the

usefulness of functional goals, echoes of which are to be seen in ALTE's provision

of *can do* statements in CoE (2001):

> Functional goals are stated usually in performance terms, for example, 'X
> can do the following'. They may also indicate a criterion statement such
> as 'with ease', 'fluently', without serious mistakes'. The simplest
> functional test assumes the possibility of describing language proficiency
> as the ability to perform some defined tasks that use language. The idea is
> both practical and theoretically satisfying, but it entails important
> problems that must be faced if we are to understand the limitations on
> such a test.
>
> Spolsky (1989, p. 141).

Alongside the development of these communicative goals parallel advances

were taking place both in cognitive-based approaches to language teaching and

learning and in the concern for standards and quality in general education (discussed

below).

3.2.5 The Input Hypothesis and the Natural Approach

In contrast to the linear, learner-centred pedagogy, which emphasised fluency

and accuracy and communicative contextualisation adopted by CLT in Europe, other

learning-centred approaches were being employed in the US, with major

contributions from Krashen, who was influential in the promotion of natural ways to

develop language learning. Following Chomsky, Krashen proposed pedagogical

guidelines in language teaching that assumed the existence in learners of a language acquisition device. Consequently, Krashen (1981) placed a great deal of importance on unconscious acquisition as opposed to deliberate or conscious learning and, consequently, discouraged the use of explicit instruction and direct correction.

Table 3.1

The Input Hypothesis

Hypotheses	Key aspects
The acquisition learning hypothesis	Acquisition is described as a natural way to develop linguistic ability while learning is described as knowing about or formal knowledge of a language.
The natural order hypothesis	Acquisition of grammatical structures takes place in a predictable order.
The monitor hypothesis	In adult SLL conscious learning is limited in its effectiveness but it can be used as a monitor or editor on language performance.
The input hypothesis	Input must be comprehensible and language is acquired by understanding levels of input that are just beyond our current level of competence (represented as $i + 1$).
The affective filter hypothesis	Affective variables, including attitude and motivation, are linked to success in language acquisition, though not necessarily with language learning.

Note. Based on *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*, by S.D. Krashen and T. D. Terrell, 1988, pp. 26-38. London: Prentice Hall International.

Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis further moved away from views that advocated conscious language learning; this has had important effects in terms of the promotion of language acquisition rather than planned learning in the language class, the need to create affective environments to favour such acquisition, as well as the

use of tasks and incidental learning (see also Krashen, 1989a). Yet, more than one hypothesis, the input hypothesis in reality represents five interrelated hypotheses (Table 3.1) and among the pedagogical implications derived from the combination of these theories, Krashen and Terrell (1988) affirm that the most important aspect of any method is that language is understood, and that such understanding may be facilitated (ibid., p. 55). They also state that classroom language learning may be useful, especially at beginner and intermediate levels but that the combination of the affective filter hypothesis and the input hypothesis indicate that classroom input must be interesting (ibid., p. 56). However, while classroom learning in CLT is planned and deliberate, in learning-based pedagogies like the natural approach, learning is not considered to be linear, nor is it so much intentional as incidental (Kumaravadivelu, 2005, p. 92). The contrast in approaches seems to have resulted in controversy and a major number of criticisms were labelled against Krashan's work. One suggestion was that little attention was paid to oral production and that there was a need for comprehensible output (Swain, 1985); it has also been argued that not all learning is subconscious and that language development may take place through conscious learning, among other reasons, in order to promote noticing (Schmidt, 1990; Yule, 1986). Furthermore, McLaughlin (1987, p. 56) saw empirical weaknesses and a lack of precision in Krashen's hypotheses, whereas White (1987) believed that Krashen failed to show how the input hypothesis worked, and saw contradictions in an approach which, while discouraging the teacher manipulation of input, advocated simplifying language in order to make input more readily understandable. Finally, Brumfit (1992), in a review of Krashen (1989b) cautioned against adopting what he viewed as an *en vogue*, yet partial, and oversimplified theory for language learning:

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It is no service to teachers to lend authority to certainty where the scholarly community shows uncertainty, to consistency where there are unavoidably conflicting pressures in dealing with learners, to language research where language is only one element in the complex process of teaching, and to independent science where integration and reflection on practice is required.

Brumfit (1992, p. 125).

Nevertheless, although the theories postulated by Krashen have been criticised by both SLA and FL researchers, much of the theory and practical considerations behind Krashen's approach have been adopted as the grounding for developing ways to conduct language learning. Furthermore, it is possible to find direct references to a number of these concerns in contemporary programmes associated with the establishment of standards of teacher quality. One example may be observed in TESOL (2002), which identifies as specific standards for instructional performance the provision of a) rich exposure to English; b) comprehensible input and scaffolding; c) opportunities for meaningful learning; and, d) a secure, positive and motivating learning environment (ibid., pp. 26-27). These recently developed standards directly reflect several concerns held within Krashan's five interrelated hypotheses mentioned earlier in Table 3.1.

3.2.6 Task-Based Learning

Krashen's work was and still is influential in many language learning contexts. The importance attributed to meaningful and understandable input as expounded by

Krashen has been criticised, but it has also been adopted by L2 pedagogues, although not necessarily as a continuation of Krashen's own theory. Long (1992), for example, makes a case for the negotiation of meaning and advocates learning based on the use of tasks. Task exploitation is seen as a compatible form of instruction both in CLT practices advocated in Europe and with acquisition approaches elsewhere (Long, 1990, p. 35). Foley (1991) provides a similar line of reasoning and, in arguing for task-based learning (TBL) approaches, considers that the use of functional syllabi do not possess a coherent psychological framework, which, he considers, could have led to "the lack of direction practitioners felt in trying to implement such approaches" (ibid., p. 73).

Foley sees task-based learning as a means, not only to allow for incidental and scaffolded learning, but also, within Breen's (1984) extension of TBL in the Process Approach, as a framework to allow teachers and learners to "create their own syllabus in the classroom in an ongoing and adaptive way" (Foley, 1991, p. 72). In further discussion on this matter, Long (2000) outlines traditional (focus on form) and more contemporary (focus on meaning) approaches to language teaching as well as learning through task-based instruction (focus on forms), and contends that TBL is potentially more appropriate for classroom instruction than the other instructional modalities (Table 3.2). He also criticises modern day syllabi stating that, for the most part, they are still based on structural, notional-functional or hybrid approaches, and suggests that, despite claims to the contrary, they tend to constitute building-block approaches to language teaching, often with mechanistic methods, such as drills and memorisation, and bring with them corresponding testing of discrete language items (ibid., p. 181).

Table 3.2

Focus on Form, Meaning and Forms

Option	Description	Advantages / Disadvantages
Focus on form	Traditional approach, involving the study of discrete linguistic items	There is a lack of needs or means analysis to determine learner needs, styles and strategies. Furthermore, unrealistic models of language are used and little attention is paid to language learning processes. Finally, the model assumes that what is taught is learnt and there is often a lack of motivation among students.
Focus on meaning	Eliminates explicit treatment of the language; focuses on the learner and learning processes; language is acquired, not learned	Although there is normally no needs or means analysis, this approach is believed to be an improvement on focus on forms. There is evidence to suggest that considerable progress takes place in comprehension and learners may detect what is grammatical acceptable, but not necessarily what is ungrammatically correct.
Focus on forms	Communicative approach, which also draws attention to linguistic aspects	This approach addresses the limitations of focus on meaning without losing fundamental aspects of the communicative approach. Learning targets are determined by the learner's current language system.

Note. Based on "Focus on Form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology," by M.H. Long, 2000, in C. N. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English Language Teaching in its Social Context*, pp.183-185. Florence, KY: Routledge. Adapted with permission of the author.

Perhaps as a result of its close association with natural language acquisition and with CLT, task-based learning has become a widely implemented approach in both foreign and second language pedagogy; however, Skehan (1996), while seeing the value of the approach, also finds several possible problems. Among these, he states that there may be an overuse of communication strategies, which could lead to proceduralised interventions impeding the natural flow and improvisation involved in real communication; at the same time, these interventions may be lexicalised in

nature, which may mean that creativity and exactness suffer (ibid., p. 41). The author also maintains that instead of allowing learners to push interlanguage forward, it may serve merely to enable students to complete their tasks better (ibid., p. 42). Nonetheless, the importance given to tasks in the language class has not been obviated in more recent models of quality standards. Indeed, specific reference is made to this area as an indicator of teacher quality (see TESOL, 2002, p. 44).

3.2.7 Content-Based Learning, Bilingualism and ICT's

Another trend linked to natural approaches in language learning and subject to sustained growth since the mid-eighties is content-based language teaching (CBLT) and bilingual instruction (Snow, 2005, p. 719). CBLT has been described as "the integration of language and subject-matter content in both teaching processes and learning outcomes" (Pica, 2003, p. 126). CBLT, then, as the name implies, centres on content while simultaneously developing language skills (Stoller, 2004, p. 261).

Very much linked to CBLT is the adoption of bilingual education, which is becoming increasingly common in Andalusia. Baker (2001), in revising the literature on bilingualism, identifies ten modalities, divided into strong and weak forms (Table 3.3) and suggest that despite the fact that there is a wide variety of outcomes on empirical studies, there is evidence confirming that of the types of bilingualism presented, the strong modalities of immersion bilingual education and developmental maintenance education show more positive results in learning; furthermore, he states that these modalities result not only in higher levels of performance in bilingualism, but also lead to higher standards across the curriculum.

Table 3.4.

Ten types of Bilingualism and Biliteracy in Education

Strength of programme	Type of programme	Typical type of child	Language of the classroom	Societal and educational aim	Aim in language outcome
Weak forms of education for bilingualism	Submersion (Structured Immersion)	Language minority	Majority language	Assimilation	Mono-lingualism
	Submersion (with with-drawal classes / sheltered English)	Language minority	Majority language with 'Pull-out' L2 lessons	Assimilation	Mono-lingualism
	Segregationalist	Language minority	Minority language (forced, no choice)	Apartheid	Mono-lingualism
	Transitional	Language minority	Moves from minority to majority language	Assimilation relative	Mono-lingualism
	Mainstream with foreign language teaching	Language majority	Majority language with L2/ FL lessons	Limited enrichment	Limited bilingualism
	Separatist	Language minority	Minority language (out of choice)	Detachment/ autonomy	Limited bilingualism
Strong forms of education for bilingualism and biliteracy	Immersion	Language majority	Bilingual with initial emphasis on L2	Pluralism and enrichment	Bilingualism & biliteracy
	Maintenance/ heritage language	Language minority	Bilingual with emphasis on L1	Maintenance, pluralism and enrichment	Bilingualism & biliteracy
	Two-way/dual language	Mixed language minority &majority	Minority and majority	Maintenance pluralism and enrichment	Bilingualism & biliteracy
	Mainstream bilingual	Language majority	Two majority languages	Maintenance pluralism and enrichment	Bilingualism & biliteracy

Note: From Bilingual Education and Bilingualism: Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, by C. Baker, 2001, p.194. Clevedon Multilingual Matters. Reproduced with permission.

Bilingualism is becoming more relevant in Europe in primary and secondary schools, particularly in the light of the adoption of multilingualism as an important objective in European Union policy. Recently, the Commission of the European Communities (COM, 2003) proposed an action plan addressed to the European Parliament with the aim of improving lifelong learning and language teaching as well as encouraging the development of a language friendly environment and creating a framework for progress. Among the many specific proposals made, one which is particularly relevant to our context and the provision of teachers for bilingual schools is that of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), whereby students learn non-language subjects through the foreign language. This modality of learning is considered to have the advantage of providing more effective and direct opportunities for language use while providing a broader appeal to young learners and those who have not succeeded in more formal approaches to language learning (COM, 2003, p. 8).

Yet reports on bilingual effectiveness are often conflicting, and even in those contexts with a long-standing tradition of bilingualism, like the USA, there are differing reports of success. In reference to the recent introduction of English bilingual learning in mainstream policies, it has been stated that more research is needed especially in secondary EFL and ESL contexts, and that policies are often implemented "without clear articulation between elementary and secondary curricula, goals, and assessment measures" (Duff, 2005, p. 46). This is perhaps particularly true for regions that do not have a firmly established tradition for bilingual teaching and learning, and where the provision of bilingualism is still in piloting or initial implementation stages (see COM, 2003).

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The spread of both task and content-based language learning grow alongside parallel developments in information and communication technology (ICTs).[28] The use of computers in FL instruction has been developing since the last quarter of the twentieth century. Jones (1983), for example used the term Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and affirmed that computer tests could help students to learn and take some of the burden off the teacher in terms of remedial work; Fox (1984) discussed the practicalities of using CALL for vocabulary activities, and Higgins (1985) described how the use of a collection of Grammar Land computer programmes served to create a friendly environment for student learning. By the year 2000, the use of internet had begun to take hold in several language classrooms, providing primary, authentic resources with which to work. Among the benefits for language learning, Pasch and Norsworthy (2000, pp. 2-3) enumerate the following:

1. there is increased interest in student learning;

2. it provides immersion in the cultural environment;

3. a wide range of primary sources of input is available;

4. it offers graphics, audio, video;

5. it allows for varying degrees of interaction;

6. it enables the FL student to learn by doing;

7. it does not follow pre-established sequences;

8. the learner is an active participant;

9. it allows for higher levels of creativity for both the teacher and learner.

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[28] Trujillo (2004, p. 424) defines ICTs as 'the use of computers to control several pieces of hardware (scanners, printers, hi-fi equipment, TV, etc), including an Internet connection, using the appropriate software, which yields a single focus of attention that can be monitored from a keyboard or similar device'.

ICTs are not, however, to be assumed to provide all-encompassing solutions to FL teaching and learning. Indeed, there are a number of limitations and difficulties involved in the use of new technologies, among which it is necessary to consider the new roles and skills required of teachers, including those aspects mentioned in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2

Roles and Skills for Teachers Using ICT

Roles

- as a facilitator and guide
- as an integrator of media
- as a researcher
- as a designer of complex learning scenarios
- as a collaborator with other teachers
- as an orchestrator of technology, learners and the curriculum
- as a learner in a fast moving world
- as an evaluator using new models of assessment

Skills

- technical skills in order to be able to use the new technology
- new organisational and pedagogic skills
- conceptual skills which permit the teacher to plan and design learning experiences
- new literacies: Scientific, digital, critical, linguistic, cultural
- mediation skills

Note. Based on *The Impact of Information and Communications Technologies on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and on the Role of Teachers of Foreign Languages*, by A. Fitzpatrick and G. Davies (Eds.), 2003, pp. 11-14. Frankfurt: International Certificate Conference. Copyright 2003 by European Communities.

Another dimension of training for teachers in CALL involves the ability to guide the development of communicative competence within contexts that allow for socialisation processes through online communities of learners (Hampel & Stickler, 2005, p. 316). The main problem to be found here, as in other CALL-related activities could lie in the fact that the above areas require training and there has been a lack of such professional development activities for FL teachers (Fitzpatrick & Davies, 2003, p. 5).

A further aspect to be taken into account is the effects that ICTs may have on student learning. In a study of the impact of ICT in education in the United Kingdom, Conlon (2004) concludes that, despite having invested £230 million in the New Opportunities Programme intended to enhance student performance by means of teacher development, the programme failed to provide evidence that teaching practice had changed and that the link between the use of ICTs and improved student outcomes was merely tenuous. In the specific field of language training, Felix (2005) indicates that much of the research carried out on the effectiveness of CALL is often based on the subjective perceptions of students. Examples, seen in Vinagre's (2005) study of vocabulary and written performance using email, Zeiss and Isabelli-Garcia's (2005) examination of improvement in knowledge of target culture and Chang's (2005) study of motivation and enhancement of autonomous learning, show that the trend of using perception-based evidence described by Felix, continues. Felix (2005) concludes by saying that while students' perceptions on areas such as vocabulary acquisition, reading and listening skills and motivation are positive, given that there are few direct performance measures, the question of the impact of technologies remains elusive (ibid., p. 16).

The emergence of content-based language learning and the use of ICTs in language instruction effectively changes many of the procedures most typically associated with quality in language instruction. It would appear, then, that even though CLT has been the dominant method for the last quarter of a century, new trends are adding unprecedented dimensions to the concept of communication, some of which, as is the case of bilingual instruction and ICTs, appear to be joining forces (Warschauer, 2000). Depending on whether or not a teacher is involved in these types of instructional settings, therefore, potential quality indicators are likely to vary from one context to another.

3.3 Quality Indicators for Language Learning

Alongside the growth and expansion of approaches in communicative language teaching there is a parallel promotion of performance indicators and standards in education. Nunan (2002, p. 8), for example, links the current concern for performance indicators in TESOL to the introduction of the standards movement in education, which, while also common in other contexts, began in America the early 1990s. This virtually coincides with the establishment of Ofsted in 1992, aimed at improving the quality and standards in education in Great Britain (see Thomas, 2003, p. 236). Nunan indicates, however, that before the appearance of the standards movement, other developments were already shaping the concept of standards field of language instruction; among these the most prevalent appear to have been the objectives movement and competency-based education.

In describing the characteristics of the objectives movement, Nunan explains that it specifies observable learner behaviour:

Formal performance objectives are meant to include three elements: a 'performance' or 'task' statement, a 'conditions' statement, and a 'standards' or 'criterion' statement. The task element specifies what learners are to do, the conditions statement specifies the circumstances and conditions under which learners are to perform the task, and the standards statement specifies how well the task is to be performed.

Nunan (2002, p. 2).

It is possible to see, then, that the evolution of established European levels of communicative competence has taken place in the wake of an increased international pursuit of quantifiable standards in education, a concern that will take language competence indicators into the twenty-first century as benchmarks against which the quality of teaching and learning experiences may be measured.

The CEF represents a renewed focus on functional and situational language, learner development of the four skills, and a further promotion of communicative language work rather than mechanical grammar practice (Keedle, 2004, p. 43). Yet, more than merely concentrating on these areas, the Framework takes a major step towards the standardisation of levels in language learner competence. De Jong (1995) traces the beginnings of the CEF to the Council of Europe's first intergovernmental symposium in 1971, and to the second, in 1991, where the member states agreed to standardise descriptions of achievement in language learning, and thus facilitate the recognition of qualifications. It has been argued that the shortfalls present in education systems arose as a result of inadequate standards both in the content and desired outcomes of student behaviour as well as from a lack

of coordination among teachers within individual contexts; consequently, there was a perceived need to reach a consensus on performance descriptors (among other aspects, through the CEF), making it possible "to produce the needed common currency in language teaching and learning" (ibid., p. 444).

Unlike European Parliament or national governmental directives, which are more prescriptive in nature, the Council of Europe acts as a non-prescriptive body that promotes language learning and lends support both for the teacher and learner (Morrow, 2004, pp. 7-8) and has done so, among other ways, by making available concrete descriptors of language competences within the Common European Framework. While the CEF appears relatively free from political manipulation and bureaucracy, it is not entirely apolitical and the Framework tends to concentrate on language learners and users as individuals and social agents (Heyworth, 2004, p. 13); although this differs substantially from the European Parliament's socio-economic objectives mentioned in Chapter One. The non-prescriptive nature of the CEF is indicated throughout the document itself, and is highlighted by its proponents:

> The Framework consists of a descriptive scheme setting out an analysis of language use and of the many 'competences', i.e. the shared knowledge and skills, which enable users of a language to communicate with each other…[the] Framework does not set out to prescribe standards, but provides a basis for all involved in the teaching/learning process to reflect, plan and communicate their decisions on objectives, methods and achievements transparently and in compatible terms.
>
> Trim (2001, p. 5).

This reflection is evidenced in the Framework's approach to the multi-faceted aspects of language learning. The non-prescriptive nature may be exemplified by observing how the CEF asks users to consider the different ways language teaching and learning may be approached, and presenting the use of several potentially employable strategies, including the following (CoE, 2001, p. 143):

1. direct exposure to authentic use of language;

2. direct exposure to selected spoken and written texts;

3. direct participation in authentic communicative interaction;

4. direct participation in specially constructed L2 tasks;

5. (guided) self-study, pursuing negotiated self-directed objectives;

6. a variety of exercises, presentations and explanations with L1 as language of classroom management, explanation, etc.;

7. as in (6) but using only L2;

8. a combination of the above progressing from the use of L1 and increasing spoken and written tasks and authentic texts, and self-study;

9. a combination of the above with group and individual planning, implementation and evaluation of activities with teacher support and negotiated interaction, satisfying different learner needs, etc.

As can be observed, it appears that the questions posed throughout the document are intended not to prescribe specific methods or approaches, but to highlight the main characteristics and factors configuring language teaching and learning and to let those involved make their own contextualised decisions.

However, although it is not intended as a prescriptive document, it does establish a reference point in terms of performance standards. Nunan (2002, p. 1) sees the CEF as being underpinned by performance-based instruction and Heyworth (1999) directly links the Framework to quality:

> An essential feature of quality assurance is the setting and checking of standards. In order to be able to do this, a common language is required. The Common European Framework of Reference provides a comprehensive and coherent description of the field of language learning and teaching and in this way is an invaluable instrument for the clear definition of components and the analyses of functionality which are requirements of quality assurance.
>
> Heyworth (1999, p. 7)

Therefore, the potential does exist to use individual components of the framework within national or regional contexts as a means to examine possible teacher practices and to control learning outcomes through the establishment of internationally recognised quality indicators. By implication, these outcomes may also be pragmatically used as measures of teacher performance.

3.3.1 CEF Scales for Measuring Learner Competence

In order to see how certain components of the CEF are related to quality assurance, it is necessary to briefly examine the descriptors of competence it provides. Firstly, language proficiency in the Framework is described at six general

levels (see Fig. 3.3); in this way, the basic categorisations of user ability and quality of performance are established at an international level for a range of different languages.

Figure 3.3

Common Reference Levels of Language Proficiency
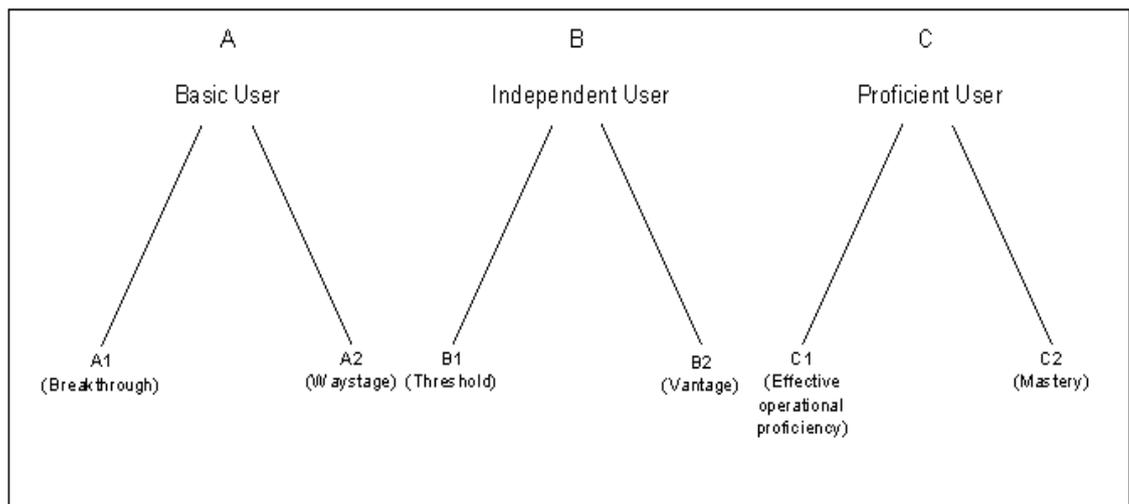
Learner competence is described on two levels: a) general competences; and b) communicative language competences (Table 3.4). However, in practical terms, scales are only provided for the latter of these two areas. Thus, the focus on the measuring of competences through the use of scales lies to a much greater extent in those areas more closely associated with communicative language teaching, including linguistic, socio-linguistic and language-related pragmatic competences, and not with more basic areas of declarative knowledge, general skills and ability to learn.

Table 3.4

Summary of CEF Learner-User Competences

Competences	Components	Subcomponents
General competences	declarative knowledge (*savoir*)	• knowledge of the world • socio-cultural knowledge • intercultural awareness
	skills and know-how (*savoir-faire*)	• practical skills and know-how, which include: social skills, living skills, vocational and professional skills, leisure skills • intercultural skills and know-how
	existential competence (*savoir-être*)	• these include: attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive style and personality factors
	ability to learn (*savoir-apprendre*)	• language and communication awareness • general phonetic awareness and skills • study skills • heuristic skills
Communicative language competences	linguistic competences	• lexical competence • grammatical competence • semantic competence • phonological competence • orthographic competence • orthoepic competence
	socio-linguistic competences	• linguistic markers of social relations • politeness conventions • expressions of folk wisdom • register differences • dialect and accent
	pragmatic competences	• discourse competence • functional competence

Note. Based on *Common European Framework of Reference for Language: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, by CoE, 2001, pp. 101-130. Retrieved June, 21, 2004, from http://www.culture2coe. int/portfolio/documents/0521803136txt.pdf

The four skills themselves are given specific treatment, and descriptions of levels of proficiency in each one are provided. The combination of skills and the subsequently identified levels theoretically form part of the global scale defining competence through measurable ranks of performance. An example of overall performance indicators for productive and receptive skills is provided in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Sample Scale for B1 Level Applied to the Four Skills

Skill	Sample descriptor
Overall oral production	Can reasonably fluently sustain a straightforward description of one of a variety of subjects within his/her field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points.
Overall written production	Can write straightforward connected texts on a range of familiar subjects within his field of interest, by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence.
Overall listening comprehension	Can understand straightforward factual information about common everyday or job related topics, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided speech is clearly articulated in a generally familiar accent. Can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. including short narratives.
Overall reading comprehension	Can read straightforward factual texts on subjects related to his/her field of and interest with a satisfactory level of comprehension.

Note. Based on *Common European Framework of Reference for Language: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, by CoE, 2001, pp. 58-68. Retrieved June, 21, 2004, from http://www.culture 2coe. int/portfolio/documents/0521803136txt.pdf

The scales are by no means limited to the four skills; throughout the document, examples are also given for each of the other previously mentioned communicative

competences. An example can be seen in one of the scales provided for lexical competence (Table 3.6). Thus, the CEF provides output measures for language learning, and offers specific scales that indicate the extent to which performance in various key aspects may be measured.

Table 3.6

Example of Scale for Vocabulary Range

Level	Descriptor
C2	Has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms; shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning.
C1	Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions; little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.
B2	Has a good range of vocabulary for matters connected to his/her field and most general topics. Can vary formulation to avoid frequent repetition, but lexical gaps can still cause hesitation and circumlocution.
B1	Has a sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to his/her everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events. Has sufficient vocabulary to conduct routine, everyday transactions involving familiar situations and topics.
A2	Has a sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs. Has a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs.
A1	Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particular concrete situations.

Note. Based on *Common European Framework of Reference for Language: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, by CoE, 2001, p. 112. Retrieved June, 21, 2004, from http://www.culture2coe.int/portfolio/documents/0521803136txt.pdf

Specific aspects of quality assurance and assessment measures can be seen throughout the document in these sample scales; they are also particularly evident in the *can do* statements presented by ALTE (CoE, 2001, pp. 244-257) and the examples of the online self-assessment, diagnostic scales provided by DIALANG (CoE, 2001, pp. 231-243). Yet the Framework is more than a compilation of performance indicators since, as the title implies, it also offers a frame of reference for those involved in teaching and learning languages. Nor does the document stipulate prescribed recipes for teaching, learning and testing; rather it tentatively provides information upon which users may reflect. The Framework is important because it acts as a stimulus for thinking about pedagogical processes, while, at the same time, it provides diverse resources for "planning, implementing, and assessing learner-centred, action-based language learning and teaching" (Heyworth, 2004, p. 21). The descriptors intended to measure language performance are, by definition, descriptive and even the common reference levels are provided with certain degrees of flexibility. It is not surprising, then, that such a comprehensive model should be adopted by governments and language organisations alike as a basis not only for the construction of curricula, but also as a viable source from which to construct instruments to measure the quality of language teaching and learning.

However, despite the widespread adoption of the Framework by European nations, the process of construction of the CEF and the document itself has not been without opposition, from which proponents of the model have been obliged to either defend themselves or, alternatively, to take on board the criticisms and attempt to make necessary readjustments. North (1995), for example, while advocating the CEF during its development, is wary of possible problems in its application, and in

describing the development of the CEF descriptors, highlights the following challenges with the use of scales (ibid., p. 446):

1. most previously used scales have been produced pragmatically, by intuition and previously existing scales and are, therefore inappropriate at national levels;
2. the scales rely on scholars or on the political status of bodies;
3. it is difficult to empirically validate a model of communicative competence.

Since then a number of these questions have been addressed, with empirical validation of scales conducted by ALTE and described in the Framework (see CoE, 2001, p. 246). Nevertheless, upon the introduction of the CEF, others have criticised what they see as the non-prescriptive outcomes of this referential instrument. Bamber (2003), for instance, sees the Framework and the use of descriptors as a promotion of managerial mistrust, and argues that even though it claims to be non-prescriptive, at ground-level it is likely to be taken up by inspectors and the educational administration as a catalyst to raise standards. This, however, cannot be seen as a criticism of the document itself, but rather as an expression of concern for the possible application of its principles.

Coming from a different perspective, Hudson (2005) believes that the CEF may have certain limitations in that it purports to measure competence through performance, which does not normally take place in authentic settings and which also involves non-linguistic abilities; he also underlines the difficulties involved in creating and using valid performance tests (ibid., p. 222). Yet Hudson does maintain

that there is a need to use some form of performance assessment, and despite his reservations, indicates that this can be designed in such a way as to simulate authentic language use; he further suggests that this type of assessment may have the potential to "compensate for negative effects associated with traditional standardised testing", and, perhaps more importantly, he affirms that new approaches to testing could have a positive washback effect both on foreign language pedagogy and curriculum design (ibid., p. 223).

Despite differences in opinion with regards to the CEF, in practical terms the document has, to all intents and purposes, come to represent the single most important development in modern secondary school language teaching and learning in Europe. The fact that this referential framework may be employed and adapted as an instrument to measure learning standards, either through administrative prescription or on a more voluntary basis, makes the quality of learning, and by extension, the quality of instruction, a focal point for teachers and educational administrations in Europe (see Carnoy, 1999, p. 16) and has come to form the basis of recently introduced objectives in educational legislation in Spain and other European countries.

3.3.2 The European Language Portfolio

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is linked to the CEF in a number of ways; they were both developed between 1991 and 2001 and share the above-mentioned reference levels of proficiency (Lenz, 2004, p. 22). The development of the ELP can be seen in a Swiss project aimed at providing descriptions of language competence in order to facilitate course planning and coordination of certification

and in order to establish a Language Passport and Language Portfolio (North, 1995, p. 445). From then, it was further developed and piloted in several European countries between 1997 and 2000 (Little & Perclová, 2001, p. 17). The resolution on the ELP was passed by the Council of Europe (CoE, 2000), where it was recommended that governments should encourage the widespread implementation of the Portfolio. The relationship between the ELP and quality is perhaps best evidenced by the Council of Europe's own comments, where it is stated that this instrument "is promoted as a viable tool to introduce and manage change, to clarify standards, to measure outcome and to foster quality" (CoE , 2004, p. 5).

The ELP itself is composed of three parts, each providing instruments that both stimulate quality in language learning and offer indicators or evidence of the quality of language(s) learned. These components include:

1. the Language Passport, which acts as a record of attainment, skills, and intercultural experiences;

2. the Language Biography, which contains self-assessment instruments and is used by the learner to reflect upon his/her progress in languages, while at the same time encouraging the planning of future language development;

3. the Dossier, which is a compilation of documents selected by the learner to exemplify achievements and past experiences.

Among the main benefits that are reported for the ELP, Little and Perclová (2000) consider that the Portfolio may foster motivation, reflection and autonomous learning skills, and also make language learning more transparent. Keedle (2004)

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also points out the importance that the profile lends to the development of learner strategies in the four skills, particularly in terms of listening and speaking. Nevertheless, some problems have also been described with regards to the adoption of the Portfolio. These include the identification of levels and the use of descriptors or the teachers' ability to judge the mastery of levels as well as the pragmatic limitation of the teacher time in applying the different components (Little & Perclová, 2000).

The ELP, however, does appear to have the potential to act as another instrument that can be used at individual and collective levels, not only providing a wide description of the quality of language learned, but also taking into account motivational factors, such as ownership and the visualisation of learner progress. In essence, then, the Portfolio may be seen as an instrument which, while promoted externally, and perhaps even used by outside agents as evidence of language development, promotes certain levels of organic quality improvement with inherent mechanisms in place to enhance intrinsic motivation, self-assessment and continued progress in foreign languages.

3.4 Quality Indicators in Language Teaching

The Common European Framework, elements of which essentially delineate learner standards through defined scales, has enjoyed international acceptance among stakeholders in language teaching and learning, but no such instrument exists with the same degree of international prominence for the direct measurement of teacher performance. In order to distinguish which teacher standards are commonly accepted, it is necessary to examine the individual national contexts where specific

indicators are present. In this section, some of these contexts are examined, both in Europe and in the United States, in an attempt to see precedents for quality indicators in foreign language teaching.

In a situation where students receive between three and four hours of English lessons per week, and where this (and homework) is the primary source of contact that most have with the language during their compulsory stages of education, it would seem logical to consider that effective learning of the subject will, for the most part, depend on the teacher's characteristics, including knowledge and delivery skills. In terms of specific behaviours, for a number of years various taxonomies of good or effective language teaching strategies have been presented in more or less prescriptive forms, an example of which can be seen in Figure 3.4. Nevertheless, more recent trends in the development of research-based standards, as discussed below, aim to provide fuller descriptions of effective teaching practices. This has arguably led to measurement of pedagogical actions and attitudes through the use of observable indicators.

In some contexts, controls on teacher performance take place systematically both at pre-service and in-service levels; they may directly employ the terminology of indicators or standards and have accountability mechanisms in place to control quality. In others, there is no direct reference to either quality or indicators, nor is there a similarly thorough system of control. In this section, it may be useful to examine some of these contexts, and to consider the usefulness both of the presence and absence of specific accountability systems applied to language teaching and learning.

Figure 3.4

Characteristics of the Good Language Teacher

The good teacher
• uses the FL for classroom instruction
• uses the FL for the teaching and learning message
• praises correct response
• is sympathetic/positive about wrong responses
• conveys warmth in delivery of the message
• conveys warmth through facial expressions
• engages in intensive oral exploitation of material
• promotes understanding by non-verbal clues
• relates the foreign language to target culture
• explains tasks clearly
• is varied with regard to materials
• is flexible with regard to objectives
• builds on pupil error
• provides a variety of language activity
• involves the whole group
• is skilled in handling equipment
• promotes use of foreign language by pupils
• promotes understanding by non-verbal clues
• relates the foreign language to target culture
• explains tasks clearly
• is varied with regard to materials
• is flexible with regard to objectives
• builds on pupil error
• provides a variety of language activity
• involves the whole group
• is skilled in handling equipment
• promotes use of foreign language by pupils

Note. From *Modern Language Teachers in Action*, by D. Sanderson, D, 1982, p. 10. New York: Language Teaching Centre. As cited in Stern (1992, pp. 51-53).

3.4.1 Quality and Pre-Service Teacher Training

An important first concern in the examination of quality indicators in language teaching may be found in the assessment procedures employed during initial teacher training (ITT), which are seen as potentially determining the quality of the future teacher (see Darling-Hammond, 1999). While initial and in-service training might be

considered as two separate fields, a number of the quality indicators employed during ITT are likely to be valid for practising professionals. Furthermore, in contexts such as Spain, the use of indicators and systems of appraisal for language teachers during ITT or at early stages of their career is often more prevalent than those for practising professionals. Thus, it would appear necessary to examine the use of indicators in ITT, both as a potential contributor to teacher quality, and as an area that may shed light on possible indicators for language teaching itself. Others may not agree with such an affirmation, particularly since ITT has in the past been a matter for some discussion. For instance, various national and international studies (Gimeno & Fernández, 1980; Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000) have raised questions with regards to the actual usefulness of pre-service teacher education. However, in the European Commission's (2001b) treatment of quality in education we do find that of the initial training of teachers is considered to be a key factor; it is understandable, then, that the European Commission (2001a) should state that one of its main objectives is to increase the quality and effectiveness of training systems within the European Union. In a development of these antecedents, the Commission promotes the use of quality indicators for pre-service language education systems, stating, for instance, that one such indicator for FL teacher training is the "percentage of language teachers who participated in initial or in-service training involving a direct contact with the country and culture where the language is spoken" (European Commission, 2002, p. 29). ITT, therefore, is an area considered to have a direct relationship with the quality of language teaching, and accordingly, the European Council (2005) proposes that it be measured with quality indicators and benchmarks which allows for the identification of strengths and weaknesses and provide strategic guidance for training measures.

Figure 3.5

Sample Standard Descriptor for Pre-Service Teacher Training.

Knowledge and Understanding	
Item 16. Initial teacher education that includes a course in language proficiency and assesses trainees' linguistic competence	
Explanation	**Elaboration**
Trainee teachers study for a course to improve their language proficiency as part of their initial teacher education	The greater a teacher's language competence is, the more creative and effective his or her teaching will be. Examining language competence with reference to the CEF not only facilitates mobility but also highlights key areas of strength and weakness. The value of a high level of linguistic and cultural competence is to enable teachers to achieve more confidence in their communication skills in the target language and a more culturally appropriate lesson.
This course aims to improve their language competences in correspondence with the learning scales outlined in the Common European Framework (CEF).	It is important to add communicative language competences to linguistic competences.
The course aims to improve key skills and fluency in writing, reading, speaking and listening, and in the trainee's productive, receptive, interactive and mediating skills.	The CEF assessment levels should be applied flexibly, since very good language teachers may not necessarily have the top levels of language competence according to the CEF.
Such a course is closely linked, if not integrated, with teaching about the CEF and ways of assessing learners' progress. The course also refers to the European Language Portfolio and other types of self-evaluation.	There may be room to distinguish between primary and secondary level language teaching. At secondary level, language teaching starts to focus on language for 'special purposes' and to be linked with the contents of other subjects taught. This may require higher language competence than primary language teaching, where pedagogical education in language teaching is more of a priority.
The course begins with an extensive language competence Needs Analysis questionnaire to determine the trainee teacher's existing language levels based on the CEF.	The different levels required to teach primary, secondary, and adult level learners depend on the context and the particular group of learners.

Note. Based on *European Profile for Language Teacher Education: A Frame of Reference*, by M. Kelly, M. Grenfell., R. Allan, C. Kriza, and M. McEvoy, 2004, pp. 49-50. Retrieved January, 20, 2005 from http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/lang /doc/profile_en.pdf. Adapted with permission of the author.

In response to the identified need for quality improvements in pre-service training in Europe, Kelly *et al.* (2004) develop a detailed checklist that aims to serve as an initial reference guide for current language teacher education programmes and as a basis for those still being developed. The catalogue of recommendations is divided into the following major groups: a) structure, b) knowledge and understanding, c) strategies and skills, and d) values. These principal categories are further subdivided into 40 items, each accompanied by quality assurance and enhancement guidelines provided in the form explanations and elaborations (see Fig. 3.5). Kelly *et al.* (2004) do not explicitly use the term *indicator*; indeed, there seems to be a certain avoidance of this term. Notwithstanding, both the items from the checklist itself and the individual descriptors provided in the explanation could be interpreted as indicators of quality. This assertion is further strengthened by the fact that the research stages employed during the development of the report involve investigation into quality assurance methods and contains numerous allusions to the same term.

The use of quality indicators for language education is perhaps more widely established within the United States than in Europe. In terms of teaching ESL to children, for example, Ediger (2001, p. 162) points out that such is the emphasis on quality that teachers in New York must simultaneously synthesise TESOL, New York City and New York State standards of quality. Such an emphasis on standards in the US context is much greater than that found within the state secondary schools system in Spain. The provision of performance standards in language teaching, including public sector education, is particularly visible in TESOL instructional settings, where, as Nunan (2002) states:

The [performance] paradigm … underpins the work being commissioned by the TESOL Association within which standards are currently being developed for the following: Pre-K-12 content and assessment standards; standards for Intensive English Programs; adult education program standards; community college employment standards; standards for workplace language training; P-12 teacher education standards; and teacher standards for adult education. In addition, TESOL has recently established a new standing committee on standards.

Nunan (2001, p. 1).

A specific example of quality standards in the area of teacher education programmes is provided by TESOL (2002). These standards and their respective descriptive indicators were developed by a team originally consisting in ten experts and, used collectively, arguably constitute an instrument which allows both for the examination of individual teacher quality and the evaluation of language teacher programmes (Table 3.7). As shown, this instrument is designed to articulate standards around five domains intended to measure performance not only in terms of classroom instruction, but also other teacher characteristics, including testing practices, teacher knowledge and professionalism. Thirteen quality standards are subdivided into a varying number of quality indicators (total=70) and each indicator is, in turn, given three possible descriptive benchmarks or rubrics under the headings *approaches standard*, *meets standard*, and *exceeds standard*, against which indicators, and hence standards and competence in the instructional domain can be measured.

Table 3.7

Language Teacher Education Standards for P-12 Education Programmes

Domain		Standard	Nº of Indicators
1. Language	1a	Describing language	10
	1b	Language acquisition and development	13
2. Culture	2a	Nature and role of culture	4
	2b	Cultural groups and identity	5
3. Planning, implementing and managing instruction	3a	Planning for standards-based ESL and content instruction	4
	3b	Managing and implementing standards-based ESL and content instruction	8
	3c	Using resources effectively in ESL and content instruction	5
4. Assessment	4a	Issues of assessment for ESL	4
	4b	Language proficiency assessment	5
	4c	Classroom-based assessment	3
5. Professionalism	5a	ESL research and history	2
	5b	Partnerships and advocacy	3
	5c	Professional development and collaboration	4

Note. Based on *TESOL/NCATE Standards for the Accreditation of Initial Programs in P-12 ESL Teacher Education*, by TESOL, 2002, pp. 18-67. Retrieved April, 20, 2005, from http://www.tesol. org/s _tesol/seccss.asp?CID=219&DID=1689

A closer look at one of the seventy indicators and its corresponding rubric (Fig. 3.6) in conjunction with the preliminary theoretical description provided in TESOL (2002) allow us to see the extent to which criteria are detailed. In this way, a comprehensive set of specific measures of teacher competence are provided, not only for initial language teacher education, but arguably as a basis for ongoing teacher appraisal.

Figure 3.6

Sample Indicator for Language Teacher Education.

Indicator **3.c.3** — Employ an appropriate variety of materials for language learning, including books, visual aids, props, and realia.

Approaches standard

Candidates are aware of the usefulness of a variety of materials and resources in English and the home language.

Meets standard

Candidates find and/or create instructional materials in English and the home language for student instruction and use.

Candidates enable students to use a variety of learning tools, including hands-on, visual, and multimedia means of instruction.

Exceeds standard

Candidates use a variety of resources (e.g., community, family, students) to obtain materials that promote language, literacy, and content development in English and, when possible, the students' home languages.

Note. Based on *TESOL/NCATE Standards for the accreditation of initial programs in P-12 ESL teacher education*, by TESOL, 2002, p. 48. Retrieved April, 20, 2005, from http://www.tesol.org/s _tesol/seccss.asp?CID=219&DID=1689

3.4.2 Quality for Practising Professionals

European trends seem to indicate that changes are also to take place in the development of indicators for practising teachers. As previously mentioned, this may be initially observed in proposals for general ITT (European Council, 2005) and language teacher education (see Kelly *et al*., 2004). In addition to the recent development of quality profiles for language teacher education programmes, a number of countries have developed their own quality standards and/or indicators for professional in-service teachers.

In Great Britain, for example, teachers' work has been measured against non-subject specific quality standards for a several years. Evidence of this can be seen in Ofsted (2001b), which presents non-specialist inspectors and head teachers with a series of guidelines for the assessment of teaching and learning in modern languages. Users of this guidebook are asked to examine two main areas: a) standards and achievement, and b) teaching and learning. The document also considers other important factors affecting quality, such as classroom management. In terms of teaching and learning, inspectors are provided with guiding principles as to the observation of individual lessons, and with the descriptions of some features of effective MFL teaching (Fig. 3.7).

Although this document does offer certain considerations with regards to management and collaboration, the main focus appears to be on the process of what occurs in individual lessons and on observable performance outcomes. This could be seen as an imbalance in the overall treatment of quality in context, which may be further compounded by fact that those intended to monitor specific teacher actions, do not necessarily have subject-specific knowledge. This method of inspection through observation has many of the hallmarks of quality assurance in that it is concerned with externally evaluating what is or is not being done, rather than encouraging more organic forms of collaborative teacher observation practices proposed by proponents of action research (see Burns, 1999) or quality management (e.g. EQAO, 2005). Although it may constitute some form of guarantee for society, in that subject-specific accountability processes are in place at certain times, and while some techers are given some degrees of support, the main purpose appears to be one of teacher control.

Figure 3.7

Sample Indicators for Effective Language Instruction

TEACHING AND LEARNING

A	B	C
What to look for in lessons	**Observing lessons**	**Other evidence on teaching and learning**

1. Accurate presentation of new language and skilful use of the target language, showing awareness of the limited competence of the learners but also the need to challenge them with increasingly demanding language;

2. Well-paced, productive practice and consolidation of skills in the target language through work in pairs, small groups or individually;

3. Consistency in requiring and encouraging pupils to use the target language in every situation for which they have learnt appropriate language or could use their existing knowledge to cope;

4. Opportunities for pupils to take the initiative in realistic situations and to develop more extended responses;

5. A combination of study and practice, enabling pupils to acquire sufficient understanding of grammar, and skill in applying it, to achieve increasingly accurate expression in speaking and writing; and

6. Effective use of authentic sources (including books and other written materials), a range of media (such as audio and video recorders, information technology (IT) and language laboratory facilities) and any native speakers present, to enhance reading, listening and speaking skills

Note. From *Inspecting Modern Foreign Languages*, by Ofsted, 2001b, p. 15. London: The Stationary Office.

Bates (2004) believes that the reasoning behind such accountability measures that are imbedded in the British education system is provided by governmental

rhetoric, which states that performance in schools is largely determined by the improvement of initial teacher education. However, as previously discussed, and as claimed by many authors, (Bates, 2004; Forrester, 2005; Gilroy, 2003; Mahoney *et al*., 2004b), emphasis on accountability and performativity has not only led to diverse forms of erosion in pedagogical autonomy, but, in the worst cases, has been deemed to have contributed to certain levels of attrition of democracy and social justice within the teaching profession. External accountability measures, then, may seen to have certain limitations in terms of who is to measure performance, how it is to be measured, and the potential effects that this type of control may have on teachers.

3.5 Quality in Language Education in Andalusia

Hughes (2004a) mentions that several bodies could be linked to the provision of quality or effectiveness in the domain of language learning. In this section, it may be useful to critically explore some of the main areas upon which the quality of English language teaching in this context depends, examining past, present and possible future trends of national and emerging regional policies and pragmatic realities, as well as the main agents involved in configuring the current language teaching system.

3.5.1 Legislative Background to Modern Language Learning in Spain

In order to examine quality in secondary school language teaching in Andalusia, we must inevitably take into account national directives, which, in the Spanish education system, are subsequently translated into regional policies. Given the relatively rapid succession of innovation in legislation and the possible resistance

to change among teachers (see Hargreaves, 2002; Hargreaves *et al.*, 2001), and with the intention of gaining an insight into the extent to which such changes may prove challenging to some teachers, it would seem appropriate to situate current legislative development within its recent historical context.

During the 1960s, there were no radical developments in language education policy compulsory (*EGB*) and non-compulsory (*Bachillerato*) education; it was not until the 1970s that some important changes took place in this area (Morales *et al.*, 2000, p. 29). To a certain extent we can observe how different global trends began to play an important role in the construction of national language policy during the late twentieth century. This was not particularly the case with the introduction of *Ley General de Educación* (LGE), where the main influence, on language teaching initially appeared to come from the behaviourist or techno-rational theory. Although, as Morales (2001) suggests, there were important developments with the onset of LGE in terms of the establishment of linguistic objectives, such as the incorporation of the acquisition of the four skills, and with proposals for improvements in initial teacher training. As subsequent clarifications of LGE were laid out in *Orden de 22 de marzo de 1975* and *Orden de 24 de octubre de 1977*, it was apparent that greater levels of attention were being paid to the European dimension in language education and that certain steps are made towards taking these into account. *Orden de 22 de marzo de 1975*, for example, provided new guidelines for instruction in English as a foreign language in Bachillerato, and even though certain vestiges of the influence of the audiolingual method prevailed, there seemed to be a step away from the fragmentalised teaching of individual linguistic aspects of the subject and towards higher levels of skills integration:

> [One will tend towards an eminently practical presentation of the
> language with a great predominance of oral over written [skills], it being
> interesting [to employ] audio-visual media and other auxiliary methods.
> All of the phonetic, morphological and syntactic elements and even the
> vocabulary must be integrated in structures that will by the object of
> continuous practice and revision, taking into account that the grammar is
> a means of mastery of the language and not an end in itself].
>
>   Translated from *Orden de 22 de marzo de 1975*.

At the same time there was a concern for the teaching of socio-cultural aspects related to the language, whereby it was recommended that students should be introduced to the culture and civilisation of English speaking countries. Thus, there seems to have been an initial recognition of the socio-linguistic and socio-cultural influences, which at the time were a predominant theme in language education in Europe.

Education policy makers also seemed to acknowledge the need for more subject-specific pedagogical principles for earlier levels of language education in legislation for *Educación General Básica* (EGB), and in an explicitly mentioned attempt to keep up with current pedagogical theory, ministers presented *Orden de 24 de octubre de 1977*. Among the new elements presented in this set of methodological guidelines, the decree specifically identified the need to take into account the principles of applied linguistics for the effective acquisition of the four skills as well as showing a heightened awareness for the need for student motivation. It also began to discourage mechanistic approaches to language learning proposed by the

audiolingual method. Furthermore, echoes of a mentalist approach to languages represented just one of a number of examples of the influence of current psycholinguistic theory in language learning:

[Those structures that have been learned orally must be reproduced by the student, not simply as a faithful reflection of what has been learned, but also as the result of a selection made in [his/her] head, in order to produce [his/her] ideas in written symbols]

Translated from *Orden de 24 de octubre de 1977*.

Two occurrences, taking place after the publication of these orders, were to have an important influence on language learning at national and regional levels. The first of these was the establishment of the Constitution in 1978, which, among other developments, decentralised administrative power and enabled the creation of autonomous regional education administrations. The second was the incorporation of Spain into the European Union in May, 1986, which provided a major development for future international collaboration in the creation of teaching policies. However, many of the aspects that were common to linguistic policy in various member states do not really begin to take hold in Spanish foreign language policy until after the advent of LOGSE in 1990.

In order to see the influences in our specific context, it is necessary to examine the directives and guidelines based on national laws and laid out in regional policies. As far as national legislation and goals for foreign language learning were concerned, LOGSE's mentioned the following objectives (*Ley Orgánica 1/1990*):

1. Compulsory secondary education (*ESO*): To understand and express oneself appropriately in a foreign language;

2. Non-compulsory secondary education (*Bachillerato*): To express oneself fluently and accurately in a foreign language.

Building on national policy, the regional decree, provided by the *Junta de Andalucía* in *Decreto 106/1992*, [29] did not offer any substantial information with regards to the direction of language instruction in the autonomous region. It did indicate that one of the objectives of the decree was to enable students to understand and express contextualised oral and written messages in a foreign language and pointed to global trends and common international goals. The most important development of these objectives, however, was to be provided at a regional level ten years later in *Decreto 148/2002*, which presented specific curricular guidelines for all subjects.

Notwithstanding, this legislative inactivity did not imply that research and the dissemination of currently accepted practices in ELT were not taken up by practising professionals. Indeed, it appears that much of what was not clearly stated in regional legislation until *Decreto 148/2002* was already being given attention, not only in Andalusia in general, but also at more local levels. This is evidenced by a review of

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[29] As expressed in *Decreto 106/1992*: "La responsabilidad conjunta de las Administraciones Central y Autonómica en el establecimiento de las necesidades educativas y de la programación general de la enseñanza supone, pues, un reconocimiento explícito de los elementos comunes y diferenciales que definen la realidad socio-educativa española en el momento actual. Existe así, respetando las competencias básicas del Estado, la posibilidad de configurar un proyecto educativo que responda a los intereses, necesidades y rasgos específicos del contexto social y cultural de Andalucía".

the various *Actas* edited by the Granada English Teachers Association (GRETA) around this time. Among these, we find references to methods for developing and testing the four skills (see Alderson, 1993; Jiménez, 1992; Pérez, Pinilla, & García, 1992). We can also see a heightened awareness about issues recognised internationally in ELT literature. These included learner needs, motivation (Bruton & Broca, 1993; Madrid, Gallego, Rodríguez, Urbano, Fernández, Manrique, *et al.*, 1993), conscious learning vs. acquisition, strategies and autonomous learning, (Barbero, Flores, Jiménez, Moreno & Ruiz.; 1990) and the role of authenticity (Sumpter, 1992). These areas and other concerns were later taken up at a later stage in *Decreto 148/2002*.

The introduction to this decree appears to indicate a realisation of the need to have regional, rather than national guidelines, and thus it built upon the basic elements provided in *Decreto 106/1992* and took into account important innovations in terms of language teaching and learning. Firstly, the European dimension held greater prominence than previous documents and specific reference was made to the objectives outlined in the Council of Europe with regards to language learning. Secondly, more precise objectives were incorporated and individual course contents were outlined for individual year groups. Another important element in this document was the inclusion of methodological guidelines for all subject teachers. A summarised translation of these guidelines for language teaching is presented in Figure 3.8. At the time of writing, these guidelines are still in force, although it is expected that new pedagogical recommendations will be made in order to address the reality of the creation of bilingual schools and as part of other recent developments in the regional legislation, LEA.

Figure 3.8

Summary of Methodological Guidelines for Language Teachers in Andalusia

General guidelines

- One of the most important objectives is increased communicative competence among learners.
- Input must be comprehensible and respect the authenticity of discourse.
- Audio-visual resources must play a decisive role in classroom.
- In group activities, it is necessary to encourage participation and interaction between boys and girls.
- Activities must reflect real every-day life situations.
- Tasks must be planned with graded levels of difficulty in order to attend to different levels in the classroom.
- Tasks play a central role in class activities and are integrated into the objectives, contents and assessment.

Guidelines for the design of tasks

- Take into account previous acquired knowledge.
- Set clear objectives for the end result.
- Determine the specific linguistic and non-linguistic needs and plan facilitating activities for final tasks.
- Directly engage students in reflecting upon what they need to do and know in the preparation for the final communicative task.
- Make facilitating activities appropriate to the different levels and abilities of the group
- Include the integrated treatment of linguistic components, communicative and learning skills.
- Receptive and productive skills are integrated to simulate real-life communication processes.
- Levels of verbal production will increase in relation to the previous stage and students will test the effectiveness of hypotheses formulated on rules of the new language.
- Students will reflect on the language and on the communication process and will apply learning to new situations.
- The target language will be used as an essential vehicle for communication.
- The classroom is used for simulated role-play.
- Didactic discourse will include language which refers to communication and metalinguistic and metacognitive aspects
- Students must be encouraged to communicate, taking risks in committing errors, which will be treated but will be considered as a normal part of the learning process.
- Cooperative leaning based on the negotiation of meaning with others will be taken into account – this means there must be flexible organisation of space which allows for group and pair work.

Note. Based on Decreto 148/2002, de 14 de mayo, por el que se modifica el Decreto 106/1992, de 9 de junio, por el que se establecen las enseñanzas correspondientes a la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria en Andalucía. *Boletín Oficial de la Junta de Andalucía, núm 75*.

It is evident that the writers of these guidelines had taken into account many elements present in the literature for a number of years, and, if we take Newby's (2003, p. 14) interface between theory and practice in FL learning as a model, we could identify two immediate influences on curriculum and policy: a) applied linguistics (particularly SLA), and b) methodology (mainly CLT). [30] It is not suggested here that these groups are clearly divisible; indeed, it should be acknowledged that the underlying theory of one will have inevitably affected the other. However, it is possible to observe certain instances when the curricular guidelines provided by the Andalusian educational administration at times slip out of curricular and methodological concerns and approach summarised versions of L2 theory.

In the first case, there are certain elements reminiscent of the dominant themes in SLA research; among these, we can find a concern for interlanguage theory in the reference to hypotheses testing and the treatment of errors treated, for example, in Corder (1976). Similarly, we can observe that there is a highlighting of comprehensible input (see Krashen, 1985), negotiation of meaning (see Long, 1985), as well as elements from theory on metalinguistic and metacognitive strategies highlighted by authors such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990).

In the second case, mention is made to the major themes of CLT and treatment is given of the development of the individual components of communicative competence (linguistic, sociolinguistic, discursive and socio-cultural competences).

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[30] Of course many of the guidelines can also be related to general education, most of which have been considered in CLT. Such is the case, for example in the focus on scaffolding and interaction, which is related to Vygotsgy's (1978) zone of proximal development and which we can relate to Krashen's (1985) i+1. However, as stated above, our concern here is on the more immediate influences involved.

As can be observed in Figure 3.8, there is also a concern for themes such as the need for authenticity, differentiation, integration of the four skills, use of L2 in class, simulation and interaction, task-based learning and learning strategies. We can observe, then, that curricular guidelines appear to take into account many of the most important principles and theories that have contributed to L2 pedagogy and coincide with many of the studies and projects instigated at school and university levels. This provision of research-based curricular guidelines could be considered to constitute a natural action in policy-making; if there were to be any criticism of the document, the most important of these would not be directed at its content, but instead, at the use of prescriptive language, which, rather than encouraging reflection on practice, appears to stipulate directive courses of action for pedagogical intervention.

With the advent of LOCE in 2002 and LOE in 2006, the movement originating in European Union directives and Council of Europe frameworks aimed at improving the quality of teaching in general was translated into policy changes at national level. The European dimension, as far as languages are concerned, was not obviated, and we see that one of the main aims provided was that of obtaining a greater adaptation of the degrees of language learning in EU countries (*Ley orgánica 10/2002*). In more recent legislative developments, European Union and UNESCO proposals have by no means been ignored, and direct reference is made to these international organisations when arguing for the need to improve the quality and effectiveness of the education systems to European policy (see *Ley Orgánica 2/2006*).

The impact of policy changes in terms of student performance is yet to be seen and the relative merits can merely be surmised. In Andalusia at the time of writing, teachers are currently waiting to see how the general regional policy will be refined

into subject-specific guidelines. However, it is possible to examine a number of particular initiatives which have recently been implemented to enhance language learning. These innovations may have been influenced by the growing concern for international indicators and, possibly through the increased availability of new resources and more recent research into approaches to FL teaching and learning.

The most prominent action to be taken in recent years has undoubtedly been the regional multilingual plan known as *Plan de Fomento de Plurilinguismo: Una Política Lingüística para la Sociedad Andaluza* (Consejería, 2005a). The title of this plan gives us a more precise idea as to some contents that may or may not be initially apparent. Firstly, this is a plan to encourage multilingualism and while many from this context may see it in a reduced form (i.e. as a plan for bilingual schooling), in theory at least, it goes beyond both bilingualism and measures that are reduced to the school context. The overall aim of this plan as stated is: "[to improve the linguistic competences of the Andalusian population in the mother tongue and, at the same time, provide it with **multilingual** and **multicultural competences**]" (Ibid., p. 27, highlighted translated text as originally shown). The plan itself is made up of five programmes aimed at enhancing multilingual education (Table 3.8). Among the actions proposed by the regional government in order to ensure the effectiveness of this initiative, at least two can be linked to the area of quality assurance. Firstly, there are proposals to base student assessment on levels and indicators provided by the Common European Framework. At the same time, there is also a recognised need to develop a plan to assess the quality of the functioning of bilingual schools, the effectiveness of teachers, student attainment of competence and stakeholder satisfaction with the process (Consejería, 2005a, p. 71). This initiative is still at

relatively early stages of implementation, but it can be seen, given the proposals laid out within the plan that there are some new challenges for teachers, not least of which is the fact that they will be faced with new forms of accountability in their professional performance.

Table 3.8

Elements of the Multilingual Plan

Programme	Important elements involved
The bilingual school programme	This involves the creation of 400 bilingual schools with specialised classrooms and more hours spent on L2 learning. A *natural* method is used and a coordinator is named in each school. Teachers are encouraged to use new curricular frameworks.
The official language school programme	Official language schools are responsible for different types of standard and online language training for students and inset training for teachers. The assessment levels of performance will be adapted to the CEF and innovation projects will be promoted.
Multilingualism and teachers	This aims to improve teachers' training and working conditions, particularly for those involved in bilingual school programme, and provides teachers with the chance to spend time abroad
Multilingualism and society	Activities will be offered to families and parents will be encouraged to become involved in the multilingual project.
Multilingualism and inter-culturality	This includes the creation of specific courses for immigrant students, or special status for schools, joint schemes between Andalusia and students' country of origin and proposals for the establishment of schools with a first language other than Spanish.

Note. Based on *Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo: Una Política Lingüística para la Sociedad Andaluza*, by Consejería de Educación, 2005. Sevilla: Consejería de Educación, Junta de Andalucía.

3.5.2 Inspection

Among the agents directly involved in quality assurance within schools, the schools inspectorate is one which perhaps figures most prominently. In previous legislative frameworks (i.e. LOGSE) direct assessment of individual subject areas has been limited. As indicated, the only teachers who have received systematic external inspection were head teachers, although it should be remembered that individual teachers could be approached when inspectors engaged in large scale whole-school evaluations.

To date, in the case of language instruction in state secondary schools in Andalusia, the only systematic inspection measure centring directly on the language classroom has been the assessment of a written plan of work for a secondary school class and a pre-warned inspection visit for teachers in their first year of service of one class. These appraisal measures are carried out by a specialist, experienced teacher-tutor designated by the local educational administration, and while visits should undoubtedly cover language-specific concerns, instruments employed may deal with matters which are more related to general education. This is evident in the observation instrument employed in Granada for new language teachers in 2006-2007 (Appendices II and III), which provides a comprehensive set of qualitative and quantitative questions related to general education, but none related to communicative competence. Because of the fact that assessment is very much limited to teachers at the initial stage of their carreer and due to the nature of existing instruments used to conduct this type of appraisal, it is possible to see that the quality assurance measures commonly employed for L2 instruction appear to be lacking in

scope (i.e. it is applied to teachers in their first year of service) and focus (i.e. it may not fully target language specific concerns).

In addition to these challenges, the effectiveness and acceptance of general inspection measures employed to date may also be questioned. González, Iniesta, Martín, Nieda, Prada and Urbón (1995, p. 112), for example, found that only 26.7% of secondary school teachers believed that their external assessments should be carried out by inspectors, whereas a higher percentage, 38%, expressed a preference to the contrary. In the area of ESP, Alderson and Scott (1992) point to the reluctance of participants to partake in nationwide evaluation projects. Furthermore, Thomas (2003) questions the validity and durability of improvements made for accreditation and inspection schemes:

> Inspection visits can be – and often are – carefully stage-managed events at which institutions become successful. What the inspection visits provide is a snapshot of the institution at a given time; there is nothing to say, however, that this given time is truly representative of the institution during the rest of the time.
>
> Thomas (2003, p. 238)

With the developments provided by national and regional legislation (LOE and LEA, respectively), it appears that new inspection measures are to be implemented. Among the functions attributed to school inspectors, we find those of the monitoring of pedagogical and organisational aspects of schools and teaching programmes and supervision of teaching, management and teacher collaboration in agreed areas of

improvement (*Ley Orgánica 2/2006*, art. 151). It would seem, nevertheless, that in order for these measures to be effectively implemented at individual subject level, a higher level of specificity would be useful as well as an approach to inspection that facilitates collaboration and acceptance of external perspectives.

3.5.3 Textbook Publishers

Textbook publishers could also be linked to the provision of quality in language teaching, but Johnson (1989) notes the mismatch often occurring between proficiency levels of students and those assumed by materials writers. This may be compounded in the case in Spain, particularly if we take into account what has been previously stated with regards to the divergence between objectives for *ESO* and *Bachillerato* laid out by curriculum writers in previous legislation (see Feito, 2005).

As mentioned in Chapter Two, the introduction of LOGSE brought along with it a new educational phenomenon of pre-packaged teacher planning materials, whereby the major publishers in Spain offer all the software necessary to copy and adapt school curricular projects, units of work and even individual lesson plans. It is difficult to judge the extent to which these are used by teachers in Spain, but the reality that they are provided systematically by publishers and the fact that dependence on textbooks is considered as an accountability measure in inspection procedures for first year language teachers (see Appendix III) serve as indicators of the potential for their widespread use. The increasing provision of *complimentary* planning materials has possibly evolved in response to a series of over-bureaucratic demands and may prove to be useful to the teacher in many respects, but one could envisage that the overuse of such material may lead to two situations that potentially

diminish the quality of teaching. The first of these is that some teachers may use these course plans in a way that reduces their own decision-making processes; the second situation is that a gap may develop between what is written in school curricular projects and what is actually done in class (Hughes, 2004a, p. 65).

3.5.4 Pre-Service Teacher Training

As stated, while this study is mainly concerned with practising professional teachers, it would appear necessary to briefly outline some of the most important measures that have been recently adopted to improve the quality of initial teacher training in this context. Up until recently, pre-service training for English teachers has taken place during the final undergraduate year of study through participation in a teacher training course (*Curso de Aptitud Pedagógica*, also known as *CAP*). Unlike the British system, which normally employs a postgraduate course lasting for an academic year, access to which often requires passing an interview stage, the course in Spain has, for some years, taken place over a shorter period of time and does not require formal interviews for course entrance. LOE, however, regulates initial teacher training practice and identifies the need for convergence with other European systems of initial teacher training (*Ley Orgánica 2/2006*, art.100).

In terms of the specific area of language education in Andalusia, Madrid (2005) suggests that the areas of development of professional competences for future teachers lies in a combination of general education and subject-specific areas (Fig. 3.9). These areas could, perhaps, form possible criteria for quality indicators, and measures could be taken to ensure that appropriate competences are mastered by student teachers. However, while it appears that these aspects may be covered in

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legislative reforms for ITT (see *Real Decreto 118/2004, de 23 de enero*) and in the revision of teaching programmes at Schools of Education, and even if we assume that newly trained teachers will theoretically have the benefits of knowledge and practice in more recent teaching developments, there are no guarantees that practising teachers will have the same systematic training in fundamental areas which were not highlighted in previous legislations.

Figure 3.9

Development of Professional Competences for EFL Teachers
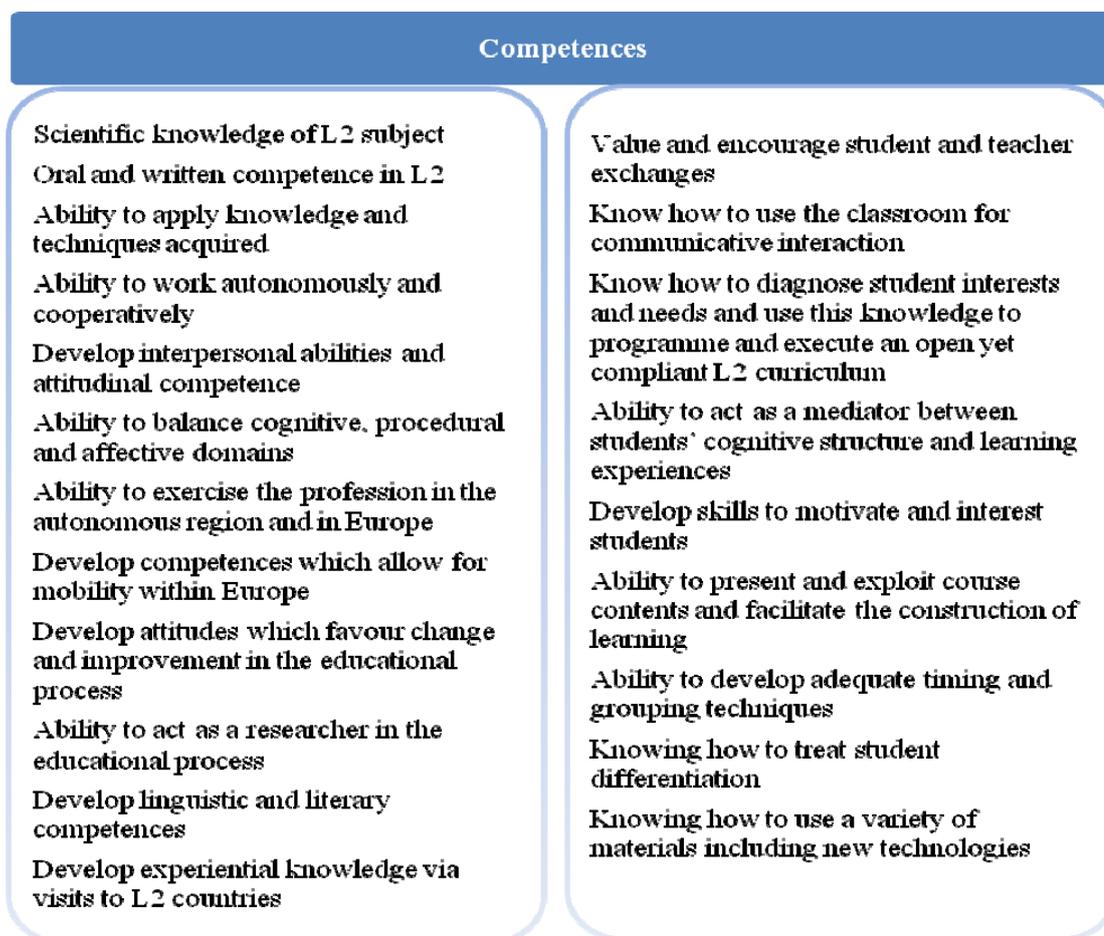
Note. From "Técnicas de innovación docente en didáctica de la lengua inglesa," by D. Madrid, 2005, in L.C. González & D. Madrid (Eds.), *Estrategias de innovación docente en didáctica de la lengua y la literatura*, pp.99-100. Granada: Grupo Editorial Universitario. Used with permission of the author.

3.5.5 In-service Teacher Training

Within the new legislative framework, we can observe that there are a number of concerns that deal with enabling future teachers to work together as a team and with promoting reflective practices within the profession in order to provide continuous improvement in the teaching and learning process. This takes place not only at regional institutional levels but also in wider educational contexts and potentially includes measures to increase professional mobility in Europe. In this way, we can observe that there is a realisation for the need for collaborative relationships and partnerships within the training of future teachers as well as the capacity to identify and work upon areas of improvement in context. However, it is possible that in the case of professional teachers in practice this need is not fully addressed.

In-service teachers in Spain have both the right and the obligation to take part in professional development activities (*Ley Orgánica 1/1990*, art. 56; *Ley Orgánica 2/2006*, art. 101.1). Access to public teaching positions in Spain functions on a scored merit system and participation in officially recognised teacher training programmes provides teachers with points that may be used when applying for new posts. While teachers may partake in other forms of training through postgraduate programmes or seminars, courses and workshops organised by teaching unions or local non-administration teacher training bodies (e.g. GRETA), the institutions officially responsible for training are the *Centros de Profesorado* (CEPs), or Teaching Centres.

Relatively recent changes in the legislation regulating these official institutions show a renewed concern for the improvement in teaching and learning,

stating among its objectives the promotion of professional development and the improvement of quality in the educational practice of teachers (*Decreto 110/2003*, art. 2.2). As part of the new objectives established for these organisations, and with the arrival of LOE, special attention is to be paid to training in ICTs and foreign languages for all teachers (*Ley Orgánica* 2/2006, art. 102.3). Within the activities organised by CEPs, the majority of teacher participation takes place either through 30 hour courses and 10 hour seminars in the institution itself presented by experts, or through participation in teamwork groups in individual schools coordinated by one of the team members. In relation to the particular subject under study, this provides English teachers with the opportunity to either participate in general education training, such as classroom management or the use of educational administration software, or more specifically in training for foreign language teachers, such as FL project work, or subject-specific application of ICTs.

In contrast to other aspects related to education in Andalusia, the control of quality in this type of activity is both legislatively regulated and pragmatically employed. In the case of courses organised by official teacher training institutions this takes the form of assessment questionnaires, which are completed by participants upon finalising the course module. For teamwork groups within schools, quality is controlled by unwarned external visits from a designated teacher assessor and by means of a final report submitted at the end of the process by the school-based coordinator. The choice which is made available to teachers in professional development activities, the incentives provided by certified recognition of participation, and the summative assessments employed as part of the institution's evaluation process in order to ensure that needs and relevant topics are covered,

theoretically mean that the institutions work as viable organisations for teacher training.

However, even if the potential exists to use these institutions as vehicles for change and improvement in teaching, there may be a number of practical questions which, to a certain extent, challenge the depth and scope of impact on teacher quality and classroom instructional practices. As Barquín and Fernández (1998) show in a national general education study, most teachers do not attend in-service training sessions to improve their teaching but to obtain points accreditation to further their career prospects. Furthermore, one of the most commonly employed models of training is that of seminars or short courses, and in ELT, Lamb (1995) questions the effectiveness of such courses as a way to improve language instruction and learning, indicating that there may be relatively few long-term benefits.

Nevertheless, it appears that within this area of education, the administration has made visible efforts to balance the perceived need for accountability measures within a teacher training system while providing choice in an institutionally accredited framework of activities. This allows for general and specific training by experts as well as facilitated and financially sponsored teamwork within schools, whereby the quality of each modality of training is controlled through questionnaires and/or self-assessment reports. In view of the fact that training establishments are governed by the same educational administration as the rest of public education institutions, and taking into account the recently introduced diagnostic school models and self-assessment and evaluation plans, it is likely that such trends in accountability and self-improvement will be incorporated into the secondary school system in a similar fashion and will eventually filter down to class teachers.

3.5.6 Performance Indicators and High-Stakes Examinations

Since LOGSE there have been three major benchmarks in place for student assessment in secondary education. The first two of these appear in the final year of compulsory education (*4º ESO*) and upon completion of upper secondary education (*2º Bachillerato*). In both cases, assessment is conducted by the class teacher, who may or may not choose to use pre-fabricated tests from publishers, and who, given the low level of systematic appraisal for individual teachers, may or may not follow the official guidelines, or even their own written curricular plans. This arguably leaves the door open for teachers to employ instruments that concentrate on more readily measurable competences such as vocabulary or grammar, to the detriment of other more communicative forms of language testing. It is not suggested that this is the case for all practising professionals, but in any of the above-mentioned testing modalities, the responsibility for the reliability and validity of assessment instruments and procedures ultimately lies in the teachers' hands. Since there are no external examinations involved, there is no uniformity in the format or components of assessment, nor inter-rater reliability. Thus, the results obtained solely from assessments at both levels may be of questionable use to the inspectorate and, in some cases, perhaps even to the teachers and students themselves.

The third major case of assessment in Andalusia resides in the high-stakes pre-university entrance examination *Selectividad*. [31] This examination is comprised of tests in seven subject areas, including one foreign language (mostly EFL), the results of which determine whether or not a student can follow his or her chosen degree or

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[31] Alderson's (2004, p. 3) description of high-stakes exams includes those which condition admission and/or graduation to and from university, the opportunity of obtaining citizenship in another country and the possibility of employment.

diploma course. The English assessment, which is the same for all provinces in the region of Andalusia consists in a ninety minute written examination[32] with a total score of ten points made up of the following components (see Appendix IV for example of examination and Appendix V for correction criteria):

1. a reading comprehension test with a value of 4 points

    a. two general comprehension questions (1 point each)

    b. four true/false questions (0.5 points each)

2. a use of English section with a total value of 3 points comprising of:

    a. vocabulary, normally four questions with one word answers and a total value of 1 point (0.25 points each)

    b. grammar, normally four questions (commonly passive voice, conditional sentences, relative clauses or reported speech) normally with a total of 2 points (0.5 points each)

3. a written composition, normally related to the topic in the reading comprehension with a total value of 3 points, one for each of the following components:

    a. grammatical accuracy,

    b. precision and variety of vocabulary;

    c. textual and communicative aspects.

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[32] The predecessor Selectividad LOGSE, was Selectividad COU (Curso de Orientación Universitaria). It lasted one hour and did not have a composition, the new Selectividad LOGSE examination was introduced in 1995-96 (Orden de 4 de agosto de 1995), although in practical terms many schools had not fully implemented LOGSE and, thus, students did a different examination which corresponded to COU until this finally phased out in 2003-2004, 14 years after the introduction of this reforming law.

The students who may actually sit this high-stakes examination are those who complete upper secondary education, pass their final *Bachillerato* exams and who want or need to complete it to go on to further education. This means that the only official external reference of secondary school students' linguistic or communicative ability, in terms of regional, national or international comparison, is based on an examination that is not representative of the secondary school population. The first thing that would most likely strike a non-Spanish national teacher of English is the fact that there are no oral productive or receptive skills involved in this examination. A prime concern, therefore, may be if and whether this could constitute a washback effect on language teaching.

Because of the current application of inspection measures and the limitations of systems of accountability, and the fact that it has been suggested that different forms of high-stakes assessment teachers in other regions of Spain lead to positive washback, [33] one could, perhaps venture to say that some teachers in Andalusia may be indirectly encouraged by the present system to concentrate less on communication and more on productive and receptive written skills as well as on grammar and vocabulary. Indeed, in the Spanish and Andalusian education system, the pre-university high-stakes examination is for many, if not the majority of teachers, the only instance where there is an outside *validation* of the teaching and learning that has gone on in class. This state of affairs is perhaps incongruous given the fact that the validity and reliability of the examination itself are highly questionable (see González & Sanz, 2001; Romero, 2001; Sanz & Fernández, 2005).

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[33] As an inspector, Aguilar (2003) considers that the introduction of a listening component in the pre-university high-stakes examination (PAAUS) in Catalonia has had a positive washback effect on teaching. This may indicate that more communicative external examinations could similarly produce changes in instructional behaviours, procedures and testing within language classrooms.

It is difficult to see how the Spanish education system and language policy have affected language teaching and learning in this context. Although there are international quality indicators available of student performance in subjects such as mathematics, the same cannot be said for modern language instruction (see European Commission, 2001b, p. 27). Some international studies, however, do provide insights from subjective perceptions into the quality of language teaching and learning that took place during the last part of the twentieth century. In INRA's (2001) *Eurobarometer 54*, for example, over sixteen thousand individuals (averaging just over 1000 per nation) participated in the survey of the then fifteen European Union member states, whereby respondents expressed their opinion with regards to their own language proficiency. While recognising the limitations of the subjective nature of the survey employed, two pieces of data may be of interest to this study. Firstly, the report indicates that when asking participants who claimed they knew English in addition to their mother tongue, 14% of Europeans answered that they had a *very good* level, 33% claimed to have a *good* level, and 29% said that they had an *elementary* level. The report indicates that Luxembourg and Spain had the lowest percentage of learners who expressed that they had a good level (27% and 23% respectively); furthermore, Spain had a high percentage who perceived they had only an elementary level of language competence (43%).

The Commission of the European Communities (COM, 2005) also makes reference to the studies conducted by Eurobarometer, presenting in turn opinion survey results from 2001, which, while giving a more complete comparative picture, are still limited both in the range and subjective nature of inferring communicative competence skills from perception questionnaires (Fig. 3.10).

Figure 3.10

Percentage of Respondents Able to Participate in FL Conversation
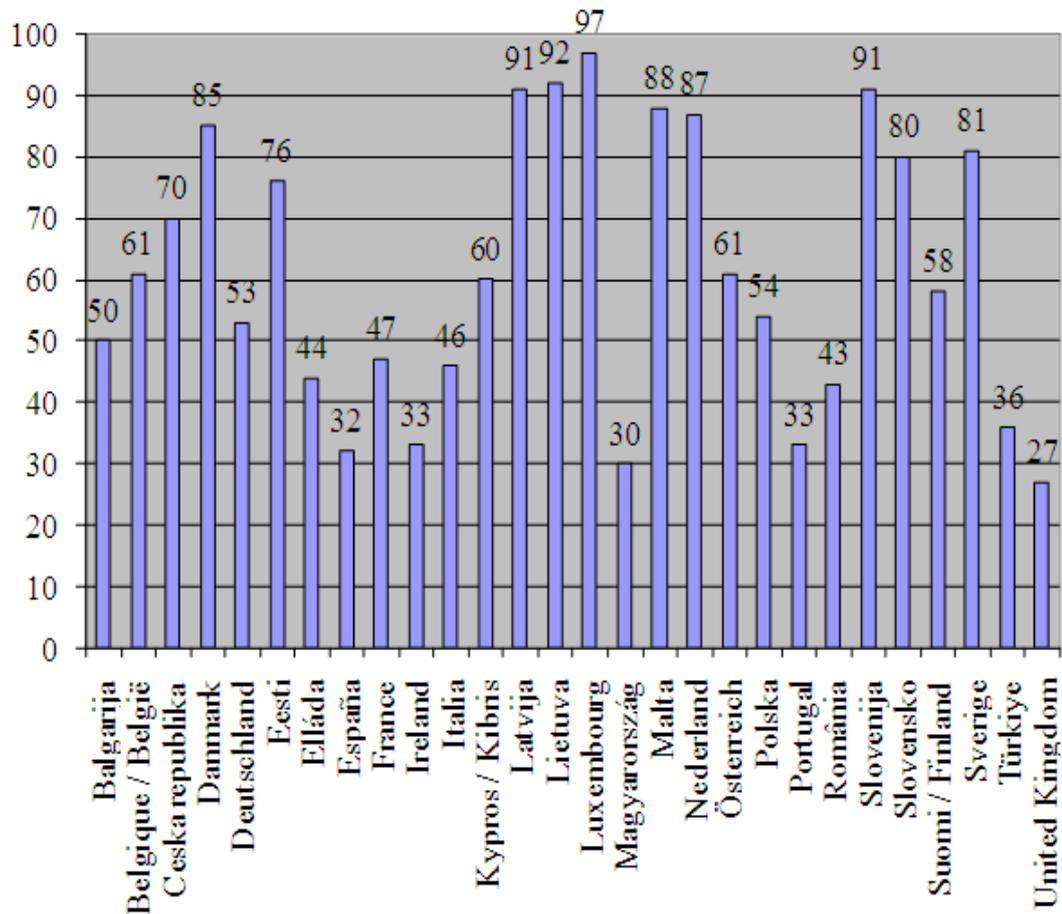
Note. From *Communication from the Commission to the European Communities: The European indicator of language competence* by COM, 2005, p. 5. Retrieved February, 12, 2006, from http://ec. europa.eu/education/policies/lang/doc/com356_en.pdf

The other information of interest found in INRA (2001) is that the preferred method for language learning indicated in all countries except Spain was that of learning languages in a group with a teacher. In Spain however, this was preceded by the preference of learning on a one-to-one basis with a teacher. This coincides somewhat with the appreciation presented in Eurydice (2001) with regards to the state of the language curricula in Spain from the 1950s onwards. In this description,

importance is placed on the development of the *Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*, which was held as a major innovation in Europe, and which had multiplied since its beginnings from one in 1911, six in 1974-75, thirteen in 1984-85, and one hundred and eighty-six in 1998-99 (Eurydice, 2001, p. 55). For the period of the 1950s onward, they also state that in Spain, the absence of foreign languages in the curricula of the ordinary school system was compensated by a long-standing tradition of teaching foreign languages outside schools (ibid., 2001, p. 55). It would appear then, that for the majority of the population, language learning has historically been more popular in contexts outside the school settings than within. If we can couple this with the data, albeit limited, with regards to perceived language proficiency, it could be stated that there is evidence to suggest, that in comparison to many countries in Europe, language learning in Spain may have been less than satisfactory during the last half of the twentieth century.

Real international comparative measures of competence are yet to take place in Spain. However, among the most recent development with regards to the implementation of indicators in the European context is that presented by European Commission (2002), which states that one of the quantitative indicators to measure quality in learning is the percentage of learners who attain proficiency in two foreign languages, using as a benchmark "the level B2 of the Council of Europe's common European framework of reference for languages" (European Commission, 2002, p. 29). The plans to carry this measure out are detailed in Commission of the European Communities (COM, 2005). As in European Commission's (2001b) outline of sixteen indicators of quality, this report considers there to be a lack of comparative data, which is limited to descriptions of language teaching in schools and opinion

surveys, such as those presented by Eurobarometer (COM, 2005, p. 5). According to the report, there is an identified need to have a single general indicator of language performance in order to be able to implement the European Union's aim to obtain basic mastery of two languages from an early age (COM, 2005, p. 6).Consequently, plans are being implemented to carry out testing on an international basis on fifteen year old participants using the CEF communicative competence levels as a point of reference.

It would appear then, that if traditional indicators of school assessment and high-stakes tests results are to continue, it will be possible to contrast these with a new and internationally unified indicator that may offer a more precise description of communicative competence, and which may, in turn, have a more positive washback effect on language teaching and learning. As discussed below, it would also seem that accountability measures recently introduced by the regional administration are about to add a major dimension to student language assessment and teacher self-evaluation.

3.5.7 The Future of Diagnostic Tests

It has been stated that teachers are increasingly becoming acknowledged as the prime decision-makers, more so than researchers, policy makers or advisors (Brumfit, 2001, p. 43). Implementation of policy ultimately depends on teachers' own innovations and observance of legislative guidelines, and moves are being made to encourage professionals to play a more active role in the management of their own pedagogical processes and to involve them in the application of current knowledge and practices to their own specific contexts. This may entail working out what

students appear to need (Tarone & Yule, 1989, p. 9), collaborative observation (Burns, 1999; EQAO, 2005) and the selection of teaching and learning activities (see Richards & Rogers, 2001, pp. 152-156). In terms of learner needs, Brumfit (2001) states that "if the concept of communicative competence is to be applied to language teaching, it must focus on the learners, for they are the sole justification for language teaching as a profession" (ibid., p. 53). This, in all likelihood, involves the identification of specific factors that may help build awareness of individual and collective psychological factors, such as motivation and anxiety (Tarone & Yule 1989, pp. 133-138). The individual teacher, then, can be seen to have a privileged view on the ways to make learning occur in his or her own context and this is becoming increasingly recognised by the regional educational administration (see Consejería, 2006).

As it stands, language teachers in Andalusia are still theoretically tied to a series of prescriptive guidelines as presented in *Decreto 148/2002*. The fact that writers of these guidelines should take current thinking into consideration when providing pedagogical principles would appear to be a perfectly justifiable position, however, the manner in which the information is communicated may be put into question for two reasons. Firstly, as mentioned, the language employed in directives has not been not one of description, but instead one of prescription. Teachers are told what they must take into account and are directed towards specific pedagogical actions in the classroom. This, in turn, suggests two further sub criticisms: a) policy makers and writers of guidelines may have directly taken on board information from other sources (e.g. European policy) without adapting it more fully to the context in question; and more seriously, perhaps, b) the prescriptive nature potentially relegates

teachers to the status of technicians who must comply with centralised demands (see Taylor Webb, 2002).

The second criticism that could be made towards these guidelines lies in the inspection or appraisal measures provided for teachers. According to Eurydice (2004, pp. 127-128) evaluation procedures in compulsory secondary schools in Europe, which are normally carried out by the authorised body of inspectors, can fall into two basic categories: a) those that involve the systematic inspection of individual teachers; and b) those that do not. The majority of countries do carry out inspection on teachers, whereas in Belgium (the Flemish Community), Iceland, Italy, Romania, Slovenia and Spain this is not the case. In the British context, for example, Bartlett (2000) reports that teacher appraisal has been in place for a number of years. Successive attempts had been made by the Conservative government during the 1980s and 1990s in order to influence teaching practice and, ultimately link performance to pay and it is suggested that Labour ultimately succeeded in implementing this, not without the use of rhetorically employed concepts such as collegiality and consent.

Central to the appraisal system is the use of targets and assumed agreement on what constitutes good teaching in a process where, as Bartlett (2000, p. 35) states, "the best teachers will receive the rewards they deserve and no teacher needs fear such a process unless, of course, they are ineffective". While these measures have been seen to contribute to the effectiveness of schools, it has also been noted that they may play a part in the relegation of teachers to technician status and undermine teacher autonomy (ibid., p. 26).

On the other side of the spectrum, it seems that in the Spanish context there are few effective measures in place to ensure that teachers actually follow guidelines. Under present legislation, and with the exception of school principals, the only teachers who receive appraisal are those in their first year of service and those who voluntarily opt for this in order to further their professional development. The fact that reference is made here to the lack of accountability measures in education may appear to be a contradiction to the above-mentioned statements, but if there are no real measures of accountability in place to judge teaching effectiveness, the question arises as to what guarantees exist to ensure that quality teaching and learning take place in class.

Some might suggest that it is possible to extract assessments of quality by examining departmental planning documents or by implementing teacher appraisal as part of existing whole-school evaluations; furthermore, it may be see feasible to use school results could be used as indicators of quality. There are weaknesses, however, in all three of these arguments. In the first case, even when planning documents exist on paper, if there is no systematic form of inspection in place, the question arises as to who is to judge if an individual teacher is actually doing what he or she has stated. On the second point, inspectors may enter a teacher's class but, again, this is not a systematic procedure, nor is the inspector necessarily familiar with the key factors involved in language instruction. Their judgements, in those instances where that they do actually appear in a teacher's class, may be made in terms of principles of general education, and not in language pedagogy.

A possible solution to these questions may lie in the regional government's implementation and ongoing plans to use diagnostic tests as an instrument to assess

student competences and as a starting point for self-evaluation in teaching. Consejería (2006b) reiterates the eight key European competences for education, among which we find that of foreign language competence. It would appear that it is the intention of the regional administration to implement diagnostic tests for these key areas, including the introduction of a foreign language component in the near future. [34] To date, this has taken place on one occasion (academic year 2006-2007) within the specific areas of mathematics and language (L1) and the second round of tests is currently in process. The procedure in secondary schools has involved the application of multiple tests within a two-day period, the correction of the tests, normally by the school teachers themselves, the identification of weak areas, and an improvement plan instigated by teachers and supervised the inspectorate. The model claims to centre on process, product and contexts (ibid., p.6) but the starting point and continued focus for improvement within individual schools and the education system as a whole lies firmly with the outcomes of the diagnostic tests themselves (see Fig. 3.11).

The process itself bears many of the hallmarks of quality management in the sense that it is the teachers in context who must find ways to obtain better results through the identification and implementation of improvement measures, and through the evaluation of the effects of such measures and subsequent proposals for future adjustments and further performance enhancement. In addition the evaluation process is ongoing and cyclical in nature, aimed at gaining ever-improving outcomes. Finally, external support is provided, not only by the inspection, but also by officially

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[34] Interviews conducted with senior members of the local educational administration between March and June, 2007 indicate that the FL component may be incorporated in the near future.

recognised training centres, wherein attempts are made to meet newly created

demands for schools and, as part of the multi-level evaluation, these training efforts

are subsequently evaluated.

Figure 3.11

Assessment and Evaluation through the Diagnostic Tests
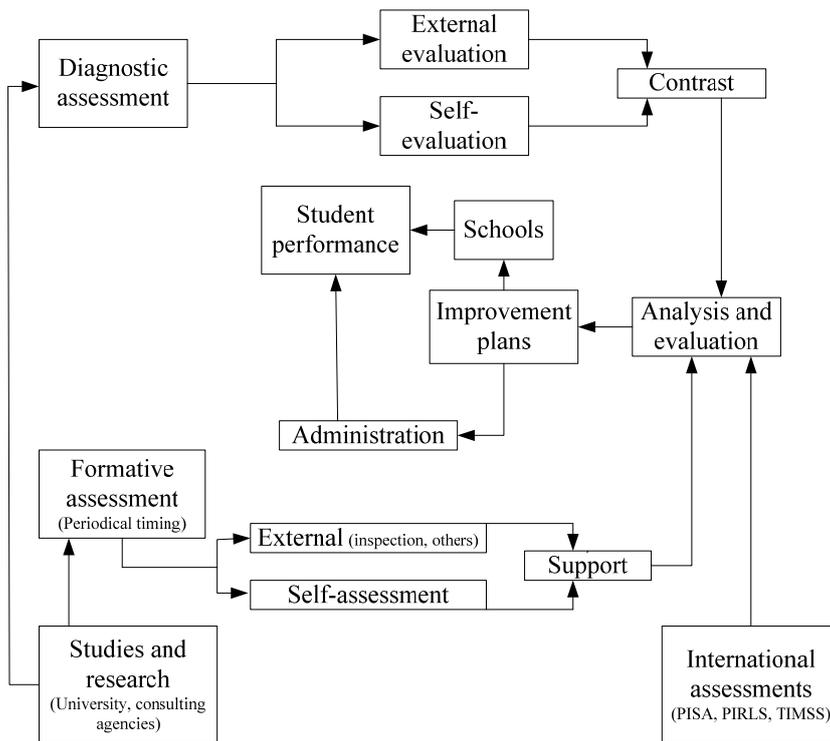
Note: From *El Modelo de Evaluación de Diagnóstico de Andalucía*, by Consejería, 2006, p. 7. Seville: Consejería de Educación.

The model of evaluation also incorporates basic accountability measures more

in line with external quality assurance in the sense that progress is to be judged

through a scoring system that identifies the level of performance by students in

individual institutions in direct comparison to other schools in the region. This

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perhaps provides the motivation for schools to improve upon their results. However, as such, this motivation is essentially extrinsic by nature and does not fully address the question of teacher acceptance in the management of change in educational contexts.

The regional administration, therefore, has followed other European trends in education by combining centralised control and external accountability mechanisms based on European competence assessments with the promotion of organic systems of improvement and quality management. However, the process differs from quality management in at least one major area, since TQM programmes involve high levels of training. For example, schools which adopt the EFQM Excellence Model in education normally spend up to 40 hours in a school-based induction courses in order to fulfil training needs, including working knowledge on aspects of target setting, continuous improvement strategies, measurement instruments, methods to facilitate decision-making and training in leadership. Part of this time is also focused on creating a team spirit, not only through a specific focus on the importance of collaborative work, but also by means of practical activities which require group effort and high levels of communication, as well as the construction of shared objectives for whole-school improvement.

In contrast, the implementation of the diagnostic model of evaluation has not made a systematic provision for this type of training or the creation of collaborative working environment. Thus, teachers are essentially presented with the results from the diagnostic tests and then required to respond as a team. Improvements may aspects depend highly on teachers' own knowledge systems of continuous improvement or on their own choice of partaking voluntarily in specifically

designated courses in official teacher training centres; they may also be limited or, alternatively, empowered, in terms of the presence or absence of a collaboration among teachers.

3.6 Discussion

The terms quality and standards, while *en vogue* in language teaching and learning, are by no means entirely new concepts. The history of language pedagogy has shown that there have been numerous attempts not only to enhance teaching and learning, but also ways to develop standards against which such teaching and learning may be measured. The combination of research in language pedagogy, both past and ongoing, and of the movement to generate quality standards and indicators in formal language learning contexts, through major projects such as the Common European Framework, has arguably led to the present situation, whereby learner performance may be gauged through the use of widely accepted, yet externally validated scales.

It is not just language learning performance, however, which is being subjected to higher levels of control; teacher performance has also come to be measured more exhaustively in a number of different contexts. In the first case, this may take place directly through processes of observation or appraisal supported by general and language-specific indicators and possibly employing observers. These indicators may be established by national bodies (e.g. Dfes in the UK) or language teaching associations (e.g. TESOL). In practical terms, however, the degree of teacher effectiveness is perhaps most frequently judged by student performance, and the main reference point for this in Europe has been established within the CEF. In many

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ways, then, standards provided by models such as the Common European Framework, while originally intended to be include non-prescriptive indicators of learner success, may well be used as formal measures of teacher competence.

Nevertheless, the establishment of external quality indicators is not without its problems. Firstly, indicators would ideally take into account the specific educational context involved, and given the availability of settings and approaches in language learning (traditional classroom, learning through ICT, immersion learning, etc.) the imposition of external indicators must be generic enough to cater for all contexts, and hence run the risk of failing to identify key areas of process and performance. At the same time, external measures of accountability have historically suffered the rejection of teachers working in individual contexts.

In the case of Andalusia, it has been the case that language teachers have been able to work with high levels of independence and low degrees of outside accountability measures. Indeed, the main external point of reference up until now has been a high-stakes examination which, along with questionable levels of communicative validity, has been implemented with a non-representative sample of the student population. It does appear, however, that external measures may be applied to language teaching through the incorporation of language competence assessments in the regional diagnostic tests, as has recently been the case for tests in mathematics and Spanish language. The model itself, as used to date, attempts to encourage organic improvement, but it fails in terms of the provision of systematic training for teachers, the creation of more enhancing collaborative environments and in identifying the key role to be played by leadership. If and when this model is eventually applied to the area of language teaching and learning, and if teachers

accept the need to improve upon practice in an ongoing way, these failings will need to be addressed, if not by the educational administration, then at least by teachers themselves.

As López (2000, p. 59) indicates in this context, any movement towards the introduction of organic forms of quality improvement bring with them a change within the very culture of the school, such change may find resistance in the teaching rank and file. It may be the case, then, that teachers must be convinced of the value of these innovations and provided with adequate training and support rather than being mere subjects to collective and externally imposed systems of accountability.

CHAPTER FOUR

QUALITY MANAGEMENT AND SELF-ASSESSMENT IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

4.1 The Importance of Context

As indicated in the previous chapter, various studies, curricular guidelines, teaching manuals have, in the past, attempted to prescribe certain methods, approaches or techniques in language teaching. It does not appear, however, that effective language teaching can be so easily prescribed, nor can guidelines be employed without taking into account the many contextual variables that exist. In a study conducted in this context, for example, Madrid (2004) examines what students and teachers perceived to be effective teaching actions and characteristics as well as other contextual variables. The study found not only different results which would, to certain degrees, be at variance from those expressed in teaching prescriptions, such

as Sanderson's (1982) taxonomy previously seen in Figure 3.4, but also differences between what students and teachers themselves saw as being effective within the same context. In terms of teacher actions, Table 4.1 shows how important certain classroom processes are perceived differently by teachers and students.

Table 4.1

Prioritised Perceptions on Effective Teaching

Teaching actions	Teachers' priorities	Students' priorities
Use of target language vs. use of mother tongue	1	8
Importance of didactic content knowledge	2	2
Open curriculum vs. closed curriculum	3	3
Usefulness of pair and group work for learning	4	4
Use of text books vs. use of own materials	5	6
Effect of homework on academic results	6	5
Effect of text book and its recordings on learning	7	1
Maintenance of discipline vs. maintaining a more relaxed atmosphere	8	7
Passing all students vs. establishing a level	9	9

Note. Data obtained from *Importancia de las características individuales del profesorado de LE en los procesos de enseñanza y aprendizaje*, by D. Madrid, 2004, pp.115-116. Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada. Used with permission of the author.

The study also takes into account other contextual factors such as teacher age, gender, native or non-native status, each within a specific regional setting. It can be argued, therefore, that more than stipulating what constitutes effective teaching in all

L2 learning situations, it would seem more feasible to tentatively suggest what may be effective in specific contextual situations and to contrast this with the views of the main stakeholders. This position can be seen to be supported in SLA research, where it has been stated that there is no best way to effectively teach communicative competence, since learners will inevitably differ in terms of their response to different types of instruction; hence, the most effective form of teaching may be one which works in consonance with the students' preferred approach (Ellis, 1997, p. 647).

Effective language teaching, then, is subject to some debate. A number of authors may offer extensive lists of the qualities of effective teachers, and others may propose specific methods or approaches, and while educational administrations at times provide prescriptive guidelines for instruction, it appears that, more than offering a set of stipulations and fixed rules, language pedagogy is tending to move away from the idea of ready-made directives. Gebhard and Oprandy (1999) state this clearly:

> Whether it is a supervisor who is prescribing, or other teachers or even ourselves, we see several problems with the use of prescriptions. To begin with, there is little evidence that any one way of teaching is better than another in all settings. Research on the relationship between teaching and learning does offer some interesting and relevant ideas that we can try out in our teaching, but research has not, and likely never will, produce *the* methodology we should follow to be effective teachers.
>
> Gebhard and Oprandy (1999, p. 7)

Many exponents of various language-learning methods or approaches, from grammar translation to suggestopaedia, have illustrated the benefits of *their* way and debated, at times forcefully, against others. What is perhaps more concerning is the fact that educational administrations may have, at times, been responsible for a certain monopolising of theory and prescription of methods to the detriment of teacher independence and professionalism, thus creating what Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 18) describes as a *priveledged class of theorists* and *an underclass of practitioners*. Fortunately, today there is a growing recognition that, more than passively adopting approved methods, there is a need to examine tentatively and even questioningly the possible application of general principles in specific contexts through appropriate and flexible approaches (see Brown, 2000).

As previously mentioned, communicative language teaching has become the dominant global reference point for language instruction, at the same time, communicative language testing based on CEF criteria and scales, is taking on new dimensions in international comparative studies as well as national and regional policy. Yet some authors contend that there is a mistaken assumption that CLT as a method can be used regardless of context. One case in point is Bax (2003), who maintains that there is a need to make context the primary focus of language instruction and to relegate CLT and its accompanying methodology to second place. Bax does not provide any empirical support for his views, but he is not alone in his criticisms. It has been affirmed, for example, that "much of the literature on EFL methodology seems to disregard contexts of learning" (Tomlison, 2005, p. 138). In our specific educational context, there has been an unequivocal adoption of CLT, as is evidenced in the pedagogical guidelines presented in *Decreto 148/2002*, where

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increased communicative competence is directly referred to as being one of the most important objectives. Despite this, however, and as shall be seen below, this legislation does attempt to draw teachers' attention to the various contextual factors within the class.

The growing importance of context is underlined by numerous authors in L2 pedagogy (Bax, 2003; Breen, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2002; Hedge, 2000; Richards, 2001; Sharkey, 2004). Indeed, the awareness of context is not a secondary consideration, and as Kumaravadivelu states, it is vital in making teaching and learning relevant:

Any pedagogy that is not sensitive to the local individual, institutional, social and cultural contexts in which learning and teaching take place becomes irrelevant, and is doomed to failure because it is the critical awareness of local conditions that triggers the exploration and achievement of a pedagogy of particularity.

Kumaravadivelu (2002, p. 15)

Given its significance and the fact that this study is aimed at finding descriptive contextualised indicators, in this section, the main focal point will be on the importance of continuous improvement systems in context and will link this to current practices in language teaching and learning. The examination will essentially look at two related areas of oganically developed improvement strategies, the first from the perhaps more familiar approach of action research, which has enjoyed high levels of acceptance in the ELT profession, and the second, which considers

strategies stemming from more recent applications of quality management in diverse language instructional settings.

4.1.1 Context and Planning

As discussed in Chapter Two, contextualised planning is considered to be essential for effective teaching (see Anderson, 1991; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Gage & Berliner; 1992). Among the various recognitions of the importance of context in language planning, we can find the following:

1. examination of context to aid general planning (Keltner, 1998; Munby, 1978; Nunan, 1988; TESOL, 2002; Tomlison, 2005);

2. use of contextualised goals (Munby, 1978, Nunan, 1988);

3. planning and the socio-cultural domain (Tomlison, 2005);

4. planning and the students' affective domain (Arnold, 1999; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Williams & Burden, 2000);

5. strategic planning of tasks by learners (Ellis, 2005).

While *Decreto 148/2002* uses prescriptive methodological guidelines, it does point to the necessity for the planning and sequencing of contents, and within this, the desirability of taking into account the various contextual issues involved. These considerations include the stated need to adjust teaching to students' previous knowledge and immediate environment as well as socio-affective factors and psycho-cognitive characteristics of students. For all of these reasons, it would appear necessary to base objectives and to implement planning, not merely with

administrative guidelines in mind, and even less so with ready-made curricular projects facilitated by publishers, but instead by making an allowance for the diverse variables which constitute the reality of the *individual* language class. Planning, however, does not have to be limited to curricular content. As previously discussed, planning is an integral part of context-based quality improvement models such as the EFQM model of Excellence, and as such, this stage of professional management may also include components which make provision for continuous improvement efforts.

4.1.2 Context, Input and Process

As stated, *Decreto 148/2002* recommends that the various cognitive and affective factors of students should be taken into consideration in planning course contents. However, the social context of learning also has important effects on learner behaviour and outcomes (Tomlison, 2005, p. 137) and forms part of the day-to-day interaction between teacher and students. One could venture to say that teachers need to be aware of several issues during these stages including, for example, learning styles and needs (Nunan, 1988; Oxford, 1990), as well as teaching styles and characteristics (Madrid 2004).

In summary, context is not isolated to a specific moment in time, but is a constant factor which must be taken into account at all stages of teaching and learning. Failure to consider context may lead to important discrepancies between what teachers may believe is occurring in class and what actually happens. This is perhaps best illustrated by Kumaravadivelu (2003), who indicates that during the pedagogical process a number of mismatches that potentially hinder learning may occur. These include (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, pp. 33-88):

1. cognitive mismatch: an understanding of the physical and natural phenomena in general and of the language and language learning;

2. communicative mismatch: the communicative skills necessary for learners to exchange messages or express views;

3. linguistic mismatch: syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic knowledge of the language required to do a task, and to talk about it;

4. pedagogic mismatch: teacher and learner perceptions of stated or unstated objective(s) learning tasks;

5. strategic mismatch: learning strategies used by learner to facilitate the processes of obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using information;

6. cultural mismatch: previous knowledge of the cultural norms of the L2 community required for learners to understand and solve tasks;

7. evaluative mismatch: articulated or unarticulated self evaluation measures used to monitor learners' ongoing progress;

8. procedural mismatch: stated or unstated methods learners chose to complete tasks;

9. instructional mismatch: instructional guidance provided by the teacher or textbook writer to help learners successfully complete tasks;

10. attitudinal mismatch: the attitude of participants towards L2 teaching and learning, as well as classroom culture and teacher-student role relationships.

In order to avoid these discrepancies, which are context-based, it would appear necessary to take formal or informal measures that could permit their identification. The first approach examined here is that of action research, which is presented as a

way in which to systematise the focus on context and to apply necessary readjustments.

4.1.3 Action Research and Quality Management

The importance attributed to learner needs underlines the desirability of examining the classroom in order to improve input, process and performance (see Nunan, 1988). Yet although the past and current trends of learner-centeredness lend justification for exploring the classroom context, the process of decision-making goes beyond a mere search for the satisfaction for learner needs, be they subjective or objective. It has been put forward that teachers should be able to generate context-specific, classroom-oriented strategies and to act autonomously despite the emerging constraints which may be brought about by the administration, curricula, institutions or officially approved textbooks; at the same time, they should be able to concentrate on how learning can be planned and modified through teacher self-observation and self-evaluation (Kumaravadivelu 2003, p. 33). Such reflective practices in context may allow teachers to improve upon their own professional activity, while at the same time have the potential to improve the quality of learning that takes place in class (Pennington, 1990, p. 135; Rose, 2003). Indeed, the existence of continuous critical reflection is seen as a determinant of teacher expertise (Widdowson, 2003, p. 29).

For a number of years language instructors have been exploring their teaching in order to improve pedagogical practices, among other ways, through observation, action research, journal writing, talk with supervisors and through personal experience (Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999, pp. 21-27). Change and improvement in

teaching, however, must be voluntary (Sikes, 1992, p. 38) and take into account the relationships of those involved (White, 1988, p. 91); it should also be classroom based and empirical (Crookes & Schmidt, 1989). Of the above-mentioned strategies, one approach that appears to have the potential to fulfil all of these criteria is that of action research.

Action research, defined as an attempt to bridge the gap between "curriculum specifications or ideals and what actually happens in classroom practice" (Burns, 1999, p. 56), is taking on an increasingly important role in language teaching. Among the potential benefits of this type of study, Burns (ibid.) indicates that it may enhance personal and professional growth as well as self-awareness and insight; at the same time, it facilitates instructional engagement in classroom practice and enables teachers to generate solutions for class-based problems. On the other hand, if these explorations are to have any substantial long-term benefits, they would ideally take the form of organised, systematic processes; furthermore, they would have a purpose beyond the mere collection of data.

A strategy commonly employed both in quality movements and action research is that of quality circles, which are aimed at identifying and solving problems in an iterative and organised way (see Chapter Two). The concept of continuous improvement has been used in several educational settings, including the cyclical acquisition in professional practice (Turney, 1982) and experiential and supervisory learning (Kolb, 1984). In the case of modern language teaching, Gebhard and Oprandy (1999, pp. 62-70) also propose a cyclical framework which potentially offers a sense of direction and systematic enhancement of teaching by means of teacher engagement in action research (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

A Framework for Action Research

AR Stage	Definition / Considerations
Setting a goal	This involves identifying and learning more about the specific problem and finding ways to contribute to the quality of students' education.
Planning an action	Here it is suggested that predictions should be formulated about what will happen when the plan is implemented, at the same time, ways to collect and analyse data are proposed
Acting on the plan	When implementing planned actions, users are advised to bear in mind that new action is inherently risky and to devise ways to collect descriptions of teaching.
Observing the action	Here, users are advised to focus attention on aspects pertinent to the research and to observe the implemented action, the circumstances and constraints on action itself.
Reflecting on the observation	It is suggested that users reflect on knowledge obtained; question whether the problem needs to be addressed differently and examine whether there are *larger issues* to be addressed.
Setting the next goal	This entails a re-identification and examination of the problem or the identification of a new problem; this leads to a continuation of the cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflection.
Reporting	The action research process is reported in an appropriate setting (e.g. group meetings, conferences and publications).

Note. Based on *Language teaching awareness: A guide to exploring beliefs and* practices, by J. G. Gebhard and R. Oprandy, 1999, pp. 62-70. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kumaravadivelu not only highlights the usefulness of cyclical forms of improvement but also states the importance of fully integrating the dimension of context and the need to raise critical awareness:

> This critical awareness starts with practising teachers, either individually or collectively, assessing local needs, observing their teaching acts, evaluating their outcomes, identifying problems, finding solutions and trying them out to see once again what works and what doesn't. Such a continual cycle of observation, reflection and action is a prerequisite for the development of context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge.
>
> (Kumaravadivelu, 2002, p. 15)

As previously indicated for general education, in order for initiatives to be more pedagogically sound and decisions to be applied from one learning stage to the next, it is suggested that cyclical improvement projects, including action research should not be an individual approach to development in language teaching (see Burns, 1999, p. 13; Nunan, 1992, p. 18; Rose, 2003). Indeed, collaborative action research, as opposed to more isolated modalities, is considered to be more advantageous since a) it increases the possibility of providing feedback into the educational systems; b) it encourages teachers to share problems, work cooperatively, and examine their problems in their context; and c) it offers a solid model for whole-school change (Burns, 1999, p. 13). This combination of cyclical construction of critical awareness, the underscoring of needs analysis, the use of problem-solving techniques and the assessment of outcomes, all of which are treated in Kumaravadivelu (2003), bears a strong resemblance to principles employed in the EFQM approach in education; similarly, collaborative development, implementation and control of improvement strategies are all hallmarks of quality management practices. If we combine this with Harris' (2001) evidence in favour of the department as an agent of change discussed

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in Chapter Two, we can see how the language department, through a process of reflective, cyclical and collaborative improvement, may possibly contribute to continuous enhancement in the quality of language teaching and learning in ways not unsimilar to organic models of quality management or action research. Indeed, given the recent development of the diagnostic assessment programme in Andalusia, whereby departments have been given the opportunity to examine and improve upon student performance in a concerted way, and with the possible application of this system to FL learning, this type of organic improvement may prove not only to be desirable, but also externally encouraged.

Yet despite the potential benefits of collaborative self-assessment and improvement, the implementation of a framework that aims to enhance language teaching and learning is not free from complexities, constraints and even opposition. Burns (1999, p. 46), in citing McKernan's (1993) examination on constraints in action research in the United Kingdom and Ireland identifies a number of problems; these include lack of time, resources and research skills, obtaining consent or support to research, the very language of research itself, the pressure arising from other duties such as student examinations, and disapproval from diverse members of the school community. While some of these concerns should dissipate in the event of officially promoted action research, others, such as the lack of training in improvement strategies and or negative professional climates, may remain.

If we were to situate collaborative self-assessment within the framework of quality management, a further problem which may arise in addition to those mentioned above is the lack of empirical research on the use of quality methods applied to language instruction, and indeed, the unfamiliarity of language teaching

practitioners with the fundamental principles and strategies of quality management. Having examined the main applications of quality in general education and the specific use of quality indicators applied to language teaching in the previous two chapters, it would appear necessary to describe how continuous improvement techniques may be pragmatically applied to language teaching and learning through an examination of quality management principles in practice.

4.2 Instruments for Quality Management in Language Teaching

Collaborative action-research is generally accepted as a viable way to seek enhancement in teaching and learning processes within L2 professional communities, but when striving for improvement, it may also be useful to have access to other instruments that could contribute to the expansion of knowledge or the development of objectives, as well as possible strategies to attain them. Prioritisation, strategy implementation and measurement instruments and procedures are commonly employed in TQM programmes and, it may be the case that they provide the functional basis for richer and more systematic methods to generate, implement and control improvement initiatives. In this section, a number of tools are discussed with a view to providing a better insight into the possible application of quality principles and techniques to language teaching and management.

4.2.1 Mission Statements

It has been proposed that a useful way to stimulate motivation and lend a sense of direction to actions taken within diverse organisations is that of the mission statement (see Covey, 1989). The use of mission statements in businesses and

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schools is becoming an increasingly common sight, and applications have been made in specific language learning contexts (see Heyworth, 2003; Hughes, 2004b). The fundamental idea behind a mission statement is to collaboratively clarify what a group wishes to achieve and how they wish to achieve this. Often, the mission statement is divided into various sections and typically includes elements such as the *vision*, the *mission*, the *strategy* and philosophy or *values* of the group (see CECE-ITE, 1998).

Figure 4.1

Extract from EAQUAALS Charter

All schools guarantee

High teaching and educational standards

Professional conduct and integrity

Regular independent inspections to maintain standards

Total accuracy and veracity of all information and publicity

Efficient administration and auxiliary services

Suitable premises and facilities for language learning.

Accurate placement-testing to determine language competence

A structured course of studies that is divided into levels and appropriate to students' needs

Appropriate and effective teaching methods

Appropriate, regular assessments, reports and end-of-course assessment procedures leading to a certificate of attainment

Experienced and competent teachers working under the supervision of an appropriately qualified academic manager

Regular observation of the teaching activity

Opportunities for obtaining information and advice about the course of studies

Note. From "Mission statements, values and aims," by F. Heyworth, 2003, in L. Muresan, F. Heyworth, M. Matheidesz, & M. Rose (Eds.), *Quality management in language education*. (CD-Rom). Graz: Council of Europe Publishing. Used with permission of the author.

The concept of vision in general education has been referred to at various stages of this study (see Harris, 2001; Sammons *et al.* 1995). Heyworth (2003) considers that quality in any field of work begins with a *vision* of what can be achieved along with a *mission*, or public statement of intentions. The creation of a mission statement that incorporates the department's vision and objectives for the near and immediate future may offer a team of collaborative reflective practitioners an opportunity to examine current practices and to envisage desired changes. The mission statement arguably has the potential to provide the group with a shared sense of purpose and, in this way may produce the motivation and direction necessary for improvement. While it appears that the use of mission statements in the field of language teaching has generally been applied to private or corporative endeavours, an example of which is provided in Figure 4.1, as exemplified at a later stage, it can also be applied to team members working within individual language departments.

4.2.2 Instruments for Self-Assessment and Observation

Observation as a source of teacher development has been seen as an effective way to improve upon teaching (Burns, 1999; Day, 1990; Freeman, 1982; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999). The use of assessment and self-evaluation instruments in initial and continued teacher training has been well established in the province of Granada (see Madrid, 1997; 1988; 1999; 2004). The combination of instruments presented throughout the works mentioned potentially serve to enhance reflection on the specific actions of the teacher in terms of activities taking place in class and provide the data necessary for subsequent readjustments.

Figure 4.2

Instrument for Assessing Classroom Teaching

Assess the following from 1-5: *1=never 2 =hardly ever 3 =sometimes 4 = almost always 5 =always*	
1. The teacher gives information on objectives and contents. Comment:	(....)
2. He / she acts according to the interests and needs of the students Comment:	(....)
3. He / she explains clearly. Comment:	(....)
4. He / she prepares the classes Comment:	(....)
5. He / she motivates the students Comment:	(....)
6. He / she uses interesting materials. Comment:	(....)
7. He / she is interested in the students and treats them well. Comment:	(....)
8. He / she uses English frequently in the class. Comment:	(....)
9. He / she assesses is an objective and appropriate way. Comment:	(....)
10. He / she keeps a balance between oral and written activities. Comment:	(....)
11. He / she keeps a balance in the development of the sub-competences which make up communicative competence: gives a balanced treatment of grammatical aspects, vocabulary, phonetic, sociolinguistic and cultural problems. Comment:	(....)
12. He / she uses audio-visual materials and information and communication technologies Comment:	(....)
13. He / she encourages student participation. Comment:	(....)
14. He / she organises work in pairs and groups. Comment:	(....)
15. He / she maintains discipline in class. Comment:	(....)
16. He / she organises ludic activities: games, songs. Comment:	(....)
17. He / she pays attention to diversity in the classroom: different levels ... Comment:	(....)
18. He / she pays attention to cross-curricular themes. Comment:	(....)
19.	(....)

Note. From "La evaluación del profesorado de ingles," by D. Madrid, 1997, in T. Harris, M. G. Palma, S. Martinez, & V. Robles (Eds.), *Teaching in motion*. Granada: GRETA. Used with permission of the author.

Figure 4.3

Quantitative Analysis of the FL Class

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1) DECLARATIVE KNOWLEDGE: concepts and principles																	
Linguistic competence																	
Grammar																	
Vocabulary																	
Phonetics																	
Spelling																	
Sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence																	
Functions / Speech acts																	
Discourse competence: coherence, cohesion																	
Socio-cultural competence																	
Cross-curricular aspects																	
2) PROCEDURAL KNOWLEDGE: skills, strategies, knowing how…																	
Oral communication																	
Listening																	
Speaking																	
Interaction: listening-speaking																	
Written communication																	
Reading																	
Writing																	
Interaction: reading-writing																	
Interaction of oral and written skills																	
Listening and reading																	
Listening and writing																	
Reading and speaking																	
3) EXISTENTIAL COMPETENCE (attitudes and values)																	
4) LEARNING TO LEARN																	
Language awareness																	
Study skills																	
Heuristic skills																	
OTHER CRITERIA																	
GROUPING TECHNIQUES																	
Pair work																	
Group work																	
Independent work																	
AIDS, MATERIALS, RESOURCES																	
Blackboard / whiteboard,…																	
Visual resources: pictures, etc.																	
CD/tape recording																	
DVD/video recording																	
Internet																	

Note. Based on "The foreign language curriculum," by N. McLaren and D. Madrid, 2004, in D. Madrid & N. McLaren (Eds.), *TEFL in Primary Education*, p. 176. Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada. Adapted with permission.

In Madrid (1997), for example the author provides a model that is simultaneously qualitative and quantitative (Fig. 4.2), thus offering both the external assessor and collaborative action-researcher a framework from which to judge teacher behaviour in relation to classroom organisation, motivational considerations, assessment strategies, and approaches to the treatment of competences.

McLaren and Madrid (2004) present an instrument more specifically aimed at recording students' proficiency, which, they maintain, incorporates the basic general and communicative language competences. This instrument has been adapted in Madrid and Hughes (2006, p. 65) and is proposed as part of a (self) assessment model with which to examine classroom instruction during initial school based teaching-practice (Fig. 4.3). In the model, it is suggested that the instrument may be used as an awareness-raising strategy, whereby student teachers record classes with a video recorder and review it, pausing the video every 60 seconds in order to note which activities have taken place and consequently examine possible patterns in their teaching behaviour and potential areas for readjustment.

The focus of the above-mentioned instruments is essentially on the classroom dimension. In terms of self-assessment for the department, a modifiable self-assessment model is proposed (Fig. 4.4) which aims to allow teachers to prioritise area of improvement by a) indicating the importance attributed to certain dimensions of the language teaching and learning process; and b) giving their assessment of the present state of affairs (Hughes, 2004a, p. 82). In the use of this particular instrument, it is considered that the closer the items are on the two scales, the greater the priority they have; thus improvement areas are highlighted and arguably serve as a complimentary data-source to facilitate decision-making.

Figure 4.4

Suggested Teacher Self-Assessment Instrument

		IMPORTANCE FOR ME AS A TEACHER					ASSESSMENT OF THE PRESENT STATE OF AFFAIRS				
1	My level of motivation as a teacher	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2	My continuous professional development	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3	My level of course planning	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4	The level of support I receive from the school	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5	The level of support I receive from parents	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6	The motivation of my students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7	The level of student co-operation in class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8	The level of recognition I receive from the school	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9	If evidence exists, the perceived level of positive stimuli my students receive in class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10	The resources available for my classes	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11	The effectiveness of departmental meetings	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12	My medium and long-term objectives as a teacher	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13	The medium and long-term objectives of the department	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14	The medium and long-term objectives of the government in terms of EFL	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15	The medium and long-term objectives of the school in terms of EFL	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16	The objectives of students with regards to the language	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17	The development of departmental plans for improvement	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18	The revision of departmental objectives	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19	My use of resources in class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20	The degree of responsibility students demonstrate in tasks	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
21	The variety of tasks in my classes	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
22	The promotion of creativity in my class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
23	The establishment of contact between students and native speakers	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
24	The work carried out by students at home	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
25	The use of computers as a language acquisition resource by students in my class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
26	The use of pair and group work in class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
27	The attention I give to the subjective needs of students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
28	The attention I pay to diversity in the class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
29	The perceived level of confidence of pupils when facing tasks	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
30	The use of strategies by students in facing tasks	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
31	The mastery my students obtain in speaking	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
32	The mastery my students obtain in listening	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
33	The mastery my students obtain in reading	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
34	The mastery my students obtain in writing	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
35	The mastery my students obtain in pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
36	The mastery my students obtain in grammar	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
37	The mastery my students obtain in vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
38	The treatment I give to cultural awareness	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Other items I would add to this questionnaire											
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Score the following between 1 (low) and 5 (high) according to the degree of **importance** and **assessment** you give to each item. The test is structured in such a way that the closer items appear on the document, the higher priority they have (i.e. if you mark the first item as having an importance for you of **5** and an assessment of the actual state of affairs as **1**, this would have a high priority).

1 = no, not much   2 = below average   3 = average   4 = above average   5 = high/excellent

Note. From "Searching for effectiveness in ELT" by S. P. Hughes, 2004a, *Porta Linguarum*: *Revista Internacional de Didáctica de las Lenguas Extranjeras 1*, p. 82.

A contextualised version of this model was agreed in a case study (described below) and initially appeared to be useful. Nevertheless, although it may perhaps be helpful to some teachers, and has been piloted in an English language department, the items that make up the base document are not a product of a larger area of consent, but based on more intuitive and localised group considerations.

Finally, the use of student questionnaires as an instrument to aid teacher self-assessment has become common practice in ELT. However, depending on the purpose, design and application of questionnaires, their validity, reliability and overall effectiveness can be put into question. In higher education contexts, for example, where questionnaires are becoming an increasingly familiar part of teacher appraisal, Spencer and Schmelkin (2002) report that even when students do not necessarily fear repercussions of questionnaires, they may perceive that those who implement the survey do not take the results into account. Similarly, it has been shown that, apart form being expensive and time-consuming, questionnaires may have little effect on teacher quality, given that there may be an absence of incentive to use data produced, and when this type of instrument is used, it may be analysed ineffectively; furthermore, the effectiveness of questionnaires may be constrained by the lack of flexibility and appropriate focus, and, more importantly, they may ignore teacher improvement (Kember, Leung & Kwan, 2002). Yet it appears that some lessons may be learnt from studies that use student perceptions to judge teachers' performance. Among these considerations, we may find that for questionnaires to be useful, they should have the flexibility to concentrate on important matters, they should be context-specific, and they should be directly aimed at improving current practices.

4.2.3 Problem Solving and Prioritising Tools

Organic quality improvement measures, as previously discussed, involve high levels of teamwork. In order to facilitate such teamwork, those responsible for the design of quality frameworks for schools and other institutions concerned with enhancing processes and performance have provided several enabling instruments. According to Pérez (2000) TQM tools may be used as working instruments in the management of schools while favouring the creation of a positive professional climate propitious to continuous improvement. Hughes (2004a) offers a number of tools that may be applied to the improvement and management of L2 instructional processes. Among the strategies used to identify and solve problems, are basic techniques such as cause and effect and relationship diagrams and brainstorming. Hughes, for example, suggests that team brainstorming may provide a multi-sourced perspective for language departments searching for possible subject-specific solutions (ibid., p. 75). Brainstorming techniques allow individual innovation to flow in a structured way, whereby participants are encouraged to be creative and to generate as many ideas as possible, the line of reasoning being that the more ideas and the more creative they are, the better the chances they have of generating one or more appropriate solutions (see Breyfogle, 1999, pp. 78-79). Cause and effect diagrams (see Fig. 4.5) are also commonly used in TQM movements (e.g. Ishikawa, 1985). The purpose of this instrument is to find sources of problems in an organised way, taking into account the major stakeholders and/or factors affected by or contributing to the problem (Peralta, 2000, p. 86). Problems identified through this process may further be analysed through a relationship diagram, which, it is proposed, further facilitates the detection of root causes (Fig. 4.6).

Figure 4.5

Cause and Effect Diagram for Lexical Competence
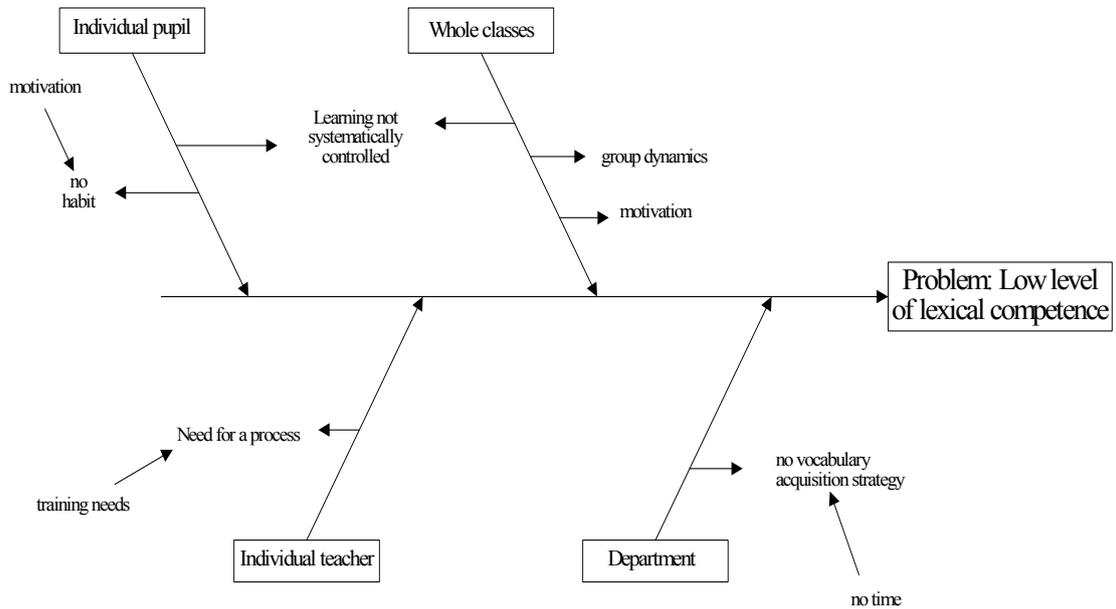
Note. Adapted from "Searching for effectiveness in ELT," by S.P. Hughes, 2004a, *Porta Linguarum: Revista Internacional de Didáctica de las Lenguas Extranjeras 1*, p.76.

Figure 4.6

Relationship Diagram Applied to Lexical Competence
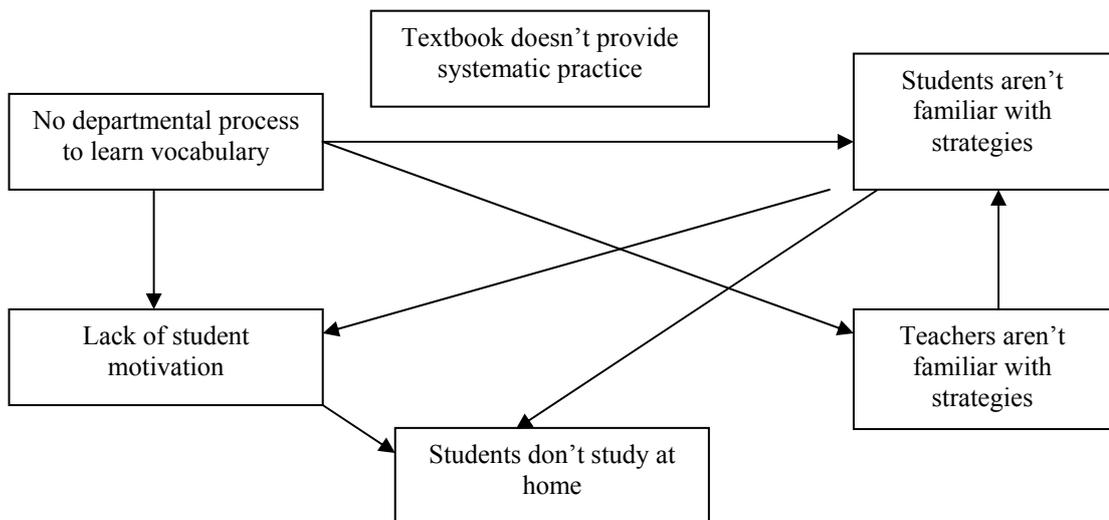
Table 4.3

Prioritised Ideas for Improving Writing

Priority	Strategies	Priority	Strategies
1	Create a departmental writing strategy	11	Form groups to debate themes before writing
2	Create a writing booklet for students	12	Focus on punctuation and connectors
3	Research writing / attend teacher training sessions on writing	13	Have vocabulary competitions
4	Include 10 minutes of weekly free writing	14	Mark errors but let students correct
5	Ask students to have an *errors* section in notebook	15	Play correction auction games
6	Make students aware of frequent and frequently misused words	16	Use pair-correction
7	Work on punctuation with visual techniques	17	Use chats and e-mails to enhance writing skills
8	Contextualise the learning of vocabulary	18	Develop a correspondence programme
9	Use newspaper and magazine articles to enhance opinion-making	19	Create a reading strategy
10	Whole-class correction of essays on board or OHP	20	Create Internet activities

Prioritisation strategies are also considered to be important in order to concentrate on viable actions for improvement. One specific application a prioritisation technique was employed by this researcher with a department in a

private secondary school looking for ways in which to improve students' writing skills. The procedure itself took the steps of a) description and visual illustration of the problem by team members; b) brainstorming, consisting in writing individual ideas for solutions on post-its; c) joining similar ideas on blackboard; d) prioritising ideas through use of a prioritisation tool (see Appendix VI); e) presentation of final prioritisation list (Table 4.3). Essentially, it is argued that the use of prioritisation and problem-solving tools used within a dynamic and collaborative group environment may help to focus the attention of individual participants on definite problems and to generate context-specific solutions. This type of intervention can only be made by those familiar with the context involved and solutions ideally arise as part of a democratic and concerted effort, and in this sense, may represent a more effective form of improvement strategy than one which is externally imposed.

4.2.4 Process Management

In order to achieve different results it is necessary to change the methods employed to achieve them; thus, it is suggested that the identification, improvement and implementation of key processes are extensively linked to the improvement of results in organisations, including education (Bawden & Zuber-Skerrit, 2002). Lozier and Teeter (1996) describe processes as *systems of work*, the understanding and improvement of which rely upon measurements and data to inform appropriate decisions. Hughes (2004a; 2004b) suggests that processes in language teaching can be divided into a series of different areas including instructional and non-instructional ones (Fig. 4.4), and that a correct management and modification of selected and prioritised processes may facilitate overall organisation of practices.

Table 4.4

Examples of Processes in FLT.

	Classroom processes	Out of class processes
Department level	• Peer observation	• group planning • target setting • decision-making
Individual teacher level	• development of communicative competence • use of English in class • general classroom management • homework procedures • differentiation • strategy training • student satisfaction control • use of resources	• course planning • unit and lesson plans • use of resources • identification of training needs • correcting • assessment • publications or participation in conferences • target setting
Individual student level	• work and participation in class • use of English • participation in English • target setting • strategy use	• homework • revision strategies • participation in extra-curricular projects (exchange, correspondence, etc.).

Note. Adaped from "Searching for effectiveness in ELT," by S.P. Hughes, 2004a, *Porta Linguarum: Revista Internacional de Didáctica de las Lenguas Extranjeras 1*, p.83.

The improvement of micro processes such as those mentioned above may be treated cyclically in a way similar to the overall improvement framework (see Figure 4.8). The most important processes, however, are arguably those which have the greatest impact on teaching and learning. For this reason, while it may appear useful to examine a number of micro-processes, it would seem appropriate to first establish a macro process of self-evaluation employing procedures that include situation analysis, action-planning, implementation of strategies, observation of outcomes and feedback, like those outlined for action research and total quality management.

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Figure 4.8

Strategy Implementation Process

RECORD DATA FOR FUTURE IMPROVEMENTS	Identify problem areas and prioritise actions	→	• Problem areas could be gathered through diagnostic tests, suggestions box, class discussions, class surveys • Priorities should be based on importance and viability
	Select and inform participants	→	• Selection could be made taking into account the following: capability of participants, importance of participation on motivation, compatibility of group components • Set a time scale for improvement
	Gather data	→	• Use of data gathering methods, e.g. observation, surveys, interviews etc. • Description of problem • List possible causes • List possible solutions
	Group decision on strategy or strategies	→	• A number of solutions may be used simultaneously • Choose the best solution(s) • If no appropriate solution is found, pass task to another group (if available)

	Embark on action	→	• Action taken should be:
			  o pro-active
			  o preventative
			  o respectful
			  o rigorous

	Analyse and present results	→	• Provide evidence to back up results • Present results to stakeholders when appropriate • Record results for future consultation and development of future improvement plans
	Provide recognition	→	• Recognition for efforts made • Recognition for results achieved

Note. Adaped from "Searching for effectiveness in ELT," by S.P. Hughes, 2004a, *Porta Linguarum: Revista Internacional de Didáctica de las Lenguas Extranjeras 1*, p.84.

4.2.5 Indicators for Self-Management

In contrast to externally established, comprehensive quality assurance standards employed for modern foreign language teaching, such as those presented in Ofsted (2001b), other agencies have devised more wide-ranging indicators intended for collaborative management and self-assessment. In order to see how groups of language teachers may conduct this type of reflective practice, it may be helpful to examine contexts with similar concerns where instruments for quality management have been devised.

The ESL perspective of adult language education is just one of the areas where self-assessment instruments in the form of quality indicators are presented as part of a system of continuous improvement. Keltner (1998), for example, presents fifteen quality indicators linked to nine larger areas, which cover not only classroom planning, processes and student results, but also broader issues, including professional development and collaboration with the wider community (Table 4.5). Among the possible benefits of such a system, we find that the appraisal of teaching programmes may be established collaboratively among practising professionals who share some degree of familiarity with the subject matter. Furthermore, we can observe in the cited model that the evaluative emphasis is not limited to student linguistic performance, but instead, allows participants to focus their attention on other relevant areas in a non-threatening way. Finally, this type of model allows for a continuous, organic review of programme development and implementation, and is not limited to a single external inspection or quality assurance check, which, as indicated in Chapters Two and Three, may lead to stage-managed presentations that do not necessarily reflect the reality of the situation.

Table 4.5

Quality Indicators for Programme Self-Assessment in Adult ESL

Area	Indicator Description
Programme planning	1. Planning and review is continuous and participatory, guided by evaluation, and based on a written plan; 2. Staff involvement in decision-making processes that promote quality instruction and student attainment.
Professional development	3. Continuous development for staff; consideration of professional needs and interests and staff involvement in development, implementation, and evaluation of professional development plans.
Curriculum development	4. Curriculum and teaching based on student needs and current levels and on performance-based curricula. 5. Materials used which are appropriate to student attainment and based on priority competencies or outcomes.
Student placement	6. Placement process for students which is consistent with their needs, goals and abilities.
Monitoring progress	7. Monitoring of learners' progress attainment of skills and competencies which support their needs and goals.
Student outcomes	8. Accountability of programme to students and to funding sources; standardised process for documenting and reporting attainment of performance outcomes.
Classroom instruction	9. Instruction focused on language for communicative competence. 10. Reflection in lessons adult learning theory which underlines relevance and immediacy of application to learners' lives. 11. Effective organisation and delivery of lessons. 12. Classroom monitoring and communication activities which result in a learner-centred class, whereby students actively participate in their own learning. 13. Reflection in teaching strategies of awareness of student learning styles and lead to an effective learning environment.
Student support services	14. Guidance through direct service or through service providers; process to enable the exchange of information among teachers, for vocational training, employment referral, or other support services.
Community involvement and collaboration	15. Formal or informal agreements with potential employers, businesses, etc. to promote the programme mission and involvement between students and the community.

Note. Adapted from *English language training program self-review: A tool for program improvement*, by A. Keltner, 1998. Retrieved January, 3, 2005, from: http://www. springinstitute.org /Documents/Docs/9.pdf

4.3 The Application of Quality Management: A Case Study

Many of the elements that have been examined in this and the previous chapters were taken into consideration during an action research project in a secondary school in the province of Granada, [35] which coincided with the initiation of a whole-school improvement process using the EFQM model of excellence a the same school. In this project four of the five members of the English department at the school used a continuous improvement framework to search for overall enhancement of learning processes and outcomes. There were four objectives in this study:

1. to present the design a continuous improvement model applied to ELT;

2. to pilot this model in a secondary school;

3. to see whether the model offered any benefits for teachers;

4. to see whether the proposed model offered any benefits for students.

The theoretical model used in this study was that proposed by Hughes (2004a) seen in Figure 4.9 which is based on the action learning principles of a) observation; b) theory; c) experiment; d) evaluation; and e) review (see Revans, 1982). Essentially it is a cyclical improvement process similar to those used in EFQM, general education and, indeed, in language education, but differs with these in the sense that the first concern of the model is with teacher motivation, since it is assumed that without the levels of motivation necessary to overcome the types of constraints detailed in the previous sections, the possibility of implementing the improvement process will diminish.

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[35] This project formed part of the dissertation by Hughes (2004b) and has been presented as a case study during the QualiTraining Workshop in Sofia, Bulgaria in December 2005.

Figure 4.9

Framework for Continuous Departmental Improvement
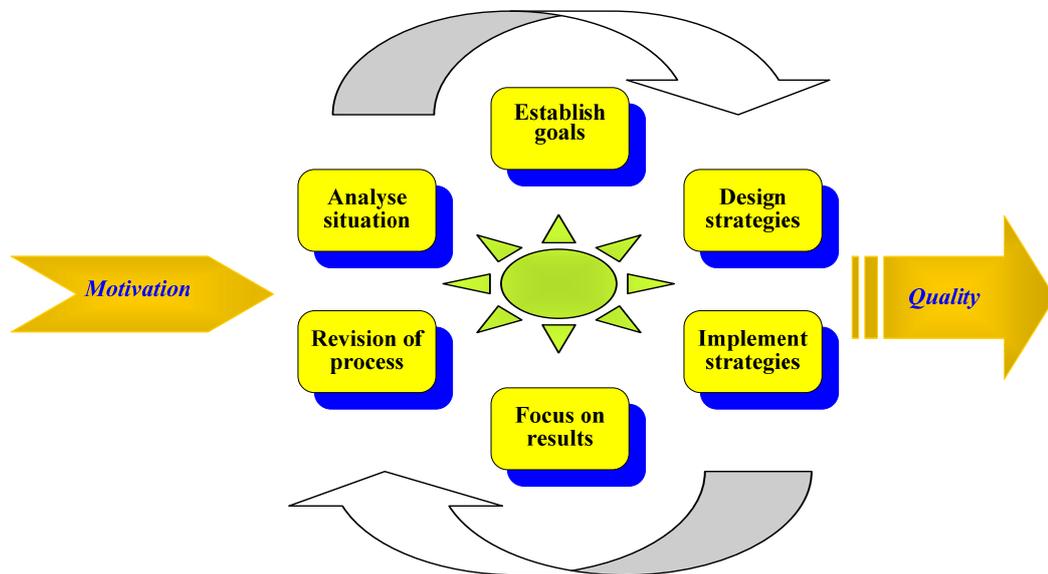
Note. From "Searching for effectiveness in ELT," by S.P. Hughes, 2004a, *Porta Linguarum: Revista Internacional de Didáctica de las Lenguas Extranjeras 1*, p.69.

4.3.1 Formulation of a Mission Statement

Team members read a definition and examples of mission statements, which were commonly used in improvement models, and then proceeded to create a joint statement for their own department. This was carried out by simply asking teachers to reflect upon and provide written answers to the following questions:

1. What is your vision for the future of the language department? What changes do you see possible and desirable for the next five years?

2. What do you think our mission is as language teachers in the department?

3. What strategy should we follow in order to facilitate our vision and mission?

4. What values should we highlight as a team in attempting to complete our mission and vision?

The answers to these questions were discussed by the team and consensus was sought on the final version of the mission statement, which was revised upon completion and used as an integral reference point for the project (Fig. 4.10).

Figure 4.10

Vision, Mission, Strategy and Values Statement

Our vision is
- to have highly motivated students;
- to encourage our students to see that English is useful for them;
- to have students who work and make an effort;
- to have the necessary installations (including a language laboratory) to carry out our work;
- to have a good atmosphere in class;
- to have students who are able to maintain basic communication in real situations;
- to make what is studied here allow students to continue studying and learning (life-long learning);
- for our students to leave school living this subject.

Our mission is:
- to help students enjoy and like the subject;
- to help them learn values;
- to provide them with the instruments and techniques which allow them to grow personally and academically;
- to stimulate and motivate students so that they can overcome difficulties;
- to help them learn how to communicate in English.

The strategy that we follow is:
- a continuous and permanent improvement strategy which incorporates the vision and initiatives of all – teachers, students, parents and school management.

We value:
- the integration and tolerance inside and outside our classrooms
- real attention to diversity;
- English as a *lingua franca* in the world;
- the individual work of students and other teachers;
- the respect and personal dignity of each person.

4.3.2 Situation Analysis

Participants used the first stage of this session to decide upon areas of analysis. The areas to be examined were student perceptions, parent perceptions and student achievement levels. The outcomes of this meeting were communicated to school management. During the following days, a number of decisions were taken with regards the designing of new tools and the adoption or adaptation of existing tools (Table 4.6). Once data was collected, it was processed and analysed by the team of teachers in preparation for the following session.

Table 4.6

Data Collection Instruments for Situation Analysis.

Tools	Subjects
Modified version of a proposed student questionnaire (Appendix VII)	549 Students from 1º *ESO* to 2º *Bachillerato*
Questionnaire for parents (Appendix VIII)	106 parents
Teacher Questionnaire (see Fig. 4.4)	4 teachers
UCLES (2001) Paper format of the *Quick Placement Test*	31 Students from 4º *ESO*
Vocabulary Test	30 students from 4º *ESO*
Interview	Member of Board of Governors

4.3.3 Prioritising Objectives and Implementing Strategies

Participants studied the data from the questionnaires from their individual classes as well as a group score obtained from all students. They also examined the results of the Quick Placement Test, vocabulary results and conclusions from the

interview with the member of the Board of Governors. With this data in hand, teachers used a prioritisation tool to facilitate decision-making similar to that shown in Appendix VI. Twenty-five areas were identified (Table 4.7) and the results from this procedure were used to help team members decide upon a small number of improvements to be undertaken during the rest of the academic year.

Table 4.7

Prioritised Departmental Improvement Areas

Nº	Area	Nº	Area
1	Permanent training plans	14	SS. mastery of written expression
2	Level of class and course planning	15	SS. mastery of oral expression
3	SS. motivation	16	SS. mastery of written comprehension
4	Level of order and discipline	17	SS. mastery of oral comprehension
5	Resources used in class	18	SS. mastery of pronunciation and intonation
6	SS. objectives with regards to the language	19	SS. mastery of grammar
7	Teaching methods used in class	20	SS. mastery of vocabulary
8	Use of time in class	21	Treatment of socio-cultural themes
9	Homework	22	Assessment criteria
10	Attention given to subjective needs of students	23	Explanation of themes
11	Attention given to diversity	24	Use of real communicative situations
12	SS. self-confidence in facing diverse tasks	25	Co-ordination with other subject areas
13	Use of strategies by students		

During the course of the project, a number of immediate strategies were implemented; this included basic actions such as the obtaining of materials for teachers. The first decision arising from the identified need to improve permanent training centred primarily on the introduction of computer assisted presentations of new material in class. This required training of teachers and provision of materials, including a CD-Rom to aid the design and adaptation of presentations available on Internet. This was completed during a training session, given by one of the teachers in April 2004. The session was also attended by an English teacher from primary level, who subsequently gave his first presentation to facilitate vocabulary acquisition in a graded reading project. This session was followed by another in May, where team members were aided in creating their own presentations. Plans were also made in the same department to improve the teaching and learning of vocabulary and to enhance course planning (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8

Areas of Improvement and Strategies

Area of improvement	Actions / Strategies
Language development	Create autonomous learning materials.
Training and resources	Obtain more audio-visual materials; Complete training session for teachers in the design and implementation of computer assisted presentations.
Course planning	Make the programme realistic with assessment criteria that take into account the specific characteristics of the school.

4.3.4 Focusing on Results

The duration of the case study in the school employing the complete version of the model was not sufficient to gauge detailed results in all of the areas marked for improvement. One specific area that was documented was that of the improvement in a process for teaching a grammar item. A revision of the teaching process was undertaken and a new process designed. The traditional form of teaching grammatical elements, such as the present simple, essentially followed the process shown in Figure 4.11.

Figure 4.11

Process Map for Traditional Method for Grammar Teaching
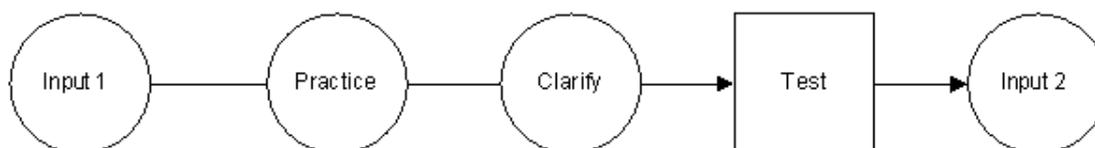
After measuring current related knowledge of an area or structure, a new (revised and/or developed) structure would be presented, students would practice and ask questions, they would then be tested, and would sometimes be given reinforcement exercises before being presented with the next area.

The research question at this stage was aimed at seeing whether or not results would improve by modifying the process; hence a new process was designed. This broke the larger process (in this case, the process of teaching the present simple) into smaller and more manageable subprocesses, whereby students had to gradually master each individual element involved in the unit of learning at their own pace (Fig. 4.12).

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Figure 4.12

Modified Process Map for Grammar Teaching
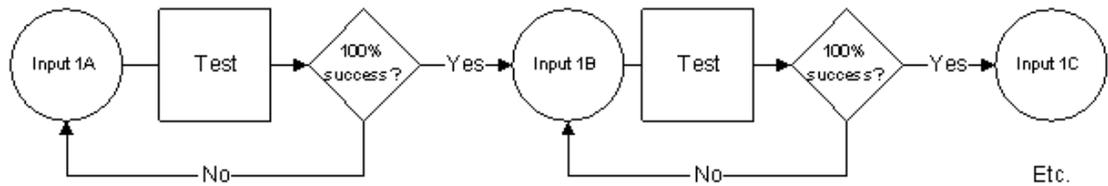
In order to see if the modified process would have any effects on performance, a booklet was designed to compliment other communicative strategies commonly employed in class, whereby students would read instructions, learn the input and test themselves before moving on to a new stage. The treatment consisted in the two teachers giving the experimental group thirty minutes to read and complete the aforementioned booklet. At the end of this session, students were asked to rate the perceived level of difficulty of the intervention and perceived level of learning. Two post-tests were later administered to the control and experimental groups by two teachers; the first of these took place the day after the intervention and the second (which was an identical to the pre-test) took place six months later.

The results (Fig. 4.13) indicated that there was a greater degree of improvement among students who underwent the treatment in both post tests compared to the performance of students from the control groups. The ANOVA carried out (Table 4.9) confirmed this. Although the experiment was considered to be a very basic step in process management, and while the instruments themselves could have had a more communicative design, the experiment served to demonstrate that by modifying micro processes in context, it was also possible to improve results.

Figure 4.13

Performance on Pre and Post-Tests for Grammar Experiment
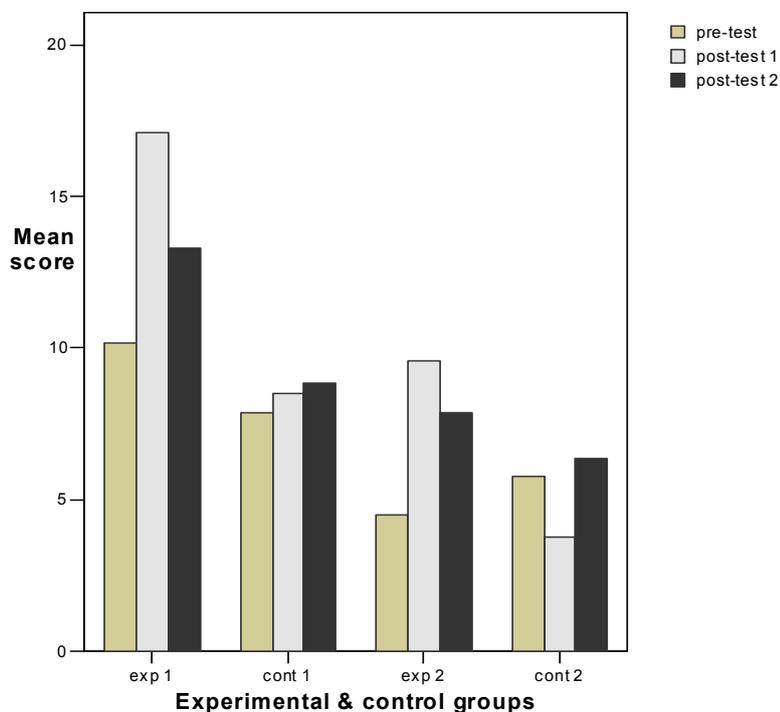
Table 4.9

ANOVA Comparing Performance on Pre and Post-Tests

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-test	Between Groups	16.170	1	16.170	.615	.434
	Within Groups	2996.752	114	26.287		
	Total	3012.922	115			
Post-test 1	Between Groups	1731.791	1	1731.791	52.354	.000
	Within Groups	3770.924	114	33.078		
	Total	5502.716	115			
Post-test 2	Between Groups	304.800	1	304.800	9.769	.002
	Within Groups	3556.890	114	31.201		
	Total	3861.690	115			

In order to judge the effectiveness of the overall continuous improvement process as perceived by teachers, an external interviewer conducted a semi-structured interview with the participants (see Appendix IX). Among the benefits perceived by the team members as a result of the project, the following areas stood out as being the most important:

1. the enhancement of teamwork;

2. teacher learning;

3. communication between team members;

4. reflective teaching;

5. the focus on practical elements;

6. planning aspects;

7. achievable goals.

For all participants, teamwork appeared to have been one characteristic of the project that was most beneficial. Teamwork seems to be linked with at least two other areas: a) the supportive aspect, and b) participation. The area directly related to teamwork and the supportive aspect of the team itself was that of communication. This was perceived by one of the interviewees as being a differentiating element in teacher development since team members had the opportunity to participate in discussions about teaching rather than being passively lectured about it. Participants were also asked to propose areas of improvement in the project. The areas indicated included a) time concerns; b) further improvement in relations between teachers; and, c) inclusion of the whole department.

The combined results of this project led to the conclusion that it was possible, under the right conditions, to achieve improvements by employing cooperative action research based upon group work in the language department. Further investigation, however, was seen to be required not only at the school which had initially adopted the framework, but also at other secondary schools with different characteristics. This would mean a future widening of the investigation as well as a search for ways in which to make the project more accessible to those interested in adopting it. At the same time, and given the piloting nature of this project, there was also a perceived need to refine tools and methods as well as data collection instruments and procedures. The inclusion of unused procedures such as peer observation among teachers and interviews with students could provide interesting contributions both for teachers involved and for the continuation study of this research project, although this, as always, would theoretically depend on the teachers' willingness to participate.

4.3.5   *Whole-School vs. Department Change Processes*

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, the adoption of the proposed model for departmental improvement coincided with the introduction of the EFQM model of excellence at whole-school level. The initiation of both projects took place during the first term of the school year, but there were, naturally, some interesting differences, beginning with the priorities identified for improvement in each group. The whole-school quality commission, which, after forty hours of training for twenty-five staff members, finally reached a consensus upon general areas of improvement, including:

1. create a school mission, vision and values statement;

2. improve discipline;

3. develop internal (teacher) and external (pupils and parents) client satisfaction;

4. improve the key processes of the school;

5. improve school maintenance

In contrast, the group of four language teachers participated in a twenty contact-hour research project using a model with characteristics similar to the quality commission but applied to language teaching and had prioritised areas for improvement which, as shown previously in Table 4.7, were more subject-specific and directly related to classroom practices. Even though both groups started in the same month of the same year at the same school, the members of the language department had already established its mission statement and had collected information from students by means of questionnaires before the training stage of the first group had finished. Similarly, the time spent by the second group was greatly reduced and the team involved actually had the opportunity to use some of the training hours to implement actions of improvement in a number of their prioritised areas.

Nevertheless, with the implementation of both whole-school and departmental levels of improvement, a number of practical difficulties and constraints were observed. Resistance to change, problems with communication and negativity among certain staff members inside and outside the department wer recognised as potential obstacles that could hinder any attempts at innovation. There were, however, some steps taken to minimise these contextual constraints, some of which have been

previously discussed. The first step in initiating a shared project of improvement arguably involves the creation of the necessary motivational conditions for teamwork to take place. In the specific case of the research project, this was supported by the piloted improvement model, which, as indicated, gave priority to teacher motivation and aimed to contribute to the creation of an environment where change and innovation were made possible. The motivational factors also seemed to have been aided by the creation of a common vision, mission and strategy, agreed goals, teacher learning and participation. The aspects of communication and collegiality, as previously mentioned, also contributed substantially to the development of the project in this context. Finally, it was considered important to receive support and authorisation from school management and to systematically inform officially recognised school leaders of plans and progress. It may be the case that without these factors, the advantages highlighted by the team would have either been lessened or non-existent.

Among the benefits produced for teachers in the piloted model were various key concerns. Apart from the specific attention given to the results of learning, the project also entailed a realistic vision resulting from the reflection with regards to what may be achieved in the short and long-term. It also appeared that the use of the model encouraged the team to reflect upon their teaching upon student levels and needs; it helped participants to establish indicators and prioritise areas of improvement and, indeed, to agree upon and implement strategies.

The results obtained from the piloting of the model appeared to reaffirm a number of considerations and conclusions put forward by various authors and previously cited in this study. This included Burns' (1999, pp. 13-15) affirmations on

the benefits of collaborative learning among teachers, Hargreaves et al. (2001), who indicate that change is aided through the development of collaborative relationships and teacher learning, and Harris' (2001) view of the department as an agent of change. Despite the difficulties involved, it was suggested that the formation of a departmental team could have a direct impact on areas that are directly related to the subject being taught. To a large degree, this was seen to depend on the department having a clear and informed vision, aided with the right tools, and willingness of department members to participate. Above all, it was considered necessary for the department to share a strong commitment on attaining quality teaching and learning. It was also proposed shared leadership at all of these stages was fundamental, and it was important to recognise that the success of a team did not depend on one person, but on each individual member working collaboratively.

4.4 Discussion

It is evident that international developments in education are helping to configure and reconfigure local educational contexts. Such has been the case in the Spanish educational system, which has seen national dissatisfaction with previous legislation and international scrutiny through the use of educational performance indicators, and where two major policy changes have taken place within the last five years. Language teaching and learning do not escape these global trends, particularly when, as is the case of Europe, countries begin to share unified objectives, policies and even classroom practices (Nunan, 2003; Truchot, 1998).

In this context, language policies have been influenced by multiple sources, including general pedagogy, applied linguistics, socio and psycholinguistics (see

Newby, 2003; Stern, 1992). At times this has led to the existence of dominant methods that have been included in prescriptive curricula, only to be later rejected and replaced by the next generation. Policies, however, are also being influenced by current trends in education, particularly through the development of diverse applications of quality including: a) standards and quality indicators, which have become prevalent in education systems worldwide in the external application of quality assurance practices; b) more organic quality management and internal improvement systems, or c) a combination of both quality assurance and quality management practices.

Today, there appears to be a global realisation of the need to concentrate on specific contexts. This is evident in the promotion of self-assessment and continuous improvement models based on the total quality management paradigm. Within the operational characteristics of this type of framework, schools employ tools with which they might analyse their own specific settings, propose their own objectives and seek to find improvements. Yet the application of this model is not without difficulties or detractors. Quality in education can be seen to be an encouragement of market-based values, which are not traditionally associated with the profession of teaching; there is a need for a substantial amount of specific training in quality processes and strategies; furthermore, it may take a number of years for improvements at whole-school level to be noticed and these improvements are often based at levels which are not directly related to teaching and learning. In the end, although the adoption of quality models in schools may be seen as a contextualised solution, those who bear the workload of the implementation of such models are ultimately the teachers themselves, who most likely did not instigate the scheme and

who may suspect of the motives behind improvement initiatives. The combination of these factors may result in resistance or rejection from teaching professionals.

In answer to some of these limitations, recent studies indicate that the department, in harmony with the school, may provide more relevant, context-based solutions to the needs of teachers and learners in specific subject areas. Here, a number of characteristics have been identified that may help departments to facilitate teamwork, focus on valid objectives, and succeed in their endeavours; among these we find the following:

1. a positive environment (Ayres, *et al.* 2004) ;

2. communication and collegiality (Harris, 2001);

3. a focus on teaching and learning (Harris, 2001; Visscher & Witziers, 2004);

4. knowledge and professional development (Ayres, *et al.* 2004);

5. data, reflection and enquiry (Harris, 2001; Visscher & Witziers, 2004);

6. effective departmental policies (Visscher & Witziers, 2004);

7. leadership (Harris, 2001).

At another level, improvement in language teaching and learning is being sought internationally, nationally and regionally. However, as in general education, there appears to be a tendency to place higher levels of importance on the context of learning (Bax, 2003; Breen, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2002, 2003). At the heart of these developments, the Common European Framework aims to act as a context-adjustable reference guide for improvement in language teaching and learning. This framework is accepted and promoted in national education policy (*Ley Orgánica*

2/2006), although the extent to which prescriptiveness or descriptiveness will be employed in its implementation still remains to be seen.

The CEF is concerned with improving the quality of language teaching and learning, and linked to this framework of reference are other Council of Europe projects, such as the ELP and participative projects such as the ECML's QualiTraining Guide. The latter of these presents teachers with many of the basic concepts and possible applications of quality to language instruction. Nevertheless, although the project has a consolidated base, this and other European projects have still to address the question of the practical implementation of quality indicators in language teaching. In this area, while much has been done to establish quality indicators in general education worldwide, and quality in language instruction in certain specific national contexts (e.g. TESOL, DfEs), there is little to be found in the generation of indicators in the public sector in the specific context of this study.

The department, as has been debated, potentially constitutes a relevant community for contextualised development in teaching and learning, and the use of organic quality approaches in the language department may represent a viable strategic framework for improvement. However, despite the abundance of literature available to explain the concept of quality in education in general, and an emerging interest in the field of language instruction, there appears to be a need for further investigation into this matter with regards to foreign language teaching processes and outcomes, particularly where the construction of contextualised quality indicators is concerned.

Finally, as mentioned in the review of the literature, at this moment the secondary school system in Andalusia, unlike many of its European partners, has no

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specific and widely used assessment system directly aimed at L2 teaching and learning. The need for assessment and quality management has been identified for those schools partaking in bilingual programmes, but the development of specific measures is still ongoing. For those schools not participating in such a programme, it is likely that regional policy developments, including the diagnostic tests, will begin to introduce new systems of improvement or accountability.

As we await these developments, it may be feasible to examine what teachers believe constitutes quality in their environment. With this in mind, the intention here is to establish a set of illustrative quality indicators in this specific educational and geographical context, not as an instrument of external quality assurance, but rather as a reference point for departmental quality management and self-evaluation.

PART II

CONTEXTUALISED

QUALITY INDICATORS FOR ENGLISH

LANGUAGE TEACHING

CHAPTER FIVE

PARTICIPANTS, METHODS AND RESULTS

5.1 Overview of Research Methodology

This study is concerned with the identification of descriptive contextualised quality indicators in language teaching, and the research question, as formulated in Chapter One, specifically asks: "Which quality indicators may be used for secondary school language teachers in the province of Granada?" The aim, therefore, is not produce a prescriptive and generaliseable set of indicators, but to determine which indicators may be useful to teachers in specific educational settings in such a way that it takes into account the different views of language education professionals in context. Having examined relevant aspects of the literature, the first concern here lies in the way in which data may be gathered in order to address the research question.

Traditionally, a number of different groups have been directly or indirectly involved in determining standards in language teaching in Spain, this has included policy makers and schools inspectors and, although not formally established as identifiers of quality, materials writers have possibly become the *de facto* contributors to many of the key processes and outcomes in language teaching and learning in this context. By examining current policy, some may consider it feasible to extract areas which are to be seen as key concerns in teacher effectiveness, including classroom processes and student outcomes, and hence identify possible quality indicators. The problem with this type of analysis perhaps lies in the fact that it does not deal with the immediately perceptible needs, challenges and opportunities of individual instructional situations. Local inspection procedures could also prove to be useful in establishing contextualised indicators. Yet the current absence of subject-specific instruments and standardised procedures for teachers in service makes this option less viable. Another approach could entail a review of the literature in order to determine which specific indicators could be useful to teachers in context, but this might lead to an externally imposed framework that could run the risk of adding a skewed perspective to the process of indicator identification and, like the other above-mentioned approaches, fail to take into account the school, departmental and classroom realities.

Practising teachers have already been subject to certain influential inputs in the establishment of standards in language education by means of teacher training, inspection processes at initial career stages, policy recommendations, and through the use of materials approved by the administration. However, teachers themselves are also fundamental to the creation of standards since, among other reasons, they

serve as participants in field tests of standards, they are fundamental to the implementation of standards at classroom level, and they serve as critics of nationally created standards (Abdal-Haqq, 1995).

In order to obtain teacher perspectives on quality indicators and to enrich these with those of other stakeholders who are professionally linked to language education, it is suggested here that it is necessary to develop consensus among practising participants in a way that is both temporally and economically viable and to employ methods that would not have a negative impact on professional responsibilities.

In reviewing the literature on methods for obtaining consensus it is possible to observe that a number of studies have employed variations of the Delphi technique (Linstone & Turoff, 1975). The technique, which involves the obtaining of data and analysis in a series of rounds, cannot easily be classified as a quantitative or qualitative method, since it can involve both textual analysis and at the same time generate quantitative data. According to Rowe and Wright (1999, p. 355), variations of the method exist, though they generally do not go beyond one or two iterations. The original intention, in this study was to use three questionnaires, one open-ended questionnaire to identify quality indicators, one to validate items extracted from the first, and one to prioritise indicators. However, the implementation of all three would inevitably depend on temporal constraints and upon the levels of sustained participation.

It is considered that this type of research has the advantage of feasibly allowing for input from a large group of geographically dispersed participants (Rowe & Wright, 1999, p. 354). Several studies have employed the technique in order to gain consensus in education (e.g. Moquin & Travis, 1999; Robertson, Line & Thomas,

2000) and in order to identify areas of good practice, or quality criteria in diverse general and specific educational contexts (e.g. Chou, 2003; Kreber, 2002). The technique has also been used for the purposes of creating standards in a profile on language teacher education commissioned by the European Union in Kelly *et al.* (2004).

Thus, it appeared that the use of iterative questionnaires could provide a useful basis upon which to construct non-prescriptive indicators, and the review of the literature on consensus-building approaches indicated the need for the use of both qualitative interpretations of textual data and subsequent quantitative data validation. In terms of the qualitative examination of data, it was considered that if the final objective of the study was to generate hypotheses (in this case, potential indicators) based on the insights of respondents, it would be necessary to provide opportunities for potential participants to identify these without conditioning responses; at the same time, however, it was also necessary to work within a framework of general questions that allow the main research question to be answered (see Corbin & Holt, 2004). Initially, then, the development of potential indicators begins with the textual analysis of responses to generic questions. To all intents and purposes, this means that the final outcomes of the study are based on the subjective experiences of participants. While this modality of research had been questioned for its scientific reliability, particularly in the early twentieth century, qualitative research based on subjective responses has gained recognition as a valid research goal (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003).

In terms of this particular study, the first stage of textual analysis may involve the use of text reduction in order to make data more manageable and to focus on

recurring themes (Corbin & Holt, 2004). In order to facilitate the organisation of potential indicators, it is also necessary to find ways in which to group indicators. This type of analysis may consist in extracting taxonomies of major themes and minor categories from the data available by employing open coding, which initially involves the labelling of individual texts in more abstract categories (Patton, 1998). This may be further refined through the use of axial coding, which consists in reweaving identified items around major emerging themes (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Corbin & Holt, 2004; Patton, 1988).

An important element in the coding of data lies in the interpretive capacity of the researcher, which requires thoughough insider knowledge of the system under study, however, at this particular stage of analysis there is also a danger that the interpretations given to texts may be subject to researcher bias. In order to reduce the influence of researcher subjectivity a number of strategies may be employed, including records of participant language, researcher triangulation and participant review (McMillan & Schumacher, 1997). When coding responses into individual items, further challenges may arise. Firstly, there is a need to seek construct validity in order to ensure that developed items are understood in the same way by all participants. Efforts to provide construct validity may include content validity through the examination of constructs in the light of expert opinion (Schwab, 2004, p. 31). This, however, is insufficient, and the issue of internal reliability, in terms of the *systematic or consistant variance of a measure* would also need to be addressed upon completion of data collection and processing (ibid., p. 32). These considerations are taken into account in the qualitative and quantitative parts of the study presented below.

5.2   Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis

5.2.1 Recruitment of Participants

Stage I of the empirical study began in March 2005. The main concern at this point was to find voluntary participants who were directly engaged in the process of English language teaching at compulsory and non-compulsory secondary school levels (*ESO* and *Bachillerato*). There were also, however, certain groups of professionals who could potentially provide useful complimentary insights into the establishment of quality indicators in ELT. In the end, the specific groups of prospective participants who could provide such insights for this study were considered to be:

1. heads of English language departments and other English teachers;

2. schools inspectors with links to language teaching and learning;

3. university lecturers involved in English language pedagogy;

4. schools assessors specialising in language teaching;

5. teachers of English from other officially recognised institutions.

From the addresses of public institutions available on the website of the Granada teacher training institution (*Centro de Profesorado de Granada*), heads of department from sixty-nine public schools and twenty-seven semi-private schools (*Centros Cencertados*) within the province were sent invitations to participate, in addition to three private secondary schools which were not listed (Appendix X). These invitations included an overall description of the project and a general profile of intended participants. They also contained self-addressed envelopes to facilitate

participation as well as an e-mail address to allow for further enquiries with regards to the project. Although the letters were addressed to department heads, the invitation was also extended to other teachers. As previously indicated, apart from surveying members from secondary schools, the opinion of other experts in the field was deemed important. This led to requests for participation from five lecturers at the University of Granada who were involved in English language teaching modules or courses and ten English language teachers at *Centro de Lenguas Modernas* (CLM). The English department at the official language school of Granada (*Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*, or EOI), situated in Motril, also received an invitation to participate, as well as a school assessor from the teaching centre in Granada (*Centro de Profesorado*), who specialised in assessing English language teachers and projects. One school inspector, who did not take part in the survey, acted as a consultant at diverse stages of the study. This inspector was familiar both with the field of language teaching in secondary schools and in the use of quality criteria and indicators. During the design stage of questionnaires, consultation also took place with a member of the Department of English Philology at the University of Granada.

Those who expressed their interest in taking part in the survey, did so with a participation form (Appendix XI), which they could complete using email or standard mail. At this stage, data collection involved obtaining variables (including age, gender, professional experience and academic qualifications) that would help to determine the potential quality of the participants, and which could enable the inclusion of appropriate experts at the initial stage of the investigation; it also allowed for the subsequent examination of differences in responses depending on groupings of subject variables during the validation stage of generated items.

Table 5.1

Participating Institutions

Institution Name	Institution type	Area	Participants
I.E.S. Pedro Jiménez Mont.	Public Secondary	Baza	1
I.E.S. Padre Manjón	Public Secondary	Granada	2
I.E.S. Aynadamar	Public Secondary	Granada	1
I.E.S. Cartuja	Public Secondary	Granada	1
I.E.S. Mariana Pineda	Public Secondary	Granada	1
I.E.S. Padre Suarez	Public Secondary	Granada	2
I.E.S. Villanueva del Mar	Public Secondary	La Herradura	1
I.E.S. Alfaguara	Public Secondary	Loja	2
I.E.S. Montejícar	Public Secondary	Montejícar	1
I.E.S. Beatriz Galindo	Public Secondary	Motril	1
I.E.S. Julio Rodriguez	Public Secondary	Motril	3
I.E.S. Bulyana	Public Secondary	Pulianas	1
I.E.S. Mediterraneo	Public Secondary	Salobreña	1
Colegio Virgen del Espino	Semi-private secondary	Chauchina	2
Colegio Virgen de Gracia	Semi-private secondary	Granada	2
Juan XXIII Zaidín	Semi-private secondary	Granada	3
Colegio San José	Semi-private secondary	Granada	1
Juan XXIII Cartuja	Semi-private secondary	Granada	2
Juan XXIII, La Chana	Semi-private secondary	Granada	3
Ntra Sra de las Mercedes	Semi-private secondary	Granada	1
Colegio Divino Maestro	Semi-private secondary	Granada	1
Colegio Monaita	Private secondary	Granada	1
Granada College	Private secondary	Atarfe	1
Colegio Lux Mundi	Private secondary	Cájar	2
Ciencias Educación	University	Granada	1
Dto. Filología Inglesa	University	Granada	1
Centro Lenguas Modernas	Language school	CLM Granada	2
Escuela Oficial de Idiomas	Language School	Motril	1
Centro de Profesorado	Teaching Centre	CEP Granada	1

All those who had registered were considered to be acceptable as participants, based either on their language teaching experience, their linguistic/language pedagogical academic qualifications, their professional relationship to the field of English language teaching or a combination of the above. One registered participant had not earned a degree, but since the individual in question was an English teacher in *ESO* (first and second year) in a state secondary school and had fifteen years of teaching experience in the subject, the respondent was initially considered acceptable for this study. However, it was also recognised that it would be necessary to monitor answers, particularly from the qualitative responses provided in the questionnaire, both from this teacher and all other participants in order to judge coherence of responses and subject reliability.

In total, forty-three English language teachers or professionals involved in initial or in-service training of English teachers from twenty-nine institutions participated in one or more phases (Table 5.1). The details of the methods and procedures employed, the individuals who participated and results obtained at each stage are presented in the following sections. Since the study takes place during more than one phase, the above-mentioned elements are not detailed as single thematic groups, but instead are described as they emerge.

5.2.2 Instruments and Procedures for Collecting Data

Once the period of recruiting was complete, all participants received a code that would allow them to anonymously answer the questionnaires. Participants also received an explanatory letter of the first round of questions and the accompanying questionnaire, details of which are provided below. Two researchers, who made up

the expert team, designed and processed the data from the questionnaires. This was carried out in consultation with a schools inspector and a member of the English Department at the University of Granada. The aim of the first questionnaire was to obtain the views of participants on a range of general questions (see Corbin & Holt, 2004, p. 51) related to English language teaching in secondary schools. In order to allow participants to provide a variety of answers which could include issues present inside and outside the classroom, the focus of questions was on planning, teacher characteristics, the language department, teaching and learning processes, and results. The questionnaire also contained a final open question in case respondents felt that other areas not covered in previous questions needed to be addressed.

Upon designing the initial questionnaire, two secondary school English teachers whose results were not to form part of the investigation took part in the piloting stage. This included answering the questionnaires on paper and by email. The teachers found no difficulties in responding to the questions or in submitting their responses by email. After piloting and adjusting the format, registered participants received a letter (Appendix XII) and the accompanying questionnaire (Appendix XIII), in which they could give their opinions on what they considered to potentially constitute quality in English teaching and which contributed to teaching, learning and outcomes in secondary education (*ESO* and *Bachillerato*). A translation of the specific questions and descriptions of the areas are presented in Table 5.2. Because of the importance of making it as easy as possible to respond, participants were given the possibility of answering by email or standard post with a self-addressed envelope. However, in order to maximise participation, if individual questionnaires were not returned by email, they were re-sent by standard mail.

Table 5.2

Translated Contents of Qualitative Questionnaire

Item description	Specific question
1. Planning: This refers to any aspect of course and class planning which may contribute to the improvement of academic and non-academic results.	Which aspects related to planning would indicate that quality exists?
2. Teachers: This refers to any aspect related to teachers which contributes to the improvement of academic and non-academic results.	Which aspects related to English teachers would indicate that quality exists?
3. Department: This refers to any aspect related to the department which contributes to the improvement of academia and non-academic results.	Which aspects related to the department would indicate that quality exists?
4. Teaching and learning: This refers to any element, process or strategy employed which contributes to the improvement of academic and non-academic results.	Which elements related to teaching and learning would indicate that quality exists?
5. Results: This refers to the academic and non-academic results achieved by students.	Which academic and non-academic results would indicate that quality exists?
6. Other elements: This refers to any other element which could contribute to the improvement in teaching and learning in this subject.	Which other elements would indicate that quality exists?

5.2.3 Participants in the Qualitative Questionnaire

A total of thirty-five participants completed the first questionnaire, the majority of whom were secondary school language teachers, including fourteen heads of

department. The information provided was complimented by three participants whose professional responsibilities lay in adult ELT, and two participants who were involved in teacher training, one from pre-service teacher training from the University of Granada, and one in-service teacher training from the official teaching centre in Granada (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3

Round I: Participant Characteristics

	Category	**n**	**%**
Gender	Male	17	48,6
	Female	18	51,4
Professional	English teacher (ESO)	14	40,0
Category	English teacher (ESO and Bachillerato)	16	45,7
	English teacher (University)	1	2,9
	English teacher (EOI/CLM)	3	8,6
	Language teacher assessor	1	2,9
Type of	Public secondary	12	34,3
Institution	Semi-private secondary (Concertado)	15	42,9
	Private secondary	3	8,6
	Other institutions	5	14,3
Level of	Diploma	1	2,9
Education	B.A. or equivalent English Philology	21	60,0
	B.A. or equivalent in Translating	2	5,7
	B.A. / B.Sc. or equivalent in other area	3	8,6
	Masters / Suficiencia investigadora in Applied Linguistics or Language Education	3	8,6
	PhD. English Philology / Language Didactics	4	11,4
	PhD. in other area	1	2,9
Total Participants		35	100%

5.2.4 Emerging Major Themes and Minor Categories

Data collection from round I took place during the month of April, 2005. At the end of this stage, the main concern was that only thirty-five of the fifty registered participants had, in fact, completed the questionnaire. This led to a series of decisions regarding the implementation of the second data collection instrument which, it was believed, would enhance levels of participation (discussed below).

The first phase of analysis consisted in transcribing all information onto a database with each set of statements, removing redundant, unintelligible or unrelated information, and employing a process of text reduction in order to make data more manageable (see Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Corbin & Holt, 2004). One of the questionnaires contained answers that were not coherent with the study and these responses did not form part of the recorded data. Subsequently, the respondent was excluded from further stages of data-gathering. The second phase of analysis, which took place with the participation of two researchers, consisted in extracting a taxonomy of major themes and minor categories from the data available by employing open coding, through the labelling of individual texts in more abstract categories; this also entailed the use of axial coding, which consisted in reweaving these items around major emerging themes (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Corbin & Holt, 2004; Patton, 1988). During the phase of axial coding, it appeared that all of the items could be classified in one of four major areas: a) context, b) input, c) process, and d) results (see EQAO, 2005; Scheerens, 1989). These general areas seemed to constitute a useful framework upon which to build the major themes and minor categories, since it had precedents in the establishment of quality indicators and it could accommodate all items without compromising the original data sources. In

establishing the framework, however, it was also considered useful to modify Scheerens' (1989, 2004) framework to the context and data of the study, which, rather than being aimed at whole-school improvement, examined subject-specific areas of influence. The emerging major themes are presented in Figure 5.1, sample reduced texts employed in the minor categories are shown in Table 5.4, and a wider sample of original reduced texts is provided in Appendix XIV.

Figure 5.1

Summary of Major Themes Emerging from Round I

Context

A. Context

- class characteristics
- human resources
- material resources

Inputs

B. Teacher profile

-experience and knowledge
-pre-service and inservice training
-motivation

C. Extra-departmental collaboration

-coordination
-partnerships

Processes

D. Department level

-climate
-communication and teamwork
-planning courses and materials
-teacher / department assessment

E. Classroom level

-structured teaching
-communicative language teaching
-use of resources
-learner-centred teaching
-meaningful learning
-teaching style and approach
-classroom management
-classroom climate
-student motivation and effort

F. Assessment procedures

-validity and reliability of assessment
-feedback

Outputs

G. Measurable academic / communicative outcomes

-school examinations
-external examinations
-benchmarking (compared results)
-ability to communicate

H Non-academic outcomes

-affective domain
-stakeholder satisfaction
-departmental assessment

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Table 5.4

Sample Texts and Minor Categories

Sample reduced texts	Minor category	Nº
menor nº de alumnos	class size	a1
agrupar alumnos adecuadamente	group homogeneity	a2
profesorado idóneo para dar asignatura	specialist teacher	a3
lector	conversation assistant	a4
medios físicos - aula de idiomas	language classroom	a5
medios suficientes: ordenadores, etc	resources	a6
con mucha experiencia docente	experience	b1
nivel de lengua en todas destrezas	proficiency	b2
buena preparación	pre-service training	b3
actitud; motivación	motivation	b4
cursos de perfeccionamiento y especialización	in-service training	b5
oportunidades de usar lengua	language training	b6
habilidades didácticas	teaching ability	b7
involucración en vida del centro	participation in school	b8
alumnado como colaborador	coordination with students	c1
colaboración con equipo directivo y claustro	coordination within school	c2
accesible a padres	parent support	c3
actividades de intercambio	links with partners	c4
ambiente entre miembros departamento	climate for collaboration	d1
frecuencia de sus reuniones	frequency of meetings	d2
objetivos exactos y consensuados	cooperative planning	d3

Table 5.4 (continued)

Sample Texts and Minor Categories

Sample reduced texts	Minor category	Nº
actualización - renovación de materiales	materials selection	d4
adecuar planificación al nivel y situación real	appropriate / contextualised goals	d5
[saber] conocimientos impartidos	learner information to guide planning	d6
[programación] bien hecha; que se cumple	realistic planning	d7
conexión entre niveles	continuity	d8
cuatro destrezas	4 skills	d9
gramática	grammatical competence	d10
vocabulario - hacerles comprender uso	lexical competence	d11
pronunciacion	pronunciation	d12
aspectos culturales	cultural competence	d13
adaptación a distintos niveles	mixed-ability teaching	d14
actividades conjuntas y con alumnado dentro/fuera aula	extra curricular activities	d15
intercalar elementos transversales	cross-curricular themes	d16
prácticas de observación claramente definidas	observation practices	d17
Reuniones periódicas para evaluar objetivos.	formative review	d18
realización de auto-evaluación seria	summative review	d19
bien planificadas	lesson planning	e1
presenta claramente objetivos	articulate learning goals	e2

Table 5.4 (continued)

Sample Texts and Minor Categories

Sample reduced texts	Minor category	Nº
uso comunicativo de lengua; comunicador	language for communication	e3
materiales multimedia	new technologies	e4
una inmersión en lengua y cultura anglófonas	target language use	e5
adecuar ritmo a necesidades / preferencias	learner differences / needs	e6
aprendizaje significativo	meaningful learning	e7
comunicación realista; tareas realistas	meaningful tasks	e8
actividades variadas dentro y fuera del aula	variety activities / materials	e9
se refuerzan contenidos con periodicidad	reinforcement	e10
que se ayuden entre sí	pair-group work	e11
alumnos dirijan su proceso aprendizaje	student autonomy	e12
establecer pautas, libreta limpia y completa, puntuable	clear structures and routines	e13
buen ambiente entre docentes y alumnos	learning environment	e14
participación de alumnos en clase (activa)	learner participation	e15
buen nivel de exigencia	level of demand	e16
buen dominio de clase	orderly atmosphere	e17
variedad en tipos de ejercicio; canciones…	ludic uses of L2	e18
alumnos entienden importancia del inglés	motivation	e19
trabajo personal del alumno	student effort	e20
aprovechar al máximo horas de enseñanza	time on task	e21
paciencia y comprensión; establecer lazos	teacher-student relationship	e22

Table 5.4 (continued)

Sample texts and Minor Categories

Sample reduced texts	Minor category	Nº
versatilidad ante diversidad de situaciones	teacher innovator	e23
control de evolución de cada alumno	formative assessment	f1
coherencia entre clase y exámenes	content validity	f2
[calificaciones] no manipuladas	reliability	f3
trabajo en casa realizado puntualmente	homework	f4
agilidad en corrección de trabajo	feedback	f5
evaluación al final de ciclos de Secundaria	performance *ESO*	g1
Bachillerato de competencia comunicativa	performance *Bachiller*	g2
resultados de exámenes [de selectividad]	high-stakes	g3
indicadores externos (First certificate,etc)	proficiency exams	g4
consecución de objetivos planteados	results in line with objectives	g5
comparación con otras asignaturas / centros	benchmarking	g6
[capaz de comunicarse] con personas de otras culturas	interpersonal communication	g7
atmósfera de motivación e interés	affective domain	h1
deseo de ir a estudiar/vivir en L2 países	attitude towards L2 culture	h2
Indice de satisfacción de padres	parent satisfaction	h3
indice de satisfacción de alumnos	student satisfaction	h4
satisfacción con labor desempeñada	teacher satisfaction	h5
calificación positiva de todo proceso	self-evaluation	h6
evaluación externa	external assessment	h7
comunicación gestual	gestual communication	h8

Apart from removing redundant information and categorising potential items, the construction of minor categories also involved the combining of areas that were or similar or indirectly linked as indicators in order to avoid an overly lengthy set of questions. For example, one indicator not included in the qualitative questionnaire was that of *teacher punctuality*, since we considered that this aspect was indirectly covered by question E21, which referred to making the most of time allocated to the subject.

Furthermore, in addition to researcher triangulation, the emerging minor categories were compared to references made in existing studies in order to obtain an acceptable level of construct validation. During this process this researcher examined documents in which the items were reflected in terms of their presence as concepts in general and in relation to their existence as quality indicators. The references sought in each area referred to general and language education. The bibliographical references originally found in the validation process are presented in Table 5.5. Despite time constraints, it was possible to find bibliographical references for all proposed indicators in one or both of the referenced areas, although there were some items, such as *the existence of a conversation assistant*, which were not immediately detected in specific relation to quality in language instruction. Because of their perceived face validity, such items were included in the final questionnaire. Finally, it is necessary to point out that a number of these indicators, while specific L2 references were not always detected in the process of construct validation, a number were later identified at later stages; such is the case of *benchmarking* as a potential practice in language education literature, for which references were subsequently found in Pachler (2003, p. 9).

Table 5.5

Bibliographical Referencing for Construct Validation

Item	Minor Category	General and/or L2* Specific Education	Quality in General and/or L2* Education
a1	class size	Smith & Glass (1980)	NCES (2001), Eurydice (2001)*
a2	group homogeneity	Naidu *et al.* (1992)*	Keltner (1998)*
a3	specialist teacher	Darling-Hammond (1999)	NCES (2001), Eurydice (2001)*
a4	conversation assistant	Baglione & Licciardi (2005)	Ofsted (2001b)*
a5	language classroom	Louis & Smith (1990), Ur (1999)*	Quality in Education (2002)
a6	resources	Louis & Smith (1990), Ur (1999)*	Keltner (1998)*, TESOL (2002)*
b1	experience	Murnane & Phillips (1981), Tsui (2003)*	
b2	proficiency	Lange (1990)*, Madrid (2004)*	TESOL (2002)*
b3	pre-service training	Roberts (1998)*	European Commission (2001b), Kelly *et al.* (2004)*
b4	motivation	Ames & Ames (1984), Dry (1977)*, Madrid (2004)*	MECD (2001b)
b5	in-service training	Roberts (1998)*	European Commission (2001b); Eurydice (2001)*
b6	language training	Roberts (1998)*; Coleman & Parker (2001)*	Reichert & Wächer (2000)*
b7	teaching ability	Lange (1990)*, Madrid (2004)*	Eurydice (2001)*; TESOL (2002)*

Table 5.5 (continued)

Bibliographical Referencing for Construct Validation

Item	Minor Category	General and/or L2* Specific Education	Quality in General and/or L2* Education
b8	participation in school	INCE (1998)	Eurydice (2004)
c1	coordination with students	Boomer *et al.* (1994), McDevitt (2004)*	Keltner et al (1998)*
c2	coordination within school	Scheerens (2004),	Quailty in Education (2001)
c3	parent support	Scheerens (2004)	European Commission (2001b)
c4	links with partners	Fisher & Evans (2000)*	Reichert & Wächer (2000)*
d1	climate for collaboration	Harris (2001), Burns (1999)*	Keltner (1998)*, TESOL (2002)*
d2	frequency of meetings		NCES (2001)
d3	cooperative planning	Harris (2001), Burns (1999)*	Scheerens (2004), Keltner (1998)*
d4	materials selection	Louis & Smith (1990)*	TESOL (2002)*
d5	appropriate / contextualised goals	Seedhouse (1996)*	TESOL (2002)*
d6	learner information to guide planning	Katz & Chard (1989)	TESOL (2002)*
d7	realistic planning	Brown (2000)*	TESOL (2002)*
d8	continuity	Decreto 148/2002	
d9	4 skills	Eurydice (2001)*	TESOL (2002)*

Table 5.5 (continued)

Bibliographical Referencing for Construct Validation

Item	Minor Category	General and/or L2* Specific Education	Quality in General and/or L2* Education
d10	grammatical competence	Canale & Swain (1980), Eurydice (2001)*	CoE (2001)*
d11	lexical competence	Nation (2001), Harris (2001), CoE (2001)	CoE (2001)*
d12	pronunciation	Pennington (1996)	CoE (2001)*
d13	cultural competence	Hymes (1972)	CoE (2001)*
d14	mixed-ability teaching	Tomlison (2000)	DfEs (2003)*
d15	extra curricular activities	Eurydice (2001)*	Gilman (2001)
d16	cross-curricular themes	Porter & Brophy (1988), CoE (2001)	DfEs (2003)*
d17	observation practices	Bartlett, L. (1990)*	TESOL (2002)*
d18	formative programme review	Thaine (2004)*	Keltner (1998)
d18	formative programme review	Thaine (2004)*	Keltner (1998)
d19	summative review	Elly (1989)*	Keltner (1998)
e1	lesson planning	Rivers (1981)*	DfEs (2003), TESOL (2002)*
e2	articulate learning goals	Fisher *et al.* (1980)	DfEs (2003), TESOL (2002)*

Table 5.5 (continued)

Bibliographical Referencing for Construct Validation

Item	Minor Category	General and/or L2* Specific Education	Quality in General and/or L2* Education
e3	language for communication	Littlewood (1981)*	TESOL (2002)*
e4	new technologies	European Commission (2002)	DfEs (2003), TESOL (2002)*
e5	target language use	Sanderson (1982)*, Eurydice (2001)*, Madrid (2004)*	Ofsted (2001b)*
e6	learner differences / learner needs	Skehan (1989), Seedhouse (1995), Jonson & Jones (1998), Porter & Brophy (1988)	Keltner (1998)*
e7	meaningful learning	Anderson & Ausubel (1965)	Keltner (1998)*
e8	meaningful tasks	CoE (2001) ; (Seedhouse (1997)	Keltner (1998)*
e9	variety activities / materials	European Commission (2001a), CoE (2001)	EQAO (2005)
e10	reinforcement	Scheerens (2004)	Ofsted (2001b)*
e11	pair-group work	Slavin (1990), Ur (1999)* Madrid (2004)*	DfEs (2003), Keltner (1998)*
e12	student autonomy	Little (1991)*	DfEs (2003), TESOL (2002)*
e13	clear structures & routines	Soar & Soar (1979), Tsui (2003)*	DfEs (2003)
e14	classroom learning environment	Fraser & Wallberg (1991), Madrid (2004)*	DfEs (2003), TESOL (2002)*
e15	learner participation	Nunan (1989)*, Madrid (1999)*	NCES (2001)

Table 5.5 (continued)

Bibliographical Referencing for Construct Validation

Item	Minor Category	General and/or L2* Specific Education	Quality in General and/or L2* Education
e16	level of demand	Rutter (2000)	DfEs (2003), TESOL (2002)*
e17	orderly atmosphere	Wadden & McGovern (1991)*, Madrid (2004)*	DfEs (2003)*
e18	ludic uses of L2	CoE (2001)*, Madrid (1999).	DfEs (2003)*
e19	motivation	Brown (2000)*, Williams & Burden (2000)*, Madrid (1999)*	DfEs (2003)*
e20	student effort	Tremblay & Gardner (1995)*, Madrid (1999)	DfEs (2003)*
e21	time on task	Richards (1990) *, Madrid (1999)*	DfEs (2003)*
e22	teacher-student relationship	Milrood (2001)*	DfEs (2003)*
e23	teacher innovator	Brown (1994)*	
f1	formative assessment	Brown (2004)*	Scheerens (2004), TESOL (2002)*
f2	content validity	Brown (2004)*	TESOL (2002)*
f3	reliability	Brown (2004)*	TESOL (2002)*
f4	homework	North & Pillay (2002)*	TESOL (2002)*
f5	feedback	Richards (1990)*	TESOL (2002)*
g1	school performance	Brown (2004)*	Ofsted (2001b)* [Equivalent]
g2	school performance	Brown (2004)*	Ofsted (2001b)* [Equivalent]

Table 5.5 (continued)

Bibliographical Referencing for Construct Validation

Item	Minor Category	General and/or L2* Specific Education	Quality in General and/or L2* Education
g3	High-stakes	Romero (2001)*	Alderson (2004)
g4	proficiency exams	Brown (2004)*	European Commission (2001b), EQAO (2005)
g5	results in line with objectives	Brown (2004)*	Keltner (1998)*
g6	benchmarking		Scheerens (2004)
g7	interpersonal communication	Trim (1999)*	CoE (2001)*
h1	affective domain	Fraser & Wallberg (1991), Arnold (1999)*, Madrid (1999)*	Roberts & Clifton (1991)
h2	attitude towards L2 culture	Prodromou (1992)*, Madrid (1999)*	TESOL (2002)*
h3	parent satisfaction	Vroeijenstijn (1992)	Quality in Education (2002)
h4	student satisfaction	Vroeijenstijn (1992), White (1998)*	Quality in Education (2002)
h5	teacher satisfaction	CoE (2001)*	Scheerens (2004)
h6	self-evaluation	Alderson & Beretta (1992)*, Thaine (2004)*	Scheerens (2004)
h7	external assessment	Alderson & Beretta (1992)*	Scheerens (2004)
h8	non-verbal communication	CoE (2001)*	Nunan (2002)*

5.3 Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

5.3.1 Instruments and Data Collection Procedures

The intended purpose of the second questionnaire was to measure the degree of acceptability among participants of the identified and categorised items arising from the phase of text analysis, construct validation and item coding. A frequently employed measurement system used to quantify perceptions is the Likert scale, which divides responses into categories of diverse numbers. While there appears to be no ideal number of response categories within this type of scale, it is accepted that five to seven categories is most appropriate (Domino & Domino, 2002, p. 132). The five-point Lickert scale is not without precedents, and has, indeed, been employed in perceived measures questionnaires in performance management and in education in order to obtain quality indicators or descriptors. Delaney and Huselid (1996), for example, use this scale to measure perceptions of organisational performance, while Kelly *et al.* (2004) employ the same scale in their construction of standards in their initial language teacher training profile. This scale, therefore, appeared to be useful to validate the items arising from the qualitative part of the study. For this reason, in the second questionnaire each item was to be measured using a Lickert scale from 1 (it is not a good indicator of quality) to 5 (it is a good indicator of quality).

The actual itemisation and design for this second questionnaire took place with two researchers in a single face-to-face session and subsequent revisions via phone and email. This occurred in conjunction with a consultancy session between one of the researchers and a member of the school inspectorate at the local education headquarters (*Delegación Provincial de Educación*). Two teachers who did not participate in the study completed the piloting stage of the questionnaire using both

the paper format and email responses and found no difficulties in answering. A translation of the items included in the final revised and piloted version of the questionnaire is presented in Figure 5.2 and the untranslated questionnaire is provided in Appendix XV.

Given the fact that there was a lower level of participation in the first questionnaire than expected, there was a concern that that not enough participants would partake in order to be able to feasibly carry out all the statistical procedures that were originally intended. Consequently, it was seen necessary to make changes that would enhance participation levels in the second questionnaire. Among these decisions, the most important was to reduce the number of questionnaires from three to two. This meant that it would not be possible for us to prioritise indicators, and that it would pose certain challenges to item validation. However, this was considered to be a necessary step in order to guarantee at least sufficient levels of participation in the second questionnaire.

In addition to this measure, as well as receiving the questionnaire with an accompanying letter containing instructions (Appendix XVI), participants were also contacted by phone or email. Furthermore, during the construction of the first questionnaire, those piloting the electronic version encountered no problems with the hyperlink established for the purpose of responding; in spite of this, a small number of participants who had intended to respond by email did experience problems during the first phase. Therefore, in the second questionnaire, participants were asked to answer using standard mail.

Figure 5.2

Translated Items from Round II Questionnaire

A. Context		
A1. Teacher-student ratio in the class A2. Group homogeneity	A3. Existence of specialist subject teachers A4. Existence of conversation assistants (lectores)	A5. Existence of adequate installations (language classroom, computer equipment, etc.) A6. Existence of material resources (audio-visual material, etc.)
B. Teachers		
B1. Teaching experience B2. Mastery of English in all skills B3. Accreditable level of pedagogical training (academic certification)	B4. Motivation as a teacher B5. Continuous methodological training (in courses, seminars, work groups, etc.)	B6. Continuous training in the language (e.g. contact with English speaking countries, etc.) B7. Pedagogical skill for English teaching B8. Participation in the life of the school
C. Collaboration with other sectors		
C1. Student freedom to participate in the development of teaching and learning English	C2. Relationship between the English teacher and other organisational structures within the school (linked departments, management team, etc.)	C3. Collaboration with parents in the learning process C4. Collaboration with schools abroad (exchanges, correspondence, etc.)
D. Department		
D1. Positive communicative climate between members of the department D2. Frequency of meetings D3. Cooperative planning of the curriculum (objectives, contents, methods, assessment criteria, etc.) D4. The quality of selected and prepared materials D5. Use of information obtained from students to guide planning D6. Appropriate / contextualised objectives (taking into account student level, educational stage, etc.)	D7. Realistic planning (it reflects what is done in class) D8. Continuity between years and [academic] cycles D9. Planning for learning in the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) D10. Planning for learning in grammatical competence D11. Planning for learning in lexical competence D12. Planning for learning in pronunciation D13. Planning for learning in cultural competence D14. Plans for catering for diversity D15. Organisation of extracurricular activities	D16. Interdisciplinarity and integration of transversal themes D17. Practices which favour the participation of external observers in the classroom D18. [Self-]evaluation from the department in the learning process throughout the academic year. D19. [Self-]evaluation from the department of the learning process at the end of the academic year

Figure 5.2 (continued)

Translated Items from Round II Questionnaire

E. In the classroom		
E1. Planning of classes E2. Communication of objectives to students E3. Presence of the communicative approach in English language teaching E4. Use of new information and communication technologies E5. Predominant use of the English language in the classroom E6. Attention to individual differences and needs of students E7. Meaningful learning (relating existing knowledge with new knowledge E8. Use of realistic and relevant tasks	E9. Use of diverse materials apart from the textbook in the teaching process E10. Systematic revision of contents E11. Cooperative work in pairs / small groups E12. Autonomous work of the students E13. Specific resources (established routines) to enhance the teaching process: book consultation, formation of teams for work, etc.). E14. Socio-affective climate in class E15. Participation in the activities by students	E16. Level of demand on students E17. Order and discipline in class E18. Ludic use of the language (games, songs, stories, etc.) E19. Level of student interest and motivation E20. Level of student effort E21. Use of time assigned to the subject E22. Communicative teacher-student relationship E23. Teacher versatility to adapt work in the classroom [in the face of] unforeseen needs
F. Assessment		
F1. Formative assessment of student progress F2. Content validity of assessment instruments (examinations based on objectives and class explanations)	F3. Reliability of assessments (the test, correction and score assignation are reliable)	F4. Control of homework F5. Systematic feedback provided to students
G. Academic results / Communicative competence		
G1. Results obtained in ESO G2. Results obtained in Bachillerato G3. Results obtained in	G4. Results obtained in external examinations (Escuela Oficial de Idiomas, Cambridge, Trinity, etc.) G5. Matching between results and objectives set by teachers	G6. The comparison of results with other schools or with subjects in the same school G7.Student ability to use English in real communication situations
H. Non-academic results		
H1. Influence of the English class on the affective domain of students (motivation, self-esteem, confidence) H2. Student attitude towards the foreign culture	H3. Level of satisfaction of parents H4. Level of satisfaction of students H5. Level of satisfaction of teachers H6. Results obtained in self-evaluation carried out by the department	H7. Results obtained through an external evaluation H8. Ability to communicate non-verbally (gestual competence)

5.3.2   *Participants in the Quantitative Questionnaire*

A total of thirty-nine teachers or teacher trainers answered the second questionnaire, fourteen of whom were heads of department (Table 5.6). The majority of participants (*n*= 31) had also completed the first questionnaire.

Table 5.6

Round II: Participant Characteristics

	Category	*n*	*%*
Gender	Male	17	43,6
	Female	22	56,4
Professional Category	English teacher (ESO)	14	35,9
	English teacher (ESO and Bachillerato)	20	51,3
	English teacher (University)	2	5,1
	English teacher (EOI/CLM)	2	5,1
	Language teacher assessor	1	2,6
Type of Institution	Public secondary	15	38,5
	Semi-private secondary (Concertado)	15	38,5
	Private secondary	4	10,3
	Other institutions	5	12,8
Level of Education	Diploma	1	2,6
	B.A. or equivalent English Philology	25	64,1
	B.A. or equivalent in Translating	2	5,1
	B.A. / B.Sc. or equivalent in other area	2	5,1
	Masters / Suficiencia investigadora in Applied Linguistics or Language Education	3	7,7
	PhD. English Philology / Language Didactics	5	12,8
	PhD. in other area	1	2,6
Total Participants		39	100%

The data from the questionnaires received was introduced to a database using the statistics package SPSS 11 and checked this against the original questionnaires

with a member of the department of English Philology who did not form part of the study.

5.3.3 Statistical Procedures

The analysis of the results consisted in the completion of a series of statistical operations using the SPSS statistics package. Following Kelly *et al*. (2004), this involved the calculation of the mean score and standard deviation, using the benchmarks of a mean score of 4 or more as a positive indicator of acceptance among participants, and a standard deviation of less than 1 as a basic indicator of group homogeneity. The outcome of these calculations is discussed in the results section below.

It was considered important to further ascertain whether or not the participants in the study formed a homogeneous group. The next stage of analysis, therefore, consisted in carrying out a series of statistical tests in order to examine individual and group variability. Following the criteria employed by Kelly *et al.* (2004), this initially involved omitting those items that did not fulfil the two cut-off criteria of mean score and standard deviation in some of the analyses since the participants' responses appeared to have higher levels of variability. However, these removed items were further examined in this study in order to see if the variability was due to grouping factors.

The process of analysing variance between participants involved the calculation of the global mean scores of participants, which made it possible to perform a T-Test on the variables of gender and age as well as an ANOVA on the type of institution (Appendices XVII to XXII). From these operations, no statistically

significant differences arose. It appeared, then, that it was possible to have a certain degree of confidence that the variables of gender, age or type of institution did not affect the outcomes of the study.

The next stage of analysis involved examining those items that had not fulfilled the cut-off criterion for standard deviation (A1, A2, A4, A5, B8, C1, C3, G3 and H2). Although there were no significant differences arising from the analyses of gender or age, there was one difference in type of institution in item C1 (discussed below).

In order to examine homogeneity between responses from individual participants, it appeared useful to employ a multidimensional scaling technique (Kruskal & Wish, 1979). This technique involves the visualisation of data and consists in constructing a map of the variables under study (Fig. 5.3). The goodness of fit of these maps is determined by a value named Stress, which indicates that the goodness of fit measures are better the closer they are to zero. The measurement of Stress consisted in employing a two-dimensional and three-dimensional model using Young's S-stress formula (Appendix XXIII). In the three dimensional model, Stress was found to be almost perfect (S= 0.05447), while in the two-dimensional model it was found to be very good (Stress= 0.09277). In the case of these analyses, the goodness of fit is close to 0, which appears to indicate that the maps obtained reproduce the scores given on the variables of case.

For the most part there were high degrees of homogeneity within participants' responses, however, as can be observed, particularly in the case of the three-dimensional model, the subject who in recoding was labelled "Variable 8", clearly stood out from the rest.

Figure 5.3

Multidimensional Scaling Maps for Participant Variability in Round II

Derived Stimulus Configuration
Euclidean Distance Model
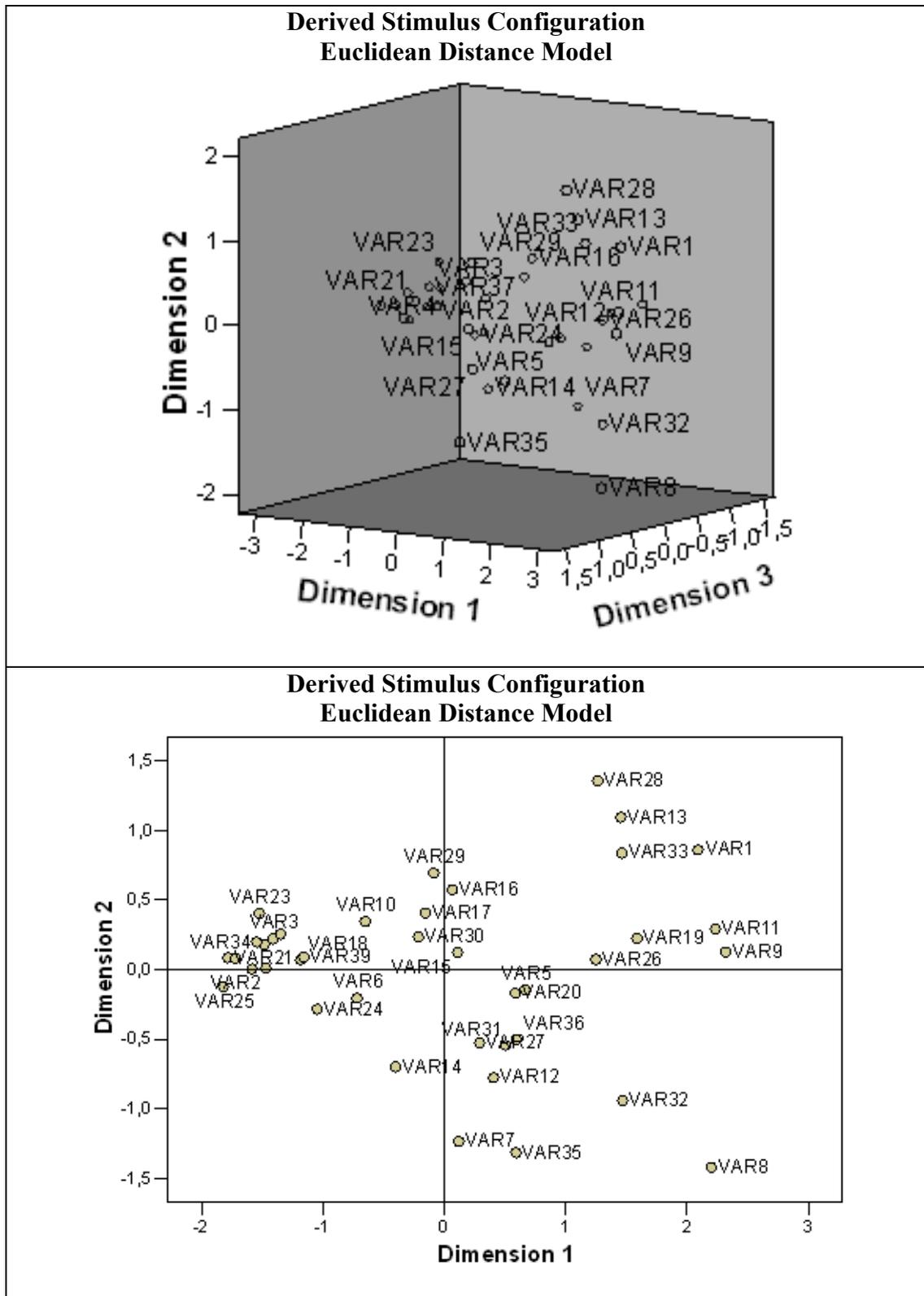
In order to ascertain whether or not the responses from this participant affected the overall outcomes, the mean scores and standard deviations were calculated both with and without this participant (Appendix XXIV). Three further items, C3, D15 and H2, would have fulfilled the cut-off criteria had this participant been excluded (discussed below).

The next stage of analysis involved establishing whether or not the sub-items that made up the major areas were concordant, in other words, to verify whether or not they could be said to refer to the same major area within each of the sections A-H. In order to qualify as valid, the correlation between items in each major area is normally in the region of 0.6-0.8 using the Cronbach α coefficient (Table 5.7). From this information, one of the areas (C. Input: Partnerships) appeared to be less reliable.

Table 5.7

Cronbach α Coefficient for Sections A-H

Section	Nº of elements	Cronbach α
A	6	0.800
B	8	0.745
C	4	0.539
D	19	0.926
E	23	0.925
F	5	0.834
G	7	0.834
H	8	0.863

This stage also entailed checking the data to ensure that there were no α ratings close to 1, which would have indicated redundant or repeated items. This does not appear to be the case here. Furthermore, since the α coefficient can be artificially inflated when there are a large number of elements within a group (as is the case in sections D and E), it was necessary to complete the study of internal reliability with a Multi-dimensional Scaling analysis (MDS) with the objective of searching for groupings within the major areas.

Figure 5.4

Groupings Extracted Multidimensional Scaling Map for Departmental Processes
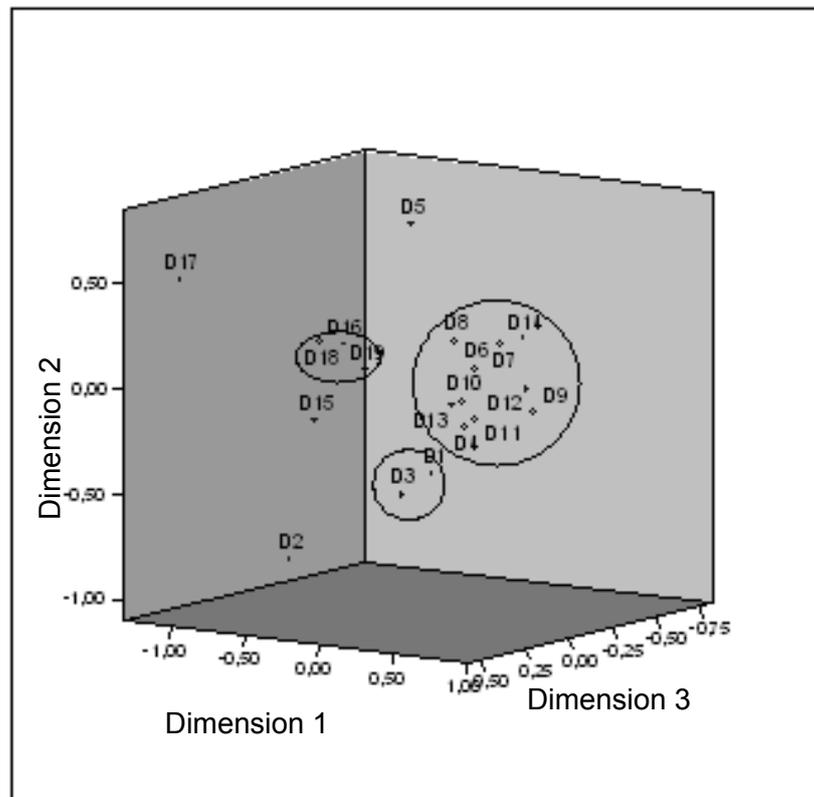
Note: Outlined areas are provided by the researcher

In the analyses of section D (Fig. 5.4) it appeared that from the items fulfilling cut-off criteria of standard deviation and mean score, three groups shared high levels of consistency. The first of these groups was made up of items D18 and D19 and referred to departmental assessment. For the remainder of items which fulfilled cut-off criteria there were two other areas of consistency: (D1, D3), which referred to environment and collaboration, and (D4, D6, D7, D8, D9, D10, D11, D12, D13 and D14) which referred to departmental organisation and planning.

From the analysis of section E and of the items that had fulfilled cut-off criteria, it appeared possible to find three separate groups:

1. E4 and E12, which referred to autonomous learning and ICT's;

2. E3 and E5 which referred to the presence of English for communicative purposes;

3. E2, E7, E8, E9, E15, E17, E18, E19, E20, E21, E22 and E23, which appeared to refer to general classroom management.

Within this last group, a number of items shared relatively high levels of consistency; these referred to order and discipline (E16, E17, E23), tasks (E7, E8, E9) and affective factors (E2, E6, E14, E15, E18, E19, E22). Included in the latter of these groups, certain items appeared to represent enabling factors that could enhance the affective domain, such as the communication of objectives (E2), and the communicative teacher-student relationship (E22), whereas others reflected more resultative factors, including levels of student participation (E15), interest and motivation (E19), and effort (E20).

Figure 5.5

Groupings Extracted from Multidimensional Scaling Map for Classroom Processes
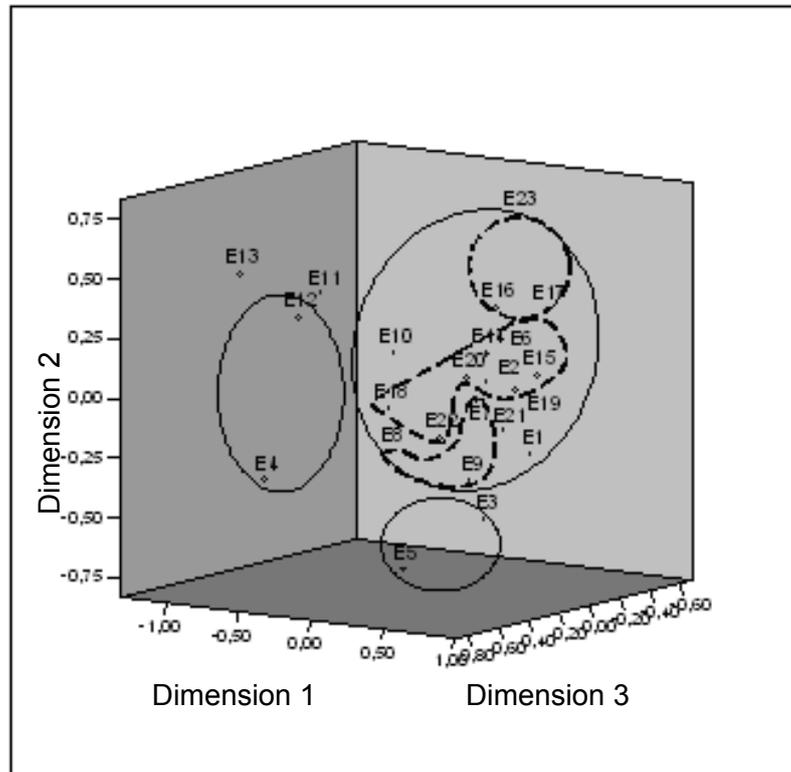
Note: Outlined areas are provided by the researcher

Alternative groupings were also possible; for example, within the largest group shown in Figure 5.5, there were areas could be more closely associated with teacher-led actions, and others that could b judged to be shared with students. Those items that could be attributed as being partially student-dependent (E14, E15, E19, E20, E21, E22) shared relatively high levels of consistency in the MDS analysis (Table 5.8).

Despite the fact that there are various possibilities for grouping items and while there are a number of limitations to the post-hoc grouping procedure employed, it is possible that the above selection could be useful in helping to organise the indicators

into more coherent areas which appeared to share relatively high levels of internal consistency as well as an acceptable degree of external or face validity.

Table 5.8

Possible Teacher-Dependent and Student-Dependent Variables

Possible areas	E 1	E 2	E 6	E 7	E 8	E 9	E 10	E 14	E 15	E 16	E 17	E 18	E 19	E 20	E 21	E 22	E 23
Teacher-dependent	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	·	·	■	■	■	·	·	·	·	■
Student-dependent								·	·				·	·	·	·	

Note. ■ Perceived as having high levels of dependence; · Perceived as having shared levels of dependence

5.4 Quantitative Results

From the calculations made on mean score and standard deviation, and from the analyses of variance and internal reliability, it is possible to determine which major categories and items could initially constitute quality indicators. The results for each category are presented below.

5.4.1 Context

For the area of context, there are two indicators that fulfil the standard deviation and mean score cut-off criteria and that share internal consistency (Table 5.9). Results indicate that the existence of appropriate material resources is important (A6), more so than the existence of appropriate installations. The perceived importance of existence of specialist teachers, however, is considered to be greater

than all of the other items (4.72). In contrast, group homogeneity (3.54) is given a relatively lower score than other items, and teacher-pupil ratio appears more important (4.00).

Table 5.9

Results for Context

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
A1. Ratio profesorado-alumnado en clase	39	1	5	4.00	1.277
A2. Homogeneidad de los grupos	39	1	5	3.54	1.047
A3. Existencia de profesorado especialista en la materia	39	3	5	**4.72**	**.510**
A4. Existencia de auxiliares de conversación (lectores)	37	1	5	3.81	1.101
A5. Existencia de instalaciones adecuadas (aula de idiomas, equipos informáticos, etc.)	39	1	5	4.00	1.192
A6. Existencia de recursos materiales adecuados (materiales audiovisuales, etc.)	38	2	5	**4.29**	**.956**

5.4.2 Input

With regards to input factors included in section B, seven items fulfilled cut-off criteria and had high levels of internal consistency (Table 5.10). The items receiving the highest scores were teacher motivation (4.77), pedagogical skill for teaching English (4.71), and mastery of English in all skills (4.62). In contrast to other previously mentioned studies, levels of teacher accreditation were attributed with marginally lower scores than teacher experience (4.05 vs. 4.23).

Table 5.10

Results for Input

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
B1. Experiencia docente	39	2	5	**4.23**	**.810**
B2. Dominio del inglés en todas las destrezas	39	3	5	**4.62**	**.590**
B3. Nivel de formación pedagógica acreditable (expediente académico)	39	2	5	**4.05**	**.793**
B4. Motivación como docente	39	3	5	**4.77**	**.536**
B5. Formación continua metodológica (en cursos, jornadas, grupos de trabajo, etc.)	39	1	5	**4.21**	**.894**
B6. Formación continua en el idioma (por ejemplo: contacto con países de habla inglesa, etc.)	39	2	5	**4.41**	**.785**
B7. Habilidad pedagógica para la enseñanza del inglés	38	3	5	**4.71**	**.611**
B8. Participación en la vida del centro	39	1	5	3.77	1.135
C1. Libertad del alumnado de participar en el desarrollo de enseñanza y aprendizaje de inglés	38	1	5	3.50	1.007
C2. Relación del profesor de inglés con las estructuras organizativas del centro (departamentos afines, equipo directivo, etc.)	39	2	5	3.64	.873
C3. Colaboración con los padres en el proceso educativo	39	1	5	4.08	1.010
C4. Colaboración con centros en el extranjero (intercambios, correspondencia, etc.)	38	2	5	**4.08**	**.749**

In section C, only one item fulfilled the cut-off criteria (C4, collaboration with centres abroad). Low levels of internal consistency were detected in this group of items, which may have been due to the fact that the section was made up of only four items. For this reason, another internal reliability test was conducted, whereby all input factors were grouped together (sections B and C) employing a total of twelve items. The resulting *alpha* score of 0.762 indicated that there were higher levels of internal consistency when the groups were combined.

5.4.3 Process: Department Level

Employing the same cut-off criteria, we found a total of fourteen items (Table 5.11). The highest scoring item in this section was that of planning of learning of the four skills, with a mean score of 4.67. Another indicator that would have been included, had we removed the outlying participant, "Variable 8", is that of D15 Organisation of extracurricular activities.

By examining the areas which had fulfilled established cut-off criteria and with the previously conducted Multidimensional Scaling analyses, we subsequently organised into groups of departmental processes which appeared to share similar characteristics (Fig. 5.6). An important area here was seen in the high scores attributed to areas related to collaborative environments (D1 and D3). Similarly, high scores were ascribed to elements associated with planning, both in general terms (D4, D6, D7, D8, D14) and as language specific concerns (D9, D10, D11, D12, D13). Finally, two items related to departmental self-evaluation also received high scores (D18, D19).

Table 5.11

Results for Department Processes

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
D1. Clima positivo de comunicación entre los miembros del departamento	39	2	5	**4.31**	**.766**
D2. Frecuencia de las reuniones	39	1	5	3.49	.914
D3. Planificación cooperativa del currículo (objetivos, contenidos, métodos, criterios de evaluación, etc.)	39	2	5	**4.28**	**.857**
D4. La calidad de los materiales seleccionados y preparados	39	3	5	**4.38**	**.633**
D5. Uso de información obtenida de los alumnos para guiar la planificación	39	2	5	3.90	.882
D6. Objetivos apropiados / contextualizados (tener en cuenta nivel de alumnado, etapa educativa, etc.)	39	3	5	**4.49**	**.601**
D7. Realismo de la planificación (refleja lo que se hace en clase)	39	3	5	**4.44**	**.641**
D8. Continuidad entre cursos y ciclos	38	3	5	**4.29**	**.732**
D9. Planificación del aprendizaje de las cuatro destrezas (listening, speaking, reading, writing)	39	3	5	**4.67**	**.530**
D10. Planificación del aprendizaje de la competencia gramatical	39	3	5	**4.31**	**.694**
D11. Planificación del aprendizaje de la competencia léxica	39	3	5	**4.41**	**.637**
D12. Planificación del aprendizaje de la pronunciación	39	3	5	**4.38**	**.673**
D13. Planificación del aprendizaje de la competencia cultural	39	2	5	**4.10**	**.821**

Table 5.11 (continued)

Results for Department Processes

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
D14. Planes de atención a la diversidad	39	1	5	**4.13**	**.978**
D15. Organización de actividades extracurriculares	38	2	5	3.95	.804
D16. Interdisciplinariedad e integración de temas transversales	37	1	5	3.51	.901
D17. Prácticas que favorezcan la participación de observadores externos en el aula	38	1	5	3.47	.979
D18. Evaluación desde el departamento del proceso educativo a lo largo del curso	39	2	5	**4.15**	**.933**
D19. Evaluación desde el departamento del proceso educativo al final del curso	39	2	5	**4.21**	**.864**

It is possible to see some slight discrepancies or contradictions within the data gathered. For example, in contrast to the high scores attributed to planning (D3=4.28), the frequency of meetings in which such planning would theoretically occur appears to have been regarded as less important by participants (D2=3.49). Similarly, while there is an apparent approval of departmental self-evaluation (D18=4.15; D19=4.21), there seems to be a lesser degree of acceptance of the implementation of external classroom observation (D17=3.47). Finally, while a large number of officially endorsed items receive high scores, a lower score is given to the implementation of cross-curricular themes (D16=3.51), an element which is prevalent in current legislation.

Figure 5.6

Subgroupings for Department Processes

Department processes

1. Environment and collaboration

D1. Positive communicative climate between department members

D3. Cooperative curriculum planning (objectives, contents, methods, assessment criteria, etc.)

2. Organisation and planning

D4. Quality of selected and prepared materials

D6. Appropriate / contextualised objectives (take into account student level, educational stage, etc.)

D7. Realism in planning (it reflects what is done in class)

D8. Continuity between years and cycles [curricular continuity]

D9. Planning of learning of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing)

D10. Planning for learning of grammatical competence

D11. Planning for learning of lexical competence

D12. Planning for learning of pronunciation

D13. Planning of learning for cultural competence

D14. Plans to attend diversity [mixed ability teaching]

3. Departmental self-evaluation

D18. Assessment from the department of the educational process throughout the academic year

D19. Assessment from the department of the educational process at the end of the academic year

5.4.4 Process: Classroom Level

After applying cut-off criteria, we found a total of twenty-one accepted items (Table 5.12). The highest mean scores were obtained for lesson planning (E1=4.93), which was also the highest scoring item in the questionnaire, and student participation in activities (E15=4.54).

As in section D, based on the MSD analyses and areas which appeared to share similar characteristics, we subsequently organised accepted items into three groups (Fig. 5.7). The first case, which referred to classroom management, was in turn divided into four sub-groups, where it appeared that general organisation (E1, E10, E12) and order and discipline (E16, E17, E23) represented two related areas. Linked to these were affective factors (E2, E6, E14, E15, E18, E19, E20, E22) and tasks and learning (E7, E8, E9), which in conjunction with the previous two areas appeared to constitute major areas on affect, cognition and general organisation strategies which had been previously examined in the review of the literature. The remaining two groups, which were related to autonomous learning and use of ICTs (E4, E12) and the use of English for communicative purposes (E3, E5), while potentially relevant to classroom management, appeared to be share more specific characteristics.

While these groupings have been suggested, it is possible to consider other possible combinations of related items. For example, as in section D, it may be possible to categorise items in terms of behaviours which depend mainly on the teacher (E1, E2, E3, E4, E6, E7, E8, E9, E10, E12, E16, E18, E23), or on the student (E12, E15, E19, E20), and those which depend more on both (E5, E14, E17, E21, E22).

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Table 5.12

Results for Classroom Processes

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
E1. Planificación de las clases	39	4	5	**4,62**	**,493**
E2. Comunicación de objetivos al alumnado	38	3	5	**4,29**	**,732**
E3. Presencia del enfoque comunicativo en la enseñanza de inglés	39	2	5	**4,38**	**,747**
E4. Uso de nuevas tecnologías de información y comunicación	39	3	5	**4,03**	**,743**
E5. Uso predominante de la lengua inglesa en clase	39	2	5	**4,44**	**,788**
E6. Atención a las diferencias individuales y necesidades del alumnado	39	3	5	**4,38**	**,711**
E7. Aprendizaje significativo (relacionar conocimientos existentes y conocimientos nuevos)	39	3	5	**4,46**	**,643**
E8. Uso de tareas realistas y relevantes	39	2	5	**4,18**	**,790**
E9. Uso de diversos materiales además del libro de texto en el proceso didáctico	39	3	5	**4,36**	**,668**
E10. Repaso sistemático de contenidos	39	2	5	**4,03**	**,903**
E11. Trabajo cooperativo en parejas / grupos pequeños	39	2	5	3,92	,774
E12. Trabajo autónomo del alumnado	39	2	5	**4,00**	**,761**
E13. Recursos específicos (rutinas establecidas) para favorecer el proceso didáctico: consulta de libros, formación de equipos de trabajo, etc.).	38	2	5	3,68	,809
E14. Clima socio-afectivo en clase	39	3	5	**4,41**	**,715**
E15. Participación en las actividades por parte del alumnado	39	3	5	**4,54**	**,720**

Table 5.12 (continued)

Results for Classroom Processes

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
E16. Nivel de exigencia sobre el alumnado	39	3	5	**4,28**	**,793**
E17. Orden y disciplina en clase	39	2	5	**4,23**	**,986**
E18. Uso lúdico del idioma (juegos, canciones, cuentos, etc.)	39	2	5	**4,15**	**,844**
E19. Nivel de interés y motivación del alumnado	39	2	5	**4,41**	**,910**
E20. Nivel de esfuerzo del alumnado	39	2	5	**4,31**	**,950**
E21. Aprovechamiento del tiempo asignado a la asignatura	38	3	5	**4,42**	**,758**
E22. Relación comunicativa entre profesor/a – alumnado	38	3	5	**4,47**	**,687**
E23. Versatilidad del profesorado para adaptar trabajo del aula a necesidades imprevistas	39	3	5	**4,38**	**,711**

In section E, one item which did not fulfil the criteria for mean score referred to cooperative pair or group work (E11), which is generally associated with foreign language instruction, although the score did come close to the cut-off level (mean=3.92). A lesser score was attributed to the concern more readily related to general education, which referred to the established classroom routines to facilitate the teaching and learning process, with a score of 3.68. In general, the overall mean score for the sum of this group of items, both accepted and rejected, was relatively high (4.28), and was marginally surpassed only by groups B, which referred to teacher input factors, with a mean score of 4.35, and F, which referred to assessment processes and which received a score of 4.30.

Figure 5.7

Subgroupings for Classroom Processes

Classroom processes

1. Classroom management

a) General organisation

E1. Lesson planning

E10. Systematic revision of contents

E21. Use of the time assigned to the subject

b) Order and discipline

E16. Level of demand on students

E17. Order and discipline in class

E23. Teacher versatility to adapt class work to unforeseen needs

c) Affective factors

E2. Communication of objectives to students

E6. Attention to individual student differences and needs

E14. Socio-affective climate in class

E15. Student participation in activities

E18. Ludic use of the language (games, songs, stories, etc.)

E19. Level of student interest and motivation

E20. Level of student effort

E22. Communicative teacher-student relationship

d) Tasks and learning

E7. Meaningful learning (relate existing knowledge with new knowledge)

E8. Use of realistic and relevant tasks

E9. Use of diverse materials apart from the textbook in the teaching process

2. Autonomous learning and ICT's

E4. Use of new information and communication technologies

E12. Autonomous work of students

3. Presence of English for communication

E3. Presence of the communicative approach in English teaching

E5. Predominant use of the English language in class

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5.4.5 Process: Assessment

For the area of Process: Assessment, all five indicators fulfilled the standard deviation and mean score cut-off criteria and showed internal consistency (Table 5.13). Although the content validity of assessment did obtain a relatively high score (F2=4.49), no single item could be shown to have a much higher score than the rest and importance was similarly attributed to the monitoring of student progress and homework (F1=4.28; F4=4.18), assessment reliability (F3=4.33) and feedback (F5=4.23).

Table 5.13

Results for Assessment Processes

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
F1. Seguimiento del progreso del alumnado (evaluación formativa)	39	3	5	**4,28**	**,724**
F2. Validez de contenido de las pruebas de evaluación (exámenes basados en objetivos y en explicaciones de clase)	39	3	5	**4,49**	**,644**
F3. Fiabilidad de la evaluación (la prueba, corrección y asignación de notas es fiable)	39	3	5	**4,33**	**,737**
F4. Control de trabajos de casa	39	2	5	**4,18**	**,756**
F5. Retroalimentación (feedback) sistemático proporcionado al alumnado	39	2	5	**4,23**	**,810**

5.4.6 Outcomes: Academic and Communicative Results

In terms of academic and communicative outcomes, only three of the seven indicators fulfilled the standard deviation and mean score cut-off criteria and showed

internal consistency (Table 5.14). The highest scoring item was referred to student ability to use English in real communication situations (G7=4.39). This item received the highest score of both sets of outcomes (sections G and H). At the same time, it appeared that lesser degrees of importance were placed on school assessments in *ESO* and *Bachillerato* (G1=3.54; G2= 3.97) and on the pre-university high-stakes examination, *Selectividad* (G3=3.84). The practice of benchmarking results did not appear to be considered as appropriate as other forms of performance control (G6=3.43)

Table 5.14

Results for Academic and Communicative Outcomes

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
G1. Resultados obtenidos en ESO	39	1	5	3,54	,913
G2. Resultados obtenidos en Bachillerato	38	2	5	3,97	,822
G3. Resultados obtenidos en Selectividad	38	1	5	3,84	1,001
G4. Resultados obtenidos en exámenes externos (Escuela Oficial de Idiomas, Cambridge, Trinity, etc.)	37	3	5	**4,03**	**,799**
G5. Coincidencia de los resultados con los objetivos fijados por el profesorado	39	3	5	**4,18**	**,683**
G6. La comparación de resultados con otros centros o con asignaturas dentro del mismo centro	37	1	5	3,43	,801
G7. Capacidad del alumnado de utilizar el inglés en situaciones reales de comunicación	38	2	5	**4,39**	**,855**

Because of the importance assigned to the officially established areas of assessment, we considered it necessary to carry out an analysis of mean scores and standard deviations according to the professional area of teachers, creating three groups: teachers of *ESO*, teachers of *ESO* and *Bachillerato*, and others. The results revealed that item G2, student results in *Bachillerato* were considered more important for secondary school teachers than professionals working at other levels. However, item G1, which measured the perceived importance of school assessment in *ESO*, and item G3, which measured the perceived importance of *Selectividad*, remained below the cut-off levels (Table 5.15). Thus, there appeared to be higher levels of acceptance of external communicative based examinations (G4) than both external high-stakes tests (G3) and internally set assessments (G1, G2).

Table 5.15

Perceived Importance of Outcomes by Professional Area

Professional area		G1	G2	G3
Teacher of ESO	Mean	3,71	4,08	3,85
	N	14	13	13
	S.D.	,726	,760	,899
Teacher of ESO and Bachillerato	Mean	3,50	4,00	3,95
	N	20	20	20
	S.D.	1,100	,858	,945
Other	Mean	3,20	3,60	3,40
	N	5	5	5
	S.D.	,447	,894	1,517
Total	Mean	3,54	3,97	3,84
	N	39	38	38
	S.D.	,913	,822	1,001

5.4.7 Outcomes: Non-Academic Results

In terms of non-academic outcomes, four of the eight indicators fulfilled the standard deviation and mean score cut-off criteria and showed internal consistency (H1, H4, H5, H6).

Table 5.16

Results for Non-Academic Outcomes

Item	*n*	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
H1. Influencia de la clase de inglés sobre el dominio afectivo del alumnado (motivación, autoestima, confianza)	36	2	5	**4,19**	**,951**
H2. Actitud del alumnado hacia la cultura extranjera	39	1	5	4,08	1,010
H3. Nivel de satisfacción de padres/madres	39	2	5	3,69	,832
H4. Nivel de satisfacción de los alumnos/as	38	3	5	**4,11**	**,863**
H5. Nivel de satisfacción de los profesores/as	38	2	5	**4,18**	**,926**
H6. Resultados obtenidos de una auto-evaluación realizada por el departamento	38	3	5	**4,11**	**,798**
H7. Resultados obtenidos por una evaluación exterior	37	2	5	3,84	,834
H8. Capacidad de comunicarse no verbalmente (Competencia gestual)	39	1	5	3,33	1,084

As in section H, none of the indicators fulfilling cut-off criteria obtained a much higher score than others that had also fulfilled the same conditions. Higher levels of importance were assigned to stakeholder satisfaction in terms of teachers

(4.18) and students (4.11), although this is not the case in terms of parent satisfaction (3.69). Although very marginally, the highest score was attributed to item H1, which referred to the influence of the class on the affective domain of students. In contrast to this and other results shown in Section G, gestual competence received the lowest score than all other outcome areas.

At another level, in a pattern similar to that seen in Section C, there appears to be a greater acceptance of results obtained by an internal department self-evaluation (H6=4.11) than those provided by an external evaluation (H7=3.84). Finally, it may be worth mentioning that if the responses provided by outlying case, "Variable 8", had not been included, one other item would have fulfilled the cut-off criteria. This item was H2 and referred to students' attitude towards the L2 culture.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Preliminary remarks

The main purpose of this study was to identify contextualised indicators for English language teaching. This was carried out using iterative questionnaires responded by participants who were professionally involved in the teaching of the specific subject and employed triangulation by experts at various stages. Given the interpretive nature of this study and the fact that emerging indicators are intentionally non-prescriptive, as shall be discussed in the next sections, there are limitations that may challenge the usability of data in certain contexts. Therefore, while efforts are made to provide conclusions in a tentative, contextualised and descriptive manner, it would also appear necessary to warn the reader of the need for caution in extracting any definite pedagogical or organisational implications.

6.2 Enabling factors

6.2.1 Human and Material Resources

In this study, there was a perceived need for the existence of specialist subject teachers and adequate material resources. The need for specialist teachers coincides with a number of studies in general education (see Darling-Hammond, 1999) and is recognised as a quality indicator (NCES, 2001). In the public sector, the administration does have a rigorous policy for selecting specialist teachers for public schools, however, the reality observed by this researcher in the context of study is that, for reasons of internal organisation and timetable distribution, it is sometimes the case that specialists in English language teaching find themselves in the situation whereby they teach subjects that are considered compatible, and teachers from other subject areas may, in exceptional circumstances, similarly exercise as English teachers, without having the necessary pedagogical or linguistic knowledge.

At the same time, the existence of adequate materials (see TESOL, 2002; Ur, 1999) depends not only on the individual school, but is also likely to depend on the funding each school receives. This is not equal for all types of school, given that private schools generally receive no governmental funding; semi-private schools receive less funding than public schools; and within the public sector, those schools which participate in officially recognised projects (i.e. Compensatory Education or Bilingual Plans) receive extra funding. If the availability of appropriate resources is to be considered as an element that may enhance the quality of language teaching, it could be suggested that this should be further examined as a potential enhancer of quality by individual language departments, with a view to optimising present resources and, where possible, gaining additional departmental funding.

6.2.2 Teacher Motivation

From the results obtained in this investigation, motivation is seen as being one of the most important teacher characteristics. This coincides to some extent with Madrid's (2004) study, in which L2 students indicate the character and enthusiasm of the teacher are seen by students to have a greatest impact on learning (ibid., p.116). As suggested below, this may be considered to be a vital enabling characteristic since it is also linked to teacher involvement in professional development and in the search for more active and effective improvement measures. Participant perceptions also seem to indicate that pedagogical ability and mastery of the subject are seen to have comparable levels of importance. To a certain degree, this echoes the importance that teachers in Madrid's (2004) study give to pedagogical content knowledge. These questions are similarly shown to be important contributory factors in Darling-Hammond's (1999) review of teacher quality and student achievement.

Another important area within teacher characteristics is that of in-service teacher training. Darling-Hammond indicates that continuity in teacher learning has been linked to student performance for various reasons; among these we find the importance of the recency of voluntary educational experience (Hanushek, 1971); at the same time, as Murnane (1985) affirms, participation in ongoing training may be an indicator not only of acquired teacher knowledge, but also of teacher enthusiasm (Darling-Hammond, 1999, p. 9). It could be tentatively suggested, then, that teacher motivation could be a key quality indicator since it can be linked to student performance and motivation, to participation in voluntary in-service training, and to teacher quality and student performance in general education (see also see Ames & Ames, 1984; Glickman, 2001; Roberts, 1998).

Teaching experience is also seen as an important element in this study. However, as Rosenholtz (1986) indicates, it appears that differences in teacher experience have only been seen to be statistically significant in teachers who have more than five years experience and those that have less; similarly, differences between teachers with a number of years of experience may be due to the fact that some teachers do not continue to grow professionally (Darling-Hammond, 1999, p. 10). This view is echoed by Whitaker (2004) who states that teachers may have many years of experience yet still perform ineffectively (ibid., p. 49). Although none of the indicators identified in this study are intended to constitute teacher quality in isolation, this may be particularly true for teacher experience, which perhaps constitutes a characteristic of an effective teacher only when it is present along with other factors, such as motivation and ongoing professional development.

6.2.3 Communication, Planning and Departmental Self-Evaluation

It would appear, from the qualitative and quantitative aspects of this study and based on the review of the literature, that in order for there to be effective levels of organisation and planning, there needs to be a positive communicative climate between members of the department (Burns, 1999; Harris, 2001). It could be suggested, then, that it is through the establishment of a positive climate that cooperative planning and decision-making processes may be facilitated.

In relation to these processes, it seems there is a need to have a careful selection and preparation of materials. Based on experience of teaching in this context, as well as the appearance of materials dependence as an item on the inspection evaluation instrument (Appendix III), and of statements collected in the

first round of questionnaires, it could be the case that there is a potential tendency for over-reliance on textbooks and a need for other materials to be incorporated into the classroom. Similarly, it may be necessary in certain settings to have more judicious approach when it comes to selecting materials, including the textbooks themselves, which could perhaps be facilitated by the piloting of materials in context.

At the same time, it has been stated that there are certain ways in which publishers influence Education in Spain (see Riu, 2002, p. 140). As far as the subject of English is concerned, this may have had two potential effects on teaching and learning. Firstly, teachers are actively encouraged by publishers to adopt their particular course books. These are often complemented with additional resources, including materials for differentiation, computer software and sample examinations. This may have an effect on the way teachers conduct and assess their classes. Furthermore, it is important to point out that publishers also provide ready made schemes of work (*proyecto curricular)*, units of work and lesson plans, which may readily be adopted, virtually intact or partially modified by practising teachers. Apart from common knowledge of planning processes in secondary education in this context, evidence exists to indicate that there is a tendency for some practising teachers to use externally developed planning; this evidence appears in: a) the data obtained and validated in the questionnaires in the empirical study; b) the fact that the procedure is highlighted by other national authors (e.g. Bolívar & Rodríguez; 2002 Riu 2002); and c) it is included in language teacher evaluation questions (see Appendix III). This study, then, points to a need for departments to provide their own original and realistic plans for teaching and learning events which more faithfully

reflect what actually goes on in class, rather than passively adopting publishers' guidelines without taking into account their specific educational contexts.

In general terms, within the planning stages, and without ignoring other administrative stipulations, it would appear that it is also also desirable to make special provision for continuity between educational stages and plans to attend diversity. Furthermore, in terms of subject-specific organisation, it would seem necessary to have effective plans for the development of the four skills, as well as grammatical, lexical, cultural competence and pronunciation. Again, both general and subject-specific concerns, especially in terms continuity, may perhaps be more effectively organised in the presence of a collaborative climate.

Finally, importance is attributed to formative and summative self-evaluations carried out by the department. Responses from the first questionnaire and the validation of the above points indicate the usefulness of to being engaged in a process of continuous improvement, whereby weak areas may be identified at various stages of course implementation. Once more, it may be the case that this would ideally occur within a collaborative departmental environment.

6.2.4 Classroom Management and Learning

In relation to processes within the classroom, we found three main areas of importance: classroom management, autonomous learning and ICT's, and the presence of English for communication. The largest of these referred to classroom management, wherein a number of enabling organisational factors, such as planning and teacher versatility, are seen to play an important role in obtaining resultative or consequential situations, including the use of time in class, order and discipline.

Within this group, we find areas that refer to affect in language learning; similarly, there are items that seem to represent enabling factors that could enhance the affective domain, like the communication of objectives, whereas others appear to reflect consequential factors that depend not only on the teacher, but also on students. These include levels of student participation, interest and motivation, and effort.

It might be reasonable to suggest, then, that it is necessary to have in place not only those enabling factors that potentially enhance student motivation and participation, but also external signs that students are indeed motivated and engaged in their work. This last point is perhaps best reflected in the fact that the two indicators that are given the highest scores within classroom processes are lesson planning and student participation. Other areas identified in this study show that high levels of importance are also attributed to student autonomy and the use of ICT's. Because of the nature of current CALL applications in FL teaching and learning, it is likely that these two areas may be linked.

Related to all of the above elements is a concern for the use of English for communication in class, whereby there is a need for a strong presence of the use of the target language and communicative language teaching and learning in the classroom. Communicative language teaching is seen not just as an important factor is terms of input and process, but also, as described below, in the case of testing. However, it is possible that while teachers may stress the importance of communicative teaching approaches, in practice, this may not always occur. Barrios' (2002) study of pre-service teachers, for example, indicates a number of inconsistencies between teachers' expressed beliefs, which favour functional and communicative approaches to language teaching, and observable practices, which

reflect more traditional approaches and strategies. It could be contended, therefore, that the use of collaborative observation in this and other areas, may help to reduce mismatch and to promote practice that is more in coherent with principles accepted both inside and outside the specific school context. The acceptance of observational practices, however, was not validated in this study and it would seem that in order for it to be fully accepted a number of pre-conditions would need to be in place. Based on studies examined in the review of the literature, it could be stated that facilitating conditions might include appropriately exercised forms of democratic and ethical leadership, the creation of collaborative and secure teacher-learning environments and shared roles in goal-setting and improvement implementation.

6.2.5 Student Assessment

In terms of student assessment, this study indicates that systematic processes such as student monitoring, control of homework, and provision of feedback are important indicators of quality in our context (see North & Pillay, 2002; Richards, 1990). At the same time there is an awareness of the need for validity and reliability of assessments (see Brown, 2004). As it stands, until the regional administration applies the system of diagnostic tests to measure communicative competence in L2, the validity and reliability of examinations taking place within schools depends entirely on teachers of *ESO* and *Bachillerato*. The only other examination which may reflect certain abilities in the FL is that of the high-stakes examinstion, Selectividad (discussed below). As previously mentioned, teachers may opt to use ready-made tests written by publishers, or to design their own assessment materials. However, given that there is no systematic and implemented control on assessment procedures,

either through internal collaborative practices or external quality assurance, it is possible for teachers in this context to employ assessment strategies and instruments that do not comply with administrative guidelines and which may be of questionable validity, and reliability and which may fail to have positive communicative washback effects on students.

6.3 Outcomes

6.3.1 Academic and Communicative Results

In relation to academic and communicative results, it appears that it is particularly important to examine both those areas fulfilling the cut-off criteria and those which have not. In the latter case, participants indicate inferior levels of confidence in those assessments that form part of the most frequently carried out testing procedures. The lowest scoring element in this section was that of results obtained in *ESO*. This may be due to various factors that form part of the reality of assessment in secondary education. Firstly, while students are expected to at least reach a minimum set of attainment targets (*objetivos mínimos*), teachers in *ESO* are required to start from the level of students in class and to attend to diversity. This may lead to the teacher having a series of different levels of demand within a classroom, including the use of significant curricular adaptations (*adaptación curricular significativa*). Even though this can be seen as following official pedagogical norms, the end result may be that students advance to more demanding curricular levels without having mastered many aspects of the language programme.

Of the elements that did not fulfil the cut-off levels established, the highest scoring item was that of results obtained in *Bachillerato*. At this stage in the Spanish

education system, the curricular guidelines and objectives are much more demanding than *ESO* (Feito, 2005, p. 83); so too are learning conditions. Firstly, post obligatory secondary education implies that only those students who wish to study will continue to do so; at the same time, students with lower academic abilities will most likely have been advised by the school's Orientation Department (*Departamento de Orientación*) to partake in vocational training programmes. There is in *Bachillerato*, then, a double filter, one academic, the other motivational, which may lead to higher levels of demand on students, and, in turn, higher levels of performance. Yet the results obtained at this stage still depend on the validity and reliability of assessments, which lies in the hands of individual teachers. If we add to this the fact that students are expected to complete the high-stakes examination, *Selectividad*, it is possible that the measurement of communicative objectives may be negatively influenced by the backwash effect of this pre-university test. It could be the case, therefore, that the use of results in *Bachillerato* may constitute a good measure of quality if the preconditions of validity and reliability of assessments are fulfilled.

Finally, within those items that did not fulfil the cut-off criteria for academic results we find the high-stakes examination, *Selectividad*. Apart from the questionabililily of this examination in terms of validity and reliability addressed by Sanz and Fernández (2005), in practical terms, this examination constitutes an unrepresentative indicator of overall quality. Students who carry out this examination do so upon completing two years of study in *Bachillerato*, therefore, it does not take into account all students who study English during secondary education. Furthermore, only those students who pass *Bachillerato* and need to complete the exam for university entrance are obliged to go through this selective process. So the

situation exists whereby teachers have already assessed students at school level and where only the best candidates may complete *Selectividad*. We may have the hypothetical case, for example, whereby a class teacher has a 100% pass rate at *Selectividad* but only a 60% pass rate in *Bachillerato*. Thus, participation in this ninety minute high-stakes test occurs with a non-representative sample of the student population. However, the most important factor pertaining to this examination probably lies in the fact that it completely obviates oral productive and receptive skills. This is an important consideration which is not only relevant to test validity, but also in relation to the possible waskback effects that it may create, particularly for language learning contexts at upper secondary level.

In terms of those items that did fulfil the cut-off criteria, we encounter, on the one hand, the importance of meeting objectives established by teachers, and on the other, we find the objective of being able to use English in communicative situations. These indicators are seen as being more important than those of results obtained in school assessments. This leads us to question the extent to which such assessments may measure the communicative ability of students, however, this is an area that goes beyond the boundaries of this study and may require further investigation.

Given these outcomes, it may not be surprising, to find that participants also assign higher levels of importance to results obtained in examinations by external agencies like those provided by private and official language schools (*Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*), which are influenced by the Common European Framework, and which arguably offer much more in-depth measurements of communicative ability. Here, however, it should also be stated that under the current application of school timetable distribution, the temporal resources available for teachers to conduct

extensive communicative tests, particularly oral examinations, appears to be somewhat limited, and would, in all likelihood require extra voluntary hours of work for teachers and/or an important reorganisation of programme planning in order to obtain more reliable data with regards to the communicative competence of students.

6.3.2 Affective Outcomes, Stakeholder Satisfaction and Departmental Results

Within this section we find two groups of indicators relating to non-academic outcomes. The first of these, which deals with affective educational outcomes, is perhaps more frequently associated with L2 pedagogy, rather than quality management *per se*, and relates to the influence of class on motivation, self-esteem and confidence, and, to a certain extent, students' attitude towards the L2 culture. The second, appears to fall more in line with aspects traditionally measured in quality assurance and quality management, and refers to stakeholder satisfaction. Here, we find two important areas: student (client) satisfaction and teacher (internal client) satisfaction (see Criteria 6 and 7 in EFQM model, Quality in Education, 2001). Both the affective outcomes and the factors of stakeholder satisfaction may be linked to other input and process areas, including teacher and student motivation (see also the appraisal of resultative motivation in Ellis, 1997, p. 515).

Finally, it appears that departmental self-evaluation may not only be important at process levels but also as an outcome. Participants in this study indicate a greater level of acceptance of the results gathered from within the department rather than outside. This coincides somewhat with González *et al.* (1995), who show a rejection on the part of teachers for external evaluative processes. This preference for internal evaluation and greater acceptance of results may perhaps be due to a

perception that the assessment of a department may take place in a less threatening way, while at the same time have the potential to provide a more realistic, and in-depth appraisal of departmental functioning as it arises from an insider perspective.

It would appear then, that there are not only academic outcomes which are important, but also non-academic ones. This potentially constitutes a relevant finding, since, for some, including members of the educational administration, one of the most important indicators of quality has been that of high-stakes examinations, whereas other non-academic indicators, such as affect and satisfaction have been given no official measurement. Good results in high-stakes exams may not necessarily reflect high levels of quality, and may, indeed have a negative washback effect on classroom instruction. Conversely, high levels of student and teacher satisfaction and positive affective patterns among students may do more to increase both student performance and act as an enabling factor that may have some positive effects on teachers' professional development and instructional practices (see Moll & Whitmore, 1993; Van der Linden *et al.*, 2000).

6.4 Proposals for Managing Quality in Context

Based on the results obtained in the empirical study and drawing on the body of literature on quality management applied to education and on experiences in the piloting of a continuous improvement framework, it would perhaps be useful to offer interested parties a series of possible tentative and flexible guidelines, which may allow teachers working within this context to examine and improve upon their own educational settings. While such considerations are provided below, it is noted that a high degree of caution and open questioning should be employed.

At the same time, given the need for continuity and coordination in language learning, and the reasoning against teacher isolation presented by Glickman *et al.* (1998) and studies such as McLaughlin and Talbert (1993) and Harris (2001), which favour of the creation of supporting professional communities, it could be suggested that efforts to improve quality in language teaching and learning may be more effectively handled by collaborating department members, rather that at individual teacher levels.

6.4.1 A Continuous Improvement Framework

The study of the piloting of a continuous departmental framework (Hughes, 2004b) provides initial evidence that, under the appropriate circumstances, team members in a language department may find ways in which to address a number of problems in context. Based on this pilot study, outlined in Chapter Four, the information obtained in the empirical study of quality indicators, and on other general and subject specific studies (particularly Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Harris, 2001; Novak, 2002; Visscher & Witziers, 2004), it is considered that certain enabling factors may be needed for this to happen. These facilitating elements include:

1. high levels of cooperation, collegiality and teamwork;

2. democratic and ethical leadership;

3. a focus on teaching and learning for communicative competence;

4. the establishment of realistic departmental plans and policies;

5. the participation in continuing professional development;

6. the use of context-based data, reflection, enquiry and action.

By examining general improvement frameworks used in quality in education (CECE-ITE, 1998) and language-specific models (e.g. Gebhard and Oprandy; 1999; Hughes 2004a, 2004b), it is argued here that for continuous improvement to take place it would appear appropriate to use cyclical strategies that could include the following stages:

1. situation and needs analysis and identification of strong and weak points;

2. establishment and prioritisation of objectives;

3. design of strategies and planning of actions;

4. implementation of strategies and plans;

5. observation of the effects of strategies and plans;

6. analysis and reporting of effects;

7. addressing new needs or readdressing prioritised areas that are still to be fully addressed.

6.4.2 Suggested Variables and Sample Self-Assessment Tool

In the management of quality, it may be useful to control a number of variables. Based on the empirical study, it may be possible to develop a flexible set of non-prescriptive indicators, and postulate as to possible ways in which these variables could be measured. In the first case, Figure 6.1 presents a summary of potential variables. This reflects only those areas that have fulfilled the cut-off criteria in the qualitative part of the study. Teachers in specific contexts may see a number of these indicators as being useful and may wish to add their own variables or concentrate on a limited number of key process or performance indicators.

Figure 6.1

Descriptive Indicators for ELT/L in Secondary Education

ENABLING FACTORS

Context	Departmental Processes	Classroom Processes	Assessment Processes
Material and Human Resources - Existence of specialist subject teachers - Existence of adequate material resources (audiovisual materials, etc.)	**Environment and Collaboration** - Positive communicative climate between department members - Cooperative curriculum planning **Organisation and Planning** - Quality of selected and prepared materials - Appropriate / contextualised objectives - Realism in planning - Continuity between years and cycles - Planning of learning of the four skills - Planning for learning of grammatical competence - Planning for learning of lexical competence - Planning for learning of pronunciation competence - Planning of learning for cultural competence - Plans to attend diversity	**Classroom management** - Lesson planning - Systematic revision of contents - Use of the time assigned to the subject - Level of demand on students - Order and discipline in class - Teacher versatility to adapt class work to unforeseen needs **Affective factors** - Communication of objectives to students - Attention to individual student differences and needs - Socio-affective climate in class - Student participation in activities - Ludic use of the language (games, songs, stories, etc.) - Level of student interest and motivation - Level of student effort - Communicative teacher-student relationship	**Tasks and learning** - Meaningful learning (relate existing knowledge with new knowledge) - Use of realistic and relevant tasks - Use of diverse materials apart from the textbook in the teaching process - Use of new information and communication technologies - Autonomous work of students **Presence of English for communication** - Presence of the communicative approach in English teaching - Predominant use of the English language in class
Input **Teacher Characteristics** - Teacher motivation - Pedagogical skill for teaching English. - Mastery of English in all skills - Level of accreditable teacher training (academic certification) - Inservice methodological training - Inservice language training (in courses, -workgroups, -etc.) - Inservice language training (for example: contact with English speaking countries, etc.) - Teaching experience **Partnerships** Collaboration with centres abroad	**Departmental self-evaluation** - Evaluation from the department of the educational process throughout the academic year - Evaluation from the department of the educational process at the end of the academic year		**Assessment Processes** - Monitoring of student progress - Content validity of assessments - Reliability of assessment - Control of homework - Systematic feedback provided to students

RESULTS

Academic / Communicative outcomes	Non-academic Results
- Results obtained in external examinations (*Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*, Cambridge, Trinity, etc.) - Coincidence between results and objectives established by teachers - Student ability to use English in real communication situations	- Influence of English class on the affective domain of students (motivation, self-esteem, confidence, etc.) - Level of student satisfaction - Level of teacher satisfaction - Results obtained from a self-evaluation carried out by the department

However, if variables are seen to be useful, departments may wish to employ procedures for measuring selected indicators. Depending on the detected needs and readiness to apply systems to control these factors, the measurement of individual or groups of variables could, among other actions, include the completion of student and teacher questionnaires and interviews, agreed implementation of peer observation, and analysis of department and classroom planning documents and summaries of results. Following Fitz-Gibbon and Koch (2000), the management of such indicators would ideally be based on repeated measures, they would provide useful credible information, they would be rooted in common accepted goals and would provide those involved in decision-making with the potential opportunity to participate in the development of improvement strategies. All of these factors would arguably depend on the collaborative environment within the department as well as the exercise of democratically-oriented, transformational leadership.

In order to provide an example of how indicators may be adjusted and used in a more workable continuous improvement framework, it may be useful to use an instrument which joins similar indicators, presents descriptions of strong and weak examples of indicator attainment, and which provides details of how evidence may be gathered to more objectively demonstrate indicator achievement. To facilitate the self-evaluation and improvement process, therefore, an example of a self-assessment instrument is presented here (Fig. 6.2) along with an accompanying scoring matrix (Fig. 6.3) in which team members may provide a joint assessment of the language programme based on the level of appropriateness and scope of implementation within diverse context, input and process factors, and on the strength and range of positive results.

Figure 6.2

Sample Indicator Descriptions Departmental Self-Evaluation

INDICATOR 1: MATERIAL RESOURCES	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Teachers and learners have a minimum amount of materials and resources with which to engage in tasks and improve language learning; there is a high degree of reliance on the textbook.	All teachers and learners have a wide set of language learning materials and resources at their disposal, including audiovisual and ICT materials and appropriate installations where such resources may be employed. Materials are selected carefully and are appropriate for the learners involved.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Revision of resources • Language department inventory	• Stakeholder questionnaires

INDICATOR 2: HUMAN RESOURCES	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Teachers have low levels of communicative competence in English and pedagogical skill for teaching the subject.	All teachers are certified subject specialists with high levels of communicative competence as well as pedagogical skill for teaching the subject.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Recognised teaching certification • Recognised language certification • Classroom observation	• Stakeholder questionnaire • Register of participation in training activities

INDICATOR 3: IN-SERVICE TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
There are low levels of in-service training among members of the department. The average experience of department members is also low.	Teaching experience is sufficient to allow for pedagogical sound decisions in class and at department level and all department members regularly participate in relevant in-service training activities which favour the enhancement of pedagogical skills; members also have opportunities to communicatively engage in the language they are teaching.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Register of participation in training activities such as courses, workgroups, research projects, etc • Register of participation of involvement in publications, coordination of courses and seminars.	• Stakeholder questionnaire

INDICATOR 4: LEARNING PARTNERSHIPS	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Teaching and learning is limited to the lessons at school and homework activities, and there is little or no contact with English outside the classroom.	Apart from teaching and learning at classroom level, there is also collaboration with other contexts, particularly with schools abroad. This provides students with extra opportunities to engage in authentic communicative interaction with peers from English speaking countries.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Planning documents • Reports on exchange visits • Examples of communicative exchanges & correspondence	• Stakeholder questionnaire

INDICATOR 5: DEPARTMENT ENVIRONMENT AND COLLABORATION	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Levels of cooperation within the department are low and the communicative climate does not enhance decision-making processes.	Levels of cooperation within the department are high and a positive communicative climate facilitates decision-making processes.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Questions to department members	• Minutes from meetings

Figure 6.2 (continued)

Sample Indicator Descriptions Departmental Self-Evaluation

INDICATOR 6: DEPARTMENTAL ORGANISATION AND PLANNING	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
There are low levels of shared planning within the department and this does not necessarily reflect what goes on in class; plans are inadequate or are based substantially on external models, such as those provided by publishers.	There are high levels of original, realistic planning in all pedagogically relevant and legally required areas by all members; plans provide appropriate, contextualised and differentiated objectives for communicative competence.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Minutes from meetings • Planning documents	• Classroom observation
INDICATOR 7: DEPARTMENTAL SELF-EVALUATION	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
There is little systematic and significant reflection on the teaching and learning process within the department.	There is an established process of formative and summative self-evaluation within the department in which all members participate and through which problem areas and opportunities to improve are treated; furthermore, improvement plans are devised, implemented, controlled and revised.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Minutes from meetings • Improvement plans • Report from self-evaluation	
INDICATOR 8: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Classes are generally unprepared and class time is not employed appropriately by the teacher; activities are not motivating, nor are the objectives appropriate to learner needs and levels; the communicative teacher-student relationship does not facilitate learning.	Classes are well prepared, objectives are communicated and activities are varied, differentiated and motivating and contents are systematically revised; the communicative teacher-student relationship is positive and if needed, the teacher is able to adapt the pace and activities to unforeseen circumstances.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Classroom observation • Stakeholder questionnaires (specific items)	• Stakeholder perception questionnaires (indirect items)
INDICATOR 9: STUDENT ENGAGEMENT	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Students are generally unmotivated and interest in part-icipating in activities is low; levels of order and discipline and time spent on tasks are insufficient.	Students show high levels of motivation and interest and spend the time in class engaged in learning tasks, participating in co-operative activities for communication and autonomous work.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Classroom observation • Stakeholder questionnaires (specific items)	• Stakeholder perception questionnaires (indirect items)
INDICATOR 10: TASKS	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Generally, tasks are not meaningful or relevant and are not aimed at increasing communicative competence.	Tasks are realistic, relevant and varied and are aimed at enhancing all aspects of communicative competence and the use of English is firmly established within the classroom; apart from and appropriately selected activities from approved textbooks, students engage in tasks arising from resources such as ICTs and teachers' own materials.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
• Classroom observation • Stakeholder questionnaires (specific items)	• Planning documents • Stakeholder questionnaires (indirect items)

Figure 6.2 (continued)

Sample Indicator Descriptions Departmental Self-Evaluation

INDICATOR 11: MONITORING STUDENT PROGRESS	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Student progress, visible in class work, homework and examinations is not appropriately monitored; the instruments employed to measure student progress do not measure communicative competence and little feedback is provided to learners.	Student progress is monitored regularly through the review of homework, class work and examinations; assessment instruments for progress are reliable and valid and are intended to measure communicative competence; students are regularly provided with appropriate feedback.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
- Classroom observation - Assessment instruments - Teacher registrar - Stakeholder perception questionnaires (specific items)	Stakeholder perception questionnaires (indirect items)
INDICATOR 12: ACADEMIC/COMMUNICATIVE OUTCOMES	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Students do not achieve objectives which are established within the curriculum and have little ability to use English in real communication situations.	Students in all classes generally obtain most of the communicative objectives established within the curriculum and are able to use English in real communication situations.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
- Internal assessment results of students measuring communicative competence - External assessment results of students measuring communicative competence	Stakeholder perception questionnaires
INDICATOR 13: STAKEHOLDER SATISFACTION: STUDENTS	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
There are generally low levels of satisfaction among the learners.	There are high levels of satisfaction among the majority of learners; furthermore, students are motivated in continuing to learn English and are confident in their ability to use it.
Evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
- Stakeholder perception questionnaires - Interviews with stakeholders - Observation of student participation in class	- Student punctuality and attendance - Teacher punctuality and attendance - Engagement in collaborative activities - Engagement in training activities
INDICATOR 14: TEACHER SATISFACTION	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
There are low levels of satisfaction and motivation among the teachers.	There are high levels of satisfaction and motivation among teachers.
Evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
- Stakeholder perception questionnaires - Interviews with stakeholders	- Engagement in collaborative activities - Engagement in training activities
INDICATOR 15: DEPARTMENTAL SELF-ASSESSMENT RESULTS	
Example of low scoring indicator	**Example of higher scoring indicator**
Results from a departmental self-evaluation, if used, do not approach established objectives.	Results from a departmental self-evaluation show positive progress in previously established areas of improvement; the scope of these results is wide-ranging.
Possible evidence sources	
Direct evidence sources	**Indirect evidence sources**
Departmental report at end of year	Stakeholder perception questionnaire

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Figure 6.3

Example of a Scoring Matrix

Context, input and processes												
Area	**Percentage score**										**Individual average score**	**Team average score**
1 Material resources												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
2 Human resources												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
3 In-service training												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
4 Learning partnerships												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
5 Department environment and collaboration												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
6 Departmental organisation and planning												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
7 Departmental self-evaluation												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
8 Classroom management												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
9 Student engagement												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
10 Tasks												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
11 Monitoring student progress												
a) Level of appropriateness	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of implementation	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
Results												
12 Academic/communicative outcomes	**Percentage score**										**Individual average score**	**Team average score**
a) Strength of results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of positive results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
13 Student satisfaction												
a) Strength of results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of positive results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
14 Teacher satisfaction												
a) Strength of results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of positive results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
15 Self-assessment results												
a) Strength of results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
b) Scope of positive results	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100		
Final Scores											**Individual**	**Team**

6.5 Limitations of this Study and Directions for Future Research

Throughout this study, it has been emphasised that that the aim has been to suggest a set of non-prescriptive, context-based quality indicators for English language teachers in secondary education. Even though the intention has not been to generalise, it is considered necessary to further highlight the need for caution in using the information obtained by pointing out some of the main limitations of the study.

Firstly, the empirical research was carried out through the use of two iterative questionnaires based on the Delphi technique. The advantages of using this approach meant that it was possible to obtain and validate the views of a large number of participants in a cost-effective way. However, while many Delphi studies use three iterations, and such was the original intention, and some, particularly those with fewer participants, complement these with face-to-face interviews, this study used only two iterations and did not employ subject interviews in the process. This may have limited the level of precision with which we could validate quality indicators, and did not allow for a full prioritisation of key areas.

Another limitation of this study can be found in the sample employed. In order to be able to carry out the statistical procedures in this study, there was an estimated need to have more than thirty cases, and it was anticipated that not all of those participants who originally agreed to partake in the study would complete all phases. For this reason, there was no random sampling of the population, but instead an admission to all those participants who fulfilled the requirements of expertise. The sample employed for this study, therefore, was not a random one and although the

results could prove to be useful to practitioners in the field, it meant that generalisability is not possible.

At the same time, the study depended to some extent on the subjective interpretations of researchers. This happened primarily at two specific points. Firstly, during the conversion of data extracted from the first questionnaire to the items on the second questionnaire; and, secondly, during the grouping of new areas using Multidimensional scaling in the analysis of sections D and E. Attempts were made to reduce subjectivity through researcher triangulation and construct validation, although this may have been reduced further with a larger group of researchers.

In terms of future investigations, given the lack of research on the effectiveness of language education in our context, it would perhaps be useful to conduct a study of language departments and to measure performance using a selection of agreed quality indicators. This could take place with a relatively large number of centres participating on a voluntary basis (*n>30*) and employing perception questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, classroom observation, document analysis and student performance tests based on the Common European Framework. Such a study could provide valuable data *vis-à-vis* the characteristics of effective school departments and present teachers with evidence that may help them in their decision-making processes. This type of investigation might be relevant not only to schools participating in standard education, but also to bilingual schools, which, as recent administrative proposals indicate, have an identified need to control and enhance quality processes and results in foreign language teaching.

6.6 Concluding Remarks

The use of quality indicators has become a reality in many global contexts; however, such indicators are not always established or, indeed assessed by practitioners familiar with the subject and context-specific settings. In Andalusia, quality indicators do not, as yet, exist in foreign language teaching for secondary schools as a standardised practice, nor, unlike other countries, is there a wide-ranging, systematic inspection of language teaching itself. Therefore, the assurance and enhancement of quality in ELT at present depends mainly on the teachers who are directly involved in the process. This brings with it a series of possible benefits and dangers. On the one hand, with the exception of initial stages of teaching practice, teachers are not normally subject to a process of external assessment and it is possible that few measures are taken to ensure that teaching and learning take place in an effective manner. On the other hand, national studies have shown a lack of confidence in external evaluative processes, and the introduction of such measures could prove to be controversial. Nevertheless, while accountability measures for language teaching and learning in the Spanish education system have not been as deeply imbedded as in other contexts, given the globalised concern for performance standards, the arrival of more controlled forms of external assessment is imminent and, is already being seen in the recent development and implementation of diagnostic tests for Spanish language and mathematics.

In the absence of external assessment (albeit in the presence of its possible future arrival in terms of student diagnostic assessments), it would appear that there is a need for teachers themselves to take on some of this responsibility. However, as several studies suggest, improvement is seen to be more forthcoming through joint

rather than individual efforts. At the same time, it would appear that in order for collaboration to take place, it is necessary for the environment to be one which is conducive to open communication and teamwork; this may depend on the individual and collective leadership skills and approaches existing within departments. Therefore, if quality indicators are to be used within specific contexts, attention would need to be paid to the three aspects of leadership, environment and collaboration, without which any attempts to identify, control and improve upon enabling and resultative factors may be seriously limited.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I.

LOCE Principles of Quality

a. [Equality, which guarantees equal opportunities of quality for the full development of personality, through education, respect for democratic principles and fundamental rights and liberties

b. The capacity to transmit values which favour personal freedom, social responsibility, cohesion and the improvement of societies, and equal rights between sexes, which helps to overcome any type of discrimination; as well as the practice of solidarity, through the encouragement of the civic participation of pupils in voluntary work

c. The capacity to act as a compensating element of personal and social inequalities

d. Participation of the various sectors of the educational community, within the limits of their corresponding competences and responsibilities, in the development of the school activity of centres, promoting, especially, the necessary climate of conviviality ['convivencia' which often refers to discipline] and study

e. The concept of education as a permanent process, the value of which is spread throughout life.

f. The consideration of responsibility and of effort as essential elements in the educational process.

g. The flexibility to adapt structure and organisation to changes, needs and demands of society, and to the diverse aptitudes, interests, expectations and personality of pupils

h. The recognition of the function of the teacher as an essential factor in education, made manifest in the priority in attention given to initial and inset training and professional promotion

i. The capacity of pupils to trust in their own aptitudes and knowledge, developing basic values and principles of creativity, personal initiative and entrepreneurial spirit

j. The promotion of research, experimentation and educational innovation

k. The assessment and inspection of the whole of the education system, both in its design and organisation and in its teaching and learning processes]

(Ley orgánica 10/2002: art. 1)

Appendix II

Qualitative Questions Employed in Observation Instrument Employed for First Year

English Teachers in Granada (2006-2007)

Informe de la visita:

1. Seguimiento de la programación

2. Objetivos específicos de la unidad didáctica

3. Metodología aplicada

4. Método de evaluación

5. Método de recuperación

6. Coordinación con las demás áreas

7. Consideraciones particulares manifestadas por el/la profesor/a en prácticas

8. Observaciones emitidas por los/las alumnos/as

9. Opinión del profesor/a tutor/a

10. Opinión del Director/a

Appendix III

Quantitative Questions employed in Observation Instrument for First Year English

Teachers in Granada (2006-2007)

1. PLANIFICACIÓN Y PROGRAMACIÓN

El profesor programa y trabaja sin que haya un acuerdo previo de actuación conjunta	0 1 2 3 4 5	A partir de las líneas generales existentes en el Centro, el profesor actúa en coherencia con el grupo de compañeros
No existe programación escrita	0 1 2 3 4 5	Aparece una programación que tiene como mínimo los requisitos exigidos por la normativa, desarrollados con una calidad suficiente.
La programación es una copia literal de las propuestas que aparecen en las disposiciones legales o en alguna editorial	0 1 2 3 4 5	La programación ha sido adaptada, contextualizada y acomodada a la situación real de los alumnos y del centro
Las actividades se improvisan, o se realizan indiscriminadamente las que aparecen en el libro de texto	0 1 2 3 4 5	Concreta por escrito los tipos de actividades que se van a realizar en función de los objetivos seleccionados y de las situaciones de aprendizaje
Fundamentalmente insiste en los contenidos, sin que exista preocupación por otros aspectos educativos, que nunca reciben la misma atención	0 1 2 3 4 5	Los procedimientos, actitudes, comportamientos, etc., reciben un tratamiento equilibrado en función de la educación integral
Los métodos y técnicas son elegidas según criterio personal	0 1 2 3 4 5	Los métodos y técnicas son discutidas previamente a su elección y se revisan en función de los resultados y de su adecuación a las características del alumnado
Realiza la evaluación según su propio criterio, sin que existan acuerdos sobre aspectos a evaluar, técnicas, instrumentos, momentos, etc.	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se prevén actividades periódicas de evaluación, analizándose los resultados y de su adecuación a las características del alumnado
En el proceso de evaluación participa exclusivamente el profesor, mientras el alumnado desempeña un papel pasivo	0 1 2 3 4 5	Hay criterios establecidos sobre la participación de los alumnos en la evaluación (conocen los objetivos y contenidos mínimos, pautas de evaluación, resultados, etc.)
El recurso fundamental y exclusivo es el libro de texto	0 1 2 3 4 5	Aprovecha los recursos didácticos disponibles en el centro al realizar las actividades previstas

2. COMUNICACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN EN EL GRUPO-CLASE

La comunicación queda limitada a la necesaria para transmitir los conocimientos, valorándose poco el intercambio con los alumnos	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se favorece la comunicación entre todos los miembros del grupo (revisión conjunta de tareas, diálogo, intercambio de puntos de vista y experiencias)
Predomina la relación de autoridad del maestro y dependencia de los alumnos	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se buscan formas de encontrar el equilibrio entre las relaciones de autoridad y el diálogo con objeto de favorecer la autonomía del individuo y del grupo
Predomina un tipo de organización rígida o uniforme, orientada a evitar la indisciplina y a facilitar la enseñanza formal	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se potencia una organización flexible en función de la tarea a realizar y que favorece la participación
Se concede escasa importancia a la organización del grupo de cara a las tareas colectivas	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se presta atención a organizar la vida del grupo para que se responsabilice de su funcionamiento y participe en el aprendizaje
Predomina la exposición por parte del profesor y el trabajo individual del alumno	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se utilizan situaciones y técnicas variadas que contemplan no sólo el desarrollo individual, sino también la dinámica de grupos

Appendix III (continued)

Quantitative Questions employed in Observation Instrument for First Year English

Teachers in Granada (2006-2007)

3. TUTORÍA, ORIENTACIÓN Y ATENCIÓN A LA DIVERSIDAD

Se limita a aprovechar la relación normal de clase para dar algunas orientaciones generales	0 1 2 3 4 5	Recoge información sobre los puntos fuertes y débiles de sus alumnos en relación con el aprendizaje y orienta personalmente a los alumnos de acuerdo con aquellos
Sólo se preocupa de detectar y corregir a los causantes de la indisciplina	0 1 2 3 4 5	Conoce la estructura social de la clase, aplicando técnicas adecuadas y utiliza este conocimiento para orientar adecuadamente a los alumnos
Predomina una preocupación por atender al alumno medio, sin demasiadas comprobaciones previas sobre las posibilidades y nivel de competencia curricular	0 1 2 3 4 5	Consigue una información adecuada sobre la situación de partida de los alumnos y se produce una acomodación de la programación con respecto al ritmo de aprendizaje
Las dificultades en el aprendizaje no tienen otra respuesta que la repetición	0 1 2 3 4 5	Hay previstas formulas para el tratamiento de dificultades de aprendizaje de los alumnos

4. RELACIONES CON LOS PADRES, PROFESORES Y EL ENTORNO

Conoce a algunos padres a través de contactos informales	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se ha llevado a cabo la reunión con los padres en la que se les ha explicado las líneas generales de actuación, programas y criterios de evaluación y hay contactos sistemáticos en la hora de tutoría
Se informa a los padres cuando acuden al centro por propia iniciativa	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se utiliza un boletín informativo y se cita a los padres para efectuar entrevistas, estando el horario de tutoría adaptado a sus posibilidades de asistencia
Como tutor, no tiene establecidas pautas de coordinación con el resto del equipo educativo	0 1 2 3 4 5	Existe coordinación con los distintos profesores del curso, ciclo o equipo para compartir información sobre los alumnos y tomar decisiones: (asistencia, evaluación, trabajos para casa, etc.)
El trabajo de clase no se relaciona con la realidad más cercana	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se aprecia esfuerzo para establecer vínculos con el entorno y la cultura andaluza
Las actividades se realizan exclusivamente en el aula	0 1 2 3 4 5	Se programan actividades extraescolares y se participa en las promovidas por las asociaciones u otros organismos

5. PERFECCIONAMIENTO E INNOVACIÓN EDUCATIVA

No participa en actividades de perfeccionamiento	0 1 2 3 4 5	Ha participado en actividades d perfeccionamiento y las aplica en el aula
Entiende que su práctica docente no necesita mejorarse	0 1 2 3 4 5	Ha promovido o ha participado en algún proyecto de innovación o experimentación

6. DOCUMENTACIÓN

Considera que conoce suficientemente a sus alumnos sin necesidad de llevar ningún registro	0 1 2 3 4 5	Utiliza documentación para registro de observaciones, asistencia, seguimiento de objetivos, resultados de evaluación, etc.
Se resiste a realizar lo que llama tareas burocráticas	0 1 2 3 4 5	Tiene actualizada la documentación académica: actas, libros de escolaridad, informe de evaluación individualizada, boletín de información a las familias

Appendix IV

Sample of Selectividad Examination, 2005

HOME ALONE

With marriage apparently in trouble, so many single-parent families and people living alone ready to dominate the country, Britain is currently going through one of the most dramatic social changes in its entire history. This is one more example of globalization, and many other countries around the world seem to be accompanying Britain in the same process.

5 The statistics are shocking. Since 1961, the number of UK homes occupied by one person has risen from 10 to 30 per cent, with predictions of 40 per cent for the year 2010. There are other fundamental social changes behind Britain's single-household explosion. The increasing independence of the working woman, more orientated to her career than to personal relationships, has been essential. The prototypical Bridget Jones, thirty-something, single, and in search of a man, is becoming a little old-fashioned.

10 These changing social attitudes and the higher divorce and separation figures are the causes of the growing numbers of single parents. More and more women, both in the UK and the USA, no longer think it necessary to have a man around to have a child. Such radical social changes inevitably have their side effects, which are often as interesting as the changes themselves. Obsession with work seems to have provoked a boom in online agencies for making friends.

(A) COMPREHENSION (4 points)

a) **ANSWER** QUESTIONS 1-2 ACCORDING TO THE INFORMATION GIVEN IN THE TEXT. **USE YOUR OWN WORDS**. (1 point per answer)

1) How is the family changing in Britain?
2) What is the role of women in family changes?

b) ARE THESE STATEMENTS **TRUE OR FALSE**? **JUSTIFY** YOUR ANSWERS WITH WORDS OR PHRASES FROM THE TEXT. (0.5 points per answer)

3) Family changes are also observed throughout the world.
4) Many women are trying to imitate Bridget Jones.
5) The large numbers of single parents are only due to changing attitudes.
6) Even people obsessed with their careers need relationships.

(B) USE OF ENGLISH (3 points)

7) **Give** one **opposite** for INCREASING (adjective) (line 7) (0.25 points)
8) **Find** in the text a **synonym** for NOW (adverb) (0.25 points)
9) **Fill in** the gap with a correct **preposition**: (0.25 points)
   All my family was brought_____ in England.
10) **Give** an adjective with the same root as CHILD (noun) (line 12) (0.25 points)
11) **Join** the following sentences using a **relative pronoun**. Make changes if necessary (0.5 points)
   Johnny Depp is starring in Finding Neverland. His portrait of Captain Sparrow is superb.
12) **Turn** the following sentence into **reported speech**: (0.5 points)
   Michael asked her: "Where did you find these trainers?"
13) **Complete** the following sentence: (0.5 points)
   If Harry were allowed to use magic at home . . .
14) **Use** the words in the boxes to make a **meaningful sentence**. **Use all** and only the words in the boxes without changing their form. (0.5 points)

| too | carry | box | heavy | to | is | that |

(C) PRODUCTION (3 points)

15) Write a **composition** (80-100 WORDS) Choose **ONE** of the following options. **Specify** your option.
   a) How do you meet new friends?
   b) Men and women's new roles in society.

Appendix V

Assessment Criteria for Selectividad 2005

CRITERIOS ESPECÍFICOS DE CORRECCIÓN

CRITERIOS GENERALES DE CORRECCIÓN

(A) COMPREHENSION (4 puntos)

Esta sección se estructura en dos apartados:

a) Cada una de las dos preguntas vale **1** punto, del que **0,5** corresponde a la **comprensión** y **0,5** a **expresión**, calificadas con **0,50**; **0,25**; **0**, dependiendo del grado de adecuación. En caso de que se responda acertadamente pero copiando literalmente del texto, se obtendrá **0,5** puntos en comprensión y **0** puntos en corrección gramatical, por no haber habido una producción propia. Si no se demostrara comprensión, la puntuación de la respuesta será **0**. Por tanto, la puntuación total de cada pregunta puede ser **1**; **0,75**; **0,50**; **0,25**; **0**. (Puntuación total del apartado: 2 puntos)

b) Cuatro preguntas del tipo verdadero/falso, en las que el/la estudiante deberá justificar con exactitud su respuesta según el texto. Este apartado valora exclusivamente la comprensión y no la expresión. Cada una de las preguntas vale **0,5** absoluto, y si no se justifica la respuesta, la puntuación será **0**. Dar sólo el número de línea no será aceptado como justificación. (Puntuación total del apartado: 2 puntos)

(B) USE OF ENGLISH (3 puntos)

Las preguntas de léxico serán puntuadas con **0,25** absoluto, o nada, sin gradación posible. En caso de dar más de una respuesta, sólo se considerará la primera de ellas.

La puntuación de las preguntas de gramática será de esta manera:
-La respuesta es correcta y no presenta ningún error: **0,5** puntos.
-La respuesta es correcta, pero tiene algún error: **0,25** puntos.
-No se responde a lo que expresamente se pide: **0** puntos.

El contenido semántico de las oraciones que el/la estudiante produzca no tiene por qué coincidir necesariamente con la información del texto.

(C) PRODUCTION (3 puntos)

En esta sección se valorará la capacidad de expresar ideas y comunicarse en un inglés **aceptable**. Se tendrán en cuenta **tres apartados**:
(a)   Corrección gramatical (los errores repetidos sólo se tendrán una vez en cuenta).
(b)   Riqueza y precisión léxica.
(c)   Aspectos textuales y comunicativos.
Cada uno de estos apartados será calificado con **1**; **0,75**; **0,50**; **0,25**; **0**, dependiendo del grado de adecuación.

Assessment Criteria for *Selectividad* 2005

UNIVERSIDADES DE ANDALUCÍA PRUEBA DE ACCESO A LA UNIVERSIDAD	PLANES DE 1994 y DE 2002 ANÁLISIS DE TEXTO EN LENGUA EXTRANJERA (INGLÉS)

CRITERIOS ESPECÍFICOS DE CORRECCIÓN

CRITERIOS ESPECÍFICOS DE CORRECCIÓN

La Ponencia de Bachillerato de Andalucía desea subrayar la importancia de que el acercamiento a la corrección de la sección (C) PRODUCTION ha de hacerse desde una óptica positiva. Se ha de valorar cuanto de positivo haya podido llevar a cabo el/la estudiante, y no fijarse o anclarse sólo en los aspectos negativos (errores gramaticales sobre todo). Los criterios que a continuación se expresan son puntos orientativos, líneas básicas de actuación correctora positiva:

(A) CORRECCIÓN GRAMATICAL

-El orden de los constituyentes inmediatos de una oración es correcto (SVOA, por ejemplo, en estructuras oracionales afirmativas).
-No hay fallos de concordancia (Sujeto-Verbo, Presentador-Sustantivo, etc).
-Las formas pronominales son correctas.
-Se utilizan los cuantificadores (much, many, etc) correctamente.
-El uso de las preposiciones es correcto.
-Es correcta la formulación de estructuras negativas.
-Se utilizan los tiempos verbales adecuados.
-Las partículas temporales (ago, for, since, already, etc.) se usan adecuadamente.
-Se emplean modales en contextos apropiados.
-Se emplean formas adecuadas de los modales (ej. presencia/ausencia de la partícula "to").
-El uso de los artículos en sus referencias genéricas/específicas es correcto.
-El uso de la estructura posesiva (genitivo sajón) es correcto.
-No se pluralizan los adjetivos.
-No hay errores en la formación de los tiempos verbales.
-Se conocen los plurales irregulares.

(B) RIQUEZA Y PRECISIÓN LÉXICA

-No se utilizan palabras en español, ni Spanglish ni Franglais.
-Se han elegido términos concretos y precisos.
-No se confunden términos básicos (go/come, learn/teach, lend/borrow, let/leave, etc.).
-No se confunden las categorías gramaticales (bored por boring, o viceversa).
-No se abusa de muletillas o modismos para inflar el texto.

(C) ASPECTOS TEXTUALES Y COMUNICATIVOS.

-La organización del texto es clara (su secuenciación es lógica).
-El texto no es repetitivo ni confuso.
-Cada párrafo contiene una idea nueva y relevante informativamente, sin divagar.
-Las ideas se introducen con los conectores adecuados. Se hace uso también de adecuada correferencialidad.
-La aproximación al tema es original o, al menos, coherente.
-La presentación es limpia y ordenada. La letra es clara.
-La ortografía es correcta.
-El texto está claramente repartido en párrafos.
-Los signos de puntuación están correctamente utilizados.
-El texto, en general, indica madurez por parte del/de la estudiante. Comunica.
-El texto, en general, indica un dominio en el uso de la lengua inglesa a fin de comunicar ideas y argumentar puntos de vista.

Appendix VI

Prioritisation Tool

Nº	Improvement	Importance (1-10)	Viability (1-10	Individual total	Group total	Final priority after consensus
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						
16						
17						
18						
19						
20						

Appendix VII

Student Questionnaire

A. INSTRUCCIONES

Al responder a este cuestionario anónimo piensa en el desarrollo de la asignatura **DE INGLÉS** desde el principio de curso.

1. Puntúa los siguientes elementos según la escala de:
    1 (Muy bajo, muy mal)   a 5 (Muy alto, muy bien)

****

Nivel educativo que cursas: ❑   1º ESO ❑   2º ESO ❑ 3º ESO ❑   4º ESO
                ❑   1º Bachiller ❑ 2º Bachiller
Grupo   ❑   A   ❑   B   ❑   C   ❑   D
Sexo: ❑   Hombre   ❑ Mujer
¿En qué año empezaste en este centro?

		VALORACION				
1	El libro de texto que empleamos en clase	1	2	3	4	5
2	La claridad en las explicaciones del/la profesor/a	1	2	3	4	5
3	El grado de orden y disciplina	1	2	3	4	5
4	La imparcialidad del/de la profesor/a a la hora de calificar	1	2	3	4	5
5	La preparación por parte del/la profesor/a de las clases	1	2	3	4	5
6	Mi nivel de motivación en la asignatura	1	2	3	4	5
7	El interés que ponen para que superemos las dificultades	1	2	3	4	5
8	El /la profesor/a anima y felicita a los alumnos	1	2	3	4	5
9	El uso del inglés en clase	1	2	3	4	5
10	El uso de recursos audiovisuales en clase	1	2	3	4	5
11	El nivel que alcanzamos en la escritura	1	2	3	4	5
12	El nivel que alcanzamos en la comprensión de textos	1	2	3	4	5
13	El nivel que alcanzamos en la comprensión auditiva	1	2	3	4	5
14	El nivel que alcanzamos en la expresión oral	1	2	3	4	5
15	El nivel que alcanzamos en la gramática	1	2	3	4	5
16	El nivel que alcanzamos en la pronunciación	1	2	3	4	5
17	Mi satisfacción en general con las clases de ingles	1	2	3	4	5

Valoración de la asignatura

Puntos fuertes de la clase o profesor/a (se puede seguir por detrás)

....

Áreas de mejora de la clase o profesor/a (se puede seguir por detrás)

....

Nota que posiblemente saque al final de este curso (1 a 10) _____

Appendix VIII

Parent Questionnaire

Estimados padres y madres:
El departamento de inglés está en el proceso de realizar una autoevaluación con tal motivo, su hijo/a ya ha tenido la posibilidad de opinar como alumno/a acerca del funcionamiento de las clases. Para completar nuestra autoevaluación, sin embargo, quisiéramos solicitar su colaboración a través de un breve cuestionario donde tienen la oportunidad de expresar como padres y madres, sus opiniones acerca de la enseñanza de esta asignatura en este centro. Les recordamos que se trata de una encuesta anónima.
Gracias por su colaboración.

A. Datos de los alumnos:
Nivel educativo que cursa su hijo/a:　　❏1º ESO ❏2º ESO　❏3º ESO ❏4º ESO
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　❏　1º Bachiller　❏ 2º Bachiller
Grupo　　　　　　　　　　❏　A　　　　❏　B　　　　❏　C　　　　　❏　D
Genero del alumno/a:　　　　　　　　❏　Hombre　　❏ Mujer

B. Datos generales

1. ¿Su hijo/a dispone de ordenador en casa?　　　❏Sí　　　　　❏No
2. ¿Su hijo/a dispone de materiales educativos　　❏Sí　　　　　❏No
en inglés aparte del libro de texto?
En caso de ser afirmativo, especifique
cuales:...
3. ¿Su hijo/a recibe clases particulares de inglés?　❏Sí　　　　　❏No
4. Nota que posiblemente obtiene mi hijo/a en inglés al final de este curso: .....

C. Puntúe los siguientes elementos según la escala de:
　　　1 (No estoy de acuerdo) a　　　5 (Estoy de acuerdo)

5	Considero importante el aprendizaje del inglés para el futuro profesional mi hijo/a.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Considero que la motivación de mi hijo/a en inglés es adecuada.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Estoy satisfecho/a con el conocimiento de inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4	5

D. Comentarios y / o sugerencias (puede continuar por detrás)

………………………………………...

Appendix IX

Instructions for Semi-Structured Interview

Pautas para el entrevistador

ANTES DE LA ENTREVISTA

El entrevistador se presenta al entrevistado y da una breve introducción, mencionando las siguientes características de la entrevista.

- El propósito de esta entrevista es recabar información acerca del proyecto de investigación del cual el entrevistado ha formado parte.
- La entrevista consiste en responder a 12 preguntas previamente establecidas aunque el entrevistado puede variar el tiempo que quiera emplear para responder a cada una de las preguntas
- El entrevistado puede sentirse libre de comentar cualquier aspecto relacionado con el proyecto, sea positivo, negativo o neutral. Asimismo, puede no contestar alguna pregunta si lo estima oportuno.
- Se pide que no se habla de esta entrevista con los demás participantes hasta que no hayan finalizado todas las entrevistas.
- Cualquier información que proporciona el entrevistado será tratada con la máxima confidencialidad.

DURANTE LA ENTREVISTA

- La grabación de la entrevista empieza citando el número de caso (que será **04 A Caso número 1, 2 o 3**) y **la fecha**

A lo largo de la entrevista es importante que el entrevistador tenga en cuenta las siguientes pautas:

- El entrevistador no expresa su opinión personal a favor o en contra del proyecto. Su papel es el de un rol neutral;
- Adopta el estilo de oyente interesado, pero no evalúa las respuestas dadas.
- Puede ampliar las preguntas con las aclaraciones entre paréntesis si fuera necesario.

AL TERMINAR LA ENTREVISTA

- Al final se agradece el entrevistado por el tiempo que ha dedicado a la evaluación del proyecto.
- Si lo considera oportuno, el entrevistador anotará cualquier comentario o sugerencia para mejorar el proceso de entrevista.

Entrevista nº: 04ª   Nº

Fecha:

Appendix IX (continued)

Instructions for Semi-Structured Interview

Preguntas para la entrevista semi-estructurada.
1. ¿Qué te motivó a iniciar este proyecto?
2. ¿Qué beneficios ha generado el proyecto para ti como profesor/a y para el equipo de profesores que ha participado en el proyecto?
3. ¿Qué impacto ha tenido o piensas que tendrá la participación del grupo en los procesos de enseñanza / aprendizaje?
4. ¿Hasta qué punto has podido influir en las decisiones tomadas en las reuniones del grupo?
5. ¿Qué diferencias específicas hay entre las reuniones realizadas siguiendo el proyecto y las reuniones habituales de departamento?
6. ¿Qué diferencias específicas hay entre las reuniones realizadas siguiendo el proyecto y otros tipos de formación que has recibido (por ejemplo en jornadas específicas para inglés, cursos en el CEP, etc.)?
7. ¿Este proyecto cambiará la manera en que trabaja el departamento? ¿Cómo?
8. ¿Cuáles son los puntos fuertes del proyecto? (*¿Qué aspectos positivos has encontrado en este proyecto?*)
9. ¿Qué aspectos del proyecto mejorarías? (*¿Qué aspectos negativos has encontrado en el proyecto?*)
10. ¿Adoptarías este proyecto en futuros cursos? En caso de ser afirmativo, ¿qué condiciones ayudarían para su funcionamiento?
11. ¿Qué otros comentarios piensas que serían importantes acerca de este proyecto que no has mencionado hasta ahora?
12. ¿Cómo calificarías tu experiencia de este proyecto? Utiliza la siguiente escala:
1 – Muy negativo
2 – Negativo
3 – Ni positivo, ni negativo
4- Positivo
5 - Muy positivo

Appendix X

Invitation to Participate in Study

Estimado/a compañero/a:

Escribimos para informarle acerca de un proyecto de investigación que se está llevando a cabo en el Departamento de Filología Inglesa de la Universidad de Granada y que versa sobre el establecimiento de indicadores de calidad en la enseñanza de idiomas.

El objetivo

El objetivo de este estudio es el de recoger las distintas perspectivas de varios expertos en el campo de la enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera al nivel de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria y Bachillerato con el fin de elaborar un instrumento que pueda servir al profesorado de esta asignatura en sus propias tareas de autoevaluación y mejora de calidad.

El método

El procedimiento que se empleará para este estudio se basa en el método Delphi, mediante el cual se recoge información a través de tres encuestas. La primera encuesta es abierta y trata de brindar la oportunidad a los expertos de opinar libremente sobre el tema en cuestión. Después, se realiza una segunda encuesta con una serie de ítems a calificar en una escala Lickert (1 a 5) basada en las respuestas provenientes de la primera encuesta abierta. La tercera encuesta es cerrada, donde se busca el consenso sobre los ítems priorizados en la ronda anterior.

¿Quién participa en el estudio?

En el estudio participan profesionales relacionados con la enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera en la provincia de Granada, principalmente con la jefatura y profesorado del departamento de inglés en centros de educación secundaria.

¿Cómo se participa?

El primer requisito para participar es el de cumplimentar el formulario de registro que aparece adjunto en esta carta y de enviarlo en el sobre proporcionado. También se puede solicitar el mismo formulario por correo electrónico y enviándolo a cualquiera de las direcciones que aparecen en la misma. Asimismo, la participación en las tres encuestas se realizará vía correo electrónico o correo normal.

A partir del envío de esta invitación, se establece el plazo de 2 semanas para comunicar su deseo de participar. Una vez recibido el registro de participación, se le enviará la primera encuesta y un código. Se garantiza el anonimato de todos los participantes.

Principalmente estamos interesados en saber la opinión de los jefes de departamento, pero dado que este estudio contempla recoger la opinión de todo el profesorado del departamento de inglés, le agradeceríamos si pudiese extender esta invitación a participar al resto del departamento. Al finalizar este estudio, se les proporcionará a los participantes un resumen de los resultados y conclusiones sacados.

Si tiene cualquier pregunta acerca de esta investigación, puede ponerse en contacto conmigo en las siguientes direcciones de correo electrónico:

[email address]

Sin más, reciba un cordial saludo,

Stephen Hughes

Appendix XI

Participation Form

□ Prefiero enviar encuestas por correo electrónico	
□ Prefiero enviar encuestas por correo normal	

REGISTRO DE PARTICIPANTES	
Nombre:	
Edad:	
Centro:	
Localidad:	
Correo electrónico:	

DATOS PROFESIONALES (RELLENE SÓLO LOS CAMPOS QUE CORRESPONDAN A SU POSICIÓN)

	Campo profesional	**Años de experiencia**
Profesor/a de (asignatura y nivel)		
Jefatura de dto. de		
Formador/a de profesores		
Inspección		
Otro		

DATOS ACADÉMICOS (RELLENE SÓLO LOS CAMPOS QUE CORRESPONDAN A SU TITULACIÓN)

Titulación	**Especialidad**
Licenciatura	
Master's	
Suficiencia Investigadora	
Doctorado	
Otro	

Estimada [name of subject]:

Gracias por tu colaboración en esta primera fase del estudio. En esta encuesta se te pide que respondas sobre elementos que podrían indicar el nivel de calidad de la planificación, procesos y resultados en la enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera en la educación secundaria y bachillerato.

Tu código es: A01

Al completar la encuesta, puedes enviar las respuestas utilizando el sobre proporcionado. Si tienes cualquier duda o comentario, puede contactar conmigo por correo electrónico en la siguiente dirección [email address] o en la dirección indicada en el sobre.

Agradeciendo de nuevo tu colaboración.

Un saludo

Stephen Hughes

Appendix XIII

Questionnaire I

ENCUESTA SOBRE INDICADORES DE CALIDAD EN LA EDUCACIÓN SECUNDARIA Y BACHILLERATO: INGLÉS

Indique aquí su código

Pregunta 1 Planificación.
Se refiere a cualquier aspecto de planificación de cursos y clases que contribuya a la mejora de los resultados académicos y no académicos

¿Qué aspectos relacionados con la planificación indicarían que existe calidad?

Pregunta 2 Profesorado.
Se refiere a cualquier aspecto del profesorado que contribuya a la mejora de los resultados académicos y no académicos.

¿Qué aspectos del profesorado de inglés indicarían que existe calidad?

Pregunta 3 Departamento.
Se refiere a cualquier aspecto del departamento que contribuya a la mejora de los resultados académicos y no académicos.

¿Qué aspectos del departamento de inglés indicarían que existe calidad?

Questionnaire I

Pregunta 4 Enseñanza y aprendizaje
Se refiere a cualquier elemento, proceso o estrategia empleados que contribuyan a la mejora de los resultados académicos y no académicos.

¿Qué elementos de la enseñanza y aprendizaje del inglés indicarían que existe calidad?

Pregunta 5 Resultados
Se refiere a los resultados académicos y no académicos que consigue el alumnado.

¿Qué resultados académicos y no académicos indicarían que existe calidad?

Pregunta 6 Otros elementos
Se refiere a cualquier otro elemento que pueda contribuir a la mejora de la enseñanza y aprendizaje de esta asignatura.

¿Qué otros elementos indicarían que existe calidad?

Gracias por su colaboración.

Appendix XIV

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
31	menor nº de alumnos	context	class size	a1
11	menor número de alumnos			
22	número de alumnos por profesor			
18	número reducido de alumnos			
10	reducir ratio de alumnos			
3	agrupar alumnos adecuadamente	context	group homogeneity	a2
16	distribuye alumnos teniendo en cuenta niveles			
8	diversidad homogeneizada.			
22	criterios para establecer por grupos y niveles			
11	grupos flexibles			
18	profesorado idóneo para dar asignatura	context	specialist teacher	a3
16	lector	context	conversation assistant	a4
22	lectores nativos en aula			
35	lectores que participen en conversaciones			
10	medios físicos - aula de idiomas	context	language classroom	a5
3	aulas específicas para idioma			
11	laboratorio			
9	laboratorio de idiomas			
22	aula de inglés			
1	medios suficientes: ordenadores,etc.	context	resources	a6
29	[calidad de materiales]			
3	con materiales necesarios			
16	dispone de medios y material adecuados			
20	material actualizado (libros, cds, películas, revistas)			
1	con mucha experiencia docente	input: teacher profile	experience	b1
8	conocimiento y experiencia			
5	nivel de lengua en todas destrezas	input: teacher profile	proficiency	b2
3	destrezas orales y escritas			
31	que hable idioma con fluidez			
30	que profesor sea bilingüe			
24	dominio del idioma			
33	buena preparación	input: teacher profile	pre-service training	b3
18	conocimiento de métodos adecuados			
6	actitud; motivación	input: teacher profile	motivation	b4
3	autoestima y valoración de sus posibilidades			
8	interés			
35	Interés por parte del profesor			
16	le gusta su profesión			
2	cursos de perfeccionamiento y especialización	input: teacher profile	in-service training	b5
12	actualización mediante formación continua			
22	asistencia a cursos, jornadas, reciclaje			
21	otras fuentes de información para mejorar calidad			
7	continua y esencial formación práctica y útil			

Appendix XIV (continued)

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
2	cursos de perfeccionamiento y especialización	input: teacher profile	in-service training	b5
12	actualización mediante formación continua			
22	asistencia a cursos, jornadas, reciclaje			
21	otras fuentes de información para mejorar calidad			
7	continua y esencial formación práctica y útil			
28	oportunidades de usar lengua	input: teacher profile	language training	b6
13	idioma			
3	participación en programas de movilidad			
9	lingüística			
4	mantenerse al día en conocimientos de lengua			
8	capacidad de transmisión.	input: teacher profile	teaching ability	b7
2	habilidades didácticas			
21	capacidad pedagógica			
23	saber transmitir valores generales y de otra cultura			
18	saber enseñar, que tenga buen método			
9	involucración en vida del centro	input: teacher profile	participation in school	b8
3	participación en proyectos [a nivel de centro]			
10	participación activa en vida del centro			
14	participación en actividades ajenas a departamento			
16	alumnado como elemento colaborador	input: partnerships	coordination with students	c1
6	colaboración con equipo directivo y claustro	input: partnerships	coordination within school	c2
32	[coordinación con] distintos departamentos y resto del equipo docente			
13	consulta con tutor			
10	coordinación con jefe de estudios y departamentos			
16	se tiene en cuenta otros departamentos			
13	accesible a padres	input: partnerships	parent support	c3
23	interés por conseguir objetivos propuestos [de familias]			
9	que padres se involucren en enseñanza			
10	que padres se involucren con profesorado			
13	reunión padres para enseñarles a ayudar a hijos			
34	actividades de intercambio,	input: partnerships	links with partners	c4
18	contacto con centros extranjeros			
22	becas de idioma para verano			
3	programas de intercambio(inmersión)			
2	intercambio escolar con otros paises			

Appendix XIV (continued)

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
14	afrontar proceso enseñanza-aprendizaje de manera colegiada	processes: department level	climate for collaboration	d1
2	alto índice de cooperación			
1	buen ambiente entre todos miembros del departamento			
22	compenetración entre miembros del departamento			
23	relación comunicativa entre miembros del departamento,			
14	la frecuencia de sus reuniones	processes: department level	frequency of meetings	
34	reuniones periódicas			
18	Reuniones periódicas; contacto continuo entre profesores			
17	reuniones periódicas			
7	Continua interrelación entre miembros del departamento.			
14	objetivos exactos y consensuados; asumir nuevos retos	processes: department level	cooperative planning	d3
29	aunar criterios; coordinación y trabajo en equipo			
33	buena coordinación; objetivos comunes			
20	buena coordinación entre profesores; debate interno			
11	conjunta - planificación			
4	actualización - renovación de materiales	processes: department level	materials selection	d4
2	adecuación de textos y materiales al alumnado; material complementario libro de texto			
13	elaboración de materiales.			
22	libro de texto adecuado; acceso a diccionario			
28	materiales consensuados, opinión de todos [para] cambiar			
13	evaluación inicial de autoconcepto del alumno	processes: department level	appropriate / contextualised goals	d5
16	factores que afectan al aprendizaje; nº de alumnos por clase			
28	adecuar planificación al nivel y situación real			
15	analizar previamente recursos y finalidad			
27	planificar objetivos mínimos por nivel,			
23	[saber] conocimientos impartidos	processes: department level	learner information to guide planning	d6
27	acceder a conocimientos medios de alumnos			
18	conocer nivel conocimientos			
32	conocimientos previos de alumnos al planificar			

Appendix XIV (continued)

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
33	[programación] bien hecha; que se cumple	processes: department level	realistic planning	d7
14	diferente de la proporcionada por editoriales			
27	hacer coincidir unidades didácticas con desarrollo de clase			
19	que lo que funciona se puede aplicar			
9	realista			
18	conexión entre niveles	processes: department level	continuity	d8
3	plan de actividades a largo plazo			
23	contenidos [etc.] planificados de forma escalonada, continuada y relacionada			
4	coordinación entre distintos profesores [continuidad cursos],			
16	en planificación colaboran distintos miembros			
24	cuatro destrezas	processes: department level	4 skills	d9
14	cuatro destrezas equilibrio			
26	equilibrio en cuatro destrezas			
28	programación actividades que desarrollarán habilidades (Listening, Speaking, …)			
34	gramatica	processes: department level	grammatical competence	d10
35	Metodología para instaurar hábitos de estudio gramatical			
22	vocabulario - hacerles comprender uso	processes: department level	lexical competence	d11
35	metodología para adquisición de vocabulario			
34	vocabulario			
34	pronunciacion	processes: department level	pronunciation	d12
34	aspectos culturales	processes: department level	cultural competence	d13
25	adaptación a distintos niveles	processes: department level	mixed-ability teaching	d14
12	adaptacion curricular al nivel individual			
8	adaptaciones para secuenciación			
32	atención a diversidad			
28	diversificación y adaptación			
6	actividades conjuntas y con alumnado dentro y fuera del aula	processes: department level	extra curricular activities	d15
34	cartas, salidas; actos relacionados con idioma.			
14	organización de actividades culturales			
13	actividades (semana cultural, juegos, canciones).			
20	organización de actividades diversas			
6	intercalar elementos transversales	processes: department level	cross-curricular themes	d16
18	interdisciplinariedad			
23	ser consciente de interdisciplinariedad			

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
5	prácticas de observación claramente definidas	processes: department level	observation practices	d17
13	Reuniones periódicas para evaluar [cumplimiento de] objetivos.	processes: department level	formative programme review	d18
28	revisar periódicamente planificación y adecuarla			
17	constante proceso de reflexión sobre su tarea			
16	seguimiento de programaciones, revisando, modificando, mejorando			
20	flexible para adaptarse			
5	crítica constructiva y deseo de mejorar	processes: department level	summative review	d19
10	analizando logros o dificultades			
32	evaluar contenidos, procedimientos, materiales…todo proceso			
9	Realización de auto-evaluación seria			
6	reuniones para analizar problemas			
1	bien planificadas	processes: classroom level	lesson planning	e1
20	planificación por anticipado de materia			
13	Preparación material de recuperación; preparación de clases			
8	preparación de clases			
26	preparación de clases (variedad en exposición, buen ritmo).			
26	claridad al marcar objetivos.			e2
32	presenta claramente objetivos [etc.] al principio de cada unidad y sesión	processes: classroom level	articulate learning goals	
28	criterios y una metodología clara y concreta			
13	uso comunicativo de lengua; comunicador (no 'gramaticalista')	processes: classroom level	language for communication	e3
33	asimilación de conceptos según 4 habilidades			
28	reading, writing, speaking, listening			
6	elementos comunicativos,sociolingüísticos y actitud			
5	enseñanza cubre todas destrezas			
9	materiales multimedia	processes: classroom level	new technologies	e4
22	acceso al material informático			
10	internet, material interactivo			
2	material complementario: ordenadores, mnternet, etc.			
25	Uso de Internet			
20	inmersión en lengua y cultura anglófonas	processes: classroom level	target language use	e5
22	dar clases en ingles			
34	darían clases íntegramente en idioma ingles			
14	empleo de lengua inglesa en aula			
28	que se integre lengua inglesa de forma oral en desarrollo de clases,			

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
32	adecuar ritmo a necesidades / preferencias para aprendizaje	processes: classroom level	learner differences / learner needs	e6
5	enseñar a toda clase; diferentes niveles de práctica			
15	no se crean grupos de alumnos abandonados			
7	adaptarse a diversidad			
13	organización del currículo según necesidades del grupo			
2	aprendizaje significativo	processes: classroom level	meaningful learning	e7
32	actividades, aumentar progresivamente dificultad			
5	comunicación realista; tareas realistas	processes: classroom level	meaningful tasks	e8
33	contextos naturales; lectura de libros y/o revistas de inglés			
23	un contexto lo más parecido al real			
7	se adapten a vida actual - enfoque práctico			
35	lengua en contextos naturales: prensa, DVD,			
16	actividades variadas dentro y fuera del aula	processes: classroom level	variety activities / materials	e9
5	Incluye un amplio rango de métodos, según sean apropiados			
32	método ecléctico; clases variadas; diversidad de materiales			
13	preparación de clases con actividades variadas			
26	variedad en metodología			
15	se refuerzan contenidos con cierta periodicidad	processes: classroom level	reinforcement	e10
22	que se ayuden entre sí	processes: classroom level	pair-group work	e11
10	trabajar cooperativamente			
32	alumnos dirijan su proceso aprendizaje	processes: classroom level	student autonomy	e12
5	acceso [y familiaridad con] a materials para mejorar			
13	aprender a aprender			
28	capaces de trabajar de forma autónoma			
13	aprender a aprender; uso autónomo de materiales			
22	establecer pautas, libreta limpia y completa, puntuable, etc.	processes: classroom level	clear structures & routines	e13
2	buen ambiente entre docentes y alumnos	processes: classroom level	classroom learning environment	e14
29	buen ambiente en clase			
32	alumno se siente relajado; autoestima; fomentar confianza			

Appendix XIV (continued)

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
5	profesor no hace lo que alumnos pueden hacer	processes: classroom level	learner participation	e15
15	clases participativas			
28	participación de alumnos en clase (activa)			
32	alumnos participan, comunicándose libremente en [L2]			
4	participación en clase			
33	buen nivel de exigencia	processes: classroom level	level of demand	e16
33	buen dominio de clase	processes: classroom level	orderly atmosphere	e17
26	capacidad para mantener disciplina e interés.			
1	disciplina			
10	medidas disciplinarias eficaces			
24	que no existan elementos perturbadores			
22	respetarles y pedir respeto; establecer y respetar normas			
34	variedad en tipos de ejercicio; canciones, películas	processes: classroom level	ludic uses of L2	e18
5	juegos			
32	clases son divertidas; amenas			
27	alumnos entienden importancia del inglés	processes: classroom level	motivation	e19
22	estrategias para motivar, incentivar			
15	consigue motivar a sus alumnos			
23	tener motivados a alumnos			
33	interés por aprendizaje del idioma			
27	trabajo personal del alumno	processes: classroom level	student effort	e20
23	interés por conseguir objetivos			
2	trabajo constante	processes: classroom level	time on task	e21
4	aprovechar al máximo horas de enseñanza del inglés			
26	puntualidad			
22	paciencia y comprensión; establecer lazos	processes: classroom level	teacher-student relationship	e22
32	empatía con alumnos			
15	existe buena comunicación con alumnado			
2	habilidades comunicativas			
13	negociador; aceptación de todos alumnos			
16	tiene buena relación con alumnos			
15	alumnado respondiendo o cambiar de rumbo	processes: classroom level	teacher innovator	e23
7	descubrir nuevos métodos			
4	saber innovar en clase			
17	versatilidad ante diversidad de situaciones			
13	control de evolución de cada alumno	processes: assessment	formative assessment	f1
15	alumnado comprende y aprende			
26	evaluación periódica			
8	seguimiento de alumnos			
4	preveer ldificultades y tratar de solucionarlas			

Appendix XIV (continued)

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
2	coherencia entre clase y exámenes	processes: assessment	content validity	f2
7	[calificaciones] no manipuladas	processes: assessment	reliability	f3
35	trabajo en casa realizado puntualmente	processes: assessment	homework	f4
26 19 2	agilidad en corrección de trabajo hay feedback retroalimentación	processes: assessment	feedback	f5
3 1	evaluación al final de ciclos de Secundaria [resultados de exámenes de ESO]	Outputs: academic/ communicative	school performance	g1
3	Bachillerato de competencia comunicativa (no selectividad)	Outputs: academic/ communicative	school performance	g2
1 26	resultados de exámenes [de selectividad] buenos resultados en Selectividad	Outputs: academic/ communicative	High-stakes	g3
11 19 17 14 25	atender a exámenes externos examenes externos (Pet, Ket) Viabilizar/validar resultados-control externo indicadores externos (First certificate, Trinity, etc) exámenes externos oficiales (Escuela Oficial de Idiomas)	Outputs: academic/ communicative	proficiency exams	g4
8 21 15 13 2	consecución de objetivos planteados conseguir 'objetivos mínimos' para evaluar consigue objetivos propuestos cumplir objetivos programados por departamento. evaluación satisfactoria en relación con curriculum	Outputs: academic/ communicative	results in line with objectives	g5
14 2	comparación con otras asignaturas / centros resultados contrastados con otros centros en pruebas generales	Outputs: academic/ communicative	benchmarking	g6
18 23 33 2 13 21	[capaz de comunicarse] con personas de otras culturas aplicar conocimientos aprendidos y adquiridos para expresarse comunicarse en nueva lengua aprendida - oral o escrita capacidad para comunicarse en idioma competencia en lengua inglesa; mejora de comunicación verbal consecución de capacidades	Outputs: academic/ communicative	interpersonal communication	g7

Appendix XIV (continued)

Sample Texts and Categorisation Items

Subj Nº	Reduced texts Limited to first 5 cases	Major themes	Minor Categories	Item Nº
28	atmósfera de motivación e interés; interés en alumnos	Outputs: non-academic	affective domain	h1
26	alumnos motivados			
13	confianza en propias capacidades, aumento de autoestima,			
19	alumno se interese por asignatura			
8	interes del alumnado			
3	deseo de ir a estudiar/vivir en L2 países	Outputs: non-academic	attitude towards L2 culture	h2
32	actitud positiva y abierta por aprender más			
14	número de alumnos que opten por seguir estudiando inglés			
16	interés en aprendizaje de idiomas;			
7	participación en actividades extraculturales			
14	Indice de satisfacción de padres	Outputs: non-academic	parent satisfaction	h3
16	distintos participantes se encuentran satisfechos con mismo - padres			
31	alumnos deberían sentirse satisfechos y orgullosos de su aprendizaje	Outputs: non-academic	student satisfaction	h4
14	indice de satisfacción de alumnos			
4	opinión del alumno que asignatura no ha sido árida ni pesada.			
16	distintos participantes en proceso se encuentran satisfechos - alumnos			
13	satisfacción del alumno.			
16	distintos participantes en proceso se encuentran satisfechos - profesores	Outputs: non-academic	teacher satisfaction	h5
3	satisfacción con labor desempeñada			
32	calificación positiva de todo proceso de enseñanzaaprendizaje	Outputs: non-academic	self-evaluation	h6
3	evaluación externa	Outputs: non-academic	external assessment	h7
6	comunicación gestual	Outputs: non-academic	non-verbal communication	h8
13	mejora de comunicación no verbal			

Appendix XV

Questionnaire II

Instrucciones
Gracias por tu participación en esta fase del estudio. En esta encuesta, pedimos tu opinión sobre posibles indicadores de calidad en la enseñanza y aprendizaje de inglés como lengua extranjera en Educación Secundaria y Bachillerato.
La escala a emplear es de: **1 (no es un buen indicador de calidad) a 5 (sí es un buen indicador de calidad).**

A. Contexto	1	2	3	4	5
A1. Ratio profesorado-alumnado en clase	O	O	O	O	O
A2. Homogeneidad de los grupos	O	O	O	O	O
A3. Existencia de profesorado especialista en la materia	O	O	O	O	O
A4. Existencia de auxiliares de conversación (lectores)	O	O	O	O	O
A5. Existencia de instalaciones adecuadas (aula de idiomas, equipos informáticos, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
A6. Existencia de recursos materiales adecuados (materiales audiovisuales, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O

B. Profesorado	1	2	3	4	5
B1. Experiencia docente	O	O	O	O	O
B2. Dominio del inglés en todas las destrezas	O	O	O	O	O
B3. Nivel de formación pedagógica acreditable (expediente académico)	O	O	O	O	O
B4. Motivación como docente	O	O	O	O	O
B5. Formación continua metodológica (en cursos, jornadas, grupos de trabajo, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
B6. Formación continua en el idioma (por ejemplo: contacto con países de habla inglesa, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
B7. Habilidad pedagógica para la enseñanza del inglés	O	O	O	O	O
B8. Participación en la vida del centro	O	O	O	O	O

C. Colaboración con otros sectores	1	2	3	4	5
C1. Libertad del alumnado de participar en el desarrollo de enseñanza y aprendizaje de inglés	O	O	O	O	O
C2. Relación del profesor de inglés con las estructuras organizativas del centro (departamentos afines, equipo directivo, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
C3. Colaboración con los padres en el proceso educativo	O	O	O	O	O
C4. Colaboración con centros en el extranjero (intercambios, correspondencia, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O

D. Departamento	1	2	3	4	5
D1. Clima positivo de comunicación entre los miembros del departamento	O	O	O	O	O
D2. Frecuencia de las reuniones	O	O	O	O	O
D3. Planificación cooperativa del currículo (objetivos, contenidos, métodos, criterios de evaluación, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
D4. La calidad de los materiales seleccionados y preparados	O	O	O	O	O
D5. Uso de información obtenida de los alumnos para guiar la planificación	O	O	O	O	O
D6. Objetivos apropiados / contextualizados (tener en cuenta nivel de alumnado, etapa educativa, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
D7. Realismo de la planificación (refleja lo que se hace en clase)	O	O	O	O	O
D8. Continuidad entre cursos y ciclos	O	O	O	O	O
D9. Planificación del aprendizaje de las cuatro destrezas (listening, speaking, reading, writing)	O	O	O	O	O
D10. Planificación del aprendizaje de la competencia gramatical	O	O	O	O	O
D11. Planificación del aprendizaje de la competencia léxica	O	O	O	O	O
D12. Planificación del aprendizaje de la pronunciación	O	O	O	O	O
D13. Planificación del aprendizaje de la competencia cultural	O	O	O	O	O
D14. Planes de atención a la diversidad	O	O	O	O	O
D15. Organización de actividades extracurriculares	O	O	O	O	O
D16. Interdisciplinariedad e integración de temas transversales	O	O	O	O	O
D17. Prácticas que favorezcan la participación de observadores externos en el aula	O	O	O	O	O
D18. Evaluación desde el departamento del proceso educativo a lo largo del curso	O	O	O	O	O
D19. Evaluación desde el departamento del proceso educativo al final del curso	O	O	O	O	O

Questionnaire II

E. En el aula	1	2	3	4	5
E1. Planificación de las clases	○	○	○	○	○
E2. Comunicación de objetivos al alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E3. Presencia del enfoque comunicativo en la enseñanza de inglés	○	○	○	○	○
E4. Uso de nuevas tecnologías de información y comunicación	○	○	○	○	○
E5. Uso predominante de la lengua inglesa en clase	○	○	○	○	○
E6. Atención a las diferencias individuales y necesidades del alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E7. Aprendizaje significativo (relacionar conocimientos existentes y conocimientos nuevos)	○	○	○	○	○
E8. Uso de tareas realistas y relevantes	○	○	○	○	○
E9. Uso de diversos materiales además del libro de texto en el proceso didáctico	○	○	○	○	○
E10. Repaso sistemático de contenidos	○	○	○	○	○
E11. Trabajo cooperativo en parejas / grupos pequeños	○	○	○	○	○
E12. Trabajo autónomo del alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E13. Recursos específicos (rutinas establecidas) para favorecer el proceso didáctico: consulta de libros, formación de equipos de trabajo, etc.).	○	○	○	○	○
E14. Clima socio-afectivo en clase	○	○	○	○	○
E15. Participación en las actividades por parte del alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E16. Nivel de exigencia sobre el alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E17. Orden y disciplina en clase	○	○	○	○	○
E18. Uso lúdico del idioma (juegos, canciones, cuentos, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○
E19. Nivel de interés y motivación del alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E20. Nivel de esfuerzo del alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E21. Aprovechamiento del tiempo asignado a la asignatura	○	○	○	○	○
E22. Relación comunicativa entre profesor/a – alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
E23. Versatilidad del profesorado para adaptar el trabajo del aula a necesidades imprevistas	○	○	○	○	○
F. Evaluación	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
F1. Seguimiento del progreso del alumnado (evaluación formativa)	○	○	○	○	○
F2. Validez de contenido de las pruebas de evaluación (exámenes basados en objetivos y en explicaciones de clase)	○	○	○	○	○
F3. Fiabilidad de la evaluación (la prueba, corrección y asignación de notas es fiable)	○	○	○	○	○
F4. Control de trabajos de casa	○	○	○	○	○
F5. Retroalimentación (feedback) sistemático proporcionado al alumnado	○	○	○	○	○
G. Resultados académicos / competencia comunicativa	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
G1. Resultados obtenidos en ESO	○	○	○	○	○
G2. Resultados obtenidos en Bachillerato	○	○	○	○	○
G3. Resultados obtenidos en Selectividad	○	○	○	○	○
G4. Resultados obtenidos en exámenes externos (Escuela Oficial de Idiomas, Cambridge, Trinity, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○
G5. Coincidencia de los resultados con los objetivos fijados por el profesorado	○	○	○	○	○
G6. La comparación de resultados con otros centros o con asignaturas dentro del mismo centro	○	○	○	○	○
G7. Capacidad del alumnado de utilizar el inglés en situaciones reales de comunicación	○	○	○	○	○
H. Resultados no académicos	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
H1. Influencia de la clase de inglés sobre el dominio afectivo del alumnado (motivación, autoestima, confianza)	○	○	○	○	○
H2. Actitud del alumnado hacia la cultura extranjera	○	○	○	○	○
H3. Nivel de satisfacción de padres/madres	○	○	○	○	○
H4. Nivel de satisfacción de los alumnos/as	○	○	○	○	○
H5. Nivel de satisfacción de los profesores/as	○	○	○	○	○
H6. Resultados obtenidos de una auto-evaluación realizada por el departamento	○	○	○	○	○
H7. Resultados obtenidos por una evaluación exterior	○	○	○	○	○
H8. Capacidad de comunicarse no verbalmente (Competencia gestual)	○	○	○	○	○

Appendix XVI

Instructions and second questionnaire

Estimado/a compañero/a:

Escribo para informarte que ya estamos en la segunda fase de nuestro estudio sobre indicadores de Calidad en la enseñanza de inglés. En la primera fase, hemos obtenido la participación de 35 profesores/as de inglés, 30 de ESO y/o Bachillerato (incluyendo 10 jefes de departamento), 1 Universidad de Granada, 2 Centro de Lenguas Modernas y 1 Centro de Profesorado.

Las respuestas de los distintos participantes han sido procesadas y contrastadas con conceptos o constructos empleados en la literatura de la pedagogía general y de didáctica de la lengua extranjera, y con otros estudios y documentos sobre indicadores de Calidad, y las distintas consideraciones han sido convertidas en ítems en una segunda encuesta.

Durante esta fase, han colaborado cuatro personas: este investigador (profesor de educación secundaria), un profesor de Ciencias de la Educación, un profesor de Filología Inglesa, y un inspector.

Las respuestas de la primera encuesta pueden ser útiles en sí para darnos una idea inicial sobre posibles indicadores de Calidad en nuestro contexto, sin embargo, para tener un instrumento más preciso, sería conveniente ver hasta que punto los ítems identificados son válidos. Por eso, la segunda fase de este estudio consiste en recoger la opinión del profesorado participante sobre los ítems mediante una segunda encuesta (el pilotaje nos indica que se tarda menos de 10 minutos).

Por eso, te animamos para que colabores en esta fase y recordamos que al finalizar este estudio, comunicaremos los resultados a todos los centros participantes.

Para participar, sólo hay que completar la encuesta adjunta en esta carta, indicando tu código, y enviándola en el sobre proporcionado.

Tu código es:

Si tienes cualquier duda o comentario, puedes contactar conmigo por correo electrónico en la siguiente dirección [email address] o en la dirección indicada en el sobre.

Esperando que puedas participar en esta fase del estudio y agradeciendo de nuevo tu colaboración.

Un saludo

Stephen Hughes.

Appendix XVII

Analysis of differences by participant gender

T-Test for participant gender

Estadísticos de grupo

	genero	N	Media	Desviación típ.	Error típ. de la media
A1	male	17	4,12	1,409	,342
	female	22	3,91	1,192	,254
A2	male	17	3,76	1,091	,265
	female	22	3,36	1,002	,214
A4	male	16	3,56	1,209	,302
	female	21	4,00	1,000	,218
A5	male	17	4,06	1,088	,264
	female	22	3,95	1,290	,275
B8	male	17	3,76	1,033	,250
	female	22	3,77	1,232	,263
C1	male	17	3,47	1,007	,244
	female	21	3,52	1,030	,225
C3	male	17	4,18	,809	,196
	female	22	4,00	1,155	,246
G3	male	17	4,06	,827	,201
	female	21	3,67	1,111	,242
H2	male	17	4,24	1,147	,278
	female	22	3,95	,899	,192

Prueba de muestras independientes

		Prueba de Levene para la igualdad de varianzas		Prueba T para la igualdad de medias					95% Intervalo de confianza para la diferencia	
		F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)	Diferencia de medias	Error típ. de la diferencia	Inferior	Superior
A1	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,385	,539	,501	37	,620	,209	,417	-,636	1,053
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,490	31,291	,628	,209	,426	-,660	1,077
A2	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,006	,940	1,192	37	,241	,401	,336	-,281	1,083
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			1,179	32,976	,247	,401	,340	-,291	1,093
A4	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,760	,193	-1,204	35	,237	-,438	,363	-1,175	,300
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-1,173	28,831	,250	-,438	,373	-1,200	,325
A5	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,699	,408	,268	37	,791	,104	,390	-,685	,894
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,274	36,672	,786	,104	,381	-,668	,877
B8	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,154	,697	-,022	37	,983	-,008	,371	-,760	,744
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,022	36,713	,982	-,008	,363	-,743	,727
C1	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,042	,839	-,160	36	,874	-,053	,333	-,728	,622
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,160	34,681	,874	-,053	,332	-,728	,621
C3	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	2,621	,114	,536	37	,595	,176	,329	-,491	,844
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,561	36,711	,578	,176	,315	-,462	,814
G3	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,481	,232	1,209	36	,235	,392	,324	-,266	1,050
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			1,247	35,791	,221	,392	,315	-,246	1,030
H2	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,063	,309	,858	37	,397	,281	,327	-,382	,944
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,831	29,682	,413	,281	,338	-,409	,971

Appendix XVIII

Analyses of differences for type of centre

Descriptivos

		N	Media	Desviación típica	Error típico	Intervalo de confianza para la media al 95%		Mínimo	Máximo
						Límite inferior	Límite superior		
A1	publico	15	3,60	1,595	,412	2,72	4,48	1	5
	concertado	15	4,13	1,187	,307	3,48	4,79	1	5
	privado	4	4,25	,500	,250	3,45	5,05	4	5
	otros expertos	5	4,60	,548	,245	3,92	5,28	4	5
	Total	39	4,00	1,277	,205	3,59	4,41	1	5
A2	publico	15	3,13	1,246	,322	2,44	3,82	1	5
	concertado	15	3,73	,799	,206	3,29	4,18	2	5
	privado	4	3,50	1,000	,500	1,91	5,09	2	4
	otros expertos	5	4,20	,837	,374	3,16	5,24	3	5
	Total	39	3,54	1,047	,168	3,20	3,88	1	5
A4	publico	14	3,79	1,311	,350	3,03	4,54	1	5
	concertado	14	4,00	,784	,210	3,55	4,45	3	5
	privado	4	3,75	1,258	,629	1,75	5,75	2	5
	otros expertos	5	3,40	1,342	,600	1,73	5,07	2	5
	Total	37	3,81	1,101	,181	3,44	4,18	1	5
A5	publico	15	3,93	1,486	,384	3,11	4,76	1	5
	concertado	15	4,40	,828	,214	3,94	4,86	2	5
	privado	4	3,25	1,258	,629	1,25	5,25	2	5
	otros expertos	5	3,60	,894	,400	2,49	4,71	3	5
	Total	39	4,00	1,192	,191	3,61	4,39	1	5
B8	publico	15	3,87	1,187	,307	3,21	4,52	1	5
	concertado	15	3,93	,961	,248	3,40	4,47	1	5
	privado	4	3,50	1,732	,866	,74	6,26	2	5
	otros expertos	5	3,20	1,095	,490	1,84	4,56	2	4
	Total	39	3,77	1,135	,182	3,40	4,14	1	5
C1	publico	15	3,13	,990	,256	2,58	3,68	1	5
	concertado	15	4,07	,799	,206	3,62	4,51	3	5
	privado	3	3,67	,577	,333	2,23	5,10	3	4
	otros expertos	5	2,80	1,095	,490	1,44	4,16	1	4
	Total	38	3,50	1,007	,163	3,17	3,83	1	5
C3	publico	15	4,33	,976	,252	3,79	4,87	2	5
	concertado	15	4,07	,704	,182	3,68	4,46	3	5
	privado	4	3,75	1,893	,946	,74	6,76	1	5
	otros expertos	5	3,60	1,140	,510	2,18	5,02	2	5
	Total	39	4,08	1,010	,162	3,75	4,40	1	5
G3	publico	14	3,86	,864	,231	3,36	4,36	2	5
	concertado	15	3,93	,884	,228	3,44	4,42	3	5
	privado	4	4,00	1,414	,707	1,75	6,25	2	5
	otros expertos	5	3,40	1,517	,678	1,52	5,28	1	5
	Total	38	3,84	1,001	,162	3,51	4,17	1	5
H2	publico	15	3,80	,941	,243	3,28	4,32	2	5
	concertado	15	4,47	,743	,192	4,06	4,88	3	5
	privado	4	4,50	,577	,289	3,58	5,42	4	5
	otros expertos	5	3,40	1,673	,748	1,32	5,48	1	5
	Total	39	4,08	1,010	,162	3,75	4,40	1	5

ANOVA

		Suma de cuadrados	gl	Media cuadrática	F	Sig.
A1	Inter-grupos	4,717	3	1,572	,961	,422
	Intra-grupos	57,283	35	1,637		
	Total	62,000	38			
A2	Inter-grupos	5,226	3	1,742	1,672	,191
	Intra-grupos	36,467	35	1,042		
	Total	41,692	38			
A4	Inter-grupos	1,369	3	,456	,356	,785
	Intra-grupos	42,307	33	1,282		
	Total	43,676	36			
A5	Inter-grupos	5,517	3	1,839	1,327	,281
	Intra-grupos	48,483	35	1,385		
	Total	54,000	38			
B8	Inter-grupos	2,456	3	,819	,617	,609
	Intra-grupos	46,467	35	1,328		
	Total	48,923	38			
C1	Inter-grupos	9,367	3	3,122	3,773	,019
	Intra-grupos	28,133	34	,827		
	Total	37,500	37			
C3	Inter-grupos	2,553	3	,851	,822	,490
	Intra-grupos	36,217	35	1,035		
	Total	38,769	38			
G3	Inter-grupos	1,205	3	,402	,381	,767
	Intra-grupos	35,848	34	1,054		
	Total	37,053	37			
H2	Inter-grupos	6,436	3	2,145	2,322	,092
	Intra-grupos	32,333	35	,924		
	Total	38,769	38			

Appendix XIX

T-Test for age groups (over and under 40)

Prueba de muestras independientes

		Prueba de Levene para la igualdad de varianzas		Prueba T para la igualdad de medias						
									95% Intervalo de confianza para la diferencia	
		F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)	Diferencia de medias	Error típ. de la diferencia	Inferior	Superior
A1	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,013	,909	,754	37	,456	,313	,415	-,528	1,153
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,754	34,521	,456	,313	,415	-,530	1,156
A2	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,100	,754	,875	37	,387	,297	,339	-,391	,984
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,876	34,672	,387	,297	,339	-,392	,985
A4	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,579	,217	,360	35	,721	,132	,368	-,614	,879
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,369	34,422	,715	,132	,359	-,597	,862
A5	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	5,506	,024	1,663	37	,105	,626	,376	-,137	1,388
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			1,758	35,876	,087	,626	,356	-,096	1,348
B8	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,390	,536	-,303	37	,764	-,112	,371	-,864	,639
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,313	36,986	,756	-,112	,359	-,840	,616
C1	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,042	,839	,160	36	,874	,053	,333	-,622	,728
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,160	34,681	,874	,053	,332	-,621	,728
C3	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,136	,715	-1,394	37	,172	-,449	,322	-1,102	,204
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-1,409	35,788	,167	-,449	,319	-1,096	,197
G3	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,009	,926	-,424	36	,674	-,140	,330	-,810	,530
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,423	33,815	,675	-,140	,331	-,814	,534
H2	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,039	,845	-,413	37	,682	-,136	,330	-,805	,532
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,404	31,188	,689	-,136	,337	-,824	,551

Appendix XX

Tests of group homogeneity: Gender.

Estadísticos de grupo

	genero	N	Media	Desviación típ.	Error típ. de la media
total_A	male	15	25,4667	4,68838	1,21054
	female	21	24,5238	3,73656	,81538
total_B	male	17	34,9412	3,64813	,88480
	female	21	34,5714	4,03201	,87986
total_C	male	17	15,2353	2,07754	,50388
	female	20	15,4500	2,41650	,54035
total_D	male	15	78,0667	11,22158	2,89740
	female	20	79,5500	9,05233	2,02416
total_E	male	15	100,2667	9,72821	2,51181
	female	20	97,6000	13,21243	2,95439
total_F	male	17	21,9412	2,41015	,58455
	female	22	21,1818	3,17185	,67624
total_G	male	16	28,3125	3,41992	,85498
	female	20	27,0500	4,55926	1,01948
total_H	male	15	32,6000	5,91366	1,52690
	female	19	31,5789	4,42613	1,01542

Prueba de muestras independientes

		Prueba de Levene para la igualdad de varianzas		Prueba T para la igualdad de medias						95% Intervalo de confianza para la diferencia	
		F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)	Diferencia de medias	Error típ. de la diferencia		Inferior	Superior
total_A	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,086	,771	,671	34	,507	,94286	1,40464		-1,91171	3,79743
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,646	25,859	,524	,94286	1,45954		-2,05806	3,94377
total_B	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,672	,418	,293	36	,771	,36975	1,26134		-2,18836	2,92786
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,296	35,510	,769	,36975	1,24781		-2,16213	2,90163
total_C	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,004	,952	-,287	35	,776	-,21471	,74813		-1,73348	1,30407
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,291	34,991	,773	-,21471	,73883		-1,71462	1,28521
total_D	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,554	,462	-,433	33	,668	-1,48333	3,42592		-8,45343	5,48676
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,420	26,372	,678	-1,48333	3,53442		-8,74347	5,77680
total_E	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,381	,248	,658	33	,515	2,66667	4,05095		-5,57505	10,90838
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,688	32,997	,496	2,66667	3,87784		-5,22288	10,55621
total_F	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	2,330	,135	,820	37	,417	,75936	,92594		-1,11678	2,63550
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,850	36,997	,401	,75936	,89387		-1,05179	2,57051
total_G	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	2,579	,118	,919	34	,365	1,26250	1,37379		-1,52939	4,05439
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,949	33,890	,349	1,26250	1,33054		-1,44180	3,96680
total_H	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,220	,278	,576	32	,568	1,02105	1,77198		-2,58834	4,63045
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,557	25,276	,583	1,02105	1,83372		-2,75346	4,79557

Appendix XXI

Tests of group homogeneity: Age

T-Test for age

Estadísticos de grupo

	dos grupos de edad	N	Media	Desviación típ.	Error típ. de la media
total_A	Menor de 40 años	16	25,8750	2,87228	,71807
	Mayor de 40 años	20	24,1500	4,83708	1,08160
total_B	Menor de 40 años	17	34,1176	4,09088	,99218
	Mayor de 40 años	21	35,2381	3,60423	,78651
total_C	Menor de 40 años	17	15,1765	2,21459	,53712
	Mayor de 40 años	20	15,5000	2,30560	,51555
total_D	Menor de 40 años	15	77,1333	11,65496	3,00930
	Mayor de 40 años	20	80,2500	8,44097	1,88746
total_E	Menor de 40 años	15	97,2667	11,51686	2,97364
	Mayor de 40 años	20	99,8500	12,11469	2,70893
total_F	Menor de 40 años	17	21,5294	2,55239	,61905
	Mayor de 40 años	22	21,5000	3,12821	,66694
total_G	Menor de 40 años	17	27,1765	3,95657	,95961
	Mayor de 40 años	19	28,0000	4,26875	,97932
total_H	Menor de 40 años	17	30,5294	5,38653	1,30643
	Mayor de 40 años	17	33,5294	4,40337	1,06798

Prueba de muestras independientes

		Prueba de Levene para la igualdad de varianzas		Prueba T para la igualdad de medias					95% Intervalo de confianza para la diferencia	
		F	Sig.	t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)	Diferencia de medias	Error típ. de la diferencia	Inferior	Superior
total_A	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	3,266	,080	1,258	34	,217	1,72500	1,37128	-1,06177	4,51177
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			1,329	31,651	,193	1,72500	1,29827	-,92062	4,37062
total_B	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,338	,564	-,897	36	,376	-1,12045	1,24896	-3,65345	1,41256
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,885	32,241	,383	-1,12045	1,26611	-3,69866	1,45777
total_C	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,094	,760	-,433	35	,668	-,32353	,74701	-1,84003	1,19297
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,435	34,443	,667	-,32353	,74450	-1,83582	1,18877
total_D	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	2,154	,152	-,919	33	,365	-3,11667	3,39253	-10,01883	3,78549
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,877	24,399	,389	-3,11667	3,55223	-10,44178	4,20844
total_E	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,065	,801	-,637	33	,528	-2,58333	4,05258	-10,82837	5,66171
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,642	31,098	,525	-2,58333	4,02254	-10,78631	5,61965
total_F	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,609	,213	,031	37	,975	,02941	,93431	-1,86368	1,92250
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			,032	36,861	,974	,02941	,90996	-1,81457	1,87340
total_G	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	,199	,658	-,598	34	,554	-,82353	1,37705	-3,62204	1,97498
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-,601	33,950	,552	-,82353	1,37110	-3,61009	1,96303
total_H	Se han asumido varianzas iguales	1,261	,270	-1,778	32	,085	-3,00000	1,68740	-6,43712	,43712
	No se han asumido varianzas iguales			-1,778	30,783	,085	-3,00000	1,68740	-6,44246	,44246

Appendix XXII

Tests of group homogeneity: Type of institution.

Descriptivos

		N	Media	Desviación típica	Error típico	Intervalo de confianza para la media al 95% Límite inferior	Límite superior	Mínimo	Máximo
total_A	publico	14	23,9286	5,88955	1,57405	20,5280	27,3291	11,00	30,00
	concertado	13	26,4615	2,02548	,56177	25,2376	27,6855	23,00	29,00
	privado	4	23,5000	1,91485	,95743	20,4530	26,5470	22,00	26,00
	otros expertos	5	24,8000	2,77489	1,24097	21,3545	28,2455	21,00	28,00
	Total	36	24,9167	4,12224	,68704	23,5219	26,3114	11,00	30,00
total_B	publico	15	34,5333	4,08598	1,05500	32,2706	36,7961	26,00	40,00
	concertado	14	35,1429	3,67648	,98258	33,0201	37,2656	27,00	40,00
	privado	4	35,2500	1,89297	,94648	32,2379	38,2621	34,00	38,00
	otros expertos	5	33,8000	5,26308	2,35372	27,2650	40,3350	25,00	38,00
	Total	38	34,7368	3,81805	,61937	33,4819	35,9918	25,00	40,00
total_C	publico	14	14,7143	2,05421	,54901	13,5282	15,9004	10,00	17,00
	concertado	15	15,9333	2,18654	,56456	14,7225	17,1442	13,00	19,00
	privado	3	17,3333	1,15470	,66667	14,4649	20,2018	16,00	18,00
	otros expertos	5	14,2000	2,58844	1,15758	10,9860	17,4140	11,00	18,00
	Total	37	15,3514	2,23875	,36805	14,6049	16,0978	10,00	19,00
total_D	publico	13	76,0000	8,58293	2,38048	70,8134	81,1866	63,00	92,00
	concertado	14	80,3571	9,17025	2,45085	75,0624	85,6519	65,00	91,00
	privado	4	88,2500	2,98608	1,49304	83,4985	93,0015	84,00	91,00
	otros expertos	4	74,0000	15,81139	7,90569	48,8406	99,1594	53,00	90,00
	Total	35	78,9143	9,90951	1,67501	75,5103	82,3183	53,00	92,00
total_E	publico	15	94,0667	12,72493	3,28556	87,0198	101,1135	75,00	113,00
	concertado	12	100,9167	10,41379	3,00620	94,3001	107,5333	83,00	115,00
	privado	4	108,7500	8,61684	4,30842	95,0387	122,4613	96,00	114,00
	otros expertos	4	99,7500	8,77021	4,38511	85,7946	113,7054	90,00	109,00
	Total	35	98,7429	11,76071	1,98792	94,7029	102,7828	75,00	115,00
total_F	publico	15	20,8000	2,83347	,73160	19,2309	22,3691	17,00	25,00
	concertado	15	21,5333	3,13657	,80986	19,7964	23,2703	15,00	25,00
	privado	4	23,2500	2,87228	1,43614	18,6796	27,8204	19,00	25,00
	otros expertos	5	22,2000	1,78885	,80000	19,9788	24,4212	20,00	25,00
	Total	39	21,5128	2,85502	,45717	20,5873	22,4383	15,00	25,00
total_G	publico	12	26,0833	4,81396	1,38967	23,0247	29,1420	19,00	34,00
	concertado	15	28,0667	3,71227	,95850	26,0109	30,1225	21,00	33,00
	privado	4	31,5000	1,91485	,95743	28,4530	34,5470	30,00	34,00
	otros expertos	5	26,8000	2,77489	1,24097	23,3545	30,2455	24,00	31,00
	Total	36	27,6111	4,08676	,68113	26,2284	28,9939	19,00	34,00
total_H	publico	11	31,1818	5,51032	1,66142	27,4799	34,8837	24,00	40,00
	concertado	14	33,0714	4,10374	1,09677	30,7020	35,4409	24,00	38,00
	privado	4	34,0000	3,65148	1,82574	28,1897	39,8103	30,00	38,00
	otros expertos	5	29,4000	7,33485	3,28024	20,2926	38,5074	19,00	38,00
	Total	34	32,0294	5,07809	,87089	30,2576	33,8012	19,00	40,00

ANOVA

		Suma de cuadrados	gl	Media cuadrática	F	Sig.
total_A	Inter-grupos	52,791	3	17,597	1,039	,389
	Intra-grupos	541,959	32	16,936		
	Total	594,750	35			
total_B	Inter-grupos	8,371	3	2,790	,179	,910
	Intra-grupos	530,998	34	15,618		
	Total	539,368	37			
total_C	Inter-grupos	29,175	3	9,725	2,122	,116
	Intra-grupos	151,257	33	4,584		
	Total	180,432	36			
total_D	Inter-grupos	584,779	3	194,926	2,194	,109
	Intra-grupos	2753,964	31	88,838		
	Total	3338,743	34			
total_E	Inter-grupos	789,336	3	263,112	2,084	,123
	Intra-grupos	3913,350	31	126,237		
	Total	4702,686	34			
total_F	Inter-grupos	22,060	3	7,353	,895	,454
	Intra-grupos	287,683	35	8,220		
	Total	309,744	38			
total_G	Inter-grupos	94,906	3	31,635	2,067	,124
	Intra-grupos	489,650	32	15,302		
	Total	584,556	35			
total_H	Inter-grupos	73,206	3	24,402	,941	,433
	Intra-grupos	777,765	30	25,925		
	Total	850,971	33			

Appendix XXIII

Multidimensional Scaling Analysis for subjects

```
Iteration history for the 3 dimensional solution (in squared
distances)
               Iteration      S-stress       Improvement

                  1              ,07002
                  2              ,05603            ,01399
                  3              ,05452            ,00151
                  4              ,05447            ,00005

Iterations stopped because S-stress improvement is less than
,001000

Stress and squared correlation (RSQ)³⁶ in distances

Stress values are Kruskal's stress formula 1.

               For  matrix
    Stress  =   ,06457       RSQ =  ,98757
```

```
Iteration history for the 2 dimensional solution (in squared
distances)

               Young's S-stress formula 1 is used.

               Iteration      S-stress       Improvement

                  1              ,11422
                  2              ,09493            ,01929
                  3              ,09286            ,00207
                  4              ,09276            ,00010

Iterations stopped because S-stress improvement is less than
,001000


Stress and squared correlation (RSQ) in distances

RSQ values are the proportion of variance of the scaled data
(disparities in the partition (row, matrix, or entire data) which is
accounted for by their corresponding distances. Stress values are
Kruskal's stress formula 1.

               For  matrix
    Stress  =   ,11687       RSQ =  ,96746
—



          Configuration derived in 2 dimensions
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[36] RSQ values are the proportion of variance of the scaled data (disparities) in the partition (row, matrix, or entire data) which is accounted for by their corresponding distances.

Appendix XXIV

Mean scores and standard deviation with and without Variable 8.

	Mean without variable 8	Standard deviation without variable 8	Mean with variable 8	Standard deviation with variable 8		Mean without variable 8	Standard deviation without variable 8	Mean with variable 8	Standard deviation with variable 8
A1	3,97	1,284	4,00	1,277	E4	4,05	,733	4,03	,743
A2	3,50	1,033	3,54	1,047	E5	4,45	,795	4,44	,788
A3	4,71	,515	4,72	,510	E6	4,39	,718	4,38	,711
A4	3,86	1,073	3,81	1,101	E7	4,47	,647	4,46	,643
A5	4,03	1,197	4,00	1,192	E8	4,24	,714	4,18	,790
A6	4,32	,944	4,29	,956	E9	4,39	,638	4,36	,668
B1	4,26	,795	4,23	,810	E10	4,05	,899	4,03	,903
B2	4,63	,589	4,62	,590	E11	3,95	,769	3,92	,774
B3	4,08	,784	4,05	,793	E12	4,00	,771	4,00	,761
B4	4,82	,457	4,77	,536	E13	3,70	,812	3,68	,809
B5	4,24	,883	4,21	,894	E14	4,39	,718	4,41	,715
B6	4,47	,687	4,41	,785	E15	4,53	,725	4,54	,720
B7	4,70	,618	4,71	,611	E16	4,26	,795	4,28	,793
B8	3,82	1,111	3,77	1,135	E17	4,21	,991	4,23	,986
C1	3,51	1,017	3,50	1,007	E18	4,18	,834	4,15	,844
C2	3,66	,878	3,64	,873	E19	4,39	,916	4,41	,910
C3	**4,13**	**,963**	**4,08**	**1,010**	E20	4,29	,956	4,31	,950
C4	4,11	,737	4,08	,749	E21	4,43	,765	4,42	,758
D1	4,37	,675	4,31	,766	E22	4,51	,651	4,47	,687
D2	3,55	,828	3,49	,914	E23	4,37	,714	4,38	,711
D3	**4,34**	**,781**	**4,28**	**,857**	F1	4,29	,732	4,28	,724
D4	**4,39**	**,638**	**4,38**	**,633**	F2	4,47	,647	4,49	,644
D5	3,89	,894	3,90	,882	F3	4,32	,739	4,33	,737
D6	**4,47**	**,603**	**4,49**	**,601**	F4	4,16	,754	4,18	,756
D7	**4,42**	**,642**	**4,44**	**,641**	F5	4,26	,795	4,23	,810
D8	**4,27**	**,732**	**4,29**	**,732**	G1	3,55	,921	3,54	,913
D9	**4,66**	**,534**	**4,67**	**,530**	G2	4,00	,816	3,97	,822
D10	**4,34**	**,669**	**4,31**	**,694**	G3	3,86	1,004	3,84	1,001
D11	**4,45**	**,602**	**4,41**	**,637**	G4	4,03	,810	4,03	,799
D12	**4,42**	**,642**	**4,38**	**,673**	G5	4,18	,692	4,18	,683
D13	**4,16**	**,754**	**4,10**	**,821**	G6	3,44	,809	3,43	,801
D14	**4,21**	**,843**	**4,13**	**,978**	G7	4,41	,865	4,39	,855
D15	**4,00**	**,745**	**3,95**	**,804**	H1	4,26	,886	4,19	,951
D16	3,58	,806	3,51	,901	H2	**4,16**	**,886**	**4,08**	**1,010**
D17	3,54	,900	3,47	,979	H3	3,74	,795	3,69	,832
D18	4,21	,875	4,15	,933	H4	4,14	,855	4,11	,863
D19	4,26	,795	4,21	,864	H5	4,22	,917	4,18	,926
E1	4,63	,489	4,62	,493	H6	4,14	,787	4,11	,798
E2	4,30	,740	4,29	,732	H7	3,83	,845	3,84	,834
E3	4,39	,755	4,38	,747	H8	3,39	1,028	3,33	1,084