

ELT-13

Language Teacher Education

An Integrated Programme
for ELT Teacher Training

Milestones in ELT

ELT Documents: 125

Language Teacher Education: an Integrated Programme for ELT Teacher Training

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Milestones in ELT

The British Council was established in 1934, and one of our main aims has always been to promote the wider knowledge of the English language. Over the last 75 years, we have issued many important publications that have set the agenda for ELT professionals, often in partnership with other organisations and institutions.

As part of its 75th anniversary celebrations, we are re-launching a selection of those publications online. Many of the messages and ideas are just as relevant today as they were when first published. We believe they are also useful historical sources through which colleagues can see how our profession has developed over the years.

Language Teacher Education: an Integrated Programme for ELT Teacher Training

Originally published in 1987, this book aimed to address teachers' needs according to context. Following an overview of developments to date, the authors investigated various key issues from PRESET, INSET and advanced teacher education at the time. These included teacher language; working with the need for change while coping with constraints; and counselling versus teaching. Teaching models and sample materials are included.

Language Teacher Education: An Integrated Programme for EFL Teacher Training

ELT Document 125

Editor: ROGER BOWERS, THE BRITISH COUNCIL

1987

**CENTRE FOR INFORMATION ON
LANGUAGE TEACHING AND RESEARCH
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Acknowledgements

So many people have contributed to the programmes of CDELT Ain Shams since its inception that it is impossible to acknowledge them all. The papers in this volume, however, relate to one period in the Centre's development, 1982–1984, and to only part of the Centre's activity at that time. We should like to express our thanks to those institutions and individuals on whose collaboration and support the work described primarily depended:

Dr Abdel Salam Abdel Ghaffar

Dr Abdel Messih Daoud

Mme Thouraya Abdullah

Mme Samira el Ghawaby

John Hafenrichter

Alan Gilbert

Frank Blanning

Norman Bissett

Ain Shams University, Cairo

Ministry of Education, Cairo

United States Agency for International Development

United States Information Agency

University of California at Los Angeles

Bi-National Fulbright Commission

Centre for Applied Language Studies, Reading University

Overseas Development Administration

Voluntary Service Overseas

The British Council

Our final thanks are due to the teachers and teachers-to-be who worked with us in these programmes.

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Typesetting and makeup by Quadra Associates Ltd, Oxford

Printed in Great Britain by The Eastern Press Ltd., London and Reading

ISBN 0 08 033479 2

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I. Overview

Language Teacher Education: an Integrated Approach

Roger Bowers

Over a thousand years ago in Al-Azhar, one of the oldest universities in the world, one learned man would sit under a pillar with a surrounding group of disciples eagerly hanging on every word he uttered, doing their best to understand his ideas and follow them. After the session was over, a Socratic dialogue would take place between the learned man and each of his students to clarify some of the points discussed. The 'Aalim', or learned man, was well informed, the disciples or 'Muree-deen' were well motivated, and the topics were usually confined to religious rituals and ethics based on the Koraan and the sayings of the Prophet. At that time, because the sole ambition of every learner was to be an exact copy of his tutor, this practice was ideal for that type of higher education.

Nowadays the explosion of knowledge and the progress in instructional technology have shifted the emphasis away from the 'tutor' and the text as the only sources of information. Mass media have also created a new type of learner who readily challenges the traditional

role of the Egyptian teacher. Largely influenced by the heritage of the past, Egyptian Faculties of Education are caught in a bitter conflict between a diehard, obsolete way of teaching, and the demands of a modern educational trend that depends on learner-oriented resource-based learning, self-instructional techniques, problem-solving approaches and individualized instruction. Rather than encourage the learner to reproduce undigested items of information that may soon become obsolete, modern educational trends aim at helping the student to learn how to learn on his own.

While the first generation of TV learners is about to graduate from universities this year, most of the teaching in colleges of education, inkeeping with what was going on over a thousand years ago, still relies too heavily on the text and teacher's notes. An ever widening gap is developing between the expectations of the learners, the needs of a developing nation and the competence of the graduates of colleges of education.

(El-Araby, 1984:55)

A careful analysis of the teacher-student relationship at any level, inside or outside the school, reveals its fundamentally *narrative* charac-

ter. This relationship involves a narrating Subject (the teacher) and patient, listening objects (the students). The contents, whether values

or empirical dimensions of reality, tend in the process of being narrated to become lifeless and petrified. Education is suffering from narration sickness.

The teacher talks about reality as if it were motionless, static, compartmentalized and predictable. Or else he expounds on a topic completely alien to the existential experience of the students. His task is

to 'fill' the students with the contents of his narration — contents which are detached from reality, disconnected from the totality that engendered them and could give them significance. Words are emptied of their concreteness and become a hollow, alienated and alienating verbosity.

(Freire 1972:45)

I have divided the above extracts with a line for ease of reading; but they are not, it seems to me, worlds apart. The one argues for life in the system; the other for life in the subject. Both are humanistic, concerned with the personal and societal ends of education rather than simply the procedures. The one is undoubtedly more ready to dispense with the whole concept of 'schooling' than the other. But both share the belief that the teaching situation has institutionalised over the centuries to a point where the personal imperatives, contact with reality, contact with each other, awareness of the purpose of education, have disappeared, and education itself is failing. We are in an area of discussion where personal values of a political nature are at play; one does not change these simply by providing different pictures on a page or new technological toys, though that may be part of it. Educational change is not a matter of new techniques and resources but fundamentally of shifts in the balance between system and sensitivity, process and person, institution and individual. We distort the arguments if we present them in terms of some stereotyped contrast between developed and developing, new and old, sophisticated and run-of-the-mill. The need for change is recognised by the innovators and reformers in all societies; it is the scope for innovation and the processes by which desirable change can be effected that differ from one society and level of resource to another.

The classroom is a recurrent social setting. It competes in its universality of occurrence across societies with such other essential human institutions as the family, the law court, the shrines of religious or secular authority. In each such institution, there is a recognised social structure and an agreed purpose. To a large extent, across cultures, the roles of the participants are replicated.

Thus, for the classroom in the institutional setting, we may make assumptions: that the one teacher is faced by the many students; that the teacher has senior status; that the teacher has at his disposal some display device not equally available to the students; that the teacher is or is seen to be expert in some field in which the students are novices; that the general purpose of the interaction as sanctioned by society is

‘instruction of the younger in the ways of the older’. I repeat that these are the ‘default’ characteristics of the classroom setting in whatever society it is encountered, even in those societies that claim most articulately to have developed more creative educational processes. We do not have to accept the full revolutionary implications of a Freire to recognise that the classroom is, unless interfered with, a barren and inequitable place more full of threat than promise.

At least to some degree then, the tensions in education are universal, cross-disciplinary, cross-cultural. The process of what we might, to use a common metaphor, term ‘getting warmer’ is a task which confronts all educational systems in all societies. We should avoid the seductive simplicity of the notion that educational aid is a matter of implanting good interactive and heuristic methodologies into the stiff book-learning traditions of other cultures. Of such stuff cultural imperialism is made.

But recognition of the universality of the educational process and its inherent tensions does not force us to assume that there is uniformity in practice or perception. We have not only comparative education but the findings of sociolinguistic studies to confirm that the aims of education and the norms of interaction differ from one society to another, and in a given society from one generation to another. At a more practical level, the extent and effectiveness of training, the vintage of the textbook, the currency of the examination in the job market, the availability of resources, all these and many more can contribute to recognisable, even stark, contrasts between the modes of study and teaching in two societies even within essentially the same institutional setting. The papers in this volume lay recurrent stress on the comparison between the ‘privileged’ and the ‘constrained’ environments and the processes and interactions which each engender.

Nevertheless, the task of curriculum innovation and teacher development is intrinsically the same whether it is conducted within an educational system or by transfer from one (developed) to another (developing) system. In particular, any form of teacher education involves a close understanding of the processes of teaching and learning, empirical study of the joint activity of teacher and learner in the normal classroom, a conscious evaluation of educational programmes and processes as they relate to the current aims of society and a recognition that, when all is said and done, teaching is no picnic.

An integrated approach

An effective programme of teacher education which seeks to have more than local effect also requires that effort and persuasion is distributed across the system. It is no good enthusing one section of the educational constituency if that enthusiasm is stilled by inertia elsewhere in the system. Students, teachers, trainers, administrators — all have to be moving in the same direction if inertia is to be overcome. The CDEL

experience is, I believe, of interest because it illustrates a process which, though not unique, is unusual: the attempt in one area of the curriculum and with limited resources to carry out an integrated programme of teacher development. Partly by foresight, partly by evolution, a set of interlocking projects developed which aimed at concurrent and coherent innovation in all parts of the English language teaching system. As Figure 1 suggests, there is a symbiotic relationship between the projects in pre-service, in-service and advanced training (now extended by the introduction of new curriculum materials into the school sector) which reflects the hierarchical and functional links between the different groups involved in language education.

There are very many respects in which the CDELT programmes are an inadequate response to the need and demand for change in English language teaching in Egypt, but the recognition of the interdependence of efforts towards improvement throughout the system is an undoubted achievement. The rationale for this recognition, and the implications of it, are apparent in the papers presented in this volume.

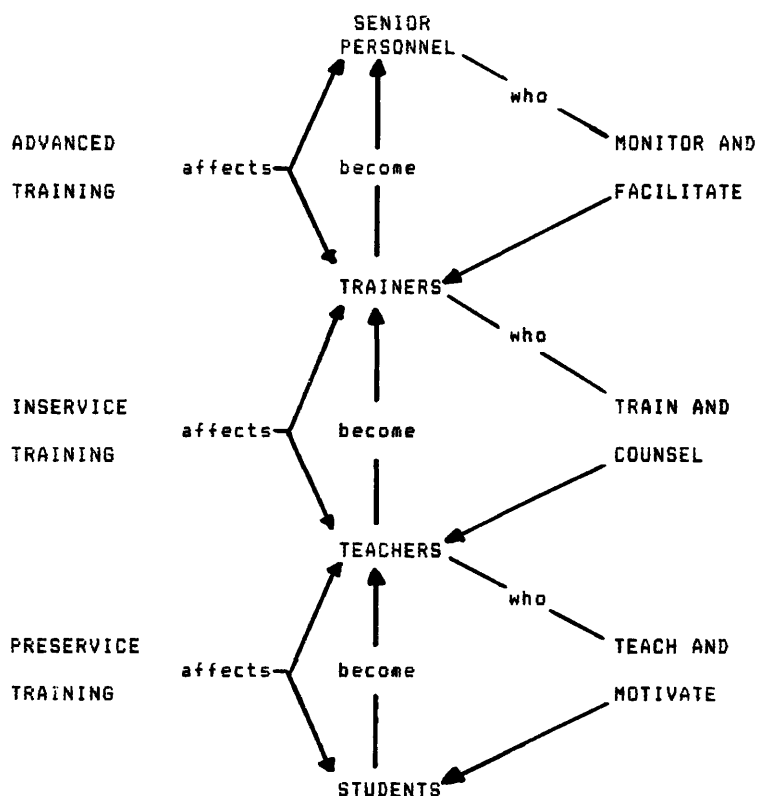


Figure 1: An Integrated System of Teacher Education

An appropriate methodology

There is a second recurrent theme in these reports, and it has again to do with integration. It is the attempt to draw into the process of change a consideration of all the factors which militate for and against it. In different ways, and reflecting different personal philosophies, each paper is concerned with the tension between the actual and the ideal, and with the means by which this tension can be resolved and feasible progress achieved. All innovation involves this principle of mediation, of matching ideas to contexts, thought to action, hypothesis to reality. I would like to suggest, as an introduction to the theme of this volume, that successful mediation in the context of educational change involves the development and implementation of a two-fold methodology which I shall call, for the sake of simplicity, M1 and M2.

By M1 methodology I mean a set of principles for classroom management, informed by a desired approach to education in general and the learning and teaching of language in particular, and realised by a battery of techniques of pedagogic preparation, implementation and evaluation. By M2 I mean a project methodology: that is to say, a set of principles for project management, informed by an approach to social development in general and curriculum development in particular, and realised by a battery of techniques of project preparation, implementation and evaluation.

A classroom methodology, an M1, to be successful, needs to be appropriate to the total context in which it is practised and promoted. We may define this appropriacy as a question of four relationships, two of which are internal and two external (see Figure 2).

Internal: 'A': Is the methodology consistent with an *approach* — a set of beliefs about education which is both in principle valid for the local context and in practice held by those involved in and accountable for a

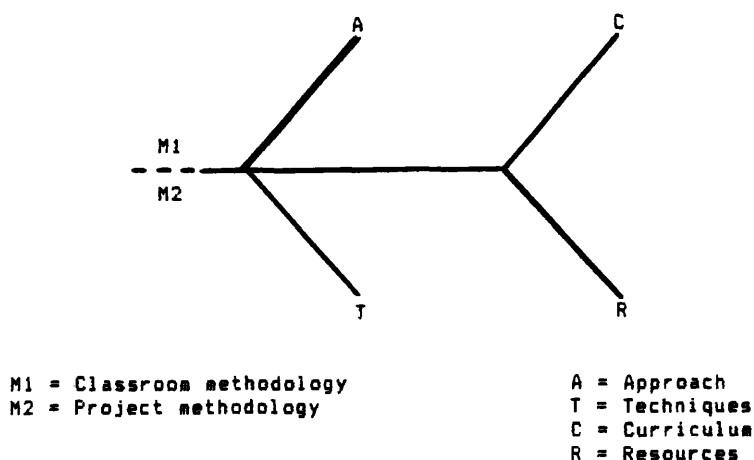


Figure 2: Appropriate Methodology

methodological innovation? "T": Is the methodology realisable through a set of *techniques* which are both in principle feasible for those responsible for implementation and in practice performed by them?

External: 'R': Can the methodology be implemented within the *resources* locally available, and does it make the best use of those resources? 'C': Is the methodology compatible with other components of the *curriculum*, and does it maximise the effect of the curriculum as a whole?

A new classroom methodology which is compatible with C, A, R and T in a given situation has a chance of taking hold and being not only possible but beneficial, though appropriacy is by no means a sufficient reason for change. Incompatibility spells failure, for good reasons (though it is possible to attempt to change the context so that the methodology fits.)

A project methodology, our M2, is subject to the same contextual measures.

Internal: 'A': Is the project methodology consistent with a set of developmental aims — an *approach* to development — which is both in principle valid for the local context and in practice ascribed to by those involved in and accountable for the development? "T": Is the project methodology attainable through a set of *techniques* which are both in principle feasible for those responsible for implementation and also in practice performed by them?

External: 'R': Can the development be implemented within the *resources* locally available, and does it make the best use of those resources? Is the development compatible with other parts of the development *curriculum* (by which I mean the total development agenda, not just English language education or language education or even education but the full plan), and does it maximise the effect of the development programme as a whole?

Niceties of wording apart, the analogy holds. A programme for change may succeed if it is compatible in terms of C, A, R and T. If not, it will not.

It is in this sense, then, that I use the term *integration* for a second time. A curriculum development in English language teaching has to have not only its own integrity in terms of figure 1. It needs to fit into a greater whole, as in figure 2; to be successful, it must be appropriate.

Guests in another society, as the writers of this volume were (and are) guests in CDELT, may be able to make some of the judgments of appropriacy which a successful curriculum innovation requires, particularly if they build into their procedures some of the techniques for assessing M1 appropriacy that are described in these papers, and above all if they are working in full collaboration with the local innovators. But they cannot make the larger judgments which M2 demands. Decisions regarding the kind of society one wants to build, and the role of education — and of languages — in building that society, are inalienable. The classroom is a microcosm which, for all its universal

magisterial conventions, reflects in fundamental social terms the world that lies outside the window.

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II. Background

CDELТ: The First Ten Years

Establishment

The Centre for Developing English Language Teaching (CDELТ), Ain Shams University, Cairo was established in 1975. Besides premises and facilities provided by Ain Shams University, CDELТ currently receives support from the United States Information Agency, USAID, the Fulbright Commission, the British Council and the British Overseas Development Administration. Though based at Ain Shams University, the Centre has a national role in educational development.

Functions of the centre

The purpose of the Centre is to assist in every way in the improvement of standards of English teaching at all levels throughout the Arab Republic of Egypt. To meet this goal, the Centre is engaged in:

1. research into current approaches to English teaching, and into levels of attainment;
2. development of curricula and teaching materials for the pre-service education of teachers of English;
3. collaboration with the Egyptian Ministry of Education in development of the in-service training of English teachers;
4. provision of postgraduate specialist training for university and Ministry of Education personnel;
5. provision of research and documentation facilities for the English teaching profession;
6. exchange of professional information through the conduct of national and international seminars and symposia, and through the publication of research.

Structure and administration of the centre

The Centre has a governing body, chaired by the Vice-Rector for Graduate Studies, upon which are represented the Faculties of Ain Shams University and relevant departments of the Ministry of Education, as well as the collaborating agencies. Day to day administration is the responsibility of the Director, working with other staff appointed on a part-time basis. The Centre has a full-time librarian and secretary. Foreign specialists may be appointed to the Centre on a full-

time basis for specific projects: in 1982/84, seven experts were on attachment from Britain under the Key English Language Teaching (KELT) scheme administered by the British Council on behalf of the Overseas Development Administration; in 1985/6, ten such experts were on attachment from Britain and the United States.

Resources of the centre

CDELТ has the use of an administration office and staff room and a storeroom on the Faculty of Education campus. In addition, there is a well-resourced library with an extensive collection of books and materials in language education, applied linguistics and the teaching of English. The library is building up documentation on Egyptian and international research in language teaching. CDELТ also has basic and audio-visual resources for lectures and seminars. Additional teaching resources are available through the adjacent Ministry of Education In-Service Training Centre.

Programmes of the centre

1. **Curriculum Development for Specialist English Teachers in Faculties of Education:** through its outreach programme, CDELТ provides an advisory service to some 15 English Departments in Faculties of Education.
2. **Developing Curricula at Faculties of Education:** a project supported by the Foreign Relations Co-ordination Unit of the Supreme Council of Universities is investigating the curriculum for the third and fourth years of the degree programmes for specialist English teacher-trainees in Faculties of Education.
3. **Research and Development for In-Service Teacher Education:** in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, CDELТ has produced and is disseminating training modules for an in-service training scheme aimed at up-grading the skills of non-specialist English teachers in the preparatory stage.
4. **Advanced Training and Research:** in collaboration with the Curriculum Department of the Faculty of Education, the English Department of the Faculty of Modern Languages and the Ministry of Education, CDELТ organises courses for a Professional Diploma in Teaching English as a Foreign Language and for a Master's degree in English Language and English Language Teaching. CDELТ staff also provide supervision and advice for Master's and Doctoral candidates and other researchers.
5. **Through its library and Research Bulletin,** CDELТ provides documentation facilities to research students and academic staff throughout Egypt.

6. **CDELТ provides the permanent secretariat for the annual National Symposium on English Teaching in Egypt;** it also arranges regular seminars with visiting specialists throughout the academic year both at CDELТ and at other universities and institutions.
7. **CDELТ provides, through EPEE (English Proficiency Examination for Egypt), a comprehensive standardized proficiency measure:** its use in faculties of education and adult training centres is steadily increasing.
8. **CDELТ distributes A University Course in English for Egypt,** a set of eight text books with teachers texts and recorded tapes covering the English language courses for specialists in years one and two in Faculties of Education. Prices are reasonable to the student. CDELТ consultants provide support and advice to lecturers using the series.
9. **CDELТ maintains professional contact with institutions in Britain, the United States and elsewhere;** it ensures the dissemination of Egyptian expertise in the field of ELТ through its research publications.
10. **CDELТ distributes English Teaching Forum to some eight thousand professors, teachers and ELТ specialists in Egypt.** As part of this exercise, it has created Teaching English in Egypt, a magazine for simultaneous free distribution to the English teaching profession.
11. **Co-ordination of efforts in curriculum development,** in particular co-ordination of the English Teacher Training Program funded by USAID and administered through the Bi-National Fulbright Commission. The scheme deploys a team of American lecturers in some eight Faculties of Education; the Program Co-ordinator has been appointed to CDELТ as a Consultant.
12. **CDELТ is investigating the design and funding of a proposed National Survey of Language Learning Needs,** to be undertaken in collaboration with the Government of Egypt.

Current publications (1986)

1. **A UNIVERSITY COURSE IN ENGLISH FOR EGYPT:** eight volumes Student texts, eight volumes Teacher Texts, sets of recorded materials.
2. **ENGLISH PROFICIENCY EXAMINATION FOR EGYPT:** Versions A and B; Administrator's pack; recorded tape.
3. **OCCASIONAL PAPERS I, II, III, IV, V, VI:** research papers in English language, linguistics and English teaching, contributed by specialists throughout Egypt.
4. **LISTEN AND READ:** a course in English for non-specialists.

5. ENGLISH TEACHING IN EGYPT: Proceedings of the First National Symposium on English Teaching in Egypt.
6. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: Proceedings of the Second National Symposium on English Teaching in Egypt.
7. TEACHER EDUCATION FOR TEFL: Proceedings of the Third National Symposium on English teaching in Egypt.
8. ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: Proceedings of the Fourth National Symposium on English Teaching in Egypt.
9. LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE: Proceedings of the Fifth National Symposium on English Teaching in Egypt.
10. RESEARCH BULLETIN: a list of theses presented in Egyptian universities on Applied Linguistics and the teaching of English.
11. LEARNING TO TEACH: fifty training modules for the in-service training of non-specialist English teachers.
12. TEACHING ENGLISH IN EGYPT: a magazine for the practising teacher of English.

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Introducing ELT Curriculum Change

R. H. Straker Cook

The terms 'INNOVATION' and 'CHANGE' are so frequently used, and so loosely, by teachers and educators that they tend to lose both force and precision. At worst they are used as interchangeable terms — 'innovation' is simply a punchier way of saying 'change'. In fact, they are not so much co-terminous as co-occurrent, in that while innovation entails change, change does not necessarily imply innovation. At best, the notion of novelty is preserved, and 'innovation' is understood as a change which introduces something 'new', that is, the introduction of an element or a configuration which was not or had not been there before. The distinction between change and innovation is discussed by Bolam (1975) in terms of relative systematicity.

But a further ambivalence underlies the use of these terms in general parlance, as between process and product. One speaks of 'an innovation', 'a change', as products, elements identifiable and hence preservable in the system. Yet they are no less the processes by which modifications are effected.

Though we did not set out at CDELT on ELT curriculum development with these distinctions clearly in mind, we have ended up more or less deliberately exploiting them, effecting minor adjustments in order to lay the way for innovation, sometimes consciously seeking change rather than innovation in the strict sense, and concentrating on the processes of change rather than preservation of the product.

Innovation is seen by some educationists as a 'form of pressure to effect change' (Nicholls, 1983). Stenhouse (1975) asserts that 'change most often comes through conflict within a staff', and writes of 'barriers' to innovation, of the 'battle for innovation', of threatening the 'power base' of internal authority, of the formation of 'pressure groups and lobbies'. Nicholls terms this approach the 'conflict perspective'. Innovation is conspicuous, the focus of teachers' and pupils' attention, a problem to be surmounted or a new fact of educational life demanding a period of painful reconciliation and adjustment. We would argue that there is no necessary connection between innovation and conflict, that conflict is rather a concomitant of the manner in which the innovation is broached and derives from such factors as type of strategy, timing and personality adjustments. Often, of course, the innovator deliberate-

ly seeks attention, perhaps because he is motivated by the wish to publicize intense rejection of existing practices.

There must however be an alternative to this 'high pressure' approach to innovation, and it may be possible to adopt a converse process whereby a 'trough of low pressure' can be created which, if carefully managed, could draw the innovation in to equalize pressure. It is tempting to suggest that this alternative approach may be more appropriate for effecting innovation in a developing-country education system. Highly industrialized countries have virtually institutionalized conflict as a means of negotiating in labour relations, no less in the educational field than in commerce and industry. But in less sophisticated, not to say less systematically unionized, societies, conflict or the threat of conflict is construed as a direct personal challenge and can only generate resistance and resentment.

Before carrying this argument further, though, we should consider some typical models of innovation. Reviewing the literature on educational innovation, Nicholls (1983) reduces a number of approaches to three basic models:

MODEL 1: Research — Development — Diffusion

In this model, an active researcher-theoretician, as innovator, perceives a problem and presents his solution to a passive receiver. However, he takes no part in the implementation process.

MODEL 2: Social Interaction

This has essentially the same ingredients as Model 1, but focuses rather on the means of diffusion. The innovator determines both who the receiver shall be and what his needs are. The receiver is seen as active, in that he may provide feedback to the innovator, but the innovator has no role in the implementation of the innovation nor in any subsequent modifications.

MODEL 3: Problem-Solving

In this model, users' needs are paramount, and innovation emerges spontaneously from discussions and transactions between users. In effect, the users are at the same time the (collective) innovator and the recipients. Innovation thus becomes a non-directive process, and the outcome is unpredictable.

There are several comments to be made. The first two models are variants of the same basic approach: innovation is conceived as a product, an artefact to be sold to the recipient. There is a high degree of control over design, but little or none over implementation. The feedback allowed for in Model 2 does not amount to evaluation, since there is no mechanism for systematic adjustment of the innovation to the system or of the system to the innovation.

Model 3 is superficially more attractive: it treats innovation rather more as a process, or at least as the sum total of changes wrought on the system by spontaneous perturbation. However, it denies the role of an

instigator, either among the users or operating on the group from outside: and one wonders therefore just how the innovation is generated. Changes may indeed occur spontaneously, but it is less likely that genuine innovations would. For who are the users, if they are not teachers or educators within the system? Hierarchical structures such as educational institutions have an inherent stability and engender ingrained staff attitudes. These surely exert a powerful inhibiting influence on innovators operating from within. Model 3 also implies poor control over both design and implementation — for a non-directive process is dangerously close to being undirected, and it is difficult to see how systematic design of the innovation and monitoring of its implementation would be handled, or by whom. If the user is in any sense the researcher, his evaluation would be open to bias; in any case, the absence of a methodical procedure and the spontaneity of the process of change are incompatible with the notion of continuous and systematic evaluation. To be successful, Model 3 requires a high level of professionalism and personal commitment from the innovators (who must equally be sophisticated users). Teachers of this calibre are characterised by Lynch and Plunkett (1973) as:

highly skilled professionals who, through training and consequent internalization of a professional code of conduct, are able to collaborate in regulating their own and colleagues' activities, accepting the changing value- and control-systems that the search for a more responsive role implies.

Equally, however, Model 3 presupposes teaching in a privileged environment. We have adopted this term at CDELT to characterise a variety of factors, any of which may contribute to favourable operating conditions — small classes, good facilities and equipment, qualified or experienced colleagues, select or well-motivated pupils, freedom of choice over methods and materials, sound administrative support and ample financing. We would argue that in developing countries it is highly unlikely that all three of these essential ingredients — professionalism, personal commitment and a privileged environment — will be conjointly present.

We must, then, look to a modification of these models to suit third-world circumstances, though I repeat that this is a retrospective exercise, a rationalization of measures which we took semi-instinctively in the field. It would be best to look at each element in the model in turn:

The instigator

Since the ingredients for spontaneous innovation are missing, we believe that there must be an instigator, one commissioned by the education authorities to initiate a process of planned change, or so placed as to be able to make a demarche of his own. The instigator may

not be the same person or body on every occasion. The essential requirement would seem to be that the instigator should be placed outside the educational system — if not administratively, then at least in terms of day-to-day teaching/lecturing commitment or other full-time educational activity. Yet at the same time the instigator must be in sufficiently close contact with the educational system under operating conditions as to see where initiatives need to be taken. The instigator may be the researcher and implementer, but there is no necessary connection.

The researcher

We use this term with caution, and mainly because it is already accepted in the literature. But we do not see the researcher as a remote academic figure unconcerned, as in Model 1, with reconciling the innovation to the system, or with the process of evaluation. He would be concerned, in the best traditions of industrial research, with both research and development, engaging when necessary in action research, and seeing the innovation through to its insertion in the system in finished form. At the same time, we believe that the researcher is best placed outside the system itself, operating free from either the daily pressures of full-time commitment or from the preconceptions that close engagement in the system may foster.

It is important to us in a third-world setting that the researcher should also be the implementer, though this may not always be the case.

The trialler

This is a term we have coined at CDELT to cover an essential aspect of the research and development stage. Given the low personal commitment and often poor professional abilities encountered in a rapidly developing educational system, it is essential that there should be limited, controlled trialling at the development stage before any attempt to introduce an innovation on a large scale. If the researcher engages in action research he may in a sense become the trialler; but what we have particularly in mind is a carefully selected group of educators in the field, singled out partly for their professional abilities, partly for their adaptability, partly for certain propitious features of the institution in which they work (and we are not necessarily seeking 'privileged environment' factors), who would work closely with the researcher on a trial-evaluate-retrial basis. It is important to see their activity as pre-implementation, and in no way lessening the need for close monitoring, evaluation and further adjustment at that stage.

The implementer

In all models above, the assumption seems to be that the recipient is the principal implementer, responsible for both adoption and adaptation of

the innovation presented to him by the researcher. In a third-world education system the existence of an independent implementer, or group of co-ordinated implementers, seems essential. The implementer's role is one of persuasion, assistance and support to the recipient, to the extent of re-training if necessary; and of monitoring and feedback to the researcher if they are not one and the same person. The advantages of a combined researcher-implementer are: centralized information from monitoring, more systematic evaluation, and co-ordination of curriculum change with training or re-training requirements, administrative measures, and modifications to the innovation in the course of implementation.

The recipient

Our use of the term is unexceptional: we only wish to emphasize that it covers all those for whom the innovation or change is destined — whether or not it reaches them, and whether or not they accept. The established distinction between accepters and resisters can usefully be applied to recipients, though we would add two important qualifications. First, we would prefer to speak of 'potential resisters', since the term is redolent of the conflict perspective. We will consider the potential resister further under Strategies. The acceptor also needs to be treated with caution; it must not be assumed in any educational setting that an acceptor is backing an innovation as conceived by the innovator — he may be misconstruing it, or even deliberately trading on it for his own ends. Or again, his enthusiasm for the innovation may lead him to create conflict at the very point where the implementer would have wished to exercise caution. Kelly (1980) describes the differing perceptions of an innovation, drawing a distinction between the deliberate disseminative intentions of the innovator and the actual diffusion of the innovation, shaped by the perceptions and reactions of the recipients.

The process

Our model implies strong 'management' throughout the innovation/change process. At the earliest stage, the instigator provides an impetus in a particular direction; it may be based on awareness of an already-identified specific problem, or it may take the form of investigation into a particular area of the curriculum. The researcher then engages in a research-and-development cycle — the trial-evaluate-retrial procedure — collaborating with selected triallers. The implementer oversees the process of implementation, involving successive stages of feedback and readjustment to achieve two goals: maximum spread, and optimum fit.

The strategies

Models 1 and 2 place greatest stress on the design of the innovation, but have little to say on implementation. Model 3, while process-oriented,

offers no clear guidelines on implementation, if only because innovation and implementation are coalesced as a consequence of the merging of innovator and recipient. Yet in our experience implementation is the most critical phase of the process. We therefore place as much weight on the manner of implementation as we do on the procedure for research and development. We have identified several strategies for implementation:

(i) The co-operative strategy

The receivers are made to see themselves as collective innovators. This is a logical extension to the systematic use of triallers. It is easy enough for triallers, through close contact with the researcher, to feel that they have shared in or contributed to the innovation — as in a certain sense they have. But there are others in the educational field who might be valuable supporters of the innovation if they were sufficiently motivated, or who are potential resisters in a position to block the innovation, not on grounds of design or of professional merit but because they hold deeply-ingrained views which they have not had to put to the test for a number of years, or because they would see the innovation as a threat to their prestige or influence.

Cynics may say that we have bought such individuals in, but the political analogy is misleading because we seek not so much an accommodation as genuine acceptance either of the innovation or of the innovator's stance. We have done this by careful choice of who we co-opt onto curriculum committees, who we invite to which seminar, or introduce to an influential visiting specialist, and who we invite to contribute a report, prepare a position paper, or engage in fact-finding. The inclusion of these educators' comments, of quotations from their papers and of acknowledgements of their contribution in reports and materials produced leads them to display the courage of their newfound conviction by supporting the innovation. It also adds to the innovation a face validity to set before other potential resisters.

(ii) The inertial strategy

This strategy is based on two premises: that a hard-pressed educator will use new ideas or new materials if they are so presented as to be easier, more efficient, more convenient, than the practices he was following previously; and that if an educator comes to accept one aspect of an innovation, or one part or level of new materials, he will be gradually drawn into using the whole. We have, for example, been developing materials which offer a lecturer support at different levels, ranging from a simple syllabus outline for the academic year, split into topics on a week-by-week basis, to a complete package of lecture notes, references, handouts for students and masters for overhead projection transparencies. Lecturers who may at first only accept the syllabus outline (introduced perhaps on a recommendatory or even mandatory

basis) will eventually come to rely at least in part on the lecture notes and some of the handouts. But once seized by the convenience and reliability of the materials, they will come to rely on the package to an increasing extent. This concept derives from experience in an earlier phase of CDELT activity, when a set of textbooks with exhaustive teaching notes in the lecturer's edition became accepted as the standard material for the courses it was designed for — not so much because the books were specially commissioned to suit the prevailing curriculum framework (in some respects they did not) but because they were available and reliable and gave the fullest support to the young and generally inexperienced staff who normally teach the courses in question. To these materials we have added a range of support services from CDELT — initial user training, advice to Departmental Heads, free master tapes for course users, and a free student achievement testing service. Thus, while no recipient is under any obligation to become a user, both the lecture-package concept and the textbook support programme capitalize on the inbuilt inertia of the potential user. To some extent, the completeness of the materials and servicing also heads off potential resistance from recipients who might be tempted to produce rival materials. It will be noted that the Inertial Strategy is in complete contrast with the high-pressure approach to innovation discussed earlier — in accepting the materials, the user is discreetly accepting a revised syllabus, different instructional methods and possibly a new approach and instructional philosophy.

(iii) The self-adaptive strategy

Three of the inhibiting factors we discussed earlier were below average professional standards, lack of personal commitment, and ingrained staff attitudes. The self-adaptive strategy is aimed at creating in the long term a more favourable climate for innovation by simultaneously enhancing professional standards and leading selected individuals to adopt an 'innovative predisposition' without necessarily being committed to a particular innovation. This is accomplished through a judicious and co-ordinated use of in-service training, special courses, travelling seminars, educational visits overseas and scholarships; and through support to ELT research through the provision of information and the publication of research articles of an acceptable quality. It is perhaps the least assessable of the strategies employed, but we can point to the change in attitude of lecturers returning from doctoral studies, of Ministry inspectors returning from overseas training programmes and of teachers who have attended special seminars and courses locally. By keeping in touch with them professionally we believe that we can foster self-adaptation to the notion of change and the willingness at least to put an innovation to the test.

(iv) The multi-level strategy

This addresses two of the other inhibiting factors — the inherent

stability of the system (perhaps accentuated in a developing country) and the general lack of a privileged environment. CDELT is engaged in innovation and change at several levels in the educational system concurrently: at pupil level in the secondary cycle through advice and support to the Ministry of Education in curriculum renewal for ELT; at the in-service training level through the production of training materials for non-specialist English teachers; at the pre-service/tertiary level through curriculum renewal for the B.Ed. degree for specialist English teachers; at the postgraduate level through the CDELT Diploma and MA programmes in TEFL, subscribed to by Ministry of Education personnel — senior teachers, inspectors, trainers — and junior university lecturers; and at the doctoral/post-doctoral research level through research support, conferences and the direct involvement of University and Ministry specialists in CDELT research and development. By co-ordinating changes and innovations at these different levels, and using our contacts to inform personnel working at one level or in one area of developments in another, we are able to mitigate resistance deriving purely from the stability of the system, without of course threatening that stability through direct and concerted confrontation. By bringing together personnel from different levels or areas — and in Egypt CDELT forms a unique bridge between the Ministry of Education and the Universities — we are able to offset resistance to change deriving primarily from the lack of a privileged environment; for if we are able to demonstrate that one group has managed to effect changes with reasonable success despite disadvantageous circumstances, we are able to encourage another group to make the attempt.

(v) The precedence strategy

This brings us to a much-used strategy which is based partly on CDELT's multi-level operation and partly on the fact that CDELT is well placed to know of ELT practices and developments over a wide area of the country; it also capitalizes on what is seen in many systems as a constraint — a centralized, some would say bureaucratic, administrative network. At the University level, for example, regulations governing curriculum, course hours, staffing etc. are established centrally by the Supreme Council of Universities. A university can apply, sometimes successfully, to modify these regulations to suite local circumstances, but other institutions may not know of the concession. They may also be unaware of ways in which others have managed to exploit or interpret the regulations. But once 'precedence' has been established, we are able to quote the experience of one institution in support of a course of action we are recommending to another. It is a strategy which works particularly well at the level of Departmental Head, where resistance to change through fear of being too out of line conflicts with professional competitiveness: the reassurance that there is already a precedent frequently tips the balance in favour of change.

Sustaining the effort

There is no guarantee that these strategies will ensure successful implementation, and two other factors are just as important. The first is that the implanter must maintain constant contact with as many recipients as possible, particularly those most directly affected by the innovation as users (e.g. the classroom teacher) or as beneficiaries (e.g. the teacher as trainee on an in-service course). The second is that instigators, researchers and implementers, and behind them the educational authorities and the aid agencies, must recognize that educational innovation is a long and often tortuous process and cannot be successfully accomplished to tight deadlines artificially imposed (dictated, for example, by budgetary or political objectives and not based on a realistic appraisal of the nature and scope of the innovation itself).

Evaluation — reconciliation

We are convinced of the need for continuous evaluation both at the research and development stage and at the implementation stage. It is fair to say, though, that we have recognized it rather late, and that we have not been as thorough and systematic as we should have liked to be. In particular, we committed the cardinal sin in evaluation of not establishing sufficient base-line data before trialling, even though feedback from trialling has been fairly comprehensive. We have been rather more conscious of evaluation requirements at the implementation stage; but we have also learned how easy it is to come unstuck, despite the best of intentions, because in any large-scale implementation programme one is bound to rely on recipients to supply information and feedback, and one comes up hard against the fact that those characteristics of the recipient which reduce uptake of the innovation are those which also reduce the quality and accuracy of feedback.

Even with the most thorough trialling, optimum fit with the system and maximum acceptance of the innovation are unlikely to be achieved immediately. To us, implementation is the trial-retrial process writ large, and adjustment of the intended innovation — whether new materials or new practices or both — is almost inevitable. In this process of reconciliation, timing is all-important. If adjustments are attempted at too early a stage then distortions can creep in, partly because feedback may be too fragmentary and from too small a segment of the intended recipients, partly because unfamiliarity with the innovation or residual resistance to some aspects of it could prompt over-correction. If on the other hand adjustments are left over-long, minor dissatisfactions can become magnified and generate fresh resistance, or users may be led to make ill-considered adjustments themselves which then become difficult to counteract.

The ELT dimension

Everything we have said so far could apply equally well to innovation in any subject area in an emergent or still-developing educational system, and there is no doubt that our approach to ELT curriculum change owes more to the educational setting in which we operate than to the subject itself. Yet there are some aspects of ELT which make particularly acute the need for our kind of approach.

On the pedagogical side, we must bear in mind the widely recognized distinction between a skills-oriented and a content-oriented subject. Change may well imply a special challenge for the language teacher, since any significant change in curriculum or methodology may involve changes in personal habits of language and patterns of communication as much as in teaching methods and front-of-class behaviour. In a skills-based subject area, changes in approach and method are likely also to have far-reaching consequences for content.

On the professional side, we have to allow for the paradoxical position of English in the Egyptian education system. In the overall curriculum it does not have a position of prestige, it has a low examinations weighting, and a low priority for funds, services and training. In the graded-intake system at tertiary level, only the lower categories of Baccalaureate-holders are assigned to education faculties, and within educational studies English is one of the lowest-rated subjects. Therefore the quality of degree-holding (specialist) teachers is not particularly high, and that of the non-specialist — co-opted from other subject areas with little or no grounding in English or ELT — is even poorer. Yet the demand for English is patently high; graduates in English are lured away to commerce or to overseas teaching posts at one end of the system, while parents push at the other end to get their children into the English option or, indeed, into fee-paying English-medium schools. And the need for English as a first foreign language is growing rapidly in many occupations and in many walks of life. An inherent difficulty in ELT innovation in Egypt is therefore that of reconciling high expectations with low inputs: educators, no less than parents and employers, look to each pedagogic change for a rapid and magical cure to what are primarily long-term professional or administrative ailments. The implementer must be at pains to make clear to all concerned what an innovation is intended to accomplish, and what cannot be expected of it.

A model for curriculum change: 1: Design

The model which is summarized in Figure 1 (adapted from Straker Cook (1983)) attempts to encapsulate the steps to be taken in the research and development stage of a programme for curriculum change, and the factors to be taken into account in designing subsequent phases of the programme. It is based on CDELT's work in curriculum renewal for teacher education, specifically for the B.Ed. in Education with

English; but it can be applied with minor modifications to other design contexts. It incorporates two major stages of investigation and one of development, each expressed mainly in terms of bodies of data to be assembled and points to be reached in the design process.

There are two distinct starting points, one for the investigation of actual standards and practices and one for the specification of desired standards and practices. Each is indispensable as a preliminary to the development stage.

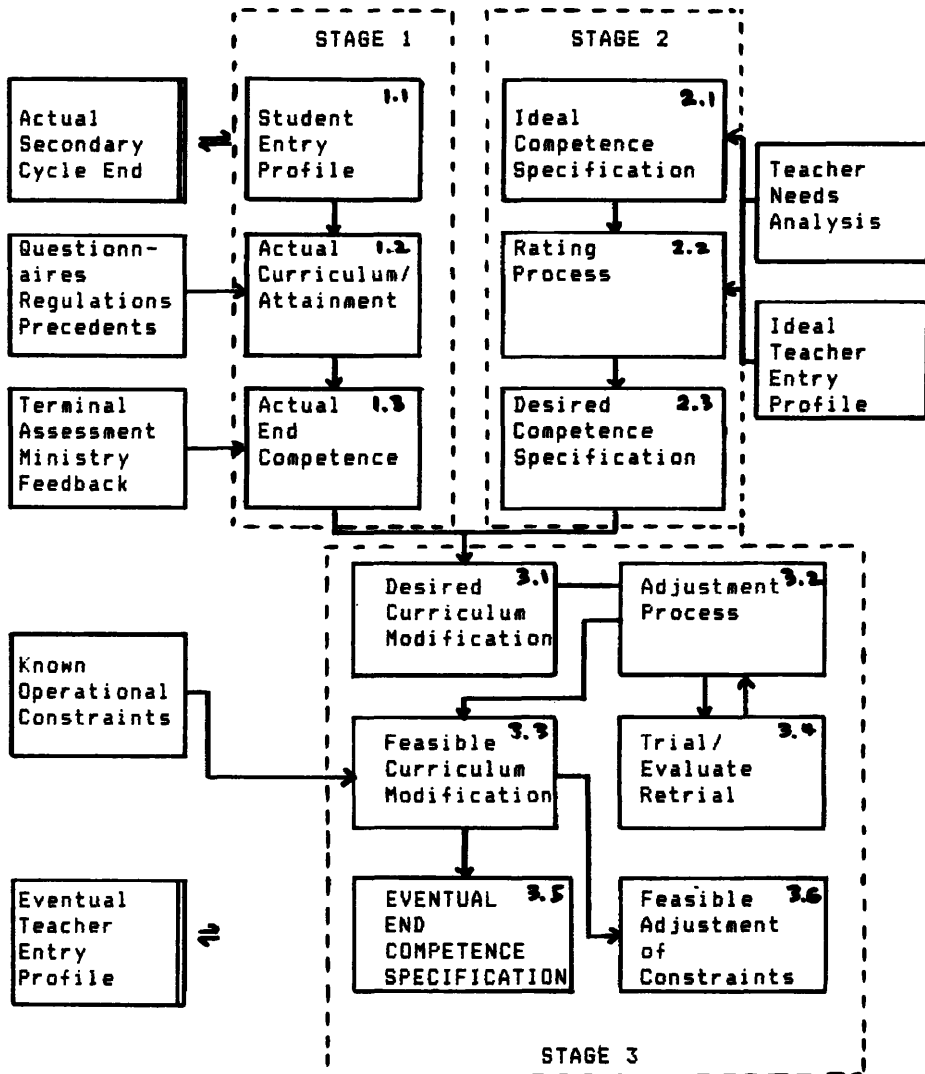


Figure 1: A Model for Curriculum Change: The Design Phase

Each box in the figure implies a process to be undertaken as well as a point to be reached; the information available at each sub-stage provides the basis for work towards the next. The peripheral boxes indicate inputs of information which may be readily available, but which by default may be necessary sub-stages of investigation or design.

The process as a whole firmly characterizes the research-development stage as a reconciliation, before the event, of actual and desired standards or practices, just as the implementation phase should be during the event.

- 1.1 Student entry profile. In terms of language competence, this should approximate to actual end competence of the secondary cycle, though other factors (e.g. attitudinal) must be allowed for.
- 1.2 Account of the actual curriculum, related to actual student standards and attainment.
- 1.3 Description of actual end competence.
- 2.1 Ideal teacher competence specification, based on such information as a teacher needs analysis and an ideal teacher entry profile for the graduate entering the profession.
- 2.2 A rating process needs to be applied to determine what components of the specification will be retained as core competence and which will be considered expendable against probable constraints.
- 2.3 A desired competence specification, with components ranked in order of expendability.
- 3.1 Design of a desired curriculum modification, produced by comparing actual end competence with desired end competence.
- 3.2 The design is adjusted and refined as a result of the trialling process.
- 3.4 Specification of a curriculum change which is considered feasible.
- 3.6 Account of the modifications or adjustments to the system which are feasible and would ease some of the constraints on implementation of the desired change.

The accounts in 3.5 and 3.6 allow the researcher to specify with reasonable confidence the eventual competence of the graduating student. This should in turn approximate to the eventual entry profile of the specialist teacher entering the profession. Stages 3.5 and 3.6 of the design phase lead directly into the first stage of the implementation phase.

A model for curriculum change: 2: Implementation

Figure 2 is the domain of the implementer: it picks up the two major inputs from the research and development phase and pursues them in parallel, though there is close co-ordination throughout.

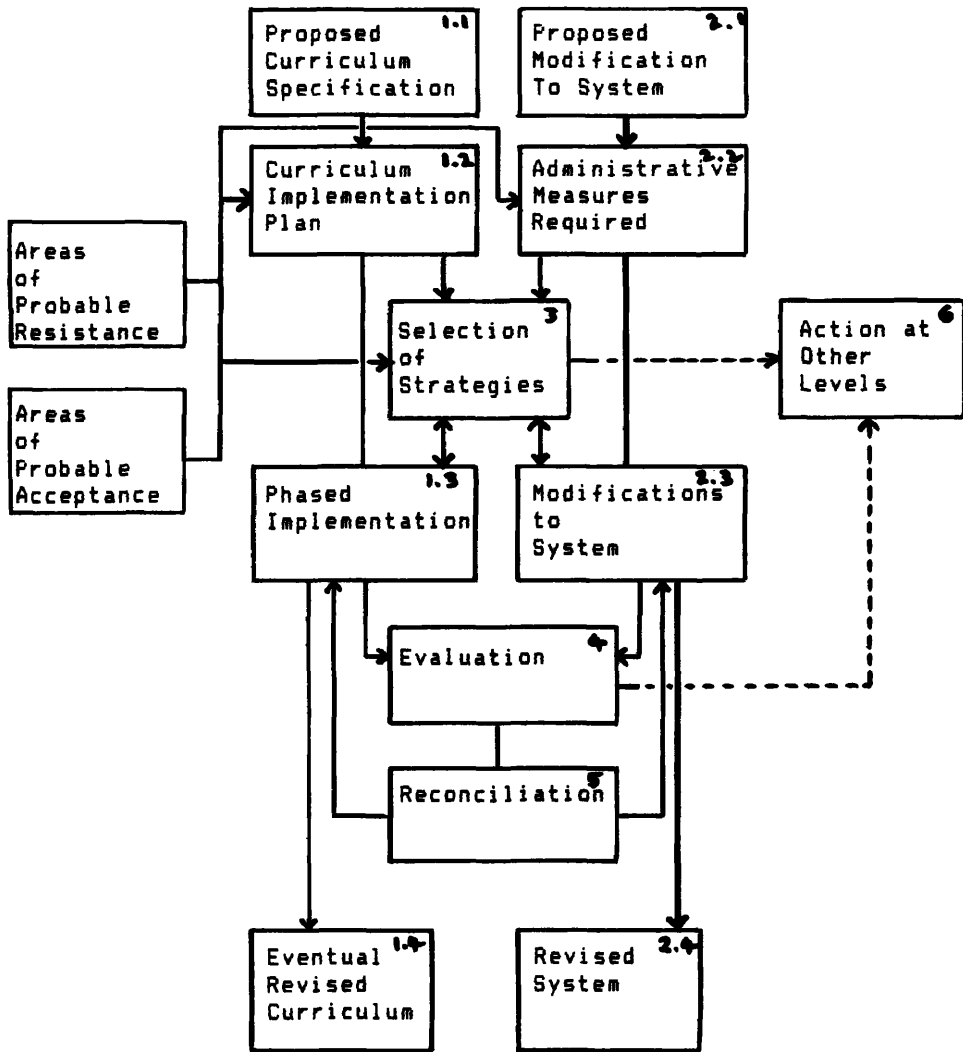


Figure 2: A Model for Curriculum Change: The Implementation Phase

- 1.1 Eventual end competence required serves to determine the proposed eventual curriculum specification.
- 1.2 This, with a consideration of likely areas of resistance and acceptance, feeds into a plan for curriculum implementation (timing, institutions, order of implementation etc.)
- 1.3 Phased implementation is initiated.
- 1.4 Revised curriculum is eventually accepted and in operation.
- 2.1 Concurrent mitigation of constraints helps to determine proposed modifications to the educational system.

- 2.2 This, with a consideration of likely areas of resistance and acceptance, feeds into a plan for administrative or professional change.
- 2.3 Modifications to the system are initiated.
- 3 Selection of appropriate strategies depends on likely resistance or acceptance, curriculum implementation plan contemplated, and administrative steps to be taken. The selection will have to be reassessed as processes evolve.
- 4/5 Implementation and modification feed into the cyclical process of evaluation and reconciliation until the implementer is satisfied that optimum fit and maximum spread have been achieved.
- 6 Finally, the possibility of a multi-level strategy and evaluation of the implementation process may lead the implementer to consider action at some other level.

Summary

We believe that there are in our approach the makings of a 'system-sensitive' form of curriculum innovation: one which feels its way towards acceptance, moulding the innovation to meet the less mutable realities of its operating conditions, while attempting to modify those conditions only where there are reasonable chances of effecting change. The approach retains a degree of control over the innovative process, yet it acknowledges the central and determining role of the teacher or educator for whom the innovation is intended; and its attempts to render assimilation of the innovation as painless and unchallenging as possible. House (1974), while viewing innovation as inherently abrasive and domineering, makes a plea for 'ecological gentleness' on the part of educational managers. If we have taken a step in this direction, it has not been through professional altruism, but through the need to innovate under inauspicious circumstances, and to carry the recipient along with us rather than expect the recipient to carry us.

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III. Pre-service

Language Teacher Competence and Language Teacher Education

Andrew L. Thomas

Introduction

How can Language Teacher Education be made systematic and effective? This problem has been confronted by CDELT through a three-cornered project to research into and develop the pre-service education, in-service training and advanced postgraduate development of Egyptian teachers of English. Some of these teachers will themselves become trainers and educators. This paper, which derives mainly from research into the four-year undergraduate curriculum leading to the degree of BA in English and Education, provides a universally applicable framework within which problems of language teaching and learning and language teacher education and training may be systematically considered.

Confronted with the task of developing the methodology curriculum for English specialists in Faculties of Education, it was decided that we should first attempt to specify the desired product of the curriculum — the educated teacher — before proceeding to make recommendations for change in the teacher education process. We should arrive at a specification of desired Language Teacher Competence (LTC).

In the course of focusing on the teacher of language, it further became apparent that there were relationships between Language Teacher Competence and end Language Learner Competence (LLC), on the one hand, and Language Teacher Educator Competence (LTEC) on the other.

The first part of this paper presents an overall framework which embraces these three layers of competence and explores the relationships between them. The second part focuses on the nature of LTC in particular, and provides a universally applicable model with suggestions for ways in which a specification of LTC may be arrived at for a given situation. The third part looks at the relationship between LTC and the curriculum for Language Teacher Education. Finally, by way of conclusion, we look at implications beyond the immediate scope of this paper.

LTC, LLC and LTEC: an integrated framework

General definitions

The whole point of teaching a language is to develop the learner's mastery of it, his 'language competence'. The term is used here to capture not only the narrower idea of 'linguistic competence' as the term is used by Chomsky but also the wider 'communicative competence' of Hymes (1972). The teacher's role, then, is to impart language competence to the learner.

Given this goal of language teaching, it follows that the language teacher needs the competence to achieve it. LTC is, then, in very broad terms, 'competence to impart competence in language'.

Following the same logical progression, it follows that educators of language teachers, to fulfil their role, need 'competence to impart competence to impart competence in language', and LTEC may be broadly defined in this way. We shall not pursue the progression further, though one can see that it is theoretically infinitely extendable.

Layers and categories of competence

We may now proceed to define more closely the 'categories' for each layer of competence in this model; for the three layers are different in nature.

Learners, we have said, aim to become competent in the system and use of language to a level to be defined in the particular learning situation. This competence we have categorized as 'language competence'. Ways of specifying the type and level of competence needed by a learner in any given situation have been suggested by, for example, Van Ek (1976), Wilkins (1976) and Munby (1978). An alternative means of specifying the components of competence is presented later in this paper.

Teachers, in order to impart this competence to learners, should themselves have language competence to a greater degree than that expected of their learners. They should also be competent in the teaching of language; we may categorize this as 'pedagogic competence'. The ability to teach language in turn involves explicit knowledge of the language system and how it operates in communication; this we may call 'language awareness'. Awareness is to be distinguished from competence in that it is something explicit and something not necessarily underlying spontaneous performance of the phenomenon in question. It facilitates reasoning and intellectual understanding of the phenomenon and contributes to the ability to impart it. For the one category of competence required by the learner, then, we have two, plus one category of awareness, required by the teacher.

What now of the teacher educators? They will need everything which it is their job to impart to the teacher, plus competence in teaching how

to teach language, which we may call ‘methodological competence’. This, in turn, involves explicit knowledge of ‘pedagogico-linguistic’ theory, that is, the theory of ‘language learning through the mediation of a teacher i.e. in contrast to the acquisition of a foreign language by “picking it up” or by other non-directed processes’ (Strevens 1980:18). The compound term ‘pedagogico-linguistic awareness, may be used to make explicit the fact that we are not concerned in this study with teaching as a general skill but specifically the teaching of language. While there may be common factors in all teaching, it is not our concern to separate these out; teaching here is seen as inextricably bound up with the object of teaching, both as an end and as a means. The terms ‘pedagogic’ and ‘methodological’ in this paper should also be interpreted in this limited way.

The categories within each layer of competence are illustrated in Figure 1. It will be noticed that on each layer the competence needed includes the same categories as on the layer below, plus one extra category of competence; and this in turn involves one extra category of awareness in relation to the category of competence added on the layer below. The system is in this sense recursive in a $1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 5$ pattern.

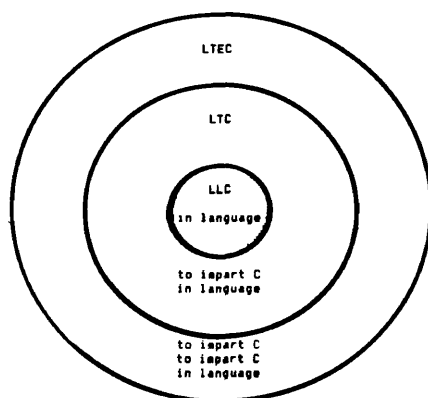


Figure 1: LLC:LTC:LTEC

Language Teacher Educator Competence:

Competence in teaching how to teach language	= Methodological Competence
Explicit knowledge of pedagogico-linguistic theory	= Pedagogico-linguistic Awareness
Competence in teaching language	= Pedagogic Competence
Explicit knowledge of language system and use	= Language Awareness
Competence in language system and use	= Language Competence

Language Teacher Competence:

Competence in teaching language	= Pedagogic Competence
Explicit knowledge of language system and use	= Language Awareness
Competence in language system and use	= Language Competence

Language Learner Competence

Competence in language system and use	= Language Competence
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LTC: the components

General

Within the three-layer framework, the goal of the language teacher education curriculum is LTC and we will now focus on this in somewhat more detail.

LTC, as we have said, has linguistic and pedagogic aspects. These in turn are built up of distinguishable but intersecting components, intersecting in the sense that any language or teaching act makes choices from all components simultaneously.

Language competence

To start with 'language competence', the pre-requisite of LTC, which the native speaker has but the non-native speaking teacher needs to develop, we may initially ask two questions about any uttered sentence:

- (i) Is it a well-formed sentence of the language system?
- (ii) Is it contextually appropriate?

These two questions may be asked in either order. The uttered sentence *I want to*, in response to the question *Are you going to London tomorrow?*, for example, passes both tests, where *I wanting to go* would fail the first and *I want to go to London tomorrow* would fail the second. This should be intuitively clear at this stage and we shall return to the analysis of the particular examples in relation to the relevant components below.

Within these major divisions, we may establish the components of LTC. Within the first, the system/grammar division, we have the 'formal' component, which may be further subdivided into phonological/graphological, syntactic and lexical well-formedness, and the 'conceptual' component; we can ask of an isolated sentence whether it is conceptually well-formed, which is rather like asking whether it makes internal sense. The 'ungrammatical' sentence *I wanting to* above is ill-formed in terms of the formal component.

Within the second, the contextual/discourse division, we have the 'functional', the 'stylistic' and the 'informational' components, on which — since they are often undervalued — more needs to be said. Functional appropriacy relates to the appropriate use of functions as the term is used by Wilkins (1976:23). Functions may be either interactional, such as *requesting*, *agreeing*, and *inviting*, in that they either normally demand or constitute responses; or 'non-interactional', such as *describing*, *narrating* or *defining*.

Stylistic appropriacy relates to the appropriacy of the utterance in terms of situational factors which cause messages to be expressed in different ways. Addresser–addressee relationships are highly significant here, conditioning for example 'polite' and 'casual' utterances. The function of *Do you think you could possibly lend me a dollar?* and *Lend*

me a dollar, will you? is constant as 'request', but the styles are different, being 'polite' and 'casual' respectively. The notion of style here is akin to that of Crystal and Davy with special reference to their dimension of 'status' (1969:73).

Informational appropriacy concerns the way in which the uttered sentence relates to the informational context in which it occurs. The work of the Prague School (Danes, 1974) and of Halliday (1970) provides the theoretical background here. Matters such as 'given' and 'new' information, 'theme' and 'rheme' and 'anaphora' are relevant. In our example above of contextual appropriacy, the question of informational relations was at issue. *I want to* in response to *Are you going to London tomorrow*: is appropriate, a brief explanatory analysis being as follows: *T . . . go to London tomorrow* is given information and is thus represented by a combination of low stress and ellipsis, while *want to* is new and is thus overtly expressed with stress: the first is the theme, and the second is the rheme. The 'elliptical gap' (Thomas 1979:44), or context-dependent absence of *go to London tomorrow* from the expression, is anaphoric.

The above components of 'language competence' are skill-dependent in that they may, in principle, be present in Listening, Speaking, Reading or Writing, and thus the four skills give an extra parameter to the specification. As regards the explicit 'language awareness' required by the language teacher, this too may be analysed in terms of the same divisions used for 'language competence'.

At this point, an intuitive generalization may be in order. Language teachers around the world focus predominantly on the system/grammar division of language competence, and within that the formal component, at the expense of the contextual/discourse division, both in their own language development and use and in the competence which they impart to learners. Teacher education should aim to change the focus.

Pedagogic competence

Pedagogic competence comprises four components, which may be labelled the 'management', 'teaching', 'preparation' and 'assessment' components. All of these presuppose language competence.

The management component concerns itself with the skills of classroom management and includes such skills as establishing rapport, managing equipment and materials. These skills have a facilitating function in that they allow the learning process to carry on smoothly.

The teaching component relates more directly to the substance of the pedagogic process and concerns skills employed in imparting language, in its various facets, to learners — the language skills and the components of language competence described above. This includes, for example, the ability to handle the substance of communicative activities rather than simply manage them.

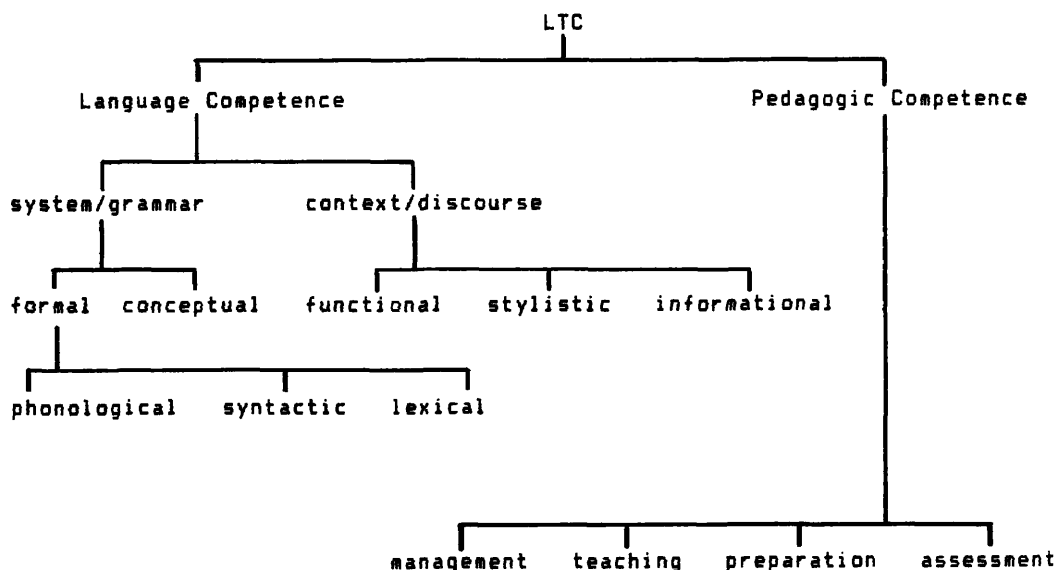


Figure 2: Language Teacher Competence

The preparation component concerns skills involved in preparing for teaching. These include identifying and organizing activities, where the activities are provided by the materials writer or, where they are not, creating activities which are valid in terms of specific objectives. A teacher needs to be well prepared both mentally and physically, in terms of both his teaching strategies and his use of resources. We can see that preparation skills invoke before the event, so to speak, both management and teaching skills.

The assessment component deals with the teacher's ability to assess his own performance of the various skills mentioned above. The teacher has to be able to answer such questions as 'Was the lesson well planned?', 'Did everything go well?', 'If not, what went wrong and why?'. The more competent teacher is able to monitor his performance as it happens and the questions may be rephrased in the present progressive as the teaching event develops. To be able to use and react constructively to such ongoing monitoring requires considerable intuition and flexibility.

The overall analysis of LTC, embracing both language and pedagogy, is diagrammed in Figure 2.

The 'KENIL' scale

The framework presented above is, we would suggest, universally applicable. But situations vary with regard to the requirements placed upon teachers, and in any one situation some 'competencies' will be more important than others. The term 'competency' is used here to refer

to a specific part of a competence specification, such as the ability to respond politely with information, on the language side, or the ability to handle pair work in communicative activities, on the pedagogic side. The 'KENIL' scale has been devised to allow us to make different graded specifications of such competencies for given situations.

The scale consists of five grades, namely key, essential, needed, ideal and luxury, which may be defined for a given context as follows:

Key:	Sine qua non for a language teacher
Essential:	Necessary for good language teaching
Needed:	Important for good language teaching
Ideal:	Useful for a language teacher
Luxury:	Not normally required by a language teacher

On such a scale, for the Egyptian context, not surprisingly a competency such as 'Correct written script for grammatical error' rates higher than 'Operate audiovisual equipment'. But the actual mechanics of specification are beyond the scope of this paper, though they can as at CDELT involve detailed inventories, grids and matrices to allow subtle and interlocking judgments to be made. Suffice to say here that, even where grading is not applied rigorously, the concept is intuitively useful in establishing the core and peripheral elements of LTC for a given teaching context.

LTC and the language teacher education curriculum: separation and integration

We have divided LTC into two aspects, the linguistic and the pedagogic. But their integration should not be ignored, in the description of LTC itself, in the actual teaching event, or in language teacher education.

In the actual teaching event, both aspects of LTC are brought into action concurrently. In teacher education, teaching practice — which is an actual teaching event built into teacher education — produces active integration. In the case of other elements in the teacher education curriculum, can and should the two aspects be separated? We may take, for example, the two kinds of course frequently found in the language teacher education curriculum — language ('structure of English' etc) and methodology ('ELT' etc).

It seems that there are two sensible answers to this question, one which is likely in most cases to involve radical change and one feasible within existing frameworks and regulations.

The first is that there should be a totally integrated Language & Methodology curriculum, teachable in principle by a single teacher educator. Such a solution would adhere to principles such as 'teachers teach the way they were taught, not the way they were taught to teach' (Altman, 1984) and 'practise what you preach'. It would further integrate the two aspects of LTC in a way that they must ultimately be integrated. This answer is a radical one with substantial implications for administrative and academic change. In Egypt, as presumably in

many contexts, language and language teaching methodology are taught as separate courses by two different departments, institutionally separated and staffed by members who see themselves as specialists of different subjects.

The second answer is that, whereas the language courses of the curriculum should primarily develop language competence and awareness but secondarily pedagogic competence (particularly through the educator's own teaching example), conversely the language teaching methodology should primarily develop pedagogic competence but secondarily language competence (through the educator's own language use. This answer is often the more feasible in that it does not involve radical changes in departmental organization nor that members of staff should change their specialist academic identity. It does, however, involve changes in syllabuses and methods and to a certain extent in the attitudes and even competence (LTEC) of the two types of language teacher educator. Such attitudes involve the willingness to collaborate and produce actual co-operation between educators from the different departments. Such co-operation may be difficult though not impossible to achieve.

Conclusion: issues arising

In the core of this paper, we have considered a way of specifying systematically the desired product of language teacher education — the linguistically and pedagogically competent teacher and the way in which such a specification might affect language teacher education curriculum design. To this extent, the approach is essentially product-oriented. Little is said about the methodological process involved in developing the competent teacher. Just as Strevens has pointed out that in the case of language teaching 'methodology follows from the psychological model adopted, not from the linguistic analysis' (1980:28), so in the case of language teacher education the methodology will follow from the psychological model adopted, not from the linguistic and pedagogic analysis. Nevertheless, it seems intuitively wrong to suppose that we can develop an appropriate language teacher education curriculum if we are unable to define clearly what we are aiming at. With the pendulum swinging in language teaching and learning theory between product-oriented and process-oriented approaches, it seems necessary to maintain a balanced perspective in language teacher education theory, which is in a less developed state and does not necessarily have to go either one way or the other. A way towards a balance in language teaching and learning theory is proposed by Bowers when he claims that 'far more information based on controlled observation of the learning process will be necessary . . . to relate process-oriented and product-oriented approaches' (1980:69). Perhaps we can hope that in language teacher education theory a single approach with a single solution may be developed, in which considera-

tion is given to both product and process and the interrelationships between them.

A specific question bound to be raised in connection with this issue is the balance of theory and practice in the relevant courses and the way they are to be treated. In the case of Language, the need of the teacher for language awareness as well as competence appears to justify the presence of explicit theory alongside the unquestionably necessary practice. In the case of Language Teaching Methodology, the question remains open whether the presence of explicit theory alongside practice facilitates the induction and 'internalisation' of generalisations which will form part of the pedagogic competence of the language teacher and which he will draw on the variety of teaching situations that he will encounter. My feeling is that explicit theory alongside the unquestionably necessary practice is justified in that it will contribute to the development of a competence which will not only implicitly underlie performance but can also be talked about.

Given that theory and practice both have their place in language teacher education, a general principle concerning how they are treated seems to be that of 'immediacy of relevance'. Presenting pure theory in one part of the course and pure practice in another is not likely to lead to student teachers establishing the connection. Rather, every stage should embody both practice and theoretical generalizations related to that practice, so that the connection may be clearly seen.

Finally, further investigations could turn to consideration of the wider implications of the integrated framework set out in Figure 1. Given that target LLC, LTC and LTEC are interrelated in the ways indicated, we should not consider 'LTC and language teacher education' as a self-contained problem. Any solutions will both be conditioned by and have implications for the layers below and above, for the individual learner learning and the for the linguist or educationist theorizing. What we have provided here is a framework within which a language education problem can be identified, an approach to its resolution adopted, and conclusions reached in full awareness of their implications throughout the multi-layered system.

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Course Development in Restricted Circumstances: Reading and Writing

James Pett

Overview

This paper examines a number of models for syllabus design and proposes a model for course development in restricted circumstances. It looks at the factors which initiate course development and at the role of change in theory as an initiator of change in practice. Following consideration of the constraining factors which may be operative in course development, the proposed model is exemplified by a report on the development of a reading and writing course for students in Egyptian Faculties of Education who are training to become teachers of English.

Models for syllabus design

Syllabus design is sometimes presented as a straightforward affair, in theory if not in practice. First, you define your aims and objectives; then you work out means of attaining them, taking into account relevant constraints. A great deal of information is available on objectives, syllabuses, teaching methodologies and techniques, even on constraints; so the job of the syllabus designer is in this view relatively well-charted. We can diagram this simple approach to syllabus design as in Figure 1:

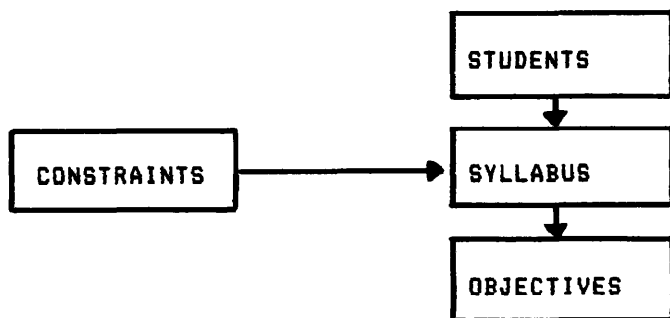


Figure 1: Syllabus Design (I)

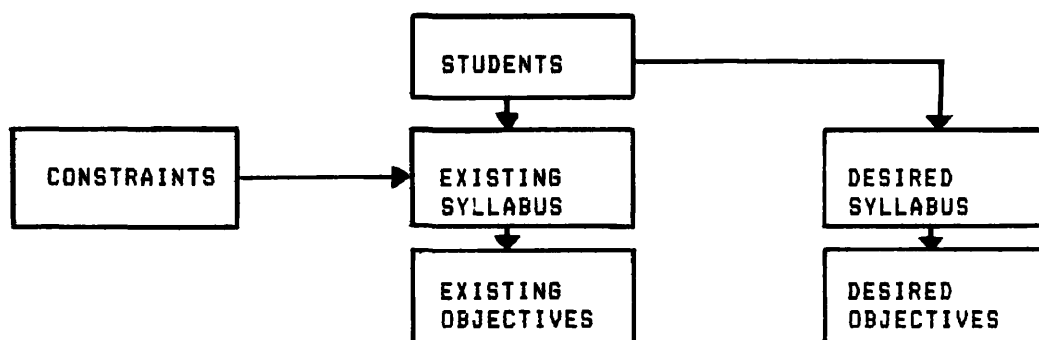


Figure 2: Syllabus Design (II)

Syllabus designers, however, are not only concerned with designing a new syllabus. More often than not, they are involved in syllabus change, modifying or adapting an existing syllabus in order to move from an existing situation to a desired new one. In such a model (Figure 2), the basic elements are: the existing syllabus; the existing objectives; the desired syllabus; and the desired objectives.

In this model, the relationship between the existing syllabus and existing objectives appears to be identical with that between the desired syllabus and desired objectives. But there is an important difference. While the desired syllabus is ideally a means of attaining the desired objectives, it is only sometimes true that an existing syllabus attains existing objectives. Often the existing declared objectives are not even true objectives, but merely the actual outcome of an existing syllabus, after the original objectives have been forgotten. Syllabus renewal therefore has to consider not only what objectives should exist and how they can be attained but also whether real objectives do exist and whether they are attained. It may prove necessary to revise a syllabus in order to attain existing objectives; or it may be necessary to revise both objectives and syllabus.

The more a model of syllabus design takes account of constraints, the clearer it becomes that, for any established set of objectives, the possibilities are not limited simply to an existing syllabus and a desired one. Between these two there is, at least in principle, a considerable number of possible syllabuses differing in apparent feasibility (Figure 3).

In his model for curriculum change in teacher education, Straker Cook (this volume and 1983) considers the role of constraints in effecting a compromise between an ideal syllabus and an existing one.

'The ideal curriculum must first be specified in relation to existing practice, then assessed and modified in the light of possible constraints'

(Straker Cook, 1983)

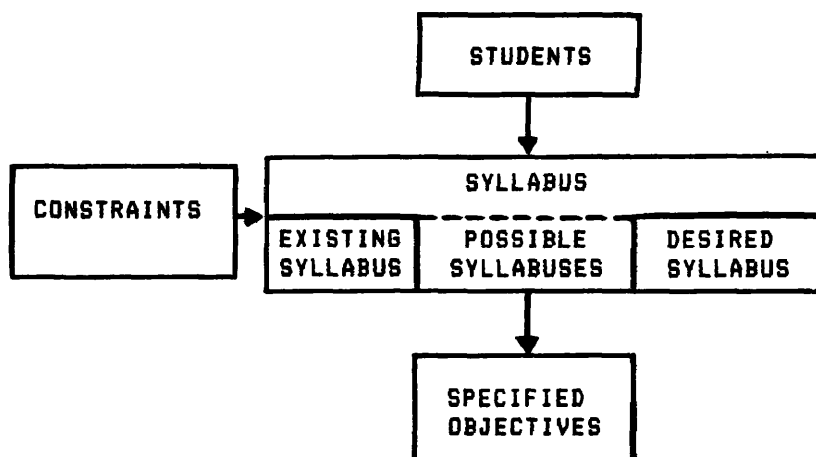


Figure 3: The Effect of Constraints

In this view, the ideal syllabus or curriculum retains a dominant role in the model as is clear in his ordering of these three questions:

- (i) What teacher education ought we to provide?
(ideal curriculum)
- (ii) What teacher education do we provide?
(existing curriculum)
- (iii) What teacher education can we provide?
(best compromise)

Constraints, however, can bring different influences to bear on the development process; indeed, they can be so powerful as to prohibit change completely. In what we have chosen to call 'restricted circumstances' in contrast to what Straker Cook terms the 'privileged environment', constraints play the dominant role in deciding what changes can and cannot take place. Goals and objectives, in so far as they exist, provide only a general sense of direction and are relevant only in selecting between one of a number of feasible modifications. Adopting and modifying Straker Cook's questions, our priorities will therefore be:

- (i) What modification/syllabus can I provide?
- (ii) What modification/syllabus should I provide?
- (iii) What modification/syllabus will I provide?

Course development in restricted circumstances

The steps in developing a new syllabus or a modification to an existing syllabus may be set out as follows:

1. Identifying reasons for change.
2. Determining constraints, investigating them and the relationships between them.

3. Evolving possible alternative syllabuses.
4. Selecting one alternative for implementation by referring all possible syllabuses to a desired competence specification.

The remainder of this paper will consider the various elements in this model as set out in Figure 4, and will illustrate them by reference to the development at CDELTA of a reading and writing course for students of English in Egyptian Faculties of Education, a course entitled 'Essay and Comprehension' extending through the four years of the degree programme for specialist teachers of English in preparatory and secondary schools.

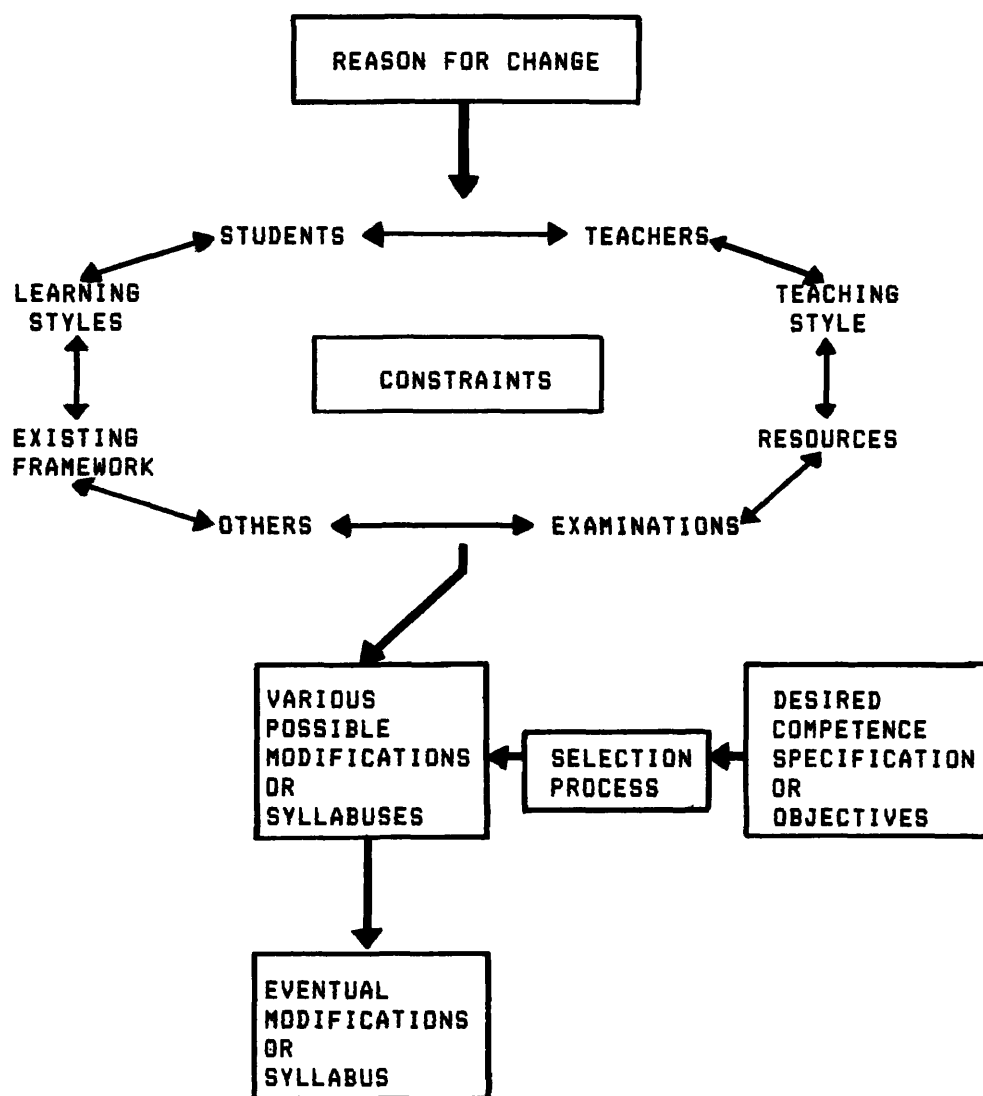


Figure 4: The Process of Course Development

1. Reasons for change: the nature of the subject

There are a number of reasons why a syllabus may be modified: it may be thought desirable that the course seems up-to-date, (implying only an appearance of newness within a basically soundly structured course); or new knowledge and advances in the discipline may stimulate a re-examination and restructuring of a course; or change may be initiated when it is felt that the existing syllabus does not meet the stated objectives; or new objectives may be set and require a new course in pursuit of them.

Change within any teaching institution may be initiated from a number of quarters. It may be client-initiated if students (or their parents or sponsors) feel that existing syllabuses are out-of-date or inadequate or irrelevant to their needs. Change may be initiated by the institution itself through its governing body, administrators etc., in order to offer a more acceptable product.

However, the most common pressure for change is from within the teaching profession itself. Our understanding of the processes of language learning and teaching is continually developing; our range of teaching methods and techniques expands; and not only the way we teach is evolving but what we teach — our insight into the four skills and what is involved in the exercise of them leads teachers to press for syllabus change to reflect this new understanding. Thus the changing nature of the subject as perceived by teachers and syllabus designers initiates course development. Perhaps nowhere has development in our understanding led to greater changes in our practice than in the teaching of reading and writing. Since the middle sixties, advances in psycholinguistics have provided important insights into the L1 reading process, and these in turn have significantly influenced the teaching of L1 reading. Similarly, research in the seventies into L2 reading, based on the earlier L1 work, has not only provided data indicating similarities and differences in the two processes but has led to a reappraisal of techniques for teaching reading in a second language.

Reading

Research into reading English as a mother tongue (Goodman, 1967; Smith, 1978) has shown that reading is not the step-by-step process suggested by earlier explanations. On the contrary, there is a highly complex interaction between a reader and a text, in which the reader makes sense of the text by using both textual and non-textual clues to predict and to form hypotheses, as well as to test, reject and modify these hypotheses. In Goodman's words, 'efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right the first time' (Goodman, 1967:127).

Reading in a second or foreign language is of course more problematic. The reading process is hindered by the reader's imperfect

knowledge of the language being read. As a result the reader is often unable to make the guesses or predictions, will use the wrong cues or make the wrong associations, and will have difficulty in recalling earlier cues owing to a shorter memory span (Yorio, 1971:108).

Working from research in psycholinguistic approaches to reading, Clarke and Silberstein (1977) have developed a framework for teaching reading to L2 learners in which they highlight four inferences:

1. Reading is an active process (Goodman, 1967)
2. Reading involves both process (comprehending) and product (comprehension) (Goodman and Burke, 1973)
3. Reading involves an interaction between thought and language (Goodman, 1967).
4. Reading should be done with semantically complete texts (Menosky, 1971; Goodman and Burke, 1973).

From these inferences they set up the following four goals for teachers of reading:

- (a) to train our students to determine beforehand their goals and expectations for a given reading ability;
- (b) to teach our students to use strategies appropriate to the task at hand;
- (c) to encourage our students to take risks, to guess, to ignore their impulses to always be correct; and
- (d) to give our students practice and encouragement in using the minimum number of syntactic/semantic clues to obtain the maximum amount of information when reading.'

(Clarke and Silberstein, 1977:137-8)

Writing

Similar advances have been made in research into written composition. Indeed, so spectacular have been the changes in attitude and understanding that Hairston (1982) has described them as a 'revolution'. Our earlier conceptual model of composition, the so-called 'product' model, is being replaced by a new one concerned with 'process'.

Young (1978:31) characterizes the traditional model as emphasizing the product of writing rather than the process of composing, and incorporating the analysis of discourse into traditional rhetorical forms of description, exposition, argument etc., while giving high priority to usage, correctness and style. This model leads to the belief that writers know what they want to write before they write and that their main task is therefore organizing content and finding a suitable mode of expression. Writing is further seen as a linear process progressing from pre-writing to writing and re-writing (Hairston 1982:78).

In contrast, the new paradigm stresses the idea that it is only through the act of writing that writers fully realize what it is they want

to write. Consequently, their writing is far from linear. In Hairston's words, 'it is messy, recursive, convoluted, and uneven' (1982:85). The new paradigm stresses the writing process rather than the product, and instruction consequently takes place throughout the whole process of writing. Students are helped to generate content, to discover purpose, and to write not only to fulfil their own intentions but to meet their readers' needs. The stages of writing are seen as overlapping and intertwining, while writing itself involves the whole person and not just the rational faculties (Hairston, 1982:86).

In her studies of L2 composition, Zamel (1976, 1982, 1983) finds that proficient ESL writers experience writing in a way similar to L1 writers. However, L2 writers do have linguistic problems, and Raimes (1978) discusses these in terms of three areas of difficulty: sentence structure and grammar; rhetorical structure and organization; and diction, spelling and knowledge of idiom.

Discussing the implications for teaching of her research into composition processes, Perl (1979) asserts that too much time is spent on teaching the rules of surface features and not enough on the actual composing process. She suggests that teachers need to find out which components of the process students are good at and get them to use these to full advantage, and which components they are poor at and help them develop these. In other words, teachers should not be trying to remedy the written product so much as trying to facilitate the writing process.

While not wishing to take a faddish approach to the teaching of reading and writing, and blindly adopting the latest research findings, we believe that these developments in our understanding — with others in related areas such as text typology and psycholinguistic processes in general — are sufficient to require a reappraisal of any long-established reading or writing course. If any existing course has already proved successful, incorporation of findings from research may help it to be more so. If an existing course has not been as successful as it might have been, reappraisal in the light of recent theoretical and research developments will be an important part of course evaluation and innovation.

2. Determining constraints: the general picture

(a) The existing syllabus framework

Syllabus change and course development generally, except where a new institution or discipline is being established, takes place within an existing framework. This may be in the form of academic regulations, changes to which are usually difficult to negotiate and often require endorsement at the highest level. Directions at a lower level may be more easily modified provided department and staff are amenable to the proposed changes. It is often easy to change the content of an existing syllabus whereas the overall structure may be more difficult:

teachers are often free, within a given framework of course title, time, grading system etc. to teach what they feel is appropriate, with minimum reference to other teachers in the curriculum or other authorities. Finally, it is important to consider regulations not as laid down but as they are interpreted by the authorities and by current practice.

(b) Examinations

The role which examinations play varies not only from system to system but from stage to stage within a system. Sometimes an examination is little more than a teacher's check to see that students have in fact learned what the teacher knows he has taught. Often, however, end of year examinations dominate the curriculum. Success in the examinations is viewed by all, but especially by the learner, as the primary aim of the year's work. In such a situation syllabus renewal is particularly difficult since changes may be seen by teacher and student alike as irrelevant to the examination. It is essential therefore that syllabus development is linked with some renewal of the examination system, if not in form at least in content. Regulations which need careful attention include those for the scheduling of examinations, preparation of examination questions, correction of scripts, systems for grading papers and sections within papers, and the weighting given to different subjects in the overall examined curriculum.

(c) The students

A prime consideration in any course modification must be the students who take the course. Course designers have to review existing student profiles (if any) to make sure they are still valid, and to update profiles that are found to be inadequate. A number of factors arise.

Number: This includes the total number of students in a year-group, the class size, the ratio of students to staff, and arrangements for sub-grouping. Class size is one of the greatest influences on course development. Where classes can be as large as 200 (as is not uncommon in Egyptian Faculties of Education) little can be done to improve the teaching of language skills. The teaching style will inevitably be the lecture, and although attempts can be made at group work the ratio of students to teacher excludes any really meaningful co-operation. Moreover, a course tutor will certainly be unable to correct two hundred pieces of written work a week! The constraints are evident.

Student background: Relevant information can be found from student files, where these are made available, or by means of a simple student profile questionnaire (as was done at CDELT). In addition to general socio-economic information, relevant facts include the students' previous general education, their EFL experience in particular, and their extra-curricular interests and pastimes. Economic factors will

bear importantly on the cost — and therefore the quantity, format and content — of books and supplementary materials in contexts where students are personally responsible for their purchase, while interests and pastimes will influence course content.

Language competence: In most systems the school leaving examination system provides the criteria for entry into the tertiary sector. Such examinations, however, generally test achievement rather than skills proficiency, and are written rather than oral. It is important to have a clear profile of the written and oral proficiency of any group of students beginning a course of language study. Students in the case study which follows, for example, showed very poor reading comprehension as measured by both cloze and multiple choice tests (Pett, 1984). They had little experience in school of reading extended texts, having been required to read three simplified readers in as many years. They also had a very slow reading speed and most approached a text word by word, vocalizing or subvocalizing as they did so.

Attitude and motivation: It is important to find out why students have joined a course, and how much choice, if any, they had in the matter. Allied to this are their expectations as to what the course will contain, what they will achieve by following it, and what their studies — including this course — will equip them for on graduation. First analysis of a survey of third year students in five Egyptian Faculties of Education (Omar, 1984) showed that the reason given by most students for entering the English Department of the Faculty of Education was that they could not enter the English department in the more prestigious Faculty of Arts because their school-leaving score was inadequate. This desire to study English was reflected in their reasons for joining the English department rather than another in the Education Faculty: students ranked wanting to speak English properly above any career consideration. Wanting to be a teacher was ranked only third among possible reasons, though higher than any other career aspiration.

Current satisfaction: Acceptance of change is closely linked to the degree of satisfaction with existing courses. In the CDELT case study, the Essay and Comprehension course was found to rank sixth in terms of satisfaction, the lowest of all the language and literature courses. Complaints were that the number of lectures was inadequate, that content was too Western in cultural orientation, and that the subject needed to be made more relevant to their future needs as teachers. The lack of a set book was criticized by both staff and students, as was the lack of an explicit syllabus. Students often felt they were required to write on abstract topics of little interest or relevance. So far as target skills were concerned, students ranked highest being able to speak everyday English fluently with a native speaker; being able to read contemporary literature in English ranked only seventh below the abilities to read classical literature, to write letters and to write stories and articles in English.

(d) Learning styles

To say that course designers need to take account of students' learning style is not to argue that the course they design should fit in with it exactly. Students frequently have poor, insufficient or under-developed learning habits, and one of the aims of any curriculum development programme must be to improve these; in their schooling, students may have been exposed to a very limited set of learning activities and be unaware of more efficient ways of studying. Course designers need to maximize use of the learning strengths of their students while exposing them to new learning strategies: a balance of the familiar and the new is likely to prove most effective.

The students in the case study showed a very strong preference for rote learning, expecting to be given either printed handouts or dictated notes to learn by heart and repeat almost verbatim in examinations. They found personal research and private reading particularly difficult.

(e) The teacher

Just as the students bring a whole complex of factors to the learning situation, so also does the teacher. We have already mentioned staff/student ratio. Teachers also bring into play their personal background in terms of general education and professional training. In the situation under study, teaching in the first two years is normally undertaken by junior staff who are working towards their MA degree. They are generally recent graduates from the Faculty of Arts, without general training as teachers and without specific training in the subject areas they are called upon to teach. They may come from either a language or a literature background, more frequently the latter. In the third and fourth years, teaching is generally done by senior staff holding Egyptian or overseas PhD degrees in either literature or general/comparative/theoretical linguistics. They will have had extensive teaching experience, though like their junior colleagues they will normally have proceeded from Faculties of Arts without pursuing either general or specific teacher training. A degree in TEFL is not a recognized qualification for teaching language courses in Faculties of Education, and few senior staff have had any kind of professional TEFL education.

The teachers' background influences their competence, linguistic and pedagogic (see Thomas, this volume), as well as their attitudes and expectations. Successful implementation of curriculum change will depend significantly on teachers' attitudes to existing courses, to change in general and to the proposed changes in particular, as Straker Coiok (this volume) has emphasized. It is important to gauge their commitment to the received methodology and their awareness of alternative approaches and techniques. So far as expectations are concerned, the way they view their job, their salary, their career development and their promotion prospects will have a direct bearing

on the innovation contemplated. Where teachers have to work with large groups in poor conditions for low salaries, there is understandably little incentive to put in the extra effort which change implies when such energy could be used to supplement a salary by extra teaching or other employment. To recognize this is not cynicism but sympathy.

(f) Style of teaching

Individual teachers vary in their teaching style, but it is nevertheless possible to classify classroom styles within broad categories. Analyses of teaching behaviour (see Bowers, 1980) are available alongside more general descriptions of language teaching classrooms (e.g. Hughes, 1982; Sinclair and Brazil, 1982; Willis, 1982). In the CDELT study the most common teaching mode was found to be lecturing and the dictating of notes, for reasons which have been indicated above.

(g) Resources

Among the physical limitations which have a bearing on the effectiveness of language teaching, the first is the classroom itself. Its condition, shape and size all influence how it can be used. For language classrooms, the acoustics are particularly important. Within the classroom the type, quantity and arrangement of furniture will affect seating arrangements, permitting some activities and excluding others. A consideration here is the size and weight of the furniture, and whether it is fixed or not. Other services are also relevant. Attention needs to be paid to lighting, heating, ventilation, to electricity supply and the availability of power sockets. Noise in the vicinity of the classroom has to be taken into account. The availability of other facilities needs to be checked: the position and condition of the blackboard, other visual aids (noticeboard, OHP, flannel- or magnet-board, charts, posters etc.), and equipment such as tape-recorders, language laboratories, video. Finally, there are the general support services such as typing (L1 and L2), photocopying and other reproduction, recording and library facilities. All are resources to be exploited or limitations to be allowed for.

For any course, but particularly one concerned with the written skills, a resource which needs separate consideration is the provision of books. Books are of central importance to all educational systems, and *their price and availability is a major determining factor in curriculum change*. Special attention is necessary to the availability of foreign language book imports which are often expensive, sometimes prohibitively. Distribution too is important: what is available in the capital is often unavailable in the provinces. Some ministries, universities and other teaching institutions establish their own purchasing, production and distribution facilities. All of these factors are of crucial importance in considering any innovation in which the printed word plays a role.

1/2 Reasons for change and determining constraints: the CDELT context

Systematic consideration of the reasons for change and the constraints listed above provided, for the 'Essay and Comprehension' course, the following specification of operative conditions or constraints:

Nature of subject:

- 1 Reading
 - 1.1 Provide language skills rather than language practice, though the latter not excluded.
 - 1.2 Pursue ability to comprehend text of general nature.
 - 1.3 Develop flexibility according to purpose.
 - 1.4 Stimulate learning of both language and content through reading.
 - 1.5 Develop some degree of critical awareness (Williams 1984:19).
- 2 Writing
 - 2.1 Emphasize process rather than product.
 - 2.2 Familiarize with rhetorical and syntactic conventions of written English.
 - 2.3 Provide practice, and teacher guidance during writing.
 - 2.4 Provide practice in all stages of composition — pre-writing, writing and rewriting.
 - 2.5 Provide practice in the basic structures of academic writing.

Constraints:

(a) Existing Syllabus Framework:

- a.1 Course title: 'Essay and Comprehension'
- a.2 Course time: Within 4 academic years of (actual) 20 weeks, 3 hours per week in years 1/2 and 2 hours per week in years 3/4. (In some universities, following a previous curriculum development project, increased in years 1/2 to 4 hours per week.)
- a.3 Course content: Years 1/2 Essay component already developed in previous project. Years 1/2 Comprehension component utilized for listening comprehension following previous project. Years 3/4 Essay follows list of recommended essay topics; no detailed syllabus specification. Years 3/4 Comprehension covers selection of text passages with language points and direct reference questions; no clear rationale for selection.
- a.4 Regulations: Course titles cannot be changed. Percentages of total examination score allotted to each component cannot be changed. Changes in content can be made by departmental approval. Length of teaching sessions can be varied.
- a.5 Books: Years 1/2 covered by specially designed texts produced by previous project. Years 3/4 Essay rarely uses textbooks. Years 3/4 Comprehension uses anthologies of comprehension passages produced locally (providing teachers with extra income).

a.6 Other requirements: Courses for years 3/4 must follow on from and complement courses already developed for years 1/2. A reading course for home study is needed for years 1/2 to supplement existing classwork in listening comprehension and provide markable work. The Comprehension course for years 3/4 is required for use in class. All language courses should integrate with literature courses.

(b) Examinations:

b.1 These dominate the syllabus and determine course content.

b.2 Written by senior staff members based on what is taught during the year, but not necessarily set by those who have taught the course.

b.3 Pass mark and nature of grading system cannot be changed.

b.4 Writing and Comprehension are examined together in one 3-hour paper at the end of each academic year. Total marks is 100 including 20 for class work, pass mark is 60.

(c) Students:

c.1 Number: Large classes (approx. 50)

c.2 Background: From all socio-economic groups. Modest overall pass in school leaving certificate with minimum 40/60 in English.

c.3 Language competence: Beginner to lower intermediate ability on entry. Poor reading skills, including speed less than 100 words per minute; mainly word by word reading; particular difficulties with skimming and scanning, reading for information, extracting main point from details. Poor language command in comparison with linguistic demands of prescribed texts. Writing limited to sentence level structures, with need for remedial practice.

c.4 Attitudes and Motivation: Would have preferred Faculty of Arts course. Few really wish to be teachers. English seen as means of personal and social betterment. Existing Essay & Comprehension course ranks lowest of all language courses in popularity.

(d) Learning styles:

d.1 Predominant style: rote memorization of content from lecture notes.

(e) Teachers:

e.1 Number: Shortage at all levels. 1:50 in-class teacher:student ratio

e.2 Background: Both junior and senior staff, either working for MA or holding PhD for Faculty of Arts. No specific EFL training. Little opportunity for professional updating.

e.3 Competence: Linguistic command varies from low (TOEFL 350) to near native. Pedagogic competence varies, but little methodological background relevant to subject.

e.4 Attitude: Open to change provided existing norms are respected and no additional workload.

e.5 Expectations: Low pay reduces willingness to put in extra time. Any simplification or lightening of load welcomed.

(f) Teaching style:

f.1 Predominant style: formal lecture and dictation of notes.

(g) Resources:

g.1 Classroom: Generally poor condition; overcrowded; in short supply.

g.2 Furniture: Insufficient, generally cumbersome, and not well-designed for study purposes.

g.3 Services: Lighting poor; power points rare; high noise level.

g.4 Facilities: Blackboard always available (though quality varies); some faculties have cassette recorders; some faculties have poorly maintained language laboratories; few other facilities.

g.5 Support services: Teachers do own typing; mimeo facilities generally available; some faculties have photocopiers; most faculties have small EFL library collection.

g.6 Books: Some locally produced books available; foreign books expensive and hard to obtain; distribution problems for all books in province; bulk orders, especially for imported books, must be made well in advance of school year.

3 Evolving a reading and writing syllabus

Consideration of the above specification leads to a number of possible but somewhat ill-defined course descriptions. These become clearer when considered in the light of existing syllabuses and curriculum aims.

The existing language courses in years 1/2 provide a starting point. An earlier curriculum development project had produced materials at this level for grammar, phonetics, listening comprehension and composition. No change in these courses was envisaged; the composition course, with its implicit objectives, thus provided the basis for a four-year writing syllabus.

As no similar course material had been developed specifically for reading, the syllabus here was more open-ended. Some reading materials had in fact been prepared for the first year course but not adopted: it was thought that some of this material could be incorporated. Since the comprehension provision in years 1/2 had been taken up for listening comprehension, time specific to reading comprehension became available only in years 3/4 at one hour per week. Because in addition the listening comprehension course provided no homework or outside study, it was felt that any first/second year reading course could usefully consist of home-study materials. Given the students' high

motivation towards skills improvement, and the low level of homework overall, it was felt students would welcome this.

The overall rationale for syllabus development (described by Thomas, this volume) was two-fold: to develop the linguistic component of language teacher competence; and to provide students with linguistic and study skills needed to cope with other aunviersity courses taken in English, notably literature.

It was decided to specify reading and writing objectives in terms not of formal categories but of inherent skills. Any formal linguistic specification would have had to be converted into skills in order to produce course materials compatible with our understanding of what reading and writing, and the teaching of them, should involve. It was felt that a formal inventory could be used as a checklist against which to measure an intuitively developed course design rather than as a prescription for development.

How then could a macro-skill such as reading or composing be comprehensively specified in terms of sub-skills? In theoretical terms, this cannot yet be done since our knowledge of the reading and writing processes is incomplete. In practical terms, sound bases are available. What Eskey (1973) states is even more applicable, to writing as well as to reading, some ten years on:

'The fact remains that all we know about the reading processes now is some of the kinds of skills that go into good reading . . . Since we do not know how successful readers can draw on several kinds of skills at once, but do know they can, and do know what the skills are, within limits, the best reading program at this particular time would be composed of instruction in the critical skills and plenty of practice in various kinds of reading.'

(1973:173)

A review of research literature, current classroom practice and reading and writing course materials, particularly for EFL/ESL, indicated the following main skill areas:

Reading

(cf Williams, 1984:19)

1. The ability to read texts of a general nature with comprehension.
2. The ability to read flexibly according to purpose.
3. The ability to learn content and language from reading (i.e. to be able to continue learning).
4. The ability to read with some degree of critical awareness.

Writing

1. The ability to write according to the syntactic and rhetorical conventions of written English.
2. The ability to handle the pre-writing, writing and re-writing stages of composition.

3. The ability to handle the basic structure of academic writing.
4. The ability to write in directed, synthetic and free modes.
5. The ability to express personal thought and opinion in writing.

It is clear that the four reading skills and five writing skills defined above cannot be taught sequentially to achieve a composite end product. Nevertheless, there should be different emphases over a four-year course to avoid the impression that one year is simply a repetition of the previous one and no real progress is being made. Students as well as teachers and administrators expect to see progress both in terms of what is taught and in terms of the skills acquired. Schematically, this distribution of emphasis on the main skill areas was set as follows (the parentheses indicate options):

ACADEMIC	READING SKILLS				COMPOSITION SKILLS			
1	1	2	(3)		1	3	4	
2	1	2	3		1	2	3	4
3	(1	2)	3	(4)	1	2		5
4	(1	2)	3	4	1	2		5

For each of the main skills a set of sub-skills was then established.

Reading

(cf Williams, 1984:20–21)

Skill 1: Ability to read texts of a general nature with comprehension

- a) ability to recognize a text's purpose and function
- b) ability to recognize a text's main topic
- c) ability to recognise a paragraph structure and organisation
- d) ability to use techniques for handling vocabulary, structure and discourse
- e) ability to handle uncertainty
- f) ability to use guessing
- g) ability to use prediction (including indicators)
- h) ability to use inferences (without indicators)
- i) ability to read with improved speed

Skill 2: Ability to read texts fluently according to purpose

- a) ability to skim
- b) ability to scan
- c) ability to read intensively for thorough comprehension
- d) ability to read extensively according to purpose

Skill 3: Ability to learn language and content from reading (i.e. to be able to continue learning)

- a) ability to guess from context
- b) ability to use an English to English dictionary
- c) ability to extract relevant information

- d) ability to distinguish main points from detail
- e) ability to evaluate arguments and evidence
- f) ability to use indexes and headings

Skill 4: Ability to read with some degree of critical awareness

- a) ability to consider a text objectively
- b) ability to see the writer's aims and objectives, and methods of attaining them
- c) ability to relate the content and the reader's own world and background

Composition

Skill 1: Ability to write according to the syntactical and rhetorical conventions of written English

- a) mastery of the mechanics of writing including handwriting
- b) ability to write grammatically correct sentences
- c) ability to outline a paragraph
- d) ability to outline a multiparagraph composition
- e) ability to use the following forms of rhetorical organization: classifying, physical description, definition, description of events, giving directions, description of process, cause and effect, chronological order, comparison and contrast, biography

Skill 2: Ability to handle the pre-writing, writing and rewriting stages of composition

- a) ability to write according to reader, purpose and topic
- b) ability to write coherently, with completeness and unity
- c) ability to rewrite for clarity, economy and precision, using transitional and logical connectives

Skill 3: Ability to handle the basic structure of academic writing

- a) ability to structure an essay according to introduction, body and conclusion

Skill 4: Ability to write in

- a) directed mode
- b) free mode
- c) synthetic mode

Skill 5: Ability to express in writing

- a) personal thought and opinion

The distribution of these subskills over the four years provides the following specification:

SKILL	YEAR			
	1	2	3	4
Reading Skill 1:	a b c d e f g i	a b c d e f g h i	a b d e f g h i	a b d e f g h i
Reading Skill 2:	a b c d	c d	c d	c d
Reading Skill 3:	a b	c d	c d	c d
Reading Skill 4:			a b c	a b c
Composition Skill 1:	a b c d e	b e	e a b c	e a b c
Composition Skill 2:		a b c		
Composition Skill 3:	a	a	a b c a	b c
Composition Skill 4:			a	a
Composition Skill 5:				

It is not enough, however, for a syllabus simply to specify content: it is also necessary to make recommendations about textbooks, other materials and teaching methodology and techniques.

Regarding books, the general constraints in the situation have already been described. When in this context we look for books suitable for years three and four, we find very few which are both suitable and available: this is mainly because few books as yet take a skills approach to reading and writing. Of those that do, a number are unacceptable on the ground of either difficulty of content (many are ESP-oriented) or cultural background (many are designed for the foreign student in the first language context, generally the USA). In our case, the most suitable choices were both American texts, and were expensive by local standards. Both, however, contained enough material for more than one local academic year, and it was felt that the heavy initial outlay in the third year would be offset by not having to buy other materials and by not having to buy books at the beginning of the fourth year.

Allied to the textbook is methodology. Most coursebooks contain an introduction with suggestions for use. The locally produced first and second year materials contained particularly detailed guidelines and instructions, both for reading and for composition. In a context where few teachers have a background or training in EFL, such guidance is essential. Ideally, the introduction of a new syllabus is prepared for by seminars and workshops; but since many teachers feel that they do not need or cannot afford such preparation, written introductions serve to inform the user as well as remind those who have undergone orientation.

Finally, alongside the proposed textbooks the syllabus document itself has a major role to play. In addition to the specification, the syllabus will contain a detailed rationale for the proposed change and the means by which the proposed syllabus will meet this need. When reasons for change are clear, the changes themselves are more readily accepted. All too often changes are made which are understood at the level of the syllabus designer but which mystify the classroom teacher. The syllabus document should also contain details of methodology and techniques. One form of such a statement might be a fairly prescriptive set of statements on how the materials are to be used. A second is a detailed discussion of course methodology. A third, the one adopted in the present case, is a brief discussion of key points of methodology supplemented by full reference to works where such matters are covered in greater detail. Such an approach gives teachers the essential information without injuring their professional pride, and opens up possibilities for them to follow up their own needs and interests and those of their students. Finally, guidance is needed on appropriate forms of assessment of what is taught; but testing and assessment are specialized topics best dealt with separately.

4 Implementation of syllabus innovation

The specification above of reasons for change (notably the 'nature of the subject'), of constraints and of desired syllabus offer a number of choices for implementation. One may make one's own materials based on the specification; or select suitable materials which match it; or adapt existing materials in order to match it. The curriculum development project for first and second year courses had chosen the first option, materials production ('A University Course in English for Egypt', see the first paper in this volume for details). For the third and fourth years, given the constraints and circumstances, the second option of materials selection was agreed upon. However, as the effects of the proposed changes influence more Faculties of Education throughout Egypt, and with increased inputs of expertise, the first option could in due course be turned to, with the above syllabus specification as a basis for design.

It is vitally important that the written word of the syllabus and chosen texts should be brought to life. It is easier to watch, initiate and practise than it is to read and do. Syllabus innovation therefore needs to be initiated and supported through seminars and workshops. Such training for change has always played an important part in in-service training within the school system (see Cross and Doff, this volume), but unfortunately such training is much less common within university teaching.

However, implementation of the first and second year language syllabus had led not only to seminars and workshops at CDELT itself but to an extensive programme of visits to other faculties. This was

formalized during 1982–84 in an Outreach Project whereby provincial universities were able, on a shared-time basis, to avail themselves of CDELT personnel to organize on-site in-service training for junior staff based on the introduction of the new materials. Syllabus and materials innovation is a powerful means to staff development.

Syllabus innovation also has important consequences for pre-service training. The way one is taught is, as has been said, a powerful model for one's own teaching. Constant exposure to a given teaching style and specific techniques over a course of three or four years' language study is far more likely to determine a new teacher's approach to teaching in the language classroom than a limited course in methodology and all too brief teaching practice. By incorporating desired techniques into the undergraduate programme and CDELT's own postgraduate courses, CDELT was able to influence the practice not only of existing university staff but of the teachers of the future both in the schools and in the universities.

Conclusion

Research, course design and the implementation of innovations are of course only the beginning of the process of syllabus and curriculum renewal. Proposed changes have to be piloted, monitored and continually assessed and refined before a final overall evaluation can take place. Nor should things end there. Hopefully syllabus development will be a permanent component of any teaching programme. It is outside the scope of this paper to go into these aspects of course development, the CDELT experience of which is documented elsewhere (Hudson and Melia, 1980; Bowers, 1983).

Course development is only one part of the process of developing teacher education, but careful research and planned course development have important implications both immediately for teaching within training institutions and in the longer term throughout the education system. While such a single-pronged approach can and does produce results, they are often perceived as drops in the ocean. However, by integrating developmental activities at all levels in a many-pronged approach, and by taking account as this paper suggests of all the factors which control and stimulate innovation, real progress can be made and be seen to be effective. This is the CDELT experience.

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IV. In-service

Training Materials as an Instrument of Methodological Change

Adrian Doff

Introduction

Innovations in ELT generally originate either in Britain or in the USA and are developed with European or Western teaching contexts in mind — typically, native-speaking or near-native-speaking teachers working in relatively privileged conditions with adult learners. This is reflected in the assumptions made in many teacher training materials: assumptions about the teachers, their degree of control over what and how they teach, the time and resources available to them, the size and flexibility of the class. A further assumption is that there is common conceptual ground between the training and the teachers, that there is consensus about what constitutes good teaching.

As soon as we move away from European teaching contexts, differences appear, and these assumptions (even supposing they were valid for such contexts) can no longer be made. It therefore becomes necessary to re-assess the content of teaching materials, the methods used in training, and the wider role of training programmes in teacher education. This paper examines some of these differences and their implications for teacher education, with reference to the In-Service Training Programme developed by CDELT Ain Shams for the basic in-service training of teachers of English in Egyptian preparatory schools (see Cross, this volume, for further discussion and a sample of materials).

Teacher training for difficult circumstances

English teaching in Egyptian schools, at least at the more basic levels where teacher training is most needed, has all the characteristics normally associated with teaching in difficult circumstances: large and overcrowded classes, lack of equipment and resources, lack of preparation time a rigid syllabus and dated textbooks, etc.

These factors affect the design of a training programme in two quite different ways. On the one hand, they act as constraints, limiting the range of methodological options which can be presented to teachers (as Pett, this volume, has demonstrated for the tertiary sector). Thus, many teaching ideas and techniques which would normally appear in

training courses, such as groupwork, free interactional activities, adaptation of texts and dialogues, and authentic listening tasks, must be either severely modified or excluded altogether. On the other hand, the same factors indicate directions in which a positive 'large class' methodology can be developed. Such a methodology may include, for example, techniques for marking and correcting, uses of pairwork, and questioning techniques, all of which can be specifically designed for use in large classes with minimal resources and are quite different from equivalent 'small class' methodologies.

The teachers' own level of competence in English is a particularly important factor in the design of appropriate training material. A teacher whose own level of English barely exceeds that of the lesson he or she is teaching (a fairly common situation in Egyptian schools for reasons which need not be elaborated here) will have difficulty with even apparently straightforward teaching procedure such as asking questions on a text, giving examples to show the meaning of a word, or writing a structure on the blackboard. To remedy this, the training material must include a strong language improvement component, closely integrated with the methodology and focused on the content language of the textbook.

Views of language learning

The factors outlined above are important, but they only affect the internal design of the training programmes, particularly the content of the course. A far more significant factor affecting teacher training in the context we have described is the attitude of teachers towards teaching and learning, since this will influence not only the content and design of the training material but also the overall effectiveness of the training programme.

In Egypt, there is a considerable discrepancy between the received views of language and language learning held by the teachers and those presented in the training materials to be described. These sets of views can be seen as two contrasting models of language learning, each embodying of distinct set of beliefs about language, about the nature of learning, about the teacher's role, and about the function of the textbooks:

Traditional Model

- 1 Language as a finite body of knowledge.
- 2 Language as primarily a system of forms.
- 3 Learning as rote-learning of set items.

New Model

- 1 Language as infinite and creative.
- 2 Language as a way of expressing meaning through form.
- 3 Learning as development of skills.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 4 The teacher as imparter of knowledge, model of correct forms, controller of class. | 4 The teacher as instigator of language activity, informant, and motivator. |
| 5 The textbook as containing a set lesson to be learnt. | 5 The textbook as a framework for the teacher's own lesson. |

The 'new' model is not of course new in any strict sense; rather it reflects common ground established by developments in ELT over the last twenty years. The 'traditional' model is an extreme position not necessarily shared by all teachers, but it seems to be reflected in many of the standard procedures to be observed in Egyptian school classrooms.

The existence of such a conceptual gap has far-reaching implications. It means that even at the most basic level we should be concerned with teacher education, not merely teacher training; it means that teacher education may be a more subversive activity than it might appear, since it is likely to challenge deeply held cultural attitudes; and it means that, if it is successful, teacher education in English could profoundly influence school education as a whole by opening the way for new relationships and patterns of interaction which do not exist elsewhere in the school curriculum.

In more immediate practical terms, the two models suggested above help to account for some of the difficulties experienced in introducing new methodology. Given such a difference in basic attitudes, it is predictable that a wide range of teaching ideas and techniques would be relatively inaccessible to teachers. This would include even apparently standard classroom procedures such as the use of real questions, eliciting language from the pupils, prompting pupils to ask questions, and using visual cues for oral practice: each of these would challenge at least one of the beliefs set out in our left-hand column.

For the new methodology to be accepted, then, requires more careful structuring of the material than would be necessary in more receptive training contexts. Specifically, it should incorporate the following design features:

- the starting point for each session should be the teachers' own experience of classroom practice;
- new methodology should be accompanied by a clear rationale, presented in terms that are fully comprehensible to teachers;
- new techniques should be demonstrated, not merely described, and the presentation should lead directly into practical workshop activity;
- teachers should be shown how new techniques fit into the lesson as a whole.

This combination of features is similar to that advocated by O'Brien (1981).

The limitations of direct teacher training

Obviously, appropriate content and design of the training material will increase the chances of teachers adopting a new methodology. But it may be unrealistic to expect even well-designed training material to have an immediate effect on teachers' classroom behaviour. Indeed, it was a common experience during the implementation of the CDELT in-service training programme that new methodology would be accepted and practised with enthusiasm in the training session but this would have no impact at all on subsequent classroom teaching. In view of the factors considered above, this is not at all surprising; for those trained are being asked to adopt methods which may run counter not only to their own view of what teaching is but also to that of their colleagues, their pupils, and possibly their superiors. Moreover, the new methodology will almost certainly make greater linguistic and pedagogic demands than the limited uses of routine techniques previously in use, and so may at first entail more effort with less chance of success. It is difficult to see how this problem can be solved in the short term except by intensive follow-up supervision, which in nation-wide training programmes is unrealistic.

Long-term methodological change

It seems, then, that we need to look beyond a simple, short-term model of teaching training, as shown in Figure 1, and try to see training courses as part of a wider process of teacher education. The question then becomes not how to affect the immediate classroom behaviour of individual teachers but how to use teacher training as one of several ways to affect the whole system of English education so that it becomes more conducive to effective teaching.

If appropriately designed, in-service training materials are very well placed to exert long-term influence on the system, for as well as directly training teachers they can indirectly educate the trainers who use them — trainers who as senior teachers and inspectors carry considerable weight within the system. In this way, new ideas can be disseminated through an ever-increasing number of informed users of the material. Exactly how this might happen is shown in Figure 2, and can be illustrated with a hypothetical example.

Let us imagine a training session which introduces role-play techniques suitable for a large class. We can assume that the teachers are completely unfamiliar with role-play, and that the trainer is familiar with the idea of role-play but is vague about how to implement it in class. The trainer's task is to introduce the concept of role-play, demonstrate it, discuss its value, and organize workshop sessions in which teachers prepare and organize role-play themselves. The training material consists of detailed notes for the trainer, showing exactly what to do at each stage, so that confidence is built up to deal with areas of uncertainty.

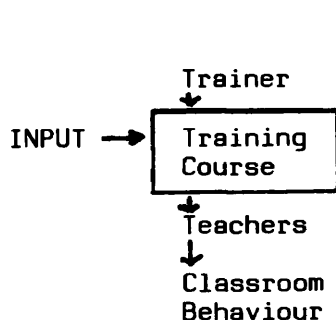


Figure 1

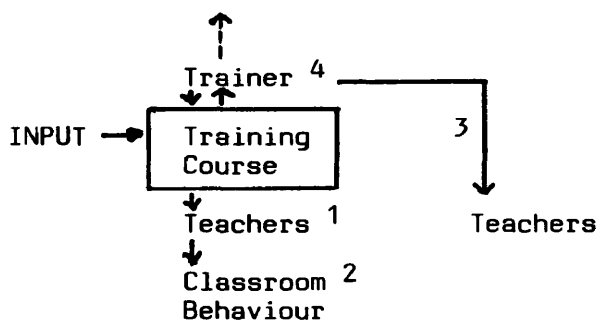


Figure 2

Assuming the session is successful, we can imagine a number of ways in which it will affect the teachers and, more significantly, the trainer:

1. Teachers will now be familiar with the idea of role-play, and will therefore be receptive to later training or to teaching materials involving role-play techniques.
2. Teachers may try out role-play in their own classes, and perhaps adopt it as part of their teaching repertoire (although this should not necessarily be expected).
3. Role-play will now have become a part of the trainer's own repertoire (both as teacher and as trainer). The trainer knows not only about role-play but also how to use it and to show others how to use it. So ideas from the session are likely to be repeated on subsequent occasions, perhaps on other training courses or in informal contacts with teachers.
4. As the trainer rises in the educational hierarchy, he or she will increasingly be in a position to influence methodological thinking. So ideas that have now been internalized personally may later become commonly accepted methodology.

From this example we can see that side by side with the overt short-term process of teacher training there is a subtler long-term process of teacher education. What begins as low-level input from outside the system becomes absorbed into the system itself and may emerge as an indigenized product, with greatly enhanced influence on educational attitudes and behaviour.

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Producing an Insett Syllabus

David Cross

Introduction

This paper describes the process of developing a series of training materials for use with Egyptian teachers of English (also discussed by Doff, this volume). It summarises some of the thinking regarding the design of these materials, in particular their modular structure. A syllabus is presented. An appendix provides two examples of modules from the series.

Rationale

The CDELT In-Service Training project, initiated in 1982 and carried out over three years, involved the production of fifty-two training packages for use by Ministry of Education specialist inspectors in training non-specialist teachers of English in the preparatory schools (11-to 14-year-old pupils). Because English is a compulsory subject at this level, there are insufficient specialist, i.e. English language graduate, staff to teach it (indeed, there is a shortage even in the secondary sector). As a result, any holder of a humanities degree may be deemed a teacher of English and find himself in the language classroom without prior training. Classroom conditions, as have been noted elsewhere in this volume, are not *prima facie* conducive to good teaching: classes of over sixty pupils are commonplace, there are few teaching aids and the prescribed textbook has been in use for over twenty years. Salaries are such that teachers frequently hold down a second job to ensure an adequate income. This is the context within which CDELT was invited to undertake a project to introduce new materials and methods into the country-wide training programme conducted by the Ministry of Education.

Procedures and principles

Adrian Doff and I began with a period of observation and data collection, during which time an approach was agreed. It is this approach, rather than the final syllabus, which will perhaps be of interest in other contexts. These are the decisions we made which we observed in production of the final curriculum and development of the training materials.

1. We decided that the content would have to be acceptable to and feasible within the local context: there could be no innovation for the sake of innovation. The syllabus would be the result of observed needs and the perceived needs of trainers and teachers, rather than an abstract syllabus based upon an ideal teacher profile. In this way the materials would have pedagogical fit and be seen to be relevant to the society and the expectations of educators.
2. We felt that methods of training should themselves exemplify good teaching not only for direct effectiveness but also to make the most of the modelling effect. However, the status of the trainer could not in any way be threatened. Traditionally, most teacher training consisted of a lecture in English to a large and mixed group of trainees. It became our task to turn this lecture component into a discussion-elicitation session which would clarify topics and immediately precede a more important practical workshop session.
3. It was agreed that the training packages should fit the time available and each be completable in a single day's training schedule. In the event the general pattern proved to be two sessions, each of two hours: this is the shape which we therefore adopted. Each self-contained package carries a declaration of aims, thus offering an immediate surrender value and providing the possibility of a unit-credit system (Trim 1977). Participation in any given day's training is not, in general, dependent upon participation in an earlier unit: this helps trainers to cope with the often irregular patterns of teacher release for attendance at training courses.
4. We recognized the danger that a series of wholly independent packages would be too piece-meal to be coherently educative. We resolved therefore to give extensive cross-referencing in the trainer information pages of each package. In this way the packages became modular in use (see Buckby 1977), with both trainers and trainees aware of the relationship between this day's training and past or future training. The adoption of the name 'modules' rather than 'packages' (the original term used by the Ministry) underlines the inter-linking nature of the materials and the flexible structuring of the final syllabus.
5. We decided to designate as few as possible of the modules as compulsory, i.e. to be offered at every training centre. Those which were compulsory would cover only the most essential and basic skills, providing a common core to allow the establishment of a minimum national standard of teacher competence. Because the majority of the modules remain optional, trainers are able to construct courses which meet their own local needs and which fit the current course time available for training.

The optional modules also allowed the writers to introduce a degree of possible and desirable innovation, on the assumption that those trainers already oriented towards such approaches might use the materials, more conservative colleagues were under no compulsion to do so.

6. We resolved, in view of the limited time available but the need to go some way to satisfying the enormous demand for oral fluency, that modules dealing with language improvement should receive a secondary emphasis. In order to do this, all language improvement modules were given a major pedagogic emphasis and were grouped separately from the common-core modules which had to be given priority. Had this order of emphasis not been established, there might in use of the materials have been almost total neglect of the pedagogic modules since a poor command of English has traditionally been viewed as the reason for bad teaching to the exclusion of other reasons. With a total of some two hundred hours available for training (52×4 hours), it was thought feasible to give teachers a sound pedagogical basis; true language improvement could not be effected so economically.
7. It was decided to break the syllabus into a series of four 'way-stages' (Alexander 1977). In this way teachers would be offered a series of attainable aims and be tempted along the pathway of professional improvement through consecutive 'graded objectives' on the analogy of the GOML — graded objectives in modern languages — movement in Britain (Harding and Page 1974). This structuring solves the problem of tightly sequencing the modules and permits the trainer to use them, within any one level, in almost any order. The four levels opted for also facilitate teacher profiling: increasingly the inspector-trainers are able to base their observation and counselling on the teacher's level of training and his record of training. In so doing, inspectors are becoming advisers attuned to the individual competences and needs of the teacher.
8. We agreed finally that ongoing teacher education would have to be assured, that to have participated in most or all of the modules was not an assurance that no further training and personal development was needed. But how could this be provided? We toyed with ideas of distance learning but decided that this went beyond the scope of the three year project. Guided private study in libraries — there is one good teaching library in each of the six administrative regions — seemed to provide an acceptable alternative and so we produced a set of modules which could be used in self-access mode. These four level four self-access modules are designed to be carried out last of all and to ensure ongoing teacher and trainer education. For each of these modules the trainer distributes worksheets with study questions. To answer the questions students use books available (donated by the British Council) in the Regional

Centre libraries. In all, sixty books have been researched to form the basis for the questions, so many hundred hours of private study are put on offer to the teacher. The trainer copy of each module has extensive notes which allow them to conduct follow-up sessions without actually having read the books themselves, although it is hoped, of course, that they will have done so. It is assumed that the teacher or trainer who has worked through these modules will be prepared for continuing self-improvement through library study.

Design of the materials

Package shape:

SESSION ONE	Part One	Lecture	20–60 minutes
		Discussion	
		Demonstrations	
	Part Two	Workshop	60–100 minutes
		BREAK	
SESSION TWO	Part One	Lecture	20–60 minutes
		Discussion	
		Demonstrations	
	Part Two	Workshop	60–100 minutes

Package contents:

GENERAL NOTES for the trainer

DETAILED GUIDANCE NOTES for lecture-discussion-demonstrations

MASTER COPIES of

- worksheets for practical activities
- OHP transparencies and other visuals (can be used as handout if equipment is not available)
- cassette tapes (for pronunciation, readings, dialogues)
- summary handout for trainees to go away with.

Structure of the syllabus:

	NUMBER OF MODULES		
	Common Core	Optional	
		Pedagogic	Language
Level One	8	—	4
Level Two	4	6	4
Level Three	4	6	4
Level Four	4	4	—

Content of the syllabus:

LEVEL ONE

Common Core:

- 1 Presenting vocabulary
- 2 Repetition drills
- 3 Using the blackboard
- 4 Asking questions
- 5 Presenting structures
- 6 Using dialogues
- 7 Practising structures
- 8 Planning a lesson

Optional Language:

- 9 Planning a lesson
- 10 The present tenses
- 11 Sounds and spellings
- 12 People, places and things

LEVEL TWO

Common Core:

- 13 Exploiting a text: listening
- 14 Meaningful practice
- 15 Making and using visual aids
- 16 Exploiting a text: reading

Optional language:

- 17 The past tenses
- 18 Pronunciation: consonants
- 19 Pronunciation: vowels
- 20 Pronunciation: diphthongs

Optional pedagogic:

- 21 Homework
- 22 Classroom
- 23 Teaching handwriting
- 24 Introducing reading
- 25 Using English in class
- 26 Reviewing techniques

LEVEL THREE

Common Core:

- 27 Eliciting
- 28 Pairwork
- 28 Teaching grammar
- 29 Teaching grammar
- 30 Correcting errors

Optional language:

- 31 Modal verbs
- 32 The present perfect tenses
- 33 Stress, rhythm and intonation
- 34 The conditionals

Optional pedagogic:

- 35 Songs and rhymes
- 36 Listening activities
- 37 Writing activities
- 38 Communicative activities
- 38 Communicative activities
- 39 Classroom displays

LEVEL FOUR**Common Core:**

- 41 Involving the whole class
- 42 Self-evaluation
- 43 Planning a week's teaching
- 44 Study skills

Optional pedagogic:

- 45 Role play
- 46 Making and using workcards
- 47 Functions of language
- 48 Classroom testing

SELF-ACCESS**All optional:**

- 49 Listening and speaking
- 50 Written English
- 51 Classroom practices
- 52 Principles and practices

Summary

We would like to suggest that the main strength of the syllabus is its flexibility. Trainers can add their own modules to the optional sets if they wish. The structure offers a carefully planned extension of teacher competence over a training period which is not fixed. Some trainers may decide to equate one level with one year of training (which varies in real terms between eight and fifteen days), to teach the common core modules at each level and fill the remaining time each year by selecting from the optional sets. Other trainers may decide to work from one to fifty-two in sequence. The syllabus can even be used 'sideways', a trainer working through all the compulsory modules regardless of level: twenty days of training would do it, and could form a useful compulsory basic training programme. Or the trainer can pick his way through the language and pedagogic options in virtually any order, using them singly or in groups to meet observed weaknesses in the classrooms which he visits — for observed weaknesses were the original basis for the syllabus.

Thus the modules offer a flexible curriculum for teacher training and education. Trainees are offered a series of short-term goals through a combination of Unit-Credit and Graded Objectives

approaches. Essential pedagogic skills form an agreed common-core syllabus. Language improvement modules have a 'how to teach it' bias and are optional. Less essential teaching skills (see Thomas, this volume, for a grading system) are developed in a separate category of optional modules. Ongoing teacher education is provided for through self-access modules. The emphasis of all modules is practical; micro-group activities, peer-group teaching and workshop sessions take up most of the time available. Finally, individual teacher counselling and INSETT programme evaluation are facilitated by the teachers' record of training.

Two modules, different in type and level, are presented as an Appendix to this paper to demonstrate the materials which realize this approach to INSETT syllabus design.

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LEARNING TO TEACH

A SERIES OF TRAINING MODULES
FOR THE EGYPTIAN TEACHER OF ENGLISH

MODULE NO. 42.

LEVEL FOUR

SELF-EVALUATION

**CENTRE FOR
DEVELOPING ENGLISH
LANGUAGE TEACHING**


Ain Shams University Cairo

in collaboration with
**THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
ARAB REPUBLIC OF EGYPT**

SELF - EVALUATION

SESSION ONE

Part One

 40 minutes

Introduction
Good teaching
Bad teaching

Part Two

  80 minutes

Observation categories
Classroom climate
Preparation for Session Two


SESSION TWO

Part One

 30 minutes

Lesson reflection

Part Two

 90 minutes

Preparation for observation
Observation
Follow-up

CONTENTS

Worksheets

There are three Worksheets. Enough copies should be made to give to every teacher on the course. Worksheets Two and Three should be given to teachers to take away at the end of the training session and keep as Handouts.

There are no other Handouts or OHP Transparencies in this module.

Note: 1. This module must be used over two separate days (Session One on one day, and Session Two on the other), with at least a week's interval between them. This is to give the teachers a chance to prepare the tasks for Session Two.

2. For the model lessons in Session Two the teachers acting as pupils may need copies of Living English.

GENERAL NOTES FOR THE TRAINER

The aims of this module are:

1. *To make teachers more aware of the learning process, and of the learning that takes place in their own classes.*
2. *To make teachers more aware of their own teaching, and to distinguish between good and bad teaching.*
3. *To make teachers familiar with techniques of observation, and so reduce their fear of being observed.*

One of the most important attributes of good teaching is self-awareness - the ability to reflect on one's teaching and so gradually improve and develop one's skill as a teacher. This module is concerned with developing this self-awareness. It encourages teachers to begin thinking critically about their own teaching, and to observe and comment on each other's teaching.

This module is not concerned with any particular teaching technique, but aims to bring together all the ideas and techniques introduced separately in earlier modules.



INTRODUCTION

Write on the board:

Self - Evaluation

Ask teachers to explain (in Arabic if necessary) what they understand by this. Establish from their answers that it means the ability of a teacher to judge his own teaching honestly.

Point out that:

- .1 Self-evaluation is not something that can be taught. It can be gradually developed by the teacher himself as he becomes more aware of his own teaching, and of all the factors that affect learning.
- .2 In order to evaluate themselves, teachers must learn to observe themselves. Add this on the board.

Self - Observation



Self - Evaluation

Obviously, teachers cannot normally observe themselves directly. But they can observe themselves indirectly by:

- Careful planning before the lesson.
- Careful reflection after the lesson on what actually took place.

GOOD TEACHING

1. Point out that, in evaluating themselves, teachers are striving towards better teaching; in order to do this, they must have some idea of what good teaching is.

Ask teachers to turn to the person next to them, and try to agree on what they think are the three most important attributes of good

teaching. Allow a few minutes for them to decide this, but do not enter into general discussion at this point.

When most pairs have agreed on their three attributes, ask them to choose the one they think is the most important, and to write it down.

2. Ask each pair in turn to read out the attribute they have chosen. Write them in a list on the board, but without repeating identical or very similar points; you will probably finish with a list of between five and ten key attributes.

3. Now ask teachers to choose the one most important attribute of all. *You can ask them to 'vote' on this by raising their hands.* Write a number '1' against this attribute. Then ask teachers to choose the second and third most important attributes in the same way. The board will now look something like this (the attributes listed are of course only examples):

	Teacher encourages pupils
2	Teacher involves all pupils
1	Teacher plans lesson carefully
	Teacher develops speaking
	Teacher learns from his mistakes
	Teacher keeps control
3	Teacher makes lesson interesting

Emphasise that there are no 'wrong' answers. All of the attributes suggested should be evident in any well-conducted class. Remind teachers that it is features like these that inspectors look for when they observe a lesson and evaluate a teacher; but teachers can also evaluate themselves and each other, and so improve their teaching.

4. Ask teachers to evaluate themselves right now. Ask them to look at the attributes listed on the board (especially the three chosen as the most important), and consider how far they are true of their own teaching.

If you like, let teachers discuss this in pairs, but do not try to make teachers 'confess' in public.

BAD TEACHING

1. Do the activity again, with teachers working in pairs. This time, ask each pair to choose three attributes of bad teaching, and then to write down the one they think is the most important.
2. Ask each pair in turn to read out the attribute they have chosen and build up a list on the board.
3. Ask teachers to vote for the most harmful attribute of all, then the second and third most harmful. The board will look something like this (again, this is only an example):

3 Teacher never smiles or praises
1 Everything is learnt by heart
Classroom is unattractive
Teacher corrects too much
Teacher is often absent
Teacher doesn't prepare lesson
Teacher neglects some pupils
2 Teacher never checks understanding

4. Point out that these are some of the features which teachers should never observe in their own teaching. Allow a minute or so for teachers to consider whether any of these features apply to themselves. Point out that their answers should not be 'yes' or 'no', but a question of degree. They should ask themselves: 'Do I smile enough?' 'Do I check understanding often enough?' 'Do I allow enough real use of language?' etc.

END OF PART ONE



SESSION ONE PART TWO

80 minutes



ACTIVITY ONE: OBSERVATION CATEGORIES

1. Write this list of headings on the board:

OBSERVATION CATEGORIES

- | | |
|---|-----------------------|
| A | Classroom Procedure |
| B | Teaching Aids |
| C | Pupils' Involvement |
| D | Teacher's Personality |
| E | Command of English |

Explain that one Inspector of English uses these five headings on his own classroom observation sheet. Under each heading he has several specific questions.

Ask teachers to try to guess what some of these questions might be. In other words, what exactly might an observer look for within each of the five categories?

Take each category in turn, and ask teachers to suggest possible questions:

e.g. Category A: Classroom Procedure.

- Are the aims of the lesson clear?
- Are the stages of the lesson clear?
- How does the teacher present new language?
- Does the teacher ask a variety of questions?
- What techniques does he use?

Obviously, there are many possible answers. The aim of this activity is to make teachers aware that observation of a lesson can be systematic, and that what takes place in a lesson can be seen in terms of different categories.

2. Now read out some of the specific questions which the inspector included on his observation sheet. For each one, ask teachers to:

- i) Suggest which of the five categories it fits into.
- ii) How important they think the question is.

Note: The questions are in random order - suggested categories are given in brackets.

1. Is the aim of the lesson clear? (A)
2. Does the teacher write legibly on the board? (B)
3. Do pupils participate actively in the lesson? (C)
4. Does the teacher offer a variety of activities? (A)
5. Are the stages of the lesson clear? (A)
6. Does the teacher ensure that all pupils participate? (A, C)
7. Does the teacher have clear pronunciation? (E)
8. Does the teacher smile often? (D)
9. Does the teacher use any visuals? (B)
10. Does the teacher have a good lesson plan? (A)
11. Does the teacher speak naturally? (E)
12. Does the teacher control the class? (D)
13. Does the teacher give pupils a chance to ask questions? (A, C)
14. Does the teacher encourage real use of language? (A)
15. Does the teacher make grammar mistakes? (E)

ACTIVITY TWO: CLASSROOM CLIMATE

1. First explain what is meant by 'classroom climate': it is the general atmosphere that exists in the class, and the relationship between the teacher and the pupils. Point out that the classroom climate is strongly affected by the teacher's attitude, and also by his behaviour - how he corrects mistakes, how he asks questions, how he maintains discipline, how much he uses English, etc.

2. Divide teachers into pairs or groups of three, and distribute copies of Worksheet One. On the Worksheet, there are a number of statements which describe a teacher's behaviour. The teachers must decide how each one affects the 'classroom climate', and give a 'score' from -2 to +2. The scores should be written on a separate piece of paper, so that the Worksheet can be used again.

Write this scale on the board:

-2	-1	0	+1	+2
----	----	---	----	----

Explain what the scores mean:

- A minus score indicates that the action will have a harmful effect on the atmosphere of the class;
- A zero score indicates that the action will have no effect;
- A plus score indicates that the action will be beneficial - it will help to establish a warm, friendly atmosphere in the class.

3. Let teachers work through the statements in their pairs. Then go through them together; ask teachers what scores they gave and briefly discuss each statement. Encourage the teachers to consider which of the statements apply to their own behaviour in class.

PREPARATION FOR SESSION TWO

1. Give a copy of Worksheet Two ('Lesson Reflection') to every teacher. Go through it carefully, making sure that the teachers understand everything.

Explain that:

- .1 Teachers should use this sheet to evaluate any one lesson they give during the coming week.
- .2 After the lesson they should answer the questions in the form of brief written notes.
- .3 They should bring the sheet, with their answers, to the next training session.

Emphasise that teachers should try to write honest answers to the questions. The purpose of this exercise is not to judge the teachers, but to help them become more aware of their own strengths and weaknesses, so that they can improve their own teaching.

2. Explain that in Session Two, teachers will discuss the results of their own self-observation during the week, and they will also practise observing each other, using an observation sheet.

In preparation for Session Two:

- .1 All teachers must plan a lesson. They can choose a lesson from the textbook that they have not yet taught.
- .2 They should bring their lesson plan with them to the training session. Two or three teachers will be chosen to teach their lesson.

Make sure that teachers understand the importance of this preparation; unless it is done, the observation cannot take place.

Remind teachers to bring copies of Living English to the next session; they will be needed for the teaching practice.

END OF PART ONE

WORKSHEET ONE: CLASSROOM CLIMATE

Session One Part Two

Look at these statements. Each one describes a teacher's behaviour in class. Which of them would have a good effect on the classroom climate? Which would have a bad effect?

1. Teacher corrects every error in the Practice Stage.
2. Teacher corrects every error in the Production Stage.
3. Teacher lets pupils know who is first, second, last, etc. in the class.
4. Teacher praises pupils who answer correctly.
5. Teacher criticises pupils who repeatedly make mistakes.
6. Teacher requires pupils to stand up whenever they speak.
7. Teacher allows pupils to call out answers.
8. Teacher chooses one pupil to answer.
9. Teacher often chooses weaker pupils to answer.
10. Teacher ignores weaker pupils.
11. Teacher always arrives on time.
12. Teacher punishes pupils who behave badly.
13. Teacher uses only English in the lesson.
14. Teacher uses a mixture of English and Arabic.
15. Teacher translates everything into Arabic.
16. Teacher smiles often.

WORKSHEET TWO: LESSON REFLECTION

Write your answers to these questions on a separate sheet of paper.

PREPARATION

1. How useful was your lesson plan? Were you able to follow it or did you have to adapt it during the lesson?
2. What difficulties did you find in planning the lesson?
3. How did you master the language of the lesson well enough to teach it?
4. How did you choose the area for review?
5. Now that you have taught the lesson, what changes in the plan would you make for next year?
6. How good was your follow-up? (lesson notes)

YOUR TEACHING

1. How successful was the lesson?
2. Which part of the lesson was most successful? Why?
3. Which part of the lesson was least successful? Why?
4. How did you ensure that all the pupils understood?
5. How much did you use the blackboard? Was it effective?
6. What other aids did you use? Were they effective?
7. Which of the four skills did you develop most?
8. How varied were the activities?
9. How much Arabic did you use? Should you have used more or less?
10. How was this lesson different from the one you taught before and after it?

THE PUPILS

1. What activities did the pupils enjoy most? Why?
2. What did the pupils find most difficult? Why?
3. If pupils failed to participate, why was this?
4. What discipline problems were there? What caused them? How did you deal with them?
5. What advice might the pupils give you about the lesson?

PROBLEMS

What aspect of the lesson gave you the most difficulties?



SESSION TWO PART ONE

30 minutes

LESSON REFLECTION

Organise a discussion of teachers' own self-observation, based on the 'Lesson Reflection' sheet which you gave out at the end of the last session. If you prefer, the discussion can be conducted in Arabic - this will ensure that all the teachers are involved and may give a chance for more complex ideas to be expressed.

1. Begin by asking teachers these general questions:
 - i) How useful did you find the self-observation?
 - ii) How did it effect your teaching? Did you change your teaching in any way because you were aware that you were observing yourself?
 - iii) How easy or difficult was it to answer the questions on the sheet?
 - iv) Will it help you to improve your teaching in the future?

2. Now go through the items on the sheet one by one, and ask different teachers to tell you the answers they gave. Encourage as much discussion as possible, and get teachers to give each other advice in cases where they experienced difficulties.

Take note of any areas where many teachers seemed to have problems: this should give you useful information for planning future training sessions.

END OF PART ONE



SESSION TWO PART TWO

90 minutes

Note: There is no need to divide teachers into two groups for this part of the session; the observation will be more realistic if done in a large group with one half acting as observers.

ACTIVITY ONE: PREPARATION FOR OBSERVATION

1. Collect the lesson plans which you asked teachers to prepare for their model lesson. Either choose one of these at random, and ask the teacher who wrote it to give the first lesson; or choose a teacher who you know is fairly confident about his/her teaching.

2. Give a copy of Worksheet Three (Observation Sheet) to each teacher. Explain that they will use this sheet to help them observe the model lesson. Emphasise that the purpose of this is not just to judge the teacher, but to help the observer to focus on different teaching skills more clearly.

Give time for teachers to read through it quickly. Then go through it together, explaining anything that is not clear. Point out that, although this observation sheet is specifically designed for this training session, it is similar to observation sheets that would be used by inspectors in real classes.

Point out that:

- .1 In Section A of the observation sheet, observers simply tick 'Yes' or 'No'.
- .2 In Section B, observers must judge the teacher's performance in each skill, using a scale:

-2	=	unsatisfactory
0	=	satisfactory
+2	=	excellent

ACTIVITY TWO: OBSERVATION

1. Divide the teachers into two groups. Group A will act as a class of pupils, while Group B observes and completes the observation sheet. *It is best if Group B sit round the sides and back of the room.* 'Pupils' will need copies of the text books.
2. Ask the teacher you have chosen to teach part of the lesson he has prepared.
3. After the model lesson, go through the observation sheet, getting teachers from Group B to tell you what they wrote. Encourage as much discussion as possible.
4. Repeat the procedure, asking another teacher to teach part of a lesson. This time, ask Group A to observe and complete the observation sheet, and ask Group B to act as pupils.
5. If there is time, repeat the activity choosing other teachers.

ACTIVITY THREE: FOLLOW-UP

Finish the session with a general discussion on observation and its value. Try to bring out these points:

- .1 Inspectors observe lessons not only to check that the teacher is doing his work properly, but also:
 - i) So that they can give the teacher advice and help him to improve;
 - ii) So that they can judge how successful training courses have been, and decide what to do on future training courses.
- .2 Teachers should not rely on inspectors to observe their lessons and give advice. They should also learn to observe themselves by thinking about their lessons and making notes on them. If possible, they should also try to observe each other, and discuss the lesson together afterwards. In this way, they will slowly build up confidence in their teaching, and develop their teaching skills.

END OF MODULE

WORKSHEET THREE: TEACHING OBSERVATION SHEET**A: Pre-Teaching**

1. Does the teacher have a good lesson plan?
2. Is the aim clear?
3. Does the plan show the main stages of the lesson?

Yes	No
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

B: Teaching

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

- Personality, style
- Pronunciation
- Accuracy of English
- Fluency
- Use of Arabic
- Use of blackboard
- Use of other aids
- Presentation of new material
- Practice stage techniques
- Production stage techniques
- Awareness and correction of errors
- Questioning techniques
- Ability to involve the pupils
- Control of the class
- Achievement of aims

Comments:

LEARNING TO TEACH

A SERIES OF TRAINING MODULES
FOR THE EGYPTIAN TEACHER OF ENGLISH

MODULE NO. 1.

LEVEL ONE

PRESENTING VOCABULARY

**CENTRE FOR
DEVELOPING ENGLISH
LANGUAGE TEACHING**

Ain Shams University Cairo

in collaboration with
**THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
ARAB REPUBLIC OF EGYPT**

PRESENTING VOCABULARY

SESSION ONE

Part One

60 minutes

*Introduction**Showing the meaning with visuals**Showing the meaning in context**Using Arabic*Part Two

60 minutes

*Giving clear examples**Teaching practice**Reserve activity: Next week's words*

SESSION TWO

Part One

30 minutes

*A procedure for presenting vocabulary**Asking extension questions*Part Two

90 minutes

*Teaching practice**Reserve activity: Challenge*

CONTENTS

1 Worksheets*There are two Worksheets. Enough copies should be made to give to every teacher on the course.*2 OBF Transparencies*There are two OBF transparencies.*3 Handouts*There is one Handout. A copy should be given to every teacher to take away at the end of the training session.*

GENERAL NOTES FOR THE TRAINER

The aims of this module are :

1. To show the importance of teaching the meaning of new vocabulary as well as the form, and of showing how words are used in their context.
2. To show teachers techniques for showing the meaning of new words.
3. To show teachers how to reinforce new vocabulary by asking questions using the new items.

Many teachers introduce vocabulary as a list of isolated words, and present them out of context by repetition drilling. This module is designed to encourage teachers to pay more attention to the meaning of the new vocabulary they teach, and to help them use English in their presentation.

This module is concerned primarily with presentation techniques rather than ways of practising vocabulary or getting pupils to produce it themselves. It is also limited to the presentation of vocabulary rather than structures or patterns - techniques for presenting structures are dealt with in the module Presenting Structures. The techniques recommended in this module can be used for presenting vocabulary before reading a text or dialogue, or for introducing new words as they arise in the course of a lesson.

The techniques introduced in this module are referred to and practised further in several other modules, especially:

Planning a Lesson

Using Dialogues

Using Visual Aids

Asking Questions



SESSION ONE PART ONE

60 minutes

INTRODUCTION

1. Tell the teachers that in this module they will learn how to teach new items of vocabulary, so that their pupils will understand them and be able to use them.

Point out that teachers often introduce new vocabulary by repetition drilling.

Give an example of this by writing the word 'grumble' on the board. Tell the teachers that you are going to teach them this word. Quickly demonstrate a repetition drill:

T: Grumble. Grumble. Everybody - Grumble
 PP: Grumble
 T: Grumble
 PP: Grumble
 (etc.)

Ask the teachers: Have you learnt this word? What exactly have you learnt? What haven't you learnt?

From their answers, establish that:

- .1 They have learnt the form of the word 'grumble' - that is, they have learnt how it is pronounced and how it is spelt.
- .2 But they have not learnt what the word means or how it is used in a context.

2. Now point out that many teachers use the Vocabulary Lists at the back of the textbook to introduce new vocabulary..

Ask the teachers: Is this a good method? Does it make the meaning of the new words clear?

Establish that:

- .1 Although the pupils can see the Arabic translation, they are still learning the words in a meaningless list - they have no idea at all how the words are used.
- .2 They will get the idea that every English word has an exact equivalent in Arabic; this gives a very false picture of the language. (Give a few examples of simple English words that can have different Arabic equivalents: 'to', 'last', 'so').

Tell teachers that Session One of the module will focus on how to show the meaning of new words.

SHOWING THE MEANING WITH VISUALS

1. Write these words on the board:

watch	window	nose
-------	--------	------

Ask teachers to imagine that they are teaching these words for the first time. Ask them how they can most easily show what they mean.

Answer: By simply pointing at them, and saying: 'Look - this is a watch', etc.

So this is one way of teaching the meaning of new words - by showing a real object.

Quickly demonstrate a presentation of the word 'watch':

T: Look - this is a watch (pointing to his watch).
A watch. A watch. Everybody - a watch.

PP: A watch.

T: (Gestures). What is it?

PP: A watch

T: (indicates Pl)

Pl: A watch
(and so on)

Ask the teachers what kind of words can be presented in this way.

Answer: Anything that is already in the classroom: furniture, items of clothing, parts of the body. Also many objects that can be brought into the classroom: other items of clothing(hats, ties, handkerchiefs); food (oranges, rice); small objects from the home (soap, cups, keys); etc.

2. Write these words on the board:

tree	elephant	ship
------	----------	------

Point out that these objects could not be brought into the classroom. Ask teachers how they could show what they mean.

Answer: By showing a picture. This can be done in two ways:

- 1) by drawing a picture on the board
- ii) by showing a picture which you have prepared before the lesson (a drawing or a photograph)

Ask teachers which of the three words could easily and clearly be drawn on the board. Ask a teacher to come up and show how to draw each object.

Do not go into too much detail about using pictures at this point. It will be dealt with in a separate module: Using Visual Aids.

3. Write these words on the board:

sneeze	knock	dig
--------	-------	-----

Ask teachers what is the easiest way to show their meaning.

Answer: By demonstrating, using actions and facial expressions. Quickly demonstrate a presentation of the word 'sneeze':

T: Look - (mime someone sneezing) Atchoo!
I've just sneezed. This is to 'sneeze', 'sneeze'.
Can you say it? (Gesture)

PP: Sneeze.

T: Again. Atchoo!

PP: Sneeze.

Ask teachers what other words can be taught in this way.

Answer: Most action verbs (sit, stand, open, write); some adjectives (happy, worried, ill).

4. Summarise what you have said so far. Point out that you have discussed three ways of showing the meaning of words with visuals.

Show the first part only of Transparency One:

TEXT OF TRANSPARENCY ONE

TEACHING VOCABULARY

1. SHOW MEANING WITH VISUALS

- i) real objects
- ii) picture (flashcard, blackboard drawing)
- iii) actions, facial expressions.

Make these points:

- .1 For suitable vocabulary, using visuals is very effective: it is direct, it is interesting and it makes an impression on the class.
- .2 Of course, not all words can be presented in this way. You should only use visual to present vocabulary if it can be done quickly, easily and clearly.

SHOWING THE MEANING IN CONTEXT

1. Write these words on the board :

lazy	building
------	----------

Tell the teachers that you will demonstrate another technique for showing the meaning of words.

Give these two demonstrations, speaking slowly and emphasizing the important words:

Demonstration One

Some people work hard. Others don't work hard. They are lazy. For example, I have a brother. He is very lazy. He gets up late, and then he does nothing all day. I say to him, 'Do some work. Don't be so lazy!'

Demonstration Two

Houses are buildings. This school is also a building. Mosques and churches and hotels are all buildings. In Cairo there are many tall buildings.

Ask teachers to tell you how you showed the meaning of the words.
Answer: By using the word in a context, giving an example.

Point out that:

- .1 It is not necessary to give a complicated explanation. The meaning can be shown by simple sentences.
- .2 This can be done by making simple statements using the word (e.g. Houses are buildings. This school is also a building), or by imagining an example (e.g. My brother is lazy. He gets up late and then does nothing all day).
- .3 A good example should clearly show the meaning of the word to someone who doesn't know it already. So it is not enough just to say 'My brother is lazy' - it doesn't show what 'lazy' means. We must add, 'He gets up late, and then does nothing all day'.

2. Now write these words on the board:

toy	look after	crowded
-----	------------	---------

Ask teachers to write down one example for each word (if you like, they can work in pairs). Each example should show the meaning of the word as clearly as possible.

When most teachers have finished, stop the activity and ask them what sentences they thought of. Encourage them to give complete, clear examples which really show the meaning of the word.

3. Summarise what you have said so far. Show the next part of Transparency One:

TEXT OF TRANSPARENCY ONE

2. SHOW MEANING IN CONTEXT

- 1) simple statements
- ii) imagined examples

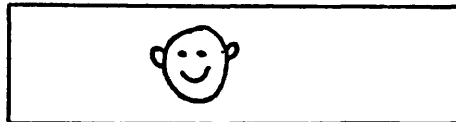
USING ARABIC

1. Discuss with the teachers when they think they should give an Arabic translation of a word. Then make these points yourself:

- .1 It is often useful to give the Arabic equivalent of a word - it may be the clearest and simplest way to show the meaning.
- .2 You should certainly give an Arabic translation if you think the pupils haven't understood.
- .3 You should not rely only on an Arabic translation to show the meaning. Give an example as well so that the pupils can hear the word used in an English sentence.

2. Tell the teachers that often a combination of techniques is the best way to show the meaning of a word.

Demonstrate this by introducing the word 'smile', drawing the picture on the board first.



T: Look - he's smiling. He's smiling. Look at me - I'm smiling. Smiling. (show by facial expression). (Give Arabic translation). Smile. We smile when we are happy. Smile. (Gestures)

PP: Smile

Ask teachers what different techniques you used in your demonstration, and why you used each one.

Answers: i) Picture on board (interesting, pupils remember it)
 ii) Facial expression (gives meaning clearly)
 iii) Arabic translation (to make sure everyone understands).
 iv) Example (shows how 'smile' is used as a verb)

Point out that each technique is very quick (a few seconds), and they all reinforce each other.

END OF PART ONE



SESSION ONE PART TWO

60 minutes

ACTIVITY ONE: GIVING CLEAR EXAMPLES

1. Divide the teachers into groups of four or five. Give every teacher a copy of Worksheet One.

Ask them to look at Activity One. In their groups, they should decide how to make each example clearer, and at least one person in the group should write their examples down.

2. When most groups have finished, discuss the examples together. If you like, ask teachers to come to the front and demonstrate giving their examples.

ACTIVITY TWO: TEACHING PRACTICE

1. Divide the teachers into their groups again. Ask them to look at Activity Two on their worksheets, and give these instructions:

- Decide together in your groups what is the best way to present the meaning of each word. Decide exactly how you would present the words: if you would draw a picture, actually draw one on a piece of paper; if you would give an example, write down what you would say.

Go from group to group, giving help where necessary. Stop the activity after about 10 minutes.

2. Take the first word (Laugh), and ask two or three teachers to come to the front and demonstrate their presentation. Do the same with all the six words.

Points to watch for:

- i) Did the teacher make the meaning of the word completely clear, using a combination of techniques?
- ii) Was the teacher's presentation interesting? Would it involve the pupils?

RESERVE ACTIVITY: NEXT WEEK'S WORDS

1. Choose new vocabulary from lessons which the teachers will have to teach during the next week.
2. Call the words out, and ask for volunteers to come to the front and demonstrate how to show their meaning. If you like, give a few minutes for teachers to prepare their presentations.

END OF SESSION ONE

WORKSHEET ONE

Session One Part Two

Activity One: Giving Clear Examples

1. The examples beside the six words below are not enough to make the meaning of the words clear.

Add one or two sentences to each one, so that the meaning of the word is shown clearly.

- | | |
|-------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. TEMPLES | There are many Temples near Luxor. |
| 2. CLOTHES | In the morning, we put on our clothes |
| 3. NOISY | The pupils were very noisy |
| 4. LOOK FOR | I'm looking for my pen. |
| 5. VISIT | Last weekend I visited my uncle. |
| 6. COTTON | Cotton is grown in Egypt. |

2. What other techniques could you use (pictures, gesture, etc.) to make the meaning of each word clearer?

Activity Two: Teaching Practice

Look at these words. Decide exactly how you would present each one. If possible, think of a variety of techniques.

laugh	cold
absent	apron
cheese	wall



SESSION TWO PART ONE

30 minutes

A PROCEDURE FOR PRESENTING VOCABULARY

1. Tell the teachers that in this session you will show a complete procedure for presenting new vocabulary.

Explain that you will give a demonstration, showing how to present the word 'kitchen'. The teachers should act as pupils, but they should also notice what happens at each stage of the demonstration. Give the demonstration, using this script as a guide:

STAGE 1

T: Listen. In our flat we have a small kitchen. A kitchen is a room. We cook our food in the kitchen, and we wash the dishes. Do you understand what a kitchen is? Who can say it in Arabic? (P1 raises hand). Yes ?

P1: مطبخ

T: Good.

STAGE 2

T: Now, let's say it in English. Kitchen. Ki - tchin. Kitchen..(Gestures).

PP: Kitchen

T: Kitchen

PP: Kitchen

T: Good. This is how we write it. (Writes 'kitchen' on the board).

STAGE 3

T: Do you have a kitchen in your flat? (Indicates P2)

P2: Yes, (we do).

T: Is your kitchen large or small? (P3 raises hand)

P3: Small.

T: Mm. Who works in your kitchen? (Indicates P4)

P4: My mother.

T: And what does she do there? Who can answer? (P5 raises hand).

P5: She (cooks) etc.

T: Yes, good. She (cooks in the kitchen)

End of demonstration

2. After the demonstration, ask teachers to tell you what happened at each stage. From their answers, establish these main points:

Stage 1: Teacher shows the meaning of the word, using the techniques discussed in Session One. He checks that the pupils have understood.

Stage 2: Teacher models the new word: that is, he says the word and the class repeats. He also writes it on the board.

Stage 3: Teacher asks a few 'extension' questions round the class, using the new word.

As you go through the stages, show Transparency Two on the OHP:

TEXT OF TRANSPARENCY TWO

		Time
1. SHOW MEANING	Show what the word means Check that pupils understand	30 secs
2. MODEL	Say the word, class repeats Write the word on the board	30 secs
3. EXTENSION	Ask questions round the class using the new word.	1 minute

Point out that:

- .1 You have shown the procedure in three separate stages to make it clearer. In reality, Stages 1 and 2 are often done together (for example, if a teacher shows a real object, he can show the meaning and model the word at the same time).
- .2 The total time for all three stages should not be more than a couple of minutes.

Now ask the teachers these questions (suggested answers given after each one):

- .1 The teacher was careful to check that the pupils understood the word. How did he do this?

By asking a pupil to say it in Arabic. ('Do you understand what a kitchen is? Who can say it in Arabic?'). This is better than saying it in Arabic himself - it helps to focus the pupils' attention.

- .2 What was the purpose of the extension questions at the end?

Extension questions do three things:

- i) they help the teacher to be sure that pupils really understand the word;
- ii) they give the pupils more examples of how the word is used, in a way that involves them.
- iii) they give a chance to practise other language (big, small, Present Simple, work, cook).

ASKING EXTENSION QUESTIONS

1. Tell the teachers they are going to practise making their own extension questions.

Explain that two kinds of question are suitable:

- i) personal questions (e.g. 'Is your kitchen big or small?'). You can ask this type of question to one two pupils in turn.
- ii) 'general knowledge' questions (e.g. 'What different things can you find in a kitchen?'). You can ask this type of question to the whole class, with one pupil volunteering an answer.

Point out that questions should be simple and require only short answers. If necessary, give a few more examples of your own, using a different word (e.g. 'library').

2. Write these words on the board:

to cook	lion	holiday
---------	------	---------

Ask teachers to imagine that they have already shown the meaning of these words and modelled them - they have reached the end of Stage 2.

Teachers should think of two or three extension questions for each word, and write them down. If you like, they can do this in pairs.

3. After a few minutes, stop the activity. Taking each word in turn, ask teachers to read out their questions.

Distribute the Handout. give time for teachers to read through it, and answer any questions they may have.

Make these final points:

- .1 Of course there is not time to introduce all the words in the lesson with examples and extension questions. Teachers should concentrate on the most important new vocabulary only - the words that pupils will most need to remember and use themselves.
- .2 The more teachers try to give examples and ask extension questions, the more practice their pupils will have in listening to English. So this is not 'wasting' time but making good use of it.

END OF PART ONE



SESSION TWO PART TWO

90 minutes



ACTIVITY ONE: TEACHING PRACTICE

1. Divide the teachers into pairs or groups of three. Give every teacher a copy of Worksheet Two.

Quickly read through the table summarising the stages. Then give each pair or group two words from the list, and read through the instructions.

2. Teachers prepare their demonstration. Go from group to group, giving help where necessary. Groups who finish before the others can try out their demonstration among themselves.

3. Ask one person from each pair or group to demonstrate, the rest of the class acting as pupils. The others should pretend that they do not know the word already. Allow two minutes only for each demonstration.

After each demonstration, ask the other teachers to comment. If necessary, ask for a second demonstration of the same word.

When every pair or group has demonstrated its first word, go round again asking a different person to demonstrate the second word.

Points to watch for:

Stage 1: *Did the teacher use the best way to show the meaning? Did he make the meaning clear? Did he check that the pupils understood?*

Stage 2: *Did he model the word clearly and get the class to repeat 2-3 times? Did he pay attention to pronunciation? Did he write the word clearly on the board?*

Stage 3: *Were the extension questions simple enough? Were they interesting? Did they involve the pupils? Did the teacher form the questions correctly?*

RESERVE ACTIVITY: CHALLENGE

This is a game for developing fluency in presenting vocabulary.

1. Divide the teachers into two 'teams'. In turn, one person from each team thinks of a word which might be difficult to present, and calls it out. A person from the other team must (with no preparation) try to show the meaning of the word. If they can do it, they get one point. If they can't present the word, they can 'challenge' - the person who originally called out the word must try to show its meaning. Continue until most teachers have either called out a word or tried to present one.

2. Play the game again, but this time teachers must try to ask an extension question using the word.

END OF MODULE

WORKSHEET TWO

Session Two Part Two

PRESENTING NEW VOCABULARY

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| 1. SHOW | Show what the word means |
| MEANING | Check that pupils understand |
| 2. MODEL | Say the word, class repeats |
| | Write the word on the board |
| 3. EXTENSION | Ask quick questions round the class, using the new word. |

The trainer will give you two of these words to prepare:

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 1. choose | 11. stay |
| 2. hotel | 12. camel |
| 3. medicine | 13. hungry |
| 4. zoo | 14. yellow |
| 5. on foot | 15. contain |
| 6. early | 16. game |
| 7. newspaper | 17. outside |
| 8. draw | 18. sew |
| 9. windy | 19. guest |
| 10. try on | 20. cultivate |

What to do:

Look at your words. For each one:

1. Decide how to show what the word means.
If you would use a picture, draw one!
If you would give an example, write down what you would say!
2. Decide how to model the word.
3. Think of some simple extension questions to ask, using the word. Write them down!

HANDOUT: PRESENTING VOCABULARY

A. When you present a new word:

1. Show what the word means.
Check that pupils understand.
2. Model the word: Say it, and get the class to repeat. Write it on the blackboard.
3. Extension: Ask a few simple questions, using the new word.

B. Some ways of showing meaning:

1. Use visuals
 - i) real objects
 - ii) pictures (flashcards, blackboard drawings)
 - iii) actions, facial expression.
2. Show the meaning in context
 - i) use the word in a simple statement
 - ii) imagine an example which makes the meaning clear.
3. Use Arabic
 - This may be the easiest way to show the meaning of an abstract word.
 - Don't only use Arabic - give an example in English first.
 - Instead of telling the class the Arabic translation, get the pupils to tell you.

1.1

TEACHING VOCABULARY

1 SHOW MEANING WITH VISUALS

- i) Real Objects
- ii) Pictures : Flashcards, BB Drawings
- iii) Actions, Facial Expressions

2 SHOW MEANING IN CONTEXT

- i) Simple Statements
- ii) Imagined Examples

1.2

- 1 **SHOW MEANING** : Show what the word means. Check that pupils understand.
- 2 **MODEL** : Say the word, class repeats. Write the word on the board.
- 3 **EXTENSION** : Ask questions around the class using the new word.

V. Advanced

Training the Trainers

Brian Bamber

The task of turning teachers into teacher trainers, though somewhat simpler than turning pumpkins into golden coaches, is nevertheless not without its difficulties, and while this at first glance may appear to be a good thing there are attendant problems. Senior teachers will, of course, have classroom experience, an awareness of local constraints, probably a degree of fluency in the target language and perhaps proven pedagogic skill. On the other hand they may also have deeply ingrained habits and assumptions about language and language teaching coupled with a disinclination to accept that other views may be equally worthy of consideration. This is by no means always the case, but it is certainly a possibility. In other words, we cannot assume that a good teacher will automatically be able to impart his abilities and skills to others. Further skills are required before this can take place, and we need to consider not only what those skills are but also how they may be acquired and later transferred to others.

No one is likely to do his job efficiently if he lacks confidence in this ability to do it, and for the teacher trainer confidence must stem from the knowledge that he can do anything he requires the teacher to do. As an experienced teacher, he will already be familiar with a range of approaches, methods and techniques; as a trainer, however, he will also need the linguistic and pedagogic awareness to be able to justify and demonstrate them. He will require what Thomas (this volume) refers to as 'language teacher competence'. But this is by no means all the story. A teacher trainer's work will in all probability include the supervision of less experienced teachers, and for this task he will require the supervisory skills of observation, evaluation and counselling. As the main purpose of this paper is to examine what is involved in the development and application of these skills, the terms trainer, supervisor, counsellor and trainee will be used interchangeably.

Effective observation presupposes familiarity with a range of observational instruments and practice in using them in the classroom. Accurate evaluation springs from an awareness of what constitutes effective teaching and of the factors that may contribute to or militate against it. The most difficult of the three skills — counselling — is based on sympathy, selectivity and sensitivity. It is the most difficult because if just one of these qualities is absent the process is likely to fail.

How then may the necessary teacher trainer skills be taught? The literature on teacher training itself is abundant; that on turning teachers into trainers, however, is sparse. Nevertheless, a good deal of research has been carried out, principally in the United States, on teacher supervision, and though much of it is concerned with areas outside language teaching, or within the ESL rather than the EFL context, a number of insights are to be gained from it. In describing the CDELT experience, therefore, where the aim was to transform senior preparatory and secondary school teachers into trainers of their non-specialist colleagues, I shall try to show how these theories reflect on programme objectives and local constraints and result in a model for trainer training which may be of value elsewhere.

Rationale

The nature of the task:

The problem of the non-specialist teacher of English in Egyptian schools is a serious one, and one that is not going to vanish miraculously in the foreseeable future. In common with other countries of the third world, Egypt faces a shortage of well-trained teachers of English, and preparatory school children are commonly introduced to language learning by teachers with degrees in History or Economics. The objectives of the CDELT postgraduate programme, therefore, were to raise the standards of these teachers by providing a cadre of strategically placed teacher trainers capable of supervising and counselling them as an ongoing process in their own schools or on Ministry of Education in-service training courses (see Doff, Cross, this volume). With an intake from all parts of Egypt, it was reasoned, the 'knock-on' effect would be greater, and the insistence of at least five years' experience of specialist English teaching from candidates for entry to CDELT postgraduate studies was intended to ensure their familiarity with the realities of the situation and thus avoid pie-in-the-sky expectations.

It also seemed necessary to have a clear awareness of the kinds of quality the trainees would need to be equipped with in order to function effectively as counsellors and resource persons once they returned to their schools or departments; there appeared to be at least five of them:

1. A teacher must have language teacher competence.
2. A teacher trainer must have flexibility of approach.
3. A teacher trainer must be sympathetic to the non-specialist's problems.
4. A teacher trainer must establish a relationship of mutual trust *between himself and the non-specialist*.
5. A teacher trainer must be aware of what is feasible. In addition, three guiding principles were to shape our thinking:

6. The ultimate aim is the continual professional growth of the teacher.
7. The most valuable form of evaluation is self-evaluation.
8. There is no substitute for hands-on experience.

A brief justification of each of these statements might be useful here.

'A teacher trainer must have language teacher competence'

It is generally recognized that a language teacher's confidence is likely to be based on an ability to model the language correctly and appropriately. It would seem to follow, therefore, that a teacher trainer needs to have linguistic competence. Yet this is by no means something we can take for granted. A degree in English, a prerequisite for most courses of this kind, is not in itself a guarantee of linguistic or, communicative competence, and this appears to be the case not only in the third world but more widely:

'This consistent failure of our undergraduate programmes to produce students capable of using the language in which they have specialized is well documented and constitutes a notable shortcoming of preservice teacher education.'

(Joiner, 1980:78)

We need to ensure that our trainees are linguistically well-equipped, and if this is not the case at the beginning of the programme some form of remedial work will be necessary.

Linguistic competence is necessary but not in itself sufficient to guarantee effective supervision and counselling; trainers also need to know what to talk about. They must be familiar with a variety of approaches and techniques, alive to their advantages and limitations, and constantly aware of the desirability of matching pedagogy to situation. A methodology component will therefore need to be built into any teacher training programme, although, as Hollerbach (1980:102) cautions, language competence comes first:

Any national document on teacher education should strongly assert the primacy of solid language competency over knowledge of methodology.

'A teacher trainer must have flexibility of approach'

King (1983:325) has this to say about rigidity of approach as an occupational disease of teachers:

Part of the problem of being involved in education is that most of us have a desire to 'educate'; that is, to change or influence other people for what we believe to be the better. It tends to give us 'tunnel vision' and to make us dismissive of people who do not see things in the same way as ourselves. Our normal professional position is that of instructor, imparter of knowledge, priding

ourselves on our ability to 'weld' groups and to control and to direct. Even if, to help us feel more at ease, we use more 'humanistic' terms to describe our activity (e.g. 'the knower', the 'learning facilitator', 'the guide'), we cannot disguise the fact that our work makes us anxious to influence, anxious to provide input.

If this is true of teachers, how much more is it likely to be true of newly-created 'super-teachers' as successful trainees might be tempted regard themselves on their return to school? Moreover, the 'inspector' image dies hard, even though Egyptian school inspectors are now referred to as 'supervisors'. This is not to say, however, that a trainer should actively avoid providing input or should shrink from offering their opinions when requested to do so. It is simply wise to remember that individuals differ enormously in attitudes and expectations and no single approach to supervision and counselling will ever be universally applicable. Sergiovanni (1983:337-8) suggests three possible 'supervisory roles': the supervisor as 'teacher', when he will 'actually plan programmes and activities designed to help teachers learn about new ideas and practices'; the supervisor as 'colleague' who discusses problems, 'with teachers assuming fairly equal responsibility for what is happening'; and the supervisor as 'facilitator to the efforts of teachers', when 'it is the responsibility of teachers to arrange the professional development activities they desire'. Sergiovanni's diagram of 'leadership style and supervisory roles in improving teaching' (1983:338; see Figure 1 below), indicates the relationships between supervisor and teacher roles, with 'clinical supervision' glossed as 'face-to-face contact with teachers with the intent of improving instruction and increasing professional growth?

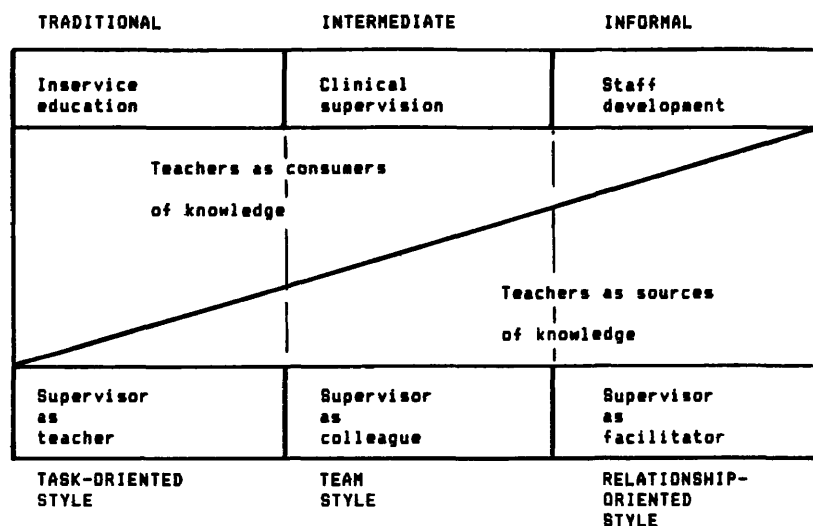


Figure 1: Sergiovanni's "Supervisory Roles"

Glickman also notes three orientations to supervision and cites research (1981:39-40) indicating that each of the three approaches receives approval from student teachers. He suggests that the choice of approach — directive, collaborative or non-directive — may be determined according to two variables: the degree to which the individual teacher is committed to his profession, and the individual teacher's capacity for abstract thinking. This may well be so, but there are likely to be other variables and teacher trainers will be well advised to remain open-minded.

'A teacher trainer must be sympathetic to the non-specialist's problems'
The mere fact that all senior teachers were once beginners themselves does not mean that they will remember their own early frustrations and automatically be sympathetic to those of others. Perhaps our memories are too selective, and we tend to recall our triumphs rather than our disasters. Whatever the case, the teacher trainer will need to possess or develop a sensitivity to the feelings of others, along with the ability to couch his remarks in diplomatic language. As Stenson et al (1983:43) point out:

'... even carefully phrased questions may be interpreted as criticism by over-sensitive teachers. or ... the facilitator may be unaware of the judgemental overtones of some questions. In this regard, it is important for the facilitator to take care to formulate questions in as non-judgemental and openended a way as possible.'

It is often the case that counsellor and teacher will have different views of what the problems are. The face that we present to the world may often be a mask to conceal our fears and anxieties about our teaching, while other aspects of our personality that we are not aware of are all too clear to others. The 'Johari Window and Educational Platform' attributed to Luft & Ingham by Sergiovanni (1983:307; see Figure 2 below) indicates this situation neatly.

	What the supervisor knows about the teacher	What the supervisor does not know about the teacher
What the teacher knows about himself	public or open self 1	hidden or secret self 2
What the teacher does not know about himself	blind self 3	undiscovered or subconscious self 4

Figure 2: The Johari Window (after Sergiovanni)

Opening the window is never an easy task, but a sensitive approach may make the possibility less remote.

'A teacher must establish a relationship of mutual trust between himself and the non-specialist teacher'

This is perhaps a great deal to expect from two adults who, by the very nature of their roles, tend to regard themselves as being on opposite sides of the fence; yet without this relationship of trust and mutual respect there is little hope that anything really constructive will be achieved. Thus Knop (1977:630):

Like the therapist, the supervisor should show the student teacher empathy, congruence, positive regard and unconditional support.'

Similarly, Stenson et al (1983:47-8) stress the need for an effort on the part of the supervisor (facilitator) to gain the confidence of the teacher by exhibiting a willingness to abandon the traditional 'inspector' role in favour of that of colleague:

'We have found that a facilitator who can demonstrate an openness to different points of view and who can take on the role of concerned colleague rather than expert or authority figure is much less threatening and better able to involve the teacher in the process of active self-evaluation.'

At the same time we cannot ignore the fact that barriers do not suddenly dissolve; efforts are needed to break them down, for old traditions lie deep. As Fanselow (1984:2) puts it:

'While supervisors that describe rather than judge may be a refreshing change from supervisors that judge, a supervisor is still a supervisor.'

If this is the feeling in the United States in 1984, how much greater will be the problem in those many contexts where behavioural norms are far more likely to be determined by social and academic status, age, sex and similar considerations. Just how far the problem can be dealt with realistically forms part of our next section.

'A teacher trainer must be aware of what is feasible'

This is an area in which many training programmes fail to be effective. New ideas, tentatively introduced by course tutors for consideration and discussion, are too often swallowed whole by some participants and rejected out of hand by others: neither reaction is particularly productive. For newly appointed teachers/supervisors to insist on an immediate switch to communicative, learner-centred teaching in

schools where pupils are still required to spring to attention to answer the teacher's questions, and pupil-initiated exchanges are unthinkable, is to invite disaster. It is equally tragic when the 'old hands' on a training programme counter every suggestion of innovation with a knowing smile and the familiar shake of the wise old head. Similarly, a young teacher trained from infancy to regard the school inspector as an authoritarian figure to be treated with the utmost deference is likely to be disconcerted at the least if this awesome visitor suddenly resorts to backslapping and feet-on-the-desk bonhomie.

Change of any kind must be gradual, and seen by the young teacher and the school authorities to be both desirable and possible. A training programme must therefore demonstrate to the trainees in the first place what innovations might be possible and, more importantly, how it might be possible to introduce them.

'The ultimate aim of a training programme is the continual professional growth of the teacher'

Is it realistic to expect continual professional growth from teachers or even a desire for it on their part? After all, if we are to believe Fryer (1980:98):

'The rewards for the teacher doing an outstanding job are intrinsic at best and certainly cannot be carried to the grocery store or the bank.'

However, there are incentives other than financial ones urging the continual development of professional skills and awareness. An incompetent teacher is very often an unhappy teacher, well aware of his lack of ability and the frustrations that this can generate both inside and outside the classroom. Improved classroom performance promotes confidence, which in turn leads to a more relaxed and thoughtful approach to the teaching task, and the realization that teaching might even be fun could be a powerful motivator for self-improvement. Opinions vary on how growth is to be achieved. For Sergiovanni (1983:327):

'Teacher growth is less a question of polishing existing teaching skills or of keeping up with the latest teaching developments and more a function of a teacher's changing as a person — of seeing himself or herself, the school, the curriculum and students differently.'

Others may feel that more tangible aspects have a higher priority, such as greater familiarity with the textbook, a wider variety of nomination strategies and questioning techniques, or the overcoming of pro-

nunciation difficulties. The individual counsellor will need to judge for himself and apply his skill where it is likely to have the greatest effect.

'The most valuable form of evaluation is self-evaluation'

For most of our school lives we find ourselves being evaluated by others, in class, in end-of-term reports, in examinations and so on, but unless this evaluation happens to coincide with what we think about ourselves we are apt to reject it, or perhaps to accept only that small part of it that we consider relatively unimportant. We may, of course, be deluding ourselves, but so important to us is our self-esteem that we are inclined to react automatically against any attempts to dent it. We feel that we know ourselves better than anyone else does, and it is because of this that counselling is most effective when it succeeds in stimulating self-evaluation by the teacher. Knop (1977:638) sees this as the ultimate aim of the supervision process:

'One would hope that this is the ultimate outcome of our supervision: that we train student teachers to analyse and evaluate their teaching; that we build their self-confidence in their ability to improve their teaching; and that we instil a commitment to continual self-evaluation, innovation and improvement in their teaching.'

Not an easy task, by any means, but certainly one well worth attempting, and if the relationship of mutual trust mentioned above has been achieved then a frank admission by the counsellor that his own classroom performance still needs constant attention and revision may perhaps provide the teacher with a glimmer of hope. Tuttle (1977:639) certainly feels that this is conceivable:

'Co-operating teachers can and should prepare the student teacher to be on his own. The co-operating teacher can do this by stressing the importance of self-evaluation. As he shares his own self-evaluation with the student teacher, the latter comes to realize that even veteran teachers can and should improve themselves.'

'There is no substitute for hands-on experience'

Just as confidence in using a language can only arise from practice in doing so, whether in real life or in contrived situations in the classroom, so theories of language teaching, supervision and counselling will rarely progress beyond the conceptual stage unless they are tried out in appropriate conditions by the trainees themselves. Thus Moorwood (1976:294):

'While not underrating in any way the value of educational theory or of lectures on various aspects of methodology, I believe that it is unrealistic to expect the majority of student teachers to bridge the gap (between theory and practice) on their own. Indeed, I believe

that the inevitable result for the majority will be to fall back on the methods by which they were taught, while paying lip-service to methods advocated on their course.'

What is true for student teachers is equally valid for future trainers. Practice needs to be regular and frequent enough to permit reappraisal, readjustment and repetition over a substantial period of time. Thus a training programme offering 90% theory and 10% practice is likely to produce knowledgeable theorists rather than adept practitioners, whatever the discipline. Theory, that is to say, is necessary but by no means sufficient, and the practical component of the programme should be a major feature rather than a nominal appendage.

The Programme

The terminal behaviour required of CDELT graduate trainees, in common with many advanced training programmes, includes the ability to supervise, evaluate and counsel inexperienced and/or non-specialist teachers of English. I have suggested that the attainment of these objectives demands linguistic and pedagogic competence, a sound theoretical background, a flexible approach, trust, sensitivity to the young teacher's problems, an awareness of what is feasible and a firm belief in the principles of professional growth and self-evaluation. Almost all of these require training and practice, and a well-designed programme will offer as much 'hands-on' experience as possible.

The CDELT Professional Diploma is by regulation a one-year 750-hour programme designed for preparatory and secondary school teachers from all parts of Egypt, with a minimum of five years' teaching experience, who have the potential to become trainers/counsellors in their own schools or in the in-service training programme conducted by the Ministry of Education. Selection is by examination and interview, looking for a reasonable level of linguistic competence and a high degree of motivation.

Eighteen separate courses are offered, of which eight, required by regulation, consist either of courses in British and American Literature for candidates with an Education degree or of courses in Educational Theory for those with an Arts background. The remaining ten 'core' courses, taken by all, may be grouped into:

Language Training	(70 hours);
Theory in ELT	(100 hours);
Trainer Training	(230 hours);
Practicum	(150 hours);
and Self Access Study	(90 hours).

These ratios, which we would suggest are not the common pattern in such a programme, clearly reflect the desire at CDELT to concentrate

on the supervisory components while not neglecting other essential features. The year's schedule is divided into five blocks of five weeks each (a week is full thirty hours), with the Practicum occupying the central position of Block 3.

Pre-practicum courses

Language Training incorporates where necessary general remedial English across the range of skills, but concentrates on the development of study skills.

Theory comprises three courses. *ELT Theory* and *Linguistics & Phonetics* aim at a general theoretical background. *ELT Methodology* is concerned with trying out in the classroom in group or full-class sessions a variety of teaching techniques for subsequent analysis and discussion. There are two focal questions: (a) Is this a valuable activity for pupils in the type of school I work in? (b) Are teachers in that school capable of employing this technique? Sessions of this kind compel the trainees to try out and understand new activities, and to balance theoretical justifications against known conditions. Pedagogical awareness is sharpened, and confidence grows along with the repertoire. To some extent, the ELT Methodology course feeds directly into the trainer training component.

It is in the *Trainer Training* component that course content and strategy begin to take on a distinctive form. This component comprises two courses, *Observation & Evaluation* and *Training & Supervision*. These are designed specifically to effect the conversion from teacher perceptions and techniques to trainer perceptions and techniques.

In **Observation & Evaluation**, trainees, are introduced to approaches to classroom observation and to a variety of techniques for the analysis and evaluation of classroom processes (see Bowers, this volume). Typical activities in this course might involve demonstration lessons in which half the trainee class are 'pupils' and the other half observers: the observers are required to: (a) report on what they observe; (b) suggest ways in which the lesson might have been more successful; (c) suggest ways in which they might convey the findings of (a) and (b) to a nervous, embarrassed, even truculent teacher. As might be expected, the third requirement creates the greatest difficulty, and it is here that the greatest amount of training is necessary. Micro-teaching followed by role-play feedback sessions are useful here, and video recordings of real classes not known to the trainees have proved to be more valuable in stimulating observations and comparing them honestly than simulated sessions, though these too have their uses.

Trainees are first asked to make completely unstructured observations, with each individual recording his subjective impressions of the lesson in a diary. Subsequent discussion quickly reveals that several versions of the same event may differ wildly, and this has the effect of suggesting to the trainees that a more structured form of observation

will produce a more accurate representation of what actually occurred during the lesson. This is not to deny that unstructured observation has its merits, of course; indeed, the diaries often capture insights into the teaching/learning process that might otherwise be missed. However, as the trainees progress to semi-structured and finally fully-structured observational techniques they find themselves agreeing more and more on what they have seen.

Counselling requires the greatest amount of time and patience of all the trainer skills, but constant micro-lessons followed by micro-counselling practice (see Bowers, this volume, for a counselling paradigm) and simulated case studies of teaching problems for discussion gradually help to establish confidence and patience.

The **Training & Supervision** element of the pre-practicum is to some extent generated by the trainees themselves. As experienced teachers, with their own views of various teaching methods and techniques recently refocused by the forty hours of *ELT Methodology*, they are quick to suggest alternative ways of putting across a particular teaching point and again there is rarely full consensus on the appropriacy of any one procedure. This makes for healthy discussion and a greater familiarity with and understanding of the various approaches. As counsellors they need to consider how they would suggest a given procedure to a young teacher in his own problem situation; as trainers, however, they are concerned with the range of procedures to present, and the greater their repertoire of alternatives the better.

The Practicum

For the whole of Block 3, trainees are assigned in groups of two or three to a local school. Their task is not to teach (they are already experienced in this) but to observe, evaluate and counsel selected non-specialist teachers of English. Observation follows the same progression from unstructured to structured as has been rehearsed in the pre-practicum phase, so that by the end of the five-week period each trainee has assembled a variety of recorded impressions and employed a range of observational instruments. Each trainee keeps a personal diary, noting details of the classes observed and giving an account of counselling sessions and anything else which has been of particular interest. The diaries are photocopied by the tutor and returned to their owners so that the observations made in them may serve as the starting point for weekly feedback sessions. During the course of the Practicum, each trainee is also required to produce a detailed longitudinal profile of one teacher and a child case study detailing their learning behaviour over the period.

The dossier of information built up in this way not only provides material for the feedback sessions during the Practicum but also forms the basis for the work in evaluation, training procedures and materials

production which constitutes the final Post-practicum phase. The whole course is thus firmly rooted in the realities of the local classroom and sensitive to habitual behaviour of the working teacher.

Post-practicum courses

This phase, covering blocks four and five, is arguably the most valuable part of the programme, though it would not be feasible without the previous blocks. In these ten weeks, the trainees have time to re-assess their beliefs and attitudes and to relive their Practicum experiences through the medium of video recordings and by consulting their diaries and observational records. They continue with micro-teaching and micro-counselling sessions, still on an unstructured → structured basis, this time with recent school experience to sustain or restrain them.

During this phase, two more taught courses are introduced.

Training modules is a sixty-hour course of a very practical nature, in which the trainees are first introduced to the theory underlying the development of modular training materials (see Cross and Doff, this volume) and then provided with opportunities to watch and participate in sessions in which the modules are used. Trainees spend the remainder of the course preparing, in groups or individually, modules on aspects of language teaching which they feel will be valuable in the training situations in which they will shortly find themselves. CDELT gains an indirect benefit from the contribution which this work makes to the perceptions and productions of the INSETT project, and a direct benefit in that these CDELT trainees form a ready-made cadre for the introduction of the CDELT INSETT modules into training programmes around the country.

Theory of Teacher Supervision is essentially a reading course based on background articles in the area of teacher supervision and counselling. Increasingly, in line with the principles of teacher growth and self-evaluation which are among the topics now studied, the trainees are made responsible for their own continuing growth. To have presented such materials in the early part of the course would, apart from possibly unreasonable linguistic demands at that stage, have run the risk of taking too directive an approach. The previous stages have now created an experiential base upon which trainees can build, using theoretical studies to assist them in reappraising their own values, skills and procedures.

Indeed, *self-access study* becomes an increasing and in the end dominant part of the schedule, with trainees attending supervised library sessions of guided activity relating to assignments set by the tutorial staff, including training modules development. This process is

facilitated by an initial period introducing them to research techniques and to the library resources, parts of which are specially identified for use by this group.

Assessment

According to University regulations, in addition to satisfactory completion of the Practicum trainees are required to take written examinations in the core courses. The regulations have been interpreted so as to allow a 25% mark for the final examination and 75% for general assessment of performance during the year. There is the additional motivation for those performing well that they may gain entry to the CDELT Master's programme, which consists of a further year's study followed by a dissertation which can be completed off campus, i.e. in the workplace.

Problems and Procedures

To imply that there are no problems attending the training of trainers/counsellors would be disingenuous; they are legion and well known. A great many of them are common to both trainer training and teacher training; those listed in Willis (1981a:41-2) are typical examples, and the casual frequency with which they are referred to in CDELT trainees' diaries is ample evidence of how much they are taken for granted: 'She wrote the sentence vertically because of the holes in the blackboard and this made it more difficult to read.' 'In the middle of the lesson an old man came in selling things, which interrupted my tape recording.' and so on. However, I shall assume familiarity with the literature on constraints of this nature and refer only to those issues which directly affect the trainer training process whatever the environment in which it is conducted.

It is customary to classify problems into three types: linguistic, pedagogic and administrative, although there is much overlap. To these three I will add another which I shall venture to call 'socio-pedagogic', by which I mean the attitudinal aspects of the supervisory process, manifested in resentment, embarrassment, obsequiousness, condescension and the like; for it is here, I suggest, that the greatest danger lies and the greatest thrust in urging change is needed.

Linguistic problems

It was pointed out in the previous section that a full intake of fluent trainees is an unlikely occurrence, and that some sort of remedial work will be necessary. As Willis (1981a:45) notes, senior personnel are not going to take kindly to doses of the same old grammar they have themselves been teaching for years, however relevant it might in fact be to their needs. It behoves the teacher-trainer to find more palatable

ways of administering the medicine, not only as a face-saver but also in order to offer a genuinely fresh look at things. The 'Grammar in Use' section of Leech & Svartvik's *A Communicative Grammar of English*, suitably supplemented by problem-solving activities, offers an example of the kind of material which can reprocess existing knowledge and add to it without a sense of *deja vu*.

Trainees are well aware that their less fortunate colleagues, called upon to teach English without themselves being specialists in the language, are at best barely functional in the language, and many regard this as an obstacle that precludes teacher development of any kind. Equipped only to handle the linguistic content of the textbook, it is natural that such teachers should shrink from venturing beyond it, discouraging questions and using the mother tongue for classroom organizational talk and explication. As a result, the pupils receive only a percentage of that percentage of the textbook which is meaningful to the teacher; some of them retain a percentage of that, others don't. This is a bleak picture, but to suggest that it is not a true one is to close one's eyes to a problem which is current in most rapidly expanding educational systems and which grows in extent the more successful the authorities are in expanding educational provision. However, the situation is not irremediable, and future trainers/counsellors should be shown how relatively easy it is to supply teachers with a small but useful repertoire of the almost formulaic language used in the classroom for social and operational purposes. Books such as Willis (1981b) are a rich source of material of this kind, as useful directly to the trainee in simulating teaching exchanges as they are through the trainer-to-be to the teachers with whom he will be working.

Pedagogic problems

A criticism one might wish to level at such training techniques as micro-teaching, micro-counselling, demonstration lessons and the like is not that the techniques themselves lack value but that the material used to effect them is often so familiar to the participants that authenticity of response recedes even farther into the background than usual. It seems both appropriate and effective to have trainees prepare something totally new in content to demonstrate to their peers in such situations. This has the dual effect of ensuring that both presenter and audience have authentic tasks to perform and responses to provide. With new material, the presenter is more convincing and the questions elicited from the listeners are genuine attempts to find something out. (The language improvement element of the course with its ways of presenting old grammatical facts in new forms provides a seam of source material to mine.)

Similarly, although it may well be recognized that certain interaction tasks — the more extreme kinds of humanistic group activity, for example — might be out of the question in real teaching situations, this

is no reason to assume that such activities are not to be practised and discussed by trainers in training. The first effect of a new activity is to establish a new situation, spawning genuine queries and new ideas, while much of the organizational skill in performing such activities will be common to all forms of classroom practice.

Administrative problems

The line between the administratively immutable and the negotiable is often a fine one, as Straker Cook (this volume) has indicated, and the situation is likely to vary from place to place. In Egyptian schools, for example, supervisors are urged to conduct post-observational discussions relating to teaching points in the target language, although other matters may be dealt with in Arabic. One can immediately see what a burden this places on the linguistically weak teacher — the one most in need of assistance — by compelling him to struggle with the medium before he can absorb the message. Perhaps there is a strong case here for blurring the distinction between administrative matters and teaching points so that useful advice can be more effectively put across.

At the same time it is necessary to be aware that certain things are simply not going to turn out as planned. The CDELT trainee who wrote in his first week's Practicum diary, 'Flying on the wall is very difficult for me.' was not complaining that the experience had driven him to the brink of lunacy but simply indicating that it was difficult for him to adopt the unobtrusive 'fly-on-the-wall' approach to classroom observation when pupils were squeezed three to a desk and the teacher confined to a narrow pen between front row and blackboard. In this instance there was simply no alternative to the observer's accepting graciously the teacher's attempt to make the visitor comfortable and hence remaining hideously visible. Nevertheless he was still able to lessen the effect of his presence by following recommended practice and keeping his head down over his notes, avoiding eye contact and trying to look as much like a wallchart as possible. Other situations are not so easily anticipated. Observers are advised, for example, to be in the classroom before the lesson begins, in order not to cause any disruption on entry and also to be able to record how effectively the teacher greets the pupils, reviews the previous lesson, focuses on new material and so on. It was thus somewhat disconcerting to be introduced to the 'five-minute rule', which states that the first five minutes of any class are inviolable; tradition, it appears, demands that the teacher be allowed this short period in order to 'get things organized', a phrase which no doubt means different things to different people. It was even more disturbing to discover that the trainees at CDELT agreed with this principle to a man/woman, considering it somehow not fair to interfere with the teacher's lesson before they had had time to prepare both self and class for the assumed onslaught. Even so, there must be room for manoeuvre here if the relationship of mutual trust advocated in

section one develops satisfactorily, and if the counselling role is separated from that of evaluating the individual; that is, if the top right-hand pane of the Johari window has been opened just a fraction, then perhaps the classroom door may be unbolted a little earlier.

A further administrative problem is the relative shortness of the Practicum period (though we know of no programme of *training* practice which is of longer duration). Five weeks is not really enough for trainees to develop the desired relationship or to do much to improve the quality of the teaching — and both are crucial not only to trainer development but to retaining the good offices of the schools which lend their facilities and their teachers. It must be borne in mind, however, that this is a period of introduction to the features of counselling; it is not the real thing. Moreover, our perception has been that the ten weeks after the Practicum, tied to that experience by the evidence carried forward, do much to make up for the briefness of the Practicum itself, with a noticeable development in the maturity and general reflectiveness of the trainees.

Socio-pedagogic problems

How do young teachers react to an invasion of their classrooms by older and 'wiser' experts, with their briefcases and heads stuffed with observational instruments and recondite notions? Predictably, any visit is regarded as an intrusion, and so, in a very real sense, it is. Despite endless protestations that the trainees are only observers studying what goes on in the classroom, the teachers are in no doubt at all that their performance is being monitored; more to the point, the children are also aware that in some way or other their teacher is being judged. The teachers' reaction is a very natural one. Very few people in the profession appear to suffer from monophobia and the vast majority of us are never happier than when our classroom door is firmly closed and we can get on with things in our own way. In a foreign language teaching situation, in countries where the level of teacher competence is generally low, this is particularly evident. CDELT diaries reveal that six out of fifteen non-specialist teachers chosen for observation were absent from school at least once during the first week of the Practicum. Grandmothers died, children were sick, cousins had birthdays with astonishing frequency. What chance then of mutually beneficial interaction between teacher and trainee? Not only this, but the very structure of the observation process is likely to be threatened. Trainees are recommended to adopt a four stage observational sequence, with a pre-observation discussion about the proposed lesson, a period of analysis after the class and then a post-observational conference. With a system whereby teachers rely on private lessons for the bulk of their income, time is at a premium; add to this the apprehension noted above and it will be seen that circumstances are far from ideal.

Again, a possible solution lies in the approach adopted by the trainee. The teacher will only respond over and above the call of duty if he really

feels that he will clearly benefit from the experience. One line of attack is therefore to convince the teacher that life can be made easier for him: what Straker Cook, perhaps unkindly, calls the 'inertia' strategy. The trainee may offer to team-teach a class the following day, and help the teacher to prepare his own part of the teaching; he may offer to record a dialogue, supply a small tape-recorder, produce visual aids with a little assistance from the teacher, or demonstrate simple techniques which fill in class time usefully while demanding less teacher effort. These are small steps and sometimes it may be necessary to go sideways, but if they manage to secure the teacher's attention, his support may follow, and then and only then can real training be achieved. As one CDELT trainee somewhat poetically put it, 'She thanked me for the drills I had written for her. This gave me the green light to give her the bitter drug, but with a soft and merciful hand.' Whether or not the gentleman in question had succeeded in creating the atmosphere of mutual trust we have spoken of is not clear, but it is fairly obvious that he was aiming for something of the kind.

The attitude of the trainer/supervisor is of paramount importance, for it is he or she who will establish the relationship in the long run. If trainees basically regard themselves as sources of wisdom this will soon become apparent to the teacher. Again CDELT diaries are revealing: 'I just *HAD TO* interrupt her; she was doing it all wrong and the children were suffering.' In her concern for the welfare of the pupils, this trainee must have shattered what little confidence the teacher ever had. As was noted in section one, a trainer training course must constantly be searching for ways of reminding trainees what it is like to be uncertain, to lack confidence in both subject matter and medium of instruction and to be vaguely aware that the pupils realize this. One way of bringing this home to trainees, and incidentally producing an enjoyable class, is to teach the trainees one unit of a foreign language course. Naturally, none of the trainees should be familiar with the language. This is a common enough teacher training strategy. But the point of the exercise in the trainer training context is that, after the unit has been learnt, the trainees are then asked to get together into groups and work out ways in which they would teach what they have been taught. Examples given to them might be: pronunciation; use of pronouns; gender; forms of address etc. Of course none of the participants knows everything about the topic selected, simply the part of it dealt with in the unit. Furthermore, each one is aware that the rest of the group know just as much as themselves about the subject. Individuals are then asked to teach their topic to the rest of the class. All goes well until some wicked 'pupil' asks a question he knows cannot be answered without further knowledge of the language. At this stage the 'teacher' begins to exhibit all the evasive behaviour he has been so critical of during the Practicum. Other 'pupils' strive to get into the act and, as everyone is in the same leaky boat, and realizes it, no serious embarrassment occurs, and the activity is later recalled with amusement. Discussion of the

session beings out the point that non-specialist teachers are in a very similar situation to that in which the trainees have just found themselves; they are on very thin ice once they leave the haven of the textbook.

Perhaps another point should be made about the textbook. It is common in many systems to hear trained teachers bemoaning the fact that the textbook is out of date as if that in itself were sufficient cause for abandoning any attempt to teach imaginatively. The age of the textbook, however, is not our concern here, except that it might be worth noting that thousands of people have learned languages all over the world despite ancient textbooks. After all, the penny-farthing was regarded as a reasonably efficient form of transport in its day. What is important from the socio-pedagogic point of view, however, is the trainer's attitude to the textbook. If it is old he is likely, as an experienced teacher, to be very familiar with it. Familiarity may very well breed contempt, but it also breeds confidence, and the sensible trainer will use his thorough knowledge of the book to devise ways of improving the teacher's use of it; where the *Teacher's Handbook* has been proved to offer good advice he will point this out; where this is not the case he will think of alternative procedures. The teacher's attitude to the textbook may, of course, be one of fright rather than boredom, though both are possible. If it is the former, then the trainer must help with the technicalities — pronunciation problems, questioning strategies and so on. If it is the latter, he needs to demonstrate that even a telephone directory can be made interesting in the right hands.

Conclusions

In the Introduction to this paper, attention was drawn to the variety of names used to refer to those whose task it is to supervise, evaluate and train young teachers. Counsellor, supervisor, facilitator, trainer and trainee have been used fairly indiscriminately throughout the paper, bearing testimony to this specialist's multi-faceted role. In a recent paper Gaies (1984:2) introduces another term — educator — which he uses to point to a crucial distinction between the two principal functions of the supervisor:

‘As trainers, supervisors are concerned with technical improvement; that is, in showing teachers that what they are doing can be done better. As educators, supervisors must be concerned with strategic change: that is, in showing teachers that what is done in the classroom might be done differently and in sensitizing teachers to alternative classroom practices.’

He suggests (1984:7) that ‘supervisors should be trained to provide training, and they should also be sensitized to and educated in alternative approaches to classroom teaching and learning.’

I would like to feel that programmes such as the one described here train trainers, educate educators, but most of all sensitize the trainees to every aspect of the process of teaching and learning. Without sensitivity, I suggest, a teacher trainer might as well stay at home. It is simply not true, as Mark Twain asserts, that:

'Training is everything. The peach was once a bitter almond; cauliflower is nothing but cabbage with a college education.'

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Developing Perceptions of the Classroom: Observation and Evaluation, Training and Counselling

Roger Bowers

Introduction

*This is a midsummer night's dream of a paper, the old within the new. The old — old because it has been used before — is an introduction to techniques of counselling developed and distributed at CDELT for the practicum and post-practicum elements of the Diploma course well described elsewhere (Bamber, this volume). The new surround is a consideration of this approach in terms which may relate to other papers in this collection, bearing particularly on the tension between **system** and **sensitivity** in the pursuit of educational change and innovation.*

The nature of counselling

There is a rich and growing literature on teacher counselling and the clinical supervision of teachers, useful examples of which are cited by Bamber (this volume). I do not propose to offer a general characterization, but in order to set the scene three points need to be made.

First, the role of the counsellor is not that of the inspector, though in many systems the counsellor (adviser) may be the same person. Both functions are necessary. A system needs the means to monitor the performance of its teachers and single out those who merit promotion within the teaching field and eventually into positions of authority within it. At the same time, individual teachers, whatever their professional preparation, benefit from the personal advice of those who can see them in action and recommend paths for development. Inspectors, trainers, headteachers, 'advisers': all have to perform this dual role, and the one objective can militate against the other. In the Egyptian system, as in most, the inspectorial function is better developed than the developmental; and there is a general though not universal assumption by both parties to the process that the primary purpose of watching a junior teacher in action is to assess.

Secondly, counselling and training are worth distinguishing. A programme of training is essentially process-oriented: it is a means of developing in a cohort of teachers, normally within a group context, a set

of desired skills or habits, frequently relating to a given curriculum or set of materials. It is prospective, directed towards prescribed ends. Counselling, by contrast, is person-oriented: it is a means of assisting an individual in the correction or development of his or her teaching skills and habits. It is both prospective, guiding towards future patterns of behaviour, and retrospective, sensitive to existing attributes and concerns. Again, both the training and the counselling function are frequently the responsibility of the same professional expert, and of the two it is the former which is generally the more recognised, the better prepared for and the more consistently performed.

Thirdly, counselling is a function which, in whatever field it is applied, has the important connotation of therapy, of making well or offering mental ease. Like all therapeutic activity, therefore, it involves the notions of diagnosis and remedy; and diagnoses are as safe as the evidence upon which they are based. The term 'clinical supervision' brings out well this notion of systematic observation as a prelude to prescription, and carries with it too the connotation of the personal involvement and responsibility which the supervisor or therapist accepts.

It might be thought that those who have been teachers will be well placed to understand the nature of the counselling role and skilled in taking on such responsibilities, since such a role has formed at least part of their professional responsibility towards their students. And experience suggests that some teachers are indeed, by nature and training, well equipped to make the transition from a classroom to a staffroom role, from teacher to counsellor. But many are not, and find the conversion from a directive to a consultative role a difficult career development. Thus one is faced, as in the CDELT context, with the problem of training a group of experienced teachers by set procedures in a group context and within time constraints into the attitudes and skills which a future counselling role will require of them: the problem, paradoxically, is that of developing and using a system in order to develop a system-free sensitivity.

The paper which follows has been used at CDELT to provide guidance, even in some cases control, as trainees on the Diploma course face their first tasks as counsellors. With the supplementary materials (classroom observation schedules and instructions) which are presented in full in the Appendix, this paper offers a framework within which the trainees establish a professional relationship with junior teachers during the Practicum and subsequently re-appraise their own performance.

HORACE : A GUIDE TO TEACHER COUNSELLING

HEAR and OBSERVE

RECORD and ANALYSE

CONSIDER and only then EVALUATE

**Hear — Observe — Record — Analyse — Consider — Evaluate :
HORACE**

INTRODUCTION

What a fashionable word counselling is. Teachers are encouraged to see themselves as counsellors to their students. Inspectors and advisers are advised in turn to 'counsel' their teachers. But what precisely do we mean by the term? And what, in the latter case, must an adviser actually do in order to turn himself into a counsellor?

In derivation, of course, the terms falls in with such words as 'consultation' and 'consultant', with all their connotations of affable yet professional advice. One comes across dictionary entries such as:

counsel

Consultation; plan of action; advice

counsel

Advise (person to do); give advice to (person) professionally on social problems etc.; recommend (thing, that . .)

counsellor, *-elor

Adviser, esp. of students; senior officer in diplomatic service

Also included, on a cautionary note, is the entry:

counsel of perfection

Advice guiding towards moral perfection, (fig.) advice that is ideal but impracticable.

Among the many implications of these derivations and definitions, I wish to highlight just two (though there are many). First, the 'consultant' is generally called in by the person needing the advice, and his first job is to accept information and terms of reference from the person seeking the assistance. This is true of the medical consultant dealing with the patient in need of diagnosis and reassurance as much as it is of the technical (e.g. engineering) consultant providing a scientific analysis of the client's needs. Secondly, it is apparent that the 'counsel of perfection' is really no counsel at all; we need to know what is **feasible** and not be reminded of what is ideal but unattainable.

These criteria of good advice — that it should be responsive to the recipient's needs and that it should be realistic — underlie the paradigm of counselling which is set out in the rest of this paper.

The need for a paradigm

It may be argued that the very idea of a 'paradigm' — a prescribed path for the counsellor to follow in his interaction with those whom he advises — runs counter to the notion of counselling and imposes a

rigidity on the exchange which defeats its object. I sympathise with this argument, but do not accept it.

It has been shown through discourse analysis studies that similar kinds of interaction do in fact, with performance variations, follow a recognizable structure, or one of a set of optional structures. We may think of the doctor/patient surgery consultation as an example of this, where the doctor's task of fact-finding requires certain discourse strategies, and his need to be firm yet reassuring sets stylistic constraints. The socio-semantic environment does, to a degree, establish a discourse pattern which can be recognized from one such context to another. The same is true of other such confrontations: the therapist and his patient; the teacher and his students in a formal classroom; the lawyer and his client; even (with certain important differences) the policeman and his suspect!

I am not aware of any detailed study of the discourse of teacher counselling in spite of the fact that 'trainer training', of which counsellor training is one part, has received extensive attention over recent years. The newly appointed inspector/adviser/trainer is thus left very much to rely on his own awarenesses and devices, and may not receive training himself in the interactional and linguistic skills which his new role requires. For the non-native speaker who wishes to carry out his professional role in the target language, or who finds it necessary largely to do so because of an unavoidable focus on the teacher's use of the target language in the classroom, entirely new forms of expression may be required; the relationship of counsellor may be one which he is unaccustomed to effecting even in his mother tongue let alone through English.

In at least three ways, therefore, it is of value to establish a loosely prescriptive paradigm. First, it allows for clarity and comparability in the discussion of (good and bad) counselling techniques, including the observation and analysis of actual counselling in progress. Secondly, it allows for the systematic construction of simulations through which the counsellor-to-be can develop his interactional skills. Thirdly, it provides a prop for the new counsellor in the early stages of his new professional responsibility — a general guide to procedures which can keep him on a safe path until his own experience and confidence grows and, with practice, his individual counselling style evolves. In this respect, a paradigm for counselling is no more and no less advisable than, for example, a stereotyped lesson plan for the novice teacher: it is a safety net which the performer can discard once he is confident that he can walk the tightrope without falling.

Finally, it should be pointed out that the paradigm which follows is intuitive rather than empirical. Based on my personal observation of the counselling context, I suggest what should be the case rather than provide a systematic description of the discourse practice of good counsellors. Research may subsequently indicate whether there is in fact a correspondence between the two. In setting out this paradigm, I

have been aware of three criteria, all of them designed to avoid major recurrent pitfalls for the novice counsellor:

- because he is liable to jump too quickly to evaluation of the teacher he is advising, we need the criterion that **observation should precede evaluation**;
- because he is likely to dominate the counselling interaction to the exclusion of his 'client', we need the criterion that **the role of the counsellor should be primarily responsive**;
- because he is in danger of offering 'counsels of perfection', i.e. unrealistic advice, we need the criterion that **the outcome of counselling should be a range of action plans from which the client himself can select what is feasible and desirable**.

In pursuing these objectives, HORACE helps.

H & O : HEAR and OBSERVE

The first step in counselling has to be to hear what the client has to say. It is, after all, his problems and not our own that we are supposed to be solving.

Whatever you see of a teacher's classroom activity can only be indicative: you will never see enough to know with certainty what kind of teacher he or she is, how representative the sample which you have seen may be of their overall competences and preferences. Moreover, even in what you do see, there is much which remains below the surface: you will observe what the teacher does, but not what the teacher perceives as happening (which may be different). You will not know how what you see ties in with other events (before and after) which add up to the full history of the relationship between this teacher and these pupils. You will perhaps make some judgment on the teaching task, its performance and outcomes; but the teacher's own evaluation is also important and may not be made explicit in the course of teaching.

It is important, therefore, that any discussion of a teacher's performance should start with the teacher telling *you* about it. It may be useful for you to suggest that you want the description to cover four traditional curriculum components: aims, content, method, and evaluation of the outcome (easily remembered — ACME). This kind of discussion will in itself tell you a good deal about the teacher's own perception of the task and the priorities within it. In discussing *aims*, does the teacher take a long-term or a short-term view? Is the focus the course or the single lesson? How far are the objectives tied to the particular course-book section or syllabus item? How far are they purely linguistic, or are they more broadly educational? To what extent are the objectives personalized in the sense that particular learning outcomes are envisaged for particular students in the class? In discussing *content* and *method*, to what extent is the teacher bound by

stereotypes? How good a prediction or description does the teacher offer of the actual — rather than the intended — content and method of the lesson? To what extent is the teacher pinpointing his or her own areas of difficulty, which are likely to lie mostly in the area of method? In *evaluating* the teaching/learning event, what factors does the teacher emphasize? How interested is the teacher in the process of the lesson, and how much in the product? How far are learning outcomes individualized, stated for each student rather than for the whole group? To what extent does the teacher make judgments on the learners? How much does the teacher judge himself or herself? And what correspondence does there seem to be between the teacher's perception of what happened and your own?

Discussion of this nature, conducted as close to the observed performance as possible, will establish directly and indirectly a number of points which you can return to in subsequent consultation. The more responsible teachers are for identifying their own problems, the more receptive they will be to solutions when they are suggested.

I have taken for granted the opportunity to observe teaching in progress. Without some direct experience of the teacher's style in the classroom, the counselling process would be highly uninformed and impersonal. We cannot expect, however, that any amount of observation will give us a comprehensive knowledge of any teacher's skills and shortcomings: we can only be given indications. This being so, and pursuing the criterion of responsiveness, it is advisable (if timetables allow) to attend classes when the teacher invites you rather than according to your own schedule. Some teachers may try to ensure that you visit when they are teaching a safe topic to a safe class; others, on the contrary, may ask you to view one of their problem areas — a class where some point of content, or technique, or even the class itself, is presenting some specific difficulty. Either way, the teachers themselves are deciding the level of risk they are prepared to accept in the teacher/counsellor confrontation — as it must be their right to do. The level may change rapidly as relationships develop and confidence grows: in counselling as in teaching, continuity of contact is an important factor.

Procedures for the recording and analysis of teaching are considered below, and I will at this point stress only one procedure of observation, and that concerns the matter of non-involvement. It has been shown that the presence of a stranger in the classroom need not distort the pattern of what normally goes on: generally speaking, both teacher and students become involved in the interaction of the lesson itself, and the intruder is soon forgotten. But such forgetting is much less likely if the observer involves himself in any way with what is going on. By all means greet the class when you enter: but once there, do not take part in any of other exchanges; do not establish eye contact with the students; do not even establish eye contact with the teacher. By far the safest technique is to take up a discreet position at the back or side of the room, and then become inordinately engrossed in your recording

task (poring over your notebook, or concentrating on what is coming through the earphones and into the tape-recorder) so that you artificially cut yourself off from all possible personal contacts. This 'fly on the wall' technique will provide you with authentic data in which your classroom presence will have caused the least interference.

How much you observe depends generally on factors beyond your control. It seems to me that a teacher deserves to have the whole of a planned performance seen wherever possible — either a lesson or a stage of one. But even five minutes can provide plenty of data to discuss provided that your observation is carefully focused and over-general claims are not made on the basis of limited evidence.

We hear, then, what the teacher has to say. Then we observe the teacher in action. How do we collect and shape the data which this makes available?

R & A : RECORD AND ANALYSE

There is substantial evidence to suggest that no one observational technique is in itself adequate: all techniques have their strengths and their weaknesses. Use of a range of techniques can help to cancel out the weaknesses of each while capitalizing on their strengths. In reviewing briefly the range of techniques available, I shall use two organizing criteria. The order of presentation will — as in your Practicum tasks — be from less structured to more structured techniques. The criteria by which each technique is assessed is drawn from the literature on testing (see Carroll, 1980), where it is common to apply four measures:

- **relevance** asks whether (for a given purpose) the right behaviour is being investigated;
- **acceptability** asks if the findings will be found convincing by those for whom they are intended;
- **comparability** asks whether one set of findings correlates reliably with another, and whether one observer's assessments can be reliably compared with those of another;
- **economy** asks whether the measurement is economical in time and procedures of preparation, use and interpretation.

1 Diary Studies

The least structured observation of a classroom requires the observer to enter with a blank sheet, to note down whatever captures his notice, and to end up with a narrative or diary of a lesson or lessons. Research suggests that such unstructured observation and recording can identify surprising factors and display valuable perceptions, simply because it avoids any detailed predictions about what will be observed. Diaries do,

however, reflect the predispositions of the writer, so that relevant behaviour may be ignored. I know, for example, that my own interest in sociological aspects leads me to concentrate on these: the diary which I write tends, therefore, to concentrate on the interactions observed and the social climate of the classroom, and to omit reference to the kind of thinking and learning being promoted, the 'cognitive climate'. In addition, diaries are by definition records of events which have in fact occurred, not those which have not; they tend to let pass without comment those points at which different behaviours could — or should — have occurred.

Overall assessment of diary studies:

Relevance	Depends on observer: may pick out unexpectedly relevant factors; may miss others.
Acceptability	Depends on status of observer since it is a statement of opinions, not of evidence.
Comparability	Low. Observers vary widely in emphases and interpretations. Same observer will differ from one occasion to another.
Economy	Straightforward in preparation and use but can be time-consuming in 'tidying-up' and interpretation.

2 Structured narrative and case studies

A narrative need not be entirely free. It is common for a diary to be kept under subheadings in accordance with some prediction of the order of events, for example. Particularly in formal institutional settings, and in lessons which are tied closely to a prescribed syllabus or text, it is possible to set down the typical progression of a lesson and devise an observer sheet on this basis. The headings on the sheet thus loosely structure the observation to follow the progression of the lesson and to compare it, implicitly or explicitly, with the archetype. Specific features of each lesson stage can be added as additional sub-headings to further focus the perceptions of the observer.

Similarly, an observer sheet can focus on the participants in the event rather than the event itself. A child case study can be divided into sections recording his or her interaction with other children, his interaction with the teacher, his linguistic performance, his attention span, his physical behaviour, facts about his home background, general academic performance etc. A teacher study can be similarly semi-structured, though some of the headings would differ.

Such approaches are of benefit in that they can draw the attention of the observer to a wider and more systematic range of features of the event or participants than might otherwise be noted. At the same time, however, they may set constraints on the observer so that other perceptions are lost; and they may set up unreasonable or unimaginative paradigms against which the event or participants are measured.

Overall assessment of structured narratives:

Relevance	Generally effective if the headings and subheadings are taken from contexts close to that being observed and not too general or too distant.
Acceptability	Still dependent on the status of the observer, but somewhat more convincing because more objective.
Comparability	More comparable because the set of features observed is held constant and assessments can still vary.
Economy	Takes more time in preparation than an unstructured diary, and may require closer attention during observation; but interpretation afterwards is more straightforward because the record has a built-in shape.

3 Count-coding

This and the following procedures may be seen as an extension of the process of specifying particular features for attention. In a count-coding system, one or more features of teacher pupil behaviour are listed in advance. These are chosen not just because they can be counted as they occur but because they are relevant to a given purpose — description of method, evaluation of materials, evaluation of students, counselling of teacher etc. The observer then records the number of occasions on which the specified event actually occurs during the observational period. A number of different types of event can be recorded simultaneously. The observation thus results in a frequency count of specified categories of behaviour.

This simple technique can give surprisingly interesting and persuasive results, as any trainer will find out who asks his trainees to select one feature of his own performance and to report on it in this way. The value of such observation depends, of course, on the suitable choice of elements to observe and on the delicacy of judgment required in moving from simply counting events to making some evaluation or qualitative statement on the basis of the count. In teaching as in language, the frequency of items must be set against their appropriacy and their ease of occurrence.

Overall assessment of count coding:

Relevance	Well chosen features can contribute directly to teaching routines and sub-routines and therefore be of immediate relevance to training and counselling.
Acceptability	Statistics are persuasive; but the degree of acceptability is strongly influenced by the tact of the observer and his mode of presenting the evidence.
Comparability	High, provided that different observers are in fact meaning the same when they use a given term and are thus counting the same thing.

Economy Once the features are defined, easy to apply and present the findings: but preparation can be time-consuming.

4 Time-lapse coding

In count-coding as just described, the category of events observed is fixed but the lapse of time between them is entirely free: whenever an event occurs, you count it, and it may occur once or twenty times or not at all in a given lesson.

In time-lapse coding the system is reversed. You work with a wider set of categories in order to allow for a range of behaviours that might be observed. But the time is fixed in the sense that you note down what you observe happening at a fixed time interval throughout the period of observation. You might, for example, record your observations of what is being said by teachers or students at as little as three-second intervals or as much as ten-second intervals. A feature like teacher movement around the classroom could be measured at longer intervals (perhaps every minute or so). For some observations (e.g. the state of the blackboard display) even ten-minute intervals might be appropriate.

This approach clearly involves a high degree of advance structuring of the process of observation. First of all, the overall perception of classroom behaviour is analysed to provide the categorization of possible events. Secondly the observation itself is constrained in two ways: the attention of the observer is directed entirely to the preordained categories; and the notes of the observer have to be made at preordained intervals. The result is a highly systematic and statistically based analysis of a sequence of teaching/ learning behaviours.

In order to be effective, then, such a system must: pick an appropriate general topic of study; produce workable categories of behaviour into which to classify observed activity; and select a time-lapse suitable for the behaviour being investigated. There are a number of well-researched systems of this kind.

Overall assessment of time-lapse coding:

Relevance	Depends on appropriate choice of features since observer's attention will be fully dominated by these.
Acceptability	Likely to be highly acceptable because explicitly objective.
Comparability	Likely, with training, to be highly reliable.
Economy	Care is needed in preparation, either in development of systems or in training for use of existing systems. The observation itself is demanding. Some treatment of data is likely to be necessary to present quantitative and sequential findings.

5 Rating Systems

It is not always the case that what one is looking for in a classroom can be counted. As an example, one might wish to measure the oral fluency of a teacher. In principle it would be possible to count the number of hesitations, mumblings, losses for words etc. In practice this would be difficult, and at the end of the day the observer would still need to interpret the findings in terms of some general assessment of fluency. A rating system allows an observer to react to evidence of this kind without actually counting it in order to come up with a single assessment of some ongoing feature of classroom activity. Features which are commonly assessed in this way include rapport, clarity, discipline, and organization. These do depend on specific teacher behaviours, but immediate assessment is more efficient than count-coding or time-lapse coding. Behaviours where either approach might be useful would include such things as use of aids, style of correction, effective questioning and so on, behaviours where some notion of judgment is built in.

Normally a rating is given at the end of a specific period of observation. It is generally possible to make a simultaneous assessment of a number of characteristics and, on the basis of these, establish if wanted some more general assessment. Two requirements are paramount. First, the characteristics focused upon must be appropriate to the context and to the purpose of the observation and assessment. Secondly, for each characteristic observed there must be clear criteria for the rating and a clear set of rating 'points'. This second requirement is frequently met by using a set of five points (1 to 5, or A to E, or a set of terms such as Very frequent/Frequent/Average/Below normal frequency/Rare) with an explanation of their meaning.

It is worth noting that ratings do not have to be concerned with value judgments: they may be entirely descriptive. The feature of rapport, for example, may be charted on a scale from *very formal* to *very casual*, but this need not imply that one extreme is more favoured than the other.

Properly designed rating systems do not suffer from the subjectivity which their name suggests. The insistence that the observer should focus on particular categories of behaviour and should make an immediate assessment according to a clear rating scheme adds reliability.

Overall assessment of rating systems:

Relevance	Generally high since the features selected tend to be of regular interest and central to the assessment of teacher performance.
Acceptability	May be low in that the evidence for the ratings is not available as in the case of count-coding. But the status of the observer and the confidence gained through other forms of observational assessment will affect this.

Comparability	Given well designed rating schemes and criterion terms and some initial standardizing of judgments, rating systems can be highly reliable.
Economy	Care in preparation and choice of scheme is repaid by a highly economical system, easy to use and interpret.

6 Transcript systems

Most systems of record and analysis destroy the primary evidence. What the observer is left with — and left to offer the teacher who has been observed — is a general description (diaries, narratives, case studies), or a set of statistics with or without sequential information (count-coding and time-lapse coding), or a set of scaled judgments (rating systems). But the quality of interaction and performance and the 'juice' of the event lie essentially in the linguistic evidence: this is true in all classrooms and in language classrooms most of all. (I believe myself that all those vague yet frequently used terms 'method', 'technique', 'approach' and 'style' can actually be defined in terms of what students and teachers say to each other.) Be that as it may, there are at least grounds for assuming that there is a value in confronting the teacher with evidence of language use in his or her own lessons.

Systems which preserve the linguistic evidence depend upon transcription — taking a record of the language as it happens and analysing it for a better understanding. Such analysis may be formal or functional and, unlike the systems we have looked at so far, is likely to take place after the lesson and outside the classroom rather than as the lesson takes place.

Once more it is the appropriacy of the categories of description that establishes the usefulness of a transcript system. The most powerful system will allow both formal and functional analysis and allow the presentation of not only quantitative but also sequential findings.

Transcript-based analysis depends of course on a suitable technique for recording — whether audio or video — given that the speed of interaction in the classroom makes manual transcription impossible except on a very selective basis. In assessing the amount of preparation involved, it is worth bearing in mind that a transcript well collected can then form the basis for detailed investigation of many kinds — including all the types of system previously mentioned.

Overall assessment of transcript studies:

Relevance	Since it is less selective than previous measures, this system allows the teacher observed to help the trainer after the event in deciding what is relevant for further analysis.
Acceptability	The evidence is highly persuasive because it is largely unprocessed: the teacher can join in the process of interpretation.

Comparability	High, provided the analytical procedures are well designed. Because the evidence is permanent, analyses can be revised and improved.
Economy	Transcript studies are very time-consuming, particularly after the event, though selective transcribing can be a useful and relatively simple adjunct to other forms of analysis.

We have looked at a range of approaches to the recording and analysis of classroom activity, approaches which you may wish to try and compare. The *classroom observation schedules* provided in the Appendix provide examples — to which you can add — of these approaches.

C & E : CONSIDER AND EVALUATE

H and O, R and A represent the pre-observational and observational stages of the counsellor's contact with the teacher — the stages during which you establish familiarity with the teacher and their working context and then accumulate information of one kind and another on what goes on in that teacher's classroom. All this is a prelude to two questions: What can I do to help this teacher? What might the teacher do, and ask me to do, in order to improve performance? But before we move into the phases of consultation and remediation, there remain two counselling stages to complete.

Considering the evidence

This is the stage where the observer has to hold back from judgment, particularly where such judgment is tantamount to criticism. The first responsibility of the observer is to try to justify all that he has seen. It may be that the justification is straightforward and positive: the learning which was clearly achieved; the reactions observed; the skills which were evident, may all provide sound evidence confirming the teacher in their current behaviour and, if evaluation is required, giving the teacher a positive assessment. But generally there is less than total satisfaction, and there are aspects of the observed behaviour which one might want to say could have been done better or at least differently. In such cases, it is essential for the observer to ask first why what happened did happen: what were the guiding or controlling or constraining factors in the teaching context? Have they all been taken into account? And might the teacher have had intentions other than those which the observer has assumed which would justify the course of action taken?

Among the many factors which influence and help to explain and justify teacher behaviour will be physical ones — time, resources, noise

levels, size of class. There will be interpersonal factors which are often difficult to pick up in brief observations — student attitudes, relationships which have already built up, the effect of the observer's own presence. And there will be broader 'system' constraints — the teacher may be under orders, as it were, to teach prescribed materials towards prescribed examinations in prescribed ways. All or any of these factors might compel teachers to perform in ways different from those that otherwise they might have followed; the observer must be aware of these factors; and any proposal for change must be feasible within these constraints if unprofitable tensions and frustrations are to be avoided.

It is particularly dangerous for the observer at this stage to ask 'What would I myself do in these circumstances?', unless prepared also to consider all the personal and professional differences which distinguish the observer from the teacher observed — linguistic skills, pedagogic skills, general experience, professional standing, incentives to perform, personality and individual interactional style. Thoughtfulness at this stage does not merely make for fair assessment of what has been seen; it points the way towards reasonable and constructive proposals for improvement and development.

Offering evaluation

Provided that such thoughtfulness is apparent, it is my experience that teachers do not resist subsequent evaluation: they positively welcome it. They genuinely wish to know what you think of their teaching and in what ways they might seek to improve it. In twenty years of classroom experience, I have had few opportunities to hear an honest critique by a fellow-practitioner; and I feel the worse for it. It is one of the weaknesses of our profession that the young teacher is so soon left to his own devices; the experienced and skilled teacher is seldom in a position to impart his skills and sensibilities to the apprentice in the next room.

So teacher evaluation is not only an administrative necessity; it is a desirable and generally welcomed contribution to personal development. While self-monitoring and self-evaluation are valuable skills for the teacher to develop, there is much about the performance of teachers that they are simply unable to notice themselves even when presented with transcripts and analyses and ratings. I believe that an observer has not only an opportunity but an obligation to offer an evaluation of what he has seen, and that teachers who have allowed themselves to be observed have the right to demand one: the power to observe carries with it the duty to offer counsel.

The observer need not, however, evaluate all that has been seen, and certainly need not provide the teacher observed with an immediate and comprehensive judgment. In a more considered and selective manner, the observer needs to measure the teacher's performance against three markers: in individual terms, the attributes and intentions of the teacher; in system terms, the constraints and intentions of the system

(which in an 'inspectorial' role the observer may be authorized to represent); and, in professional terms, the constraints and intentions of the profession as a whole.

At the individual level, we judge teachers against what they themselves are trying and claiming to do. We take account of the constraints on their performance — their linguistic and pedagogic skills and their personality traits. Objective evaluation against these criteria may indicate ways in which teachers can improve themselves, or can be counselled or trained towards more effective teaching.

At the system level, we judge whether teachers are rightly pursuing the aims and objectives laid down by the institution for whom they work: they may be explicit or, more often, implicit. So we take account here of the curriculum in its broadest sense. If there is a mismatch between system intentions and individual performance, it may be the system that is at fault. Either the teacher requires counselling and training in meeting the demands of the system, or the teacher benefits from sympathy through joint recognition of those problems imposed by the system about which the teacher can do nothing.

At the professional level, we measure the teacher against the standards which are currently set by the profession at large, assessing (to put it bluntly) how up-to-date the teacher is with professional developments. Here there is the danger that the standards we tend to apply may have been imported from alien context where other aims are pursued; they may not be a valid criterion for what constitutes good teaching in the context observed.

If these sets of criteria — the individual, the system-based, and the professional — were congruent, the task of evaluation would be straightforward. They aren't. It isn't. HORACE only offers guidance in the stages leading towards evaluation; he doesn't resolve us of the responsibility for final judgments. The criteria finally used and the judgments made have to be established by the individual counsellor for the time and place in which he or she works, and the individuals — the teachers, the pupils, the authorities — whom he or she serves.

BACK TO THE PARADIGM

While there may be no universal standards against which to judge good teaching, we began with the assertion that there can be a paradigm for the procedures of counselling. Let us return to this paradigm.

HORACE has indicated the stages whereby the counsellor can confront teachers with a rational and substantiated critique of their individual performance. But criticism is of limited value if it does not lead to constructive development. To this phase of diagnosis, represented by HORACE, we must therefore add two further phases which will be more briefly dealt with; the processes of consultation and of remediation.

CONSULTATION

The evidence which we have gathered allows us to apply four principles in our consultation with the teacher, during which we look back at what has been observed and look forward to an action plan for personal development.

Sympathy

Our consideration of the constraints makes it possible for us to recognize with the teachers observed those things about which nothing can be done, and to assure them that they will not be expected to change the unchangeable. Problems do not go away, but may become less stressful, once we recognize that we are under no individual obligation to solve them, and some of the recurrent problems of teachers the world over fall into this category.

Selection

Of those things that can be changed, we can attempt to change only so many things at once. Praise as well as criticism needs to be selective if it is to be effective. The observational techniques which we have discussed are designed not simply to give more, but more focused and specific, evidence on which to base advice on teacher performance. In consultation with the teacher, we can decide which problems have priority, either because they are the most acute or because they are the most easy to resolve. For training in particular, it really does help to take one behavioural target at a time.

Summary

Some of the techniques presented will generate a massive amount of data on the teacher, enough to sustain a lecture of admonition and advice. But keep it short: by summarizing your perceptions of what happened, you leave room for the teacher to comment and, from your cue, to self-evaluate.

Study

Having identified areas of common interest and those where the teacher intends to adjust behaviour, a period of joint deliberation is called for. Teacher and counsellor together can study the options which exist for remedying the problem. Here again, the principle should be a conservative one — adjustment rather than wholesale change, evolution before revolution.

These processes prepare us for the final phase of counselling.

REMEDIATION

Having decided on the problems they intend to remedy, teacher and counsellor have available to them three general approaches — two within and one outside the classroom.

Try Again

The experience of being observed, the evidence which has been offered through controlled techniques, and the consultation are likely to have developed in the teacher a clearer picture of what he or she is and could be doing. By far the easiest, and therefore in some ways the best, technique for improvement is simply to do the thing again — to reteach a similar lesson with a now altered perception of it. Very significant changes may be seen, and there are some features of teacher behaviour (e.g. personal habits of movement, gesture, voice) which can be affected in no other way.

Team-teach

Some adjustments make considerable demands on a teacher, and the counsellor may decide to share the burden. Rather than simply suggesting that the teacher try again, for instance by introducing group work into a previously class-taught activity, the counsellor may offer to take on those elements — for example, the instruction-giving — where the teacher feels least confident. This allows the teacher to remain in control of those activities which are not innovative or problematic. Team-teaching in this way does not simply offer valuable demonstration; it establishes a collaborative relationship between teacher and counsellor with each working under the eye of the other in the same classroom circumstances.

Team-teaching is less straightforward than simply trying again. It requires detailed joint planning before the lesson is team-taught; it requires a careful analysis of areas of teacher risk and teacher confidence; it demands confidence on the part of the counsellor; and it takes time. But it has great power as a means of integrating fresh advice into existing contexts, and it is particularly recommended to the teacher-supervisor working in the same school with those who are being counselled.

Train

Most drastic of the three expedients is the decision to train the teacher, to organize and implement a course of instruction in particular skills and activities. Training need not conjure up visions of long-term full-time training, nor even of one-day release or part-time courses, though all of these have their place. Some training can be conducted within the counselling session itself and be very brief indeed: imagine, for example, a three minute task designed to improve the way a teacher

stands at the blackboard while pointing out important items on it. However long or short the training programme may be, and however wide-ranging or specific its objectives, it will benefit (see O'Brien, 1981) from incorporating five elements:

- experience (as a learner) of the desired teaching behaviour;
- observation (without involvement) of that behaviour and of learner reactions to it;
- trial (as teacher) of the behaviour, even if only in simulated circumstances;
- rationale for the behaviour, that is, a consideration of the reasons for its implementation;
- integration of the new behaviour into existing contexts and practices.

IN CONCLUSION : SYSTEM AND SENSITIVITY

In the preceding sections, I have offered a framework for teacher counselling within which systematic investigation and treatment can be tempered by a sensitivity to the perceptions of the teacher and the realities of the classroom situation. The well experienced counsellor will be no more in need of such a paradigm than the teacher with years of experience needs to draw up detailed lesson plans for every step in his teaching programme. We learn from experience, and build up gradually the confidence to discard such guides to action. Nor does adherence to such a paradigm ensure in itself that good counselling takes place; there is more to successful performance than careful planning. But good counselling needs to be both systematic and sensitive, and the procedure outlined in Figure 1 assists with the first of these. HORACE only helps; the rest is up to you.

Commentary

In my introductory comments, I suggested a paradox in using a system in order to develop sensitivities for a task — the task of counselling — in which adherence to a system of procedures and over-adherence to one's own 'game plan' might be counter-productive. I need now to defend the approach which the embedded paper realizes.

First, in the stage of development where trainees have initially neither system nor perhaps sensitivity, it is progress at least to achieve the first. A systematic paradigm which insists on initial consultation, which demands an observational base for counselling, which provides means of accumulating evidence of teacher performance, and which guards against premature evaluation may not ensure good counselling; but it guards against the most common shortcomings of bad counselling.

Second, more heuristic means of developing an awareness of counselling tactics — by demonstration and discussion, for example — may be

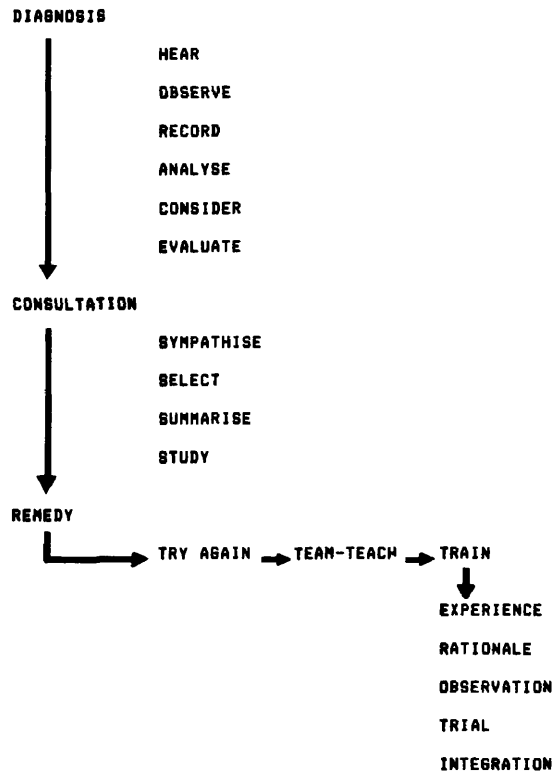


Figure 1: Steps in Counseling & Training: A Summary

more personal and more valid, but they suffer from being ephemeral. A written paper provides a permanent memorandum, one which trainees can refer to during their training as they embark upon counselling after their course.

Third, the paper tempers its blatant didacticism ('do this, then do this; do not do that') with a more discursive and theoretical consideration of the elements of counselling. It avoids the risk of talking down to practised professionals by providing points of rationale with which they can take issue.

Fourth, an over-directive approach is avoided by building in options for the counsellor-in-training. This is most evident in the observation phase, where the materials in the Appendix are provided as sources from which the trainee can select for trialling (in the CDELT Practicum, trainees were required to try any ten of twenty schedules offered). It is also evident in the options (the three T's) provided in the remediation phase.

Finally, and most importantly, the paper is used only as the introduction to a planned series of practical tasks in which, in their Practicum school, trainees come up against the realities of observing,

evaluating and counselling teachers at work and are able in feedback sessions to discuss and reappraise their experiences. The paper, in other words, is only the R in an E-R-O-T-I model of counsellor training which reflects the very approach to training recommended in the final section of the paper. Another application of a principle frequently cited in the papers in this volume: teachers tend to teach as they themselves were taught — and trainers train as they themselves were trained.

References

- Bowers, R. G. (1980) *Verbal Behaviour in the Language Teaching Classroom*. PhD thesis. University of Reading.
- Carroll, B. J. (1980) *Testing Communicative Performance*. Pergamon.
- O'Brien, A (1981) 'The E-R-O-T-I model: a stimulating guide for teacher training.' in *Focus on the Teacher*. ELT Documents 110. The British Council.

APPENDIX**CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULES AND INSTRUCTIONS**

A series of worksheets for use by supervisors, inspectors and senior teachers as well as in observational research.

Roger Bowers

INTRODUCTION

The worksheets which follow will help you to focus on a range of teacher and student activities, particularly those which involve talking. A variety of techniques is employed for recording and analysing what goes on. Before using a worksheet, study carefully the instructions which precede it.

Worksheet One contains instructions about coding classroom talk which you may find useful in some of the other worksheets too. So start with Worksheet One.

You should not collect any observational data without the full agreement of the teacher and students observed. If you wish to make any of your data public to others who were not involved, then you should take steps to keep your findings anonymous: avoid all direct references to either people or institutions.

CONTENTS

Worksheet	Topic	Technique
1	Lesson beginnings and endings	Record + category analysis
2	Marking transitions	Record + citation
3	Nominating strategies	Count-coding
4	Styles of presentation	Record + category analysis
5	Questioning: genuineness	Count-coding
6	Questioning: cognitive types	Record + category analysis
7	Evaluation: positive and negative	Count-coding
8	Teacher talk: domination	Time-lapse coding
9	Student talk: freedom and control	Time-lapse coding
10	Variation of focus	Diary

WORKSHEET 1 LESSON BEGINNINGS AND ENDINGS

INSTRUCTIONS

Data Collection:

Tape-record the first and last five minutes of each of a series of lessons. (You will probably find it useful to try out the technique on just one lesson in the first instance.) Ideally you should be present at the lessons you want to record, but recordings made by the teacher will do provided the recording is of good quality and the teacher is able to help you in interpreting what happened.

Your selection of lessons will depend on what you want to study: the style of one teacher; or a comparison of several teachers; or the pattern over a particular course of lessons.

Procedure: (a) Beginnings

- 1 Transcribe the first part of the lesson. Begin from the moment the teacher walks in the door, and end at the point where in your opinion the teacher and students are entering into the first major learning task. Use the worksheet provided - you may need more than one copy of it.
- 2 Now code the transcript using the categories below. Use the right-hand column of the sheet. Code every line of transcript. Where a change of category occurs in the middle of a line, mark down all the categories that have occurred.

SOC = SOCIATE:

This is any talk that consists of greetings, or social chat, or joking - in other words, any talk which does not directly involve teaching/learning but helps to create a suitable social setting.

ORB = ORGANISE:

This is any talk that organises the teaching/learning which is going to take place but does not directly form part of it. Include things like: marking attendance; maintaining discipline; checking that students can hear; etc. Include also any talk which states the topic or purpose of the lesson, focussing on what is to be done. Finally, include any common 'markers' such as "right", "OK", "well now", etc.

You need not code at all any talk that does not come into either of these categories. In most cases your transcript should end with a 'marker' (after which the teacher continues in a different category).

- 3 Now study your coded transcript. If you wish, add up the amount of teacher and student talk in the sociating and organising categories and see what pattern emerges. You may like to produce a flowchart display.

- 4 Here are some questions to consider:

- Was there a social exchange? If so, where did it come? Who initiated it? Was it a formula, or informal? Was there laughter?
- Was there organising talk? How much by the teacher, how much by the students? Note which of the following were mentioned - physical

- environment, materials to be used, topic to be discussed, justification for the topic, classroom discipline?
- How would you describe the teacher's organising talk - harsh? firm? gentle? weak?
- How would you describe the teacher's talk (look for 'markers') - clear and well organised? unclear or poorly organised?
- Think about the students' talk and how the rest of the lesson progressed. Would you describe the lesson beginning as - effective in establishing relationships? effective in introducing the lesson?

Remember: you must base your judgments only on the evidence of the transcript and your analysis of it.

Procedure: (b) Endings

1 Transcribe as for Beginnings. Begin either five minutes before the lesson is due to end or as soon as you sense that the lesson will shortly draw to a close (experience will help here).

2 Now code the transcript using the categories below:

SOC = SOCIATE:

any talk which consists of greetings, social chat or joking.

ORG = ORGANISE:

Any talk which restates the purpose of the lesson without actually reteaching any points; or which invites students to show whether they have (or have not) understood or enjoyed the lesson; or which focusses on the topic of the next lesson; or which organises homework or an assignment.

PRES = PRESENT:

Any talk which restates the main points of the lesson in a way which actually teaches them. (Include here time spent writing a summary on the blackboard.)

EL = ELICIT:

Any talk which requires another person to say something directly relating to the learning task. This includes review questions.

RES = RESPOND:

Any response to an ELICITING utterance.

EVAL = EVALUATE:

Any talk which assesses, positively or negatively, someone else's response.

3 Now code your transcript as you did for beginnings.

4 Here are some questions to consider:

- Was there instructional talk (PRES, EL, RES, EVAL)? If so, who initiated it - teacher or student? Did the instructional talk summarise or review the lesson?
- Was there organising talk? Note which topics were mentioned: understanding and enjoyment of the lesson; assignment or homework; topic of the next lesson; general discipline and administration.
- Was there a social exchange? If so, where did it come? Who initiated it? Was it formulaic or informal? Was there laughter?
- How effective do you feel the lesson ending was in terms of: reviewing? prefacing the next lesson? making people feel good?

WORKSHEET 1 LESSON BEGINNINGS AND ENDINGS

Observer:
 Date:
 Teacher:
 Class:
 Lesson:
 Materials/
 Equipment:
 Other:

Speaker	Transcript	Coding
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		
13		
14		
15		
etc.		

Notes:

WORKSHEET 2

MARKING TRANSITIONS

INSTRUCTIONS

What You Are Observing:

A transition is any point in a lesson where one thing stops happening and another starts. In particular, it is a point where the teacher stops performing one function and starts performing another. For example, after a lot of presenting talk the teacher may begin to ask some questions (eliciting). Or after a series of eliciting utterances, the teacher may want the students themselves to ask the questions.

At transition points, it is often helpful for the teacher to mark them in some way. This may be through a brief conventional marker-word such as right, now, OK. Alternatively, it might be a full expression like: Right now I'm going to ask you a question; or Now you ask me something; or I think it's time we tried to use what we've been practising. All of these expressions mark a transition: they help the learners to know what is happening and what they have to do next.

Data Collection:

The best way to study marked transitions is to record a lesson on tape, to listen through it afterwards, and to note down on a transcript sheet - use the one in Worksheet One - the transitions which you notice. With practice you will be able to note down the unmarked transitions as well as the marked ones.

Alternatively, try noting down these features while the lesson is taking place: but this is not easy and may distract you from other things you are looking for.

So ideally: record; replay; note down in transcript.

Some questions to consider:

- How many transitions were there in the lesson?
- What functions came before and after each transition?
- Did the teacher actually do what was proposed?
- Did the teacher use silence to help mark the transitions?
- Did you notice any unmarked transitions in the lesson?
- Did you feel that the lesson was clearly structured?
- Did your teacher habitually use a particular marker?
- Did the teacher overuse any marker?
- Were there any points where the students misunderstood what was intended?
- Can you write a summary of the teacher's transition behaviour?

WORKSHEET 2 MARKING TRANSITIONS

Observer:
 Date:
 Teacher:
 Class:
 Lesson:
 Materials/
 Equipment:
 Other:

Speaker	Transcript	Coding
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		
13		
14		
15		
etc.		

Notes:

WORKSHEET 3 NOMINATING STRATEGIES

INSTRUCTIONSWhat You Are Observing:

When we encourage a student to talk, for example by asking a question, we have to make it clear who we want to talk. We can do this in a variety of ways, which we can call nomination strategies. The effective teacher consciously varies these strategies. The ineffective teacher either does not use variety or is not conscious of the strategies being used.

Here are the most common nomination strategies. For convenience, we shall talk about the 'question', but this can mean any move that elicits student talk.

- (a) Teacher names or otherwise identifies student, then asks question
- (b) Teacher asks question, then identifies student
- (c) Teacher asks question, then selects a student from those who have offered to answer
- (d) Teacher asks question, then lets anybody answer
- (e) Teacher calls for chorus response, then asks question
- (f) Teacher asks question, then calls for chorus response
- (g) Some other strategy is used.

Data Collection:

To study this feature, use count-code. You do not need to record the lesson.

Use the data sheet provided. As the lesson takes place - either from beginning to end or for as much time as you can afford - listen for the teacher's nominating strategies, and mark them down in the boxes on the sheet. You do not need to transcribe the words spoken: just put a tick for each strategy of a particular kind.

When the lesson has finished, add up the ticks in the various boxes to find out which strategies were preferred.

Some questions to consider:

- Which strategies were used and how often?
(a) __ (b) __ (c) __ (d) __ (e) __ (f) __ (g) _____
- Why and when did your teacher use these different strategies?
- Was nomination varied?
- Was it effective? If not, why not?

WORKSHEET 3 NOMINATING STRATEGIES

Observer:
 Date:
 Teacher:
 Class:
 Lesson:
 Materials/
 Equipments.....
 Other:

PUT A TICK IN THE CORRECT BOX EACH TIME A PARTICULAR STRATEGY OCCURS

(A) name --> question	(B) question --> name
(C) question --> select	(D) question --> anybody
(E) chorus --> question	(F) question --> chorus
(G) other (specify)	USE THIS BOX FOR YOUR TOTALS (A) (B) (C) (D) (E) (F) (G)

Notes:

WORKSHEET 4 STYLES OF PRESENTATION

INSTRUCTIONSWhat You Are Observing

Teacher presenting talk can present information, or it can present models of expression. Generally speaking, we may say, the information it offers is generalisations about English, the models are examples of English.

Both these functions are important. Neither is sufficient by itself. The teacher therefore has to strike a balance between the two, and has to decide whether to do one before the other or to mingle information and example. We can reduce the options to the followings:

- (a) EBRUL = Examples followed by generalisation
- (b) RULEG = Generalisation followed by examples
- (c) RUL/EG = Generalisation mixed with example
- (d) RUL = Generalisation only
- (e) EG = Example only

Data Collection

Record a sequence of teacher talk and notice where extended teacher presenting occurs. After the lesson transcribe the presenting talk on the transcript sheet provided. Code the transcript using the functions explained in Worksheet 1.

Analyse the transcribed talk by entering the following codes in the right-hand column as they occur:

EGRUL	RULEG	RUL/EG	RUL	EG
-------	-------	--------	-----	----

Questions to consider

- Is this presentation typical of this teacher?
- Is this presentation right for the materials in use?
- Is this presentation appropriate to what the teacher is aiming to achieve?
- Are the examples appropriate?
- Are the generalisations valid?
- How effective is the presentation in content and structure and expression?

WORKSHEET 4 STYLES OF PRESENTATION

Observer:
 Date:
 Teacher:
 Class:
 Lesson:
 Materials/
 Equipment:
 Other:

	EGRUL	RULEG	EG/RUL	RUL	EG	
Line No.	Transcript				Coding	Style
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						
etc.						

Notes:

WORKSHEET 5 QUESTIONING: GENUINENESS

INSTRUCTIONS

What You Are Observing

First of all, remember that 'questioning' is not an entirely accurate term in language classes: eliciting is better because there are many ways in which a language teacher can encourage students to respond.

The focus of this observation task is on genuineness. What do we mean by this?

In ordinary conversation, we generally ask questions because there is something we do not know and want to know. But in the classroom this is not always the case: when teachers ask a question, they usually know the answer already - they are simply testing the student's knowledge. So we can say that kind of question is an unreal question. But let us suppose a teacher asks a real question - one one they don't know the answer to. We still need to know whether the teacher is genuinely interested in the answer, rather than simply in the student's ability to frame a response.

A genuine question, then, is one in which (a) the teacher does not already know the answer, and (b) the teacher wants or needs to know the answer.

Data Collection

You will find that genuine questions are very rare indeed: so it would be uneconomical for you to transcribe a whole sequence of classroom language. Therefore we shall simply count-code. Do this for at least ten minutes in a lesson.

The data sheet has four boxes. Every time you hear an unreal or 'testing' question, put a tick in Box A. Every time you hear a question which is real but not genuine, put a tick in Box B. Every time you hear a genuine question, put a tick in Box C. Whenever you are not sure, use Box D. You will find it interesting actually to write down any genuine question you collect.

Questions to consider

- What is the proportion of real: unreal: genuine questions (A:B:C)?
- Why do you think this is?
- What were the genuine questions about?
- What were the real questions about?
- What were the unreal questions about?
- If you wanted to change the proportion of question types, how would you do it? And why?

WORKSHEET 5 QUESTIONING: GENUINENESS

Observer:
 Date:
 Teacher:
 Class:
 Lesson:
 Materials/
 Equipment:
 Other:

PUT A TICK IN THE CORRECT BOX EACH TIME A PARTICULAR TYPE OCCURS

A UNREAL QUESTIONS

B REAL BUT NOT GENUINE QUESTIONS

C GENUINE QUESTIONS

D UNDECIDED

USE THIS BOX FOR YOUR TOTALS: A: ____ B: ____ C: ____ D: ____

Notes

WORKSHEET 6**QUESTIONING : COGNITIVE TYPES**

INSTRUCTIONS**What You Are Observing**

Different kinds of question make different demands on the listener who has to supply a response. It is possible to produce very detailed categorisations of question types. For present purposes, however, we shall distinguish simply three kinds of question. (Remember that 'question' is a loose term - we are interested in any piece of teacher talk which directly requires a student response).

Our three kinds of question are these:

ECHOIC	(concerned with what the student can imitate)
EPISTEMIC	(concerned with what the student knows)
EXPRESSIVE	(concerned with wants to express)

ECHOIC questions are those which only require a mechanical response - an 'echo'. These involve repetition, substitution, reading aloud and other such relatively 'unthinking' responses. Responses of this kind are corrected by the teacher on purely formal grounds.

EPISTEMIC questions are those which require the student to use some cognitive faculty or summon up some factual knowledge. The response may, for example, require the use of memory, or recognition, or a logical process such as induction or deduction. Responses of this kind can be corrected on formal grounds and also on content grounds: the teacher may find fault with them because they are badly expressed or because they are factually wrong.

EXPRESSIVE questions are those which require the student to express a personal opinion or emotion - something which they alone can say is true because they alone know what they believe or feel. Such responses can be corrected formally, but they cannot be corrected for content - what you feel is what you feel.

Most language teaching, you will find, contains a lot of echoic and expressive questions - the proportion varies according to the method used and the individual style of the teacher - but very few epistemic questions.

Data Collection

Record a lesson. Do not transcribe it. Afterwards, listen to the recording and enter into the worksheet your breakdown of the types of question you hear. The judgments you have to make in analysing questions like this are not easy: you may have to listen several times before making up your mind. Whenever you are not sure, use Box D.

Questions for consideration

- What is the proportion of echoic : epistemic : expressive questions?
- Why is this so?
- What was the teacher trying to do with these questions?
- How many questions were difficult to categorise? Why?

WORKSHEET 6 QUESTIONING : COGNITIVE TYPES

Observer:
 Date:
 Teacher:
 Class:
 Lesson:
 Materials/
 Equipment:.....
 Other:

PUT A TICK IN THE CORRECT BOX EACH TIME A PARTICULAR TYPE OCCURS

A ECHOIC Response is mechanical, formal ...

B EPISTEMIC Response requires thinking, factual content

C EXPRESSIVE Response involves personal idea or emotion ...

D UNDECIDED (Note these down to think about later)

USE THIS BOX FOR YOUR TOTALS A _ _ _ B _ _ _ C _ _ _ D _ _ _

Notes:

WORKSHEET 7

EVALUATION : POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE

INSTRUCTIONSWhat You Are Observing

Teachers vary considerably in their evaluating behaviour. First of all, some teachers simply evaluate more than others. Next, some teachers are more positive than others in their evaluation: even if they were handling the same students giving the same responses, their assessment of the responses would appear to be different. Finally, all teachers have their own favourite ways of giving positive and negative feedback - of praising and discouraging.

Feedback to students- the reinforcement or negative reinforcement of what they say - is a powerful factor in shaping their future behaviour. The way in which we reinforce is critical to the relationship we build up with our students.

This worksheet examines the positive and negative content of evaluating talk, and also allows you to make notes on particular features of a teacher's evaluating style.

Data Collection

Evaluating talk is relatively easy to recognise, so you need not record a whole lesson to analyse it. You will use the worksheet to count-code the evaluations you hear as you hear them. The categories you will use are:

- | | |
|--------------------|--|
| EXTREMELY POSITIVE | The form and expression of the evaluation is intended to be heard as a very positive reaction to what the student has said. |
| POSITIVE | The evaluation will be interpreted as positive but not extremely positive. |
| AMBIGUOUS OR MIXED | The evaluation <u>either</u> leaves it unclear whether the teacher is in favour of the response or not; <u>or</u> it simultaneously praises one aspect of the response and criticises another (e.g. Yes but ...) |
| NEGATIVE | The evaluation will be taken as negative, but only mildly so. |
| EXTREMELY NEGATIVE | The form and content of the evaluation is intended to be heard as a very negative reaction to what the student has said. |

Questions for consideration

- What is the proportion of positive : 'neutral' : negative evaluations?
- What does the teacher praise most?
- What does the teacher criticise most?
- Is it clear to you and the students what the teacher's criteria are?
- Does the teacher have favourite phrases for praising and criticising?
What are they?

WORKSHEET 7

EVALUATION : POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE

Observer:
 Date:
 Teacher:
 Class:
 Lesson:
 Materials/
 Equipment:
 Other:

TICK THE CORRECT BOX WHENEVER YOU HEAR AN EVALUATION.
 NOTE ANY FAVOURED EXPRESSIONS ON THE RIGHT-HAND SIDE.

A EXTREMELY POSITIVE

B POSITIVE

C NEUTRAL (AMBIGUOUS OR MIXED)

D NEGATIVE

E EXTREMELY NEGATIVE

USE THIS BOX FOR YOUR TOTALS:

A+B = ___ C = ___ D+E = ___

Notes:

WORKSHEET 8 TEACHER DOMINATION**INSTRUCTIONS****What You Are Observing**

It is often true that teachers talk too much and students talk too little; but this is a dangerous general accusation to make for there are times when it is entirely appropriate for the teacher to do the talking and the students to do the listening. It is likely, however, in any language lesson where oral competence is a part of our objective or where student participation is seen as worth pursuing in its own right, that we will decide that the teacher talks too much!

Just how much the teacher's talk dominates the proceedings can only be fully appreciated by measuring it. Even the most experienced of teachers, and the most seasoned of observers, are still surprised when they actually quantify the proportions of teacher and student talk over a period of time.

This worksheet attempts only the most basic of measurements: there are many established ways of making a more detailed and informative analysis (for example, Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories). This worksheet helps you to answer these questions:

- How much time is spent by the teacher talking?
- How much time is spent by a student or students talking?
- How much time is spent in silence (or confusion)?

Data Collection

For this measurement we shall be making a very simple judgment but making it frequently. We shall be using a straightforward time-lapse coding: our interval of time will be three seconds.

Every three seconds you will have to place two marks on your sheet. These will be:

- | | |
|---------|---|
| T E | Teacher is talking in English |
| T O | Teacher is talking in another language |
| S E | Student is talking in English |
| S O | Student is talking in another language |
| SIL POS | Silence, but contributing positively to the lesson |
| SIL NEG | Silence, but <u>not</u> contributing positively to the lesson |

Sometimes several things may be happening at once: pay attention to, and ~~mark~~ mark down, the main event of the lesson at that time.

Questions for consideration

- Is the 'two-thirds rule' valid or not? ("For two-thirds of the time, someone is speaking; for two-thirds of that time, it is the teacher who is speaking.")
- Does the pattern of teacher and student talk suit the lesson objectives?

TEACHER TALK : DOMINATION

Observer:
Date:
Teacher:
Class:
Lesson:
Materials/.....
Equipment:.....
Other:

EVERY BOX REPRESENTS A THREE-SECOND POINT.
SO EVERY ROW REPRESENTS 10x3 SECONDS = HALF A MINUTE.
THE WHOLE SHEET ADDS UP TO FIVE MINUTES.
USE AS MANY CONTINUATION SHEETS AS YOU WISH.

Handwriting practice sheet for the letter 't'. The sheet contains 12 rows of three horizontal lines (top, middle dashed, bottom) for letter tracing. The first row contains the letter 't' for tracing, while the remaining rows are empty.

TOTALS: T = ___ = % S = ___ = % SIL = ___ = %
 E = ___ = % O = ___ = %
 (etc.)

Notes:

WORKSHEET 9 STUDENT TALK : FREEDOM AND CONTROL
-----**INSTRUCTIONS****What You Are Observing**

The idea of free and controlled talk seems to be straightforward: we often speak, for example, of 'free' conversation and 'controlled' drills. Yet when we examine classroom talk more closely, we find that these terms are by no means precise. Very little student talk is fully free in the sense that neither its form nor its content is guided by what has gone before. Yet not much talk is fully controlled either: it is usually possible for the speaker to introduce some individual variation if only in a choice of word or intonation.

Nevertheless, the distinction between free and controlled response is useful and it helps us to distinguish between markedly different methods and styles of teaching.

In this worksheet, we shall label student talk only. These are the categories we shall use:

F	= FREE	Neither the form of the talk nor its content is firmly controlled by the teacher
PF/F	= PART-FREE	The form of the talk is free but the content is controlled
PF/C	= PART-FREE	The content of the talk is free but its form is controlled
C	= CONTROLLED	Both form and content are firmly controlled by the teacher

Data Collection

We shall be using the same time-lapse procedure as in Worksheet Eight.

Every three seconds make a mark in a box. If no student is talking, put a dash : --. If a student is talking, put F or PF/F or PF/C or C.

Afterwards, look at your record and work out the proportions.

Questions for consideration

- How much student talk is fully free?
- How much student talk is fully controlled?
- What is more controlled - form or content?
- Do these patterns suit the objectives of the lesson?
- What could be done to change these patterns?

STUDENT TALK : FREEDOM AND CONTROL

Observer:
Date:
Teacher:
Class:
Lesson:
Materials/
Equipments:
Other:

CODE EACH BOX AT THREE SECOND INTERVALS USING THESE SYMBOLS:
F PF/F PF/C C -- (see instructions)

A handwriting practice sheet featuring ten rows of three-lined guides. Each row consists of a solid top line, a dashed middle line, and a solid bottom line. Within each row, there are 15 vertical dashed lines spaced evenly across the width of the page, designed for tracing practice.

TOTALS: ALL STUDENT TALK =
ALL FREE STUDENT TALK =
ALL PART-FREE STUDENT TALK =
ALL CONTROLLED STUDENT TALK =

PART-FREE CONTROLLED FOR FORM =
PART-FREE CONTROLLED FOR CONTENT =

Notes:

WORKSHEET 10

VARYING THE FOCUS

INSTRUCTIONSWhat You Are Observing

It is perhaps cynical to suggest that the whole of educational research into what makes classroom teaching work has ended up confirming a handful of commonsense observations - for example, that large classes are not conducive to learner achievement; that students tend to achieve or underachieve depending on their perception of what they believe the teacher expects of them; and that variety of approach succeeds where continuing in the same way tends not to. Yet even these conclusions tend not to be acted upon. Administrators continue to expand class sizes and affect surprise when standards fall. Teachers 'write off' students who then live down to the teacher's obvious low opinion of them. And teachers continue to labour away at monotonous routines, and then complain that their students are poorly motivated.

This sheet explores the last of these features - the feature of variety. It looks at one aspect of it - the teacher's variation of the focus of attention. And by attention here we mean simply visual attention.

Quite simply we shall be recording the different points in the lesson at which students are encouraged to pay attention to these alternative sight-objects:

- the teacher
- the blackboard (or its equivalent)
- other visual materials (eg posters)
- the text book
- the writing book
- other students
- the outside world

Data Collection

The information we are after may prove quite random in its occurrence, and classrooms vary greatly in their visual potential. We shall therefore use the flexibility of a diary technique, with checking columns for speed and accuracy.

As the lesson takes place, note down any times at which the attention of the students is switched to a different focus. Most commonly, the switch is likely to be from teacher to text to blackboard or back again. Sometimes the focus will intentionally be elsewhere. (Ignore the fact that many students may not be looking where they are supposed to: concentrate on the teacher's intentions rather than the class's actual behaviour.)

The easiest way of noting changes is to write the time on a fresh line on the worksheet and then put a tick alongside in the appropriate column. You can add any special points you want to remember on the right-hand side.

Questions for consideration

- How much variety, or how little?
- Would a different pattern have been better? Which? And why?
- Did students' attention deviate from what was intended? Why?

VARYING THE FOCUS

Observer:
Date:
Teacher:
Class:
Lesson:
Materials/
Equipment:
Other:

NOTE WHERE THE STUDENTS ARE EXPECTED MAINLY TO BE LOOKING, AND WHENEVER A CHANGE TAKES PLACE NOTE DOWN THE TIME IN THE LEFT-HAND COLUMN AND TICK THE COLUMN TO WHICH ATTENTION IS SUPPOSED TO SHIFT. MAKE ANY ADDITIONAL NOTES YOU NEED IN THE RIGHT-HAND COLUMN. USE CONTINUATION SHEETS AS NECESSARY.

TIME : STUDENTS' FOCUS CHANGED TO:

[illegible]

Notes :

English Language Teaching Documents
General Editor: C J Brumfit

Language Teacher Education: an Integrated Programme

This is a collection of papers relating to a project integrating pre-service, in-service and advanced ELT training. Particular consideration is given to the definition of needs for teacher education, the integration of theory and practice, and the adaptation of various methodological approaches to specific institutional settings and to the needs of

non-native speaking teachers. There is detailed discussion of the design of modules for language improvement, teaching techniques, classroom observation and other areas. This practical discussion is relevant to any teacher training for languages, especially for non-native speaking teachers.

