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INTRODUCTION

Declaration of Education by the Government of the Republic of Uzbekistan's social and economic development, democratic, humanization of all spheres humanization of public life, adoption of the National Program for Personal Training have given a new affects to the development of educational system and emergence of new types of educational institutions.

Social realities stipulated the necessity to emphasis as an independent trend consideration and solution of education management problems, developmentand introduction of well-grounded methods and means into educationalmanagement. At the same time, the importance of informational links and interrelations between education, upbringing and development as the integral process of personality forming has greatly increased.

It is the forming of a creatively thinking personality capable actively participates in social and political life, which is the main priority in the national Program for Personal Training.

The concepts of reflective thought hag had an influence on teacher education throughout the twenty first century. Reflective thinking can be viewed as the thoughtful , self-questioning of teachers' actions , experience or attitudes. If, for example , teachers are not satisfied with learning success of their students or questions their own role in the classroom or the value of their procedures, adherents of reflective thinking would argue that the teachers should plan and organize acts or processes to help them address such concerns.

“The historic changes took place in Uzbekistan, since there have been obtained. Independence and sovereignty after September 1991, in independent Uzbekistan many political, economical, cultural and social factors have changed.¹” Therefore, the very time of getting Independence the head of there public I.A.Karimov attended to change Educational system in 1997, the Educational System and

¹ I.A.Karimov “ Uzbekistan is in the head of the XXI century ”.Tashkent. 1992

personal Training so high developed before Independence no longer meets requirements of democratic and market changes occurred in the Republic today.

It should be noted that the national Program of Personnel training had some unique features. The reforms are arrived out on a extensive scale and are supported scientifically.

As the President I.A.Karimov emphasized in his book. “Uzbekistan along the rood of Independence and progress”. There are four path of reform and development. Tashkent, is based: consolidation and development of the nation’s spiritual heritage.

The highest objective of reformation in Uzbekistan is to revive those traditions, fill them with new content and set up all necessary conditions achieving peace and democracy, prosperity, cultural advancement freedom of conscience and intellectual maturity for every person on earth.

According to the requirement of the National Program of Personnel training and reforming of highest education in the republic of Uzbekistan

It is important to make effective changes in the System of higher Education.

As Karimov highlighted “Our generation must be quick-cutter, wiser, higher and, of course, must be happier then us ”².

In order to achieve “Harmoniously developed generation” Educators should use all the suitable aids. To achieve the aim specialists are investigating all possible ways of familiarizing learning process.

The reform in the field of education is becoming the most urgent, the Problem solution of which will determine our future. So, we all that the achievement of the great objectives we have noble intention, such as the renewal of society, efficiency of our reforms of our intentions are closely connected, first of all with the problem of training highly qualified. personal, specialists, who meet the require elements of the time.

Moreover we are all becoming aware of one more truth. Only a well educated person is able to value human dignity preserve national awareness, fight self-

² I.A.Karimov “There is no future without history ”Tashkent (1997)

sacrificially the right to live in a free society, so that our independent state could win a decent and respectable place in the world community.

At present great importance is attached to the study and teaching of foreign languages. No doubt, it happens not without purpose. Today, the importance of our people's perfect knowledge of foreign languages can scarcely be exaggerated as our country aspires to win a decent place in the world community, because our people see their great future as a life in mutual accord and cooperation with their foreign parties.

However, it is necessary to remember always that the study of foreign languages should not be carried out at the expense of oblivion to the mother tongue. It is necessary to provide Uzbek children with all the necessary conditions for the access to this amazing world of foreign (world) languages. We should prepare in our country in the short time the methods of intensive foreign languages learning based on our national peculiarities.

In gaining an awareness of how we teach, we must first come to terms with how we define our role as teachers of language.

Gerald Gephard said that: "Awareness of teaching is empowering.

The more interest teachers have in gaining awareness of how they teach, the more freedom they will have to direct their teaching toward successful student learning"³. John Carroll stated: "It is sobering to read John Kelly's book 25 Centuries of language Teaching and to realize that what we think is new today was being done centuries ago in some part of the world", noted language teacher Mary Finachiaro. has said: I haven't changed my basic teaching steps in fifty years except to add or delete a few devices or techniques in the practice steps in fifty years except to add or delete a few devices or techniques in the practice stage". Why is it, then, that English teachers have, been bombarded with so many "new" methods, from the direct Method, Grammar-Translation Method, Audio lingual Method, and Cognitivism to the more recent Suggestopedia, Delayed Oral Response, and Silent Way, to name, but a few? Why is the literature full of terms

³ Gerald Gephard "The conditions of learning" (New York)

such as integrative us, instrumental motivation, generative transformational grammar, analytic us holistic cognitive styles, functional – national approach, discourse analysis , etc? Who is right? Are we really just repeating ourselves year after year, perhaps under a different name? Or is what we are doing really new and different?

In my opinion, the answer to both of these last questions is “yes”-yes, we are repeating ourselves, and yes, we are doing really new and different things. To recall but a few of the ways in which we are still being influenced by the past we have only to look at Herbart’s five basic steps, and still used in some form by many teachers:

1. Preparation: review of familiar, relevant material.
2. Presentation: examples of language in use and the discovery of rules by learners.
3. Association of new and familiar material.
4. Systemation: generalization; recapitulation of new material in a context.

Another more recent example refers to the debate between cognitive and behaviorists. Though cognitive is given more importance today than behaviorism, most teachers still believe that a response that is positively reinforced by a teacher, other students, or a personal feeling of satisfaction is more likely to be learned. And even the most rabid opponents of behaviorism and its application in the audio lingual method must admit to its influence on many of the materials used in individualized and computerized language teaching today.

It is obvious that we have much to learn from the history of language teaching, but it is also evident that language teaching, and investigation are progressing at an ever accelerating rate. Today, however, the most significant discoveries are not those describing the new and revolutionary method. The “really new and different things” in language teaching today involve a different approach to teaching. Previously, it was believed that the only basic method a language teacher needed was a sound knowledge of the language. He was then briefly trained in the methodology currently in vogue and sent into a classroom. Now we know that linguistics is not the only area in which a language teacher should be trained. The

importance of psychology and sociology, as well as more extensive training in pedagogy, is being recognized. The relevance of each of these disciplines can easily be seen by analyzing the three main areas in which the approach to language teaching has recently changed.

1. *Emphasis on the Individual learner* In the past, the question most frequently asked was “Which is the best teaching methodology?” Now teachers ask “How can my students best learn the language?” The focus has shifted from the teacher to the learner, and with this has come the realization that each learner is an individual, with distinct needs, learning styles, mental schemata and attitudes. And to further complicate matters, not only do different learners have different over-all styles in learning, but an individual learner utilizes different approaches to learning at different stages in the Learning process. Gagne has identified eight different types of learning, including stimulus – response learning, learning of concepts, and problem solving, among others. Depending on the content and difficulty of the subject matter, the learner would apply one or more of these different types of learning in a given situation. Evidently, if the teacher is to be aware of these multiple individual cognitive and personality factors and able to diagnose and utilize them to the fullest, he must have more than a passing knowledge of recent investigations in psychology.

2. *Eclecticism*. Having come to the realization that each learner possesses distinct cognitive and personality traits, it follows that one teaching methodology will not be the most appropriate for all students. The recent tendency has therefore been toward eclecticism, selecting materials and techniques from various sources. This obviously puts a much larger responsibility on the teacher, for now he should be familiar with a much wider range of materials, exercises, and activities than before. It is no longer simply a matter of picking up the text – book and teaching it. A much broader training in pedagogy is now called for.

3. *Communication in a Social Context*. There are two important points to be made regarding this third general tendency: communication and social.

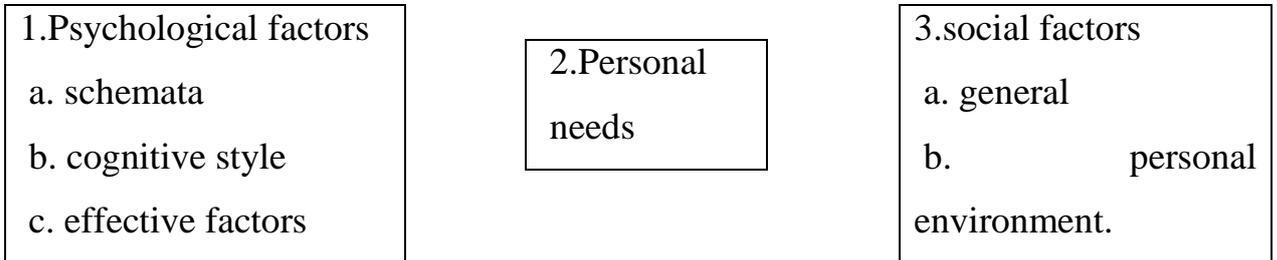
“The other possibility,, that has been proved feasible,, is to eliminate meaning almost totally from the initial phase of language instruction⁴”. It is entirely possible to.

“ Teach the major patterns of a foreign language without letting the student know what he is saying. Only after the student has gained complete and automatic control over the grammatical patterns would he be acquainted with the precise meaning of what he has learned”.

This, in fact, is what frequently happened with the audio lingual method. Students “parroted phrases, with no idea of what they were saying. Or, in more formal terminology, they demonstrated “linguistic competence” but not “communicative”. Now we recognize the importance of what a language does as well as what it is – and what a language does is enable us to communicate. Communicative competence is what a person “needs to know in order to communicate effectively in culturally significant situations. It is not enough to acquire knowledge of linguistic structure. One must also possess the appropriate schemata regarding the culture of the language being learned in order to understand the (culture of) communication and be able to respond to a specific social situation; hence the growing importance of sociology in language teaching.

⁴ Politzer. Teaching French : An introduction to applied linguistics. (1961)

Information about Students.



Language Teacher
(with knowledge of linguistics, pedagogy, educational psychology sociology)

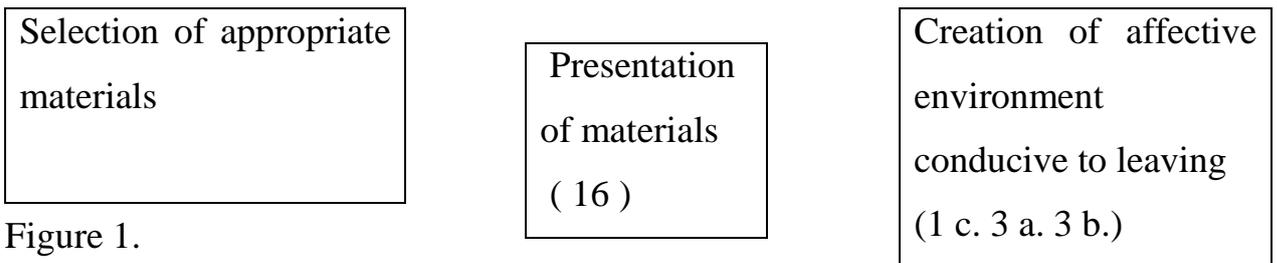


Figure 1.

How is a language teacher to cope with all this? thirty years ago, using the audio lingual method, this was sometimes caricatured as that of a “combination drill sergeant and orchestra conductor- a relatively easy role to play, since most activities were well programmed. Today, however, she is a “facilitator” of learning, and her classroom may well bear more resemblance to a jam session than to a Bethoven concert.

The central element in this model is the teacher. While the emphasis in education today is on the student as the focus of learning, it must be remembered that the

teacher is still is person specially trained to guide the student, help him select appropriate learning materials and create a positive classroom environment. In order to perform these tasks, the language teacher should have access to three main types of information about her students:

(1) psychological factors, (2) personal needs and (3) social factors, Regarding the psychological factors, three areas are of particular importance:

(a) schemata, (b) cognitive style and (c) effective factors.

The teacher should collect in formation from his students in each of (psychology) these three main areas and analyze it, using his knowledge of psychology, linguistics, and sociology. Once analyzed, he should call on his pedagogical knowledge to apply this information in three ways. First, he should select the most appropriate materials, based especially on his knowledge of the students' needs and their cognitive levels (schemata).

Second, he should decide on the way of presenting these materials, keeping in mind the cognitive styles, of his students. And finally, he should create a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning, or in Krashen's terminology, eliminate the effective filter so maximum learning can occur in an open, non-threatening environment. In order to create this environment in which the student feels secure and motivated toward learning, the teacher must be aware of the effective factors and social factors That might influence his students It is important to note that in the diagram, the arrows joining the three areas of application are bi-directional. This indicates, for example, that the materials selected will affect the method of presentation and the effective environment. On the other hand, in a group characterized by a positive affective environment, the students themselves may frequently contribute to the selection and presentation of class materials, following the humanistic idea that self- initiated learning is more meaningful and permanent. These three areas are therefore closely related.

In conclusion, it is evident that the role of the language teacher today is not as simple as it once was. Every day researchers are discovering new factors that may play a part in language learning. Today, knowledge of the linguistic structure of the

language is only one of the requirements of a good language teacher. Teachers should also have a broad background knowledge of the social environment that influences their students, different pedagogical techniques, social and cultural aspects of the language being taught, and techniques for diagnosing certain psychological characteristics of learners. For a language is much more than lists of vocabulary and language learning is not simply a matter of acquiring a system of linguistic formulas. language is a form of communication among individuals in a specific social context. But even more than that, language is a way of thinking and of processing information. It is a symbol of a culture and of personal identity.

This new, increased responsibility for language learning does not fall entirely on the teacher, however. The student must also assume more responsibility for the learning process. Now, the student is not simply a passive receptacle into which the teacher pours knowledge. Teachers should also have a broad background knowledge of the social environment that students' real life.

II. REFLECTIVE OPTIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

§ 2.1. Exploring Teacher's Beliefs and Focus on the Learner

Teaching is a complex process which can be conceptualized in a number of different ways. Traditionally, language teaching has been described in terms of what teachers do: that is, in terms of the actions and behaviors which teachers carry out in the classroom and the effects of these on learners. No matter what kind of class a teacher teaches, he or she is typically confronted with the following kinds of tasks:

- electing learning activities
- preparing students for new learning
- presenting learning activities
- asking questions
- conducting drills
- checking students' understanding
- providing opportunities for practice of new items
- monitoring students' learning
- giving feedback on student learning
- and reteaching when necessary

In trying to understand how teachers deal with these dimensions of teaching, it is necessary to examine the beliefs and thinking processes which underlie teachers' classroom actions. "This view of teaching involves a cognitive, an affective, and a behavioral dimension"⁵. It is based on the assumption that what teachers do is a reflection of what they know and believe, and that teacher knowledge and teacher thinking provide the underlying frame-work or schema which guides the teacher's classroom actions. Looking from a teacher-thinking perspective at teaching and learning, one is not so much striving for the disclosure of the effective teacher, but

⁵ Clark, C.M and Peterson, P.L. 1986. Teachers' thought processes. New York: Macmillan. pp.255-96

for the explanation and understanding of teaching processes as they are. After all, it is the teacher's subjective school-related knowledge which determines for the rest part what happens in the classroom; whether the teacher can articulate.

Looking from a teacher-thinking perspective at teaching and learning, one is not so much striving for the disclosure of the effective teacher, but for the explanation and understanding of teaching processes as they are. After all, it is the teacher's subjective school-related knowledge which determines for the rest part what happens in the classroom; whether the teacher can articulate his/her knowledge or not. Instead of reducing the complexities of teacher-learning situations into a few manageable research variables, one tries to find out how teachers cope with these complexities. In this chapter, the nature of teachers' belief systems is examined.

Teachers' belief systems are founded on the goals, values, and beliefs teachers hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, and their understanding of the systems in which they work and their roles within it. These beliefs and values serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and action, and hence constitute what has been termed the “culture of teaching”.

Teaching cultures are embodied in the work-related beliefs and knowledge teachers share - beliefs about appropriate ways of acting on the job and rewarding aspects of teaching, and knowledge that enables teachers to do their work the study of teacher-thinking addresses questions such as the following:

- What do teachers believe about teaching and learning?
- How is their knowledge organized?
- What are the sources of teachers' beliefs?
- How do teachers' beliefs influence their teaching?

Teachers' belief systems are built up gradually over time and consist of both subjective and objective dimensions. Some may be fairly simple for example, the opinion that grammar errors should be corrected immediately. Others may be more complex - for example, the belief that learning is more effective when it involves

collaboration rather than competition. "Research on teachers' belief systems suggests that they are derived from a number of different sources"⁶.

Their own experience as language learners. All teachers were OIKV students, and their beliefs about teaching are often a reflection of how they themselves were taught. For example, one teacher reports, "I remember when I was a student and I wanted to learn new vocabulary, it always helped to write down the words. I describe this apprenticeship as follows: By the time we receive our bachelor's degree, we have observed teachers and participated in their work up to 3,060 days. In contrast, teacher preparation programs at the master's level usually require about 75 days of classroom experience. What could possibly happen during these 75 days to significantly alter the practices learned during the preceding 3,060 days?"

Experience of what works best. For many teachers experience is the primary source of beliefs about teaching. A teacher may have found that some teaching strategies work well and some do not. For example, a teacher comments, "I find that when checking answers in a whole-class situation, students respond better if given the opportunity to first review their answers with a partner."

Established practice. Within a school, an institution, or a school district, certain teaching styles and practices may be preferred. A high school teacher reports, "In our school, we do a lot of small group learning. We're encouraged not to stand in front of the class and teach whenever it can be avoided."

Personality factors. Some teachers have a personal preference for a particular teaching pattern, arrangement, or activity because it matches their personality. An extroverted teacher, for example, reports, "I love to do a lot of drama in my conversation classes, because I'm an outgoing kind of person and it suits the way I teach."

Educationally based or research-based principles. Teachers may draw on their understanding of a learning principle in psychology, second language acquisition, or education and try to apply it in the classroom. A teacher in a private language institute, for example, reports, "I took a course on cooperative learning recently. I

⁶ Kindsvatter, R. Dynamics of Effective Teaching. New York: Longman.

really believe in it and I'm trying to apply it to my teaching. Another teacher at the same institute comments, "I believe that second language acquisition research supports a task-based approach to language teaching.

Principles derived from an approach or method. Teachers may believe in the effectiveness of a particular approach or method of teaching and consistently try to implement it in the classroom. For example, one teacher comments, "I believe in communicative language teaching. I try to make communicative use of the language the focus of every class I teach." Another teacher reports, "I use the process approach in teaching writing and I make a lot of use of peer feedback rather than teacher feedback in students' writing".

In the remainder of this time teachers' beliefs concerning language, learning, teaching, the curriculum, and the teaching profession are examined, as well as links between these beliefs and teachers' classroom practice.

English represents different things to different people. For some it represents the language of English literature. For others it is the language of the English-speaking world. Some associate it with the language of colonialism. Others English represents different things to different people. For some it represents the language of English literature. For others it is the language of the English-speaking world. Some associate it with the language of colonialism. Others see English simply as a means of doing business and making money. Peoples' views of English, or of any language, are influenced by contacts they have had with the language and its speakers. In the case of English, or the language you teach these contacts vary significantly from one individual to another. It is therefore instructive to examine the underlying beliefs teachers hold about English and how these influence attitudes toward teaching it. These beliefs can be clarified by considering questions like these:

- Why do you think English is an important language?
- Do you think English is more difficult to learn than other languages?
- What do you think the most difficult aspects of learning English are (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)?

- Which dialect of English do you think should be taught (e.g., British, American, other)?
- Do you think it is important to speak English with native-like pronunciation?
- How does English sound to you compared to other languages you know?
- What attitudes do you think your learners associate with English?
- Do you think English has any qualities that make it different from other languages?

Although teachers' beliefs about English may sometimes represent stereotypical impressions, these beliefs do nevertheless express realities which may influence classroom practices. ” In a study of the beliefs of English language teachers in Hong Kong English teachers whose first language was Chinese felt that English has more grammar rules than Chinese, although they did not feel English had a larger vocabulary or was more flexible in terms of communication”⁷. Harzell comments on perceptions of English by Chinese in Taiwan, and observes that English often strikes Chinese learners as being an illogical language. He gives Hong Kong following as examples :Noting a large sign in a department store which said “Box Office”, a Chinese was very surprised after making his purchases that the girl in charge there said they had no boxes for sale, nor would they have any in the future.

The clocks in an office had stopped due to an electrical power outage. Some time later, the manager happened to ask a Chinese employee: “What time is it?The employee glanced at his watch and said: “It's eleven dogwatch”. “He was surprised when told that this was unusual grammar.

When learners and teachers meet for the first time, they may bring with them different expectations concerning not only the learning process in general, but also concerning what will be learned in a particular course and how it will be learned. My observation draws attention to the fact that both teachers and learners bring experience to the classroom that influences their perceptions in subtle ways. “Teachers' beliefs about learning may be based on their training, their teaching

⁷Richards, J.1992. Learning how to teach: a study of EFL teachers in pre-service training

experience, or may go back to their own experience as language learners.¹ These beliefs represent answers to questions such as these:

- How do you define learning?
- What are the best ways to learn a language?
- What kinds of exposure to language best facilitate language learning?
- What kinds of students do best in your classes?
- What kinds of learning styles and strategies do you encourage in learners?
- What kinds of learning styles and strategies do you discourage in learners?
- What roles are students expected to assume in your classroom?

Teachers who favor a “learner-centered” view of learning, such as that which underlies many current methodologies in language teaching, would¹ Freeman,D.1992.Three views of teachers’ knowledge from TEACHER DEVELOPMENT.

probably describe their assumptions in terms such as the following:

Learning consists of acquiring organizing principles through encountering experience. The teacher is a resource person who provides language input for the learner to work on. Language data is to be found everywhere - in the community and in the media as well as in textbooks. It is the role of the teacher to assist learners to become self-directed by providing access to language data through such activities as active listening, role play and interaction with native speakers. For learners, learning a language consists of forming hypotheses about the language input to which they will be exposed, these hypotheses being constantly modified in the direction of the target model.

Learners, however, may express their assumptions about learning in quite different terms, as is seen in the following comments by learners on a communicatively oriented English class where the teachers encouraged active learner participation and gave little direct feedback or direction to learners. I just want a program so I know -what I have to learn. They're the teachers. They know their job. There is no system in these courses. It's all 'bits and pieces'. Without the grammar you can't learn the language. I don't want to clap and sing. I want to learn English. I want

something I can take home and study. We do a lot of speaking but we never see it written down. YHU need a teacher to learn English properly - you can't learn it why yourself because there's no-one to correct you. The assumptions these learners hold about learning can be stated as: Learning consists of acquiring a body of knowledge. The teacher has this knowledge and the learner does not. It is the role of the teacher to impart this knowledge to the learner through such activities as explanation, writing and example. The learner will be given a program in advance.

Learning a language consists of learning the structural rules of the language and the vocabulary through such activities as memorization, reading and writing.

These differences between teachers' and learners' beliefs reinforce the Importance of clarifying to learners the assumptions underlying teachers' classroom practices, or accommodating classroom practices to match them more closely to students' expectations. The consequences of not doing so are likely to be misunderstanding and mistrust on the part of both teachers and learners. Teaching is a very personal activity, and it is not surprising that individual teachers bring to teaching very different beliefs and assumptions about what constitutes effective teaching. This can be seen by comparing the following descriptions of how two English teachers conduct their classes in a secondary school in an EFL country.

Teacher A is a female teacher with eight years' teaching experience. She is a quiet, soft-spoken teacher who is always polite and pleasant to her students. Her students do well academically and are always quiet and attentive in class. The students sit in single rows. When the teacher enters the room, students stand up and greet her. They raise their hands when they want to speak, and they stand when they answer the teachers' questions. Teacher A follows the textbook closely in her teaching. She lends to be teacher-centered in her teaching, because she believes her classroom is a place where students come to learn.

Teacher B has three years' teaching experience. His class does not do as well academically as the students in Teacher A's class, although they work hard and are enthusiastic. The teacher has an excellent relationship with his students, but his classroom is much less traditional in its organization. Students do not have to stand

up when the teacher enters, or raise their hands to ask a question, or stand up when they answer a question. The classroom atmosphere is very relaxed. Students can volunteer answers when they wish to, so the class is often quite noisy. The teacher often makes use of his own teaching materials, and is often critical of the assigned text.

From the descriptions, we can see that these two teachers above hold quite different theories of teaching. Interviews with the teachers about their teaching yielded quite different answers to the following questions:

- How do you see your role in the classroom? How would this be apparent to a visitor?
- What teaching methods do you try to implement in your classroom?
- What teaching resources do you make use of?

Teachers felt that their teaching was normal and effective, although both conducted their teaching in quite different ways. In both cases their classroom practices were closely linked to their views about teaching. In the study of teachers' beliefs, found that teachers of English believed their primary role in the classroom was to: (1) provide useful learning experiences, (2) provide a model of correct language use, (3) answer learners' questions, and (4) correct learners' errors. They believed their main role as an English teacher was to (1) help students discover effective approaches to learning, (2) pass on knowledge and skills to their pupils, and (3) adapt (teaching approaches to match their students' needs. The kinds of learners they felt did best in their classes were: (1) those who were motivated, (2) those who were active and spoke out, (3) those who were not afraid of making mistakes, and (4) those who could work individually without the teacher's help.

Thirty ESL teachers held about second language teaching and they had three different approaches: a skills-based approach (which focuses on the discrete skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing); a rule-based approach (which emphasizes the importance of grammatical rules and a conscious understanding of the language system); and a function-based approach (which focuses on interactive

communication and cooperative learning, and the ability to function in real social situations).

ESL teachers with different dominant theoretical orientations provide strikingly different literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. Overall, study supports the notion that ESL teachers teach in accordance with their theoretical beliefs and that differences in theoretical beliefs may result in differences in the nature of literacy instruction.

Any language teaching program reflects both the culture of the institution (i.e., particular ways of thinking and of doing things that are valued in the institution), as well as collective decisions and beliefs of individual teachers. Some programs may have a distinct philosophy, which has been described as aiming to implement the following beliefs about curriculum processes:

- decentralised curriculum planning
- a needs-based curriculum
- a range of teaching methodologies
- learner-based classrooms
- autonomous learning
- authentic materials
- multiculturalism

Teachers themselves also have specific beliefs about the programs they work in, as is seen in the following statements. We used to be very grammar based in my school, but we went heavily communicative about five years ago. Within a program or school, teachers' views on such things as lesson planning, the use of objectives, and assessment may lead to quite different classroom practices. Some teachers make significant use of published textbooks and “teach to the book”, letting the textbook make many of their instructional decisions. Others regard textbooks as a hindrance to their creativity and prefer to make more use of authentic materials or teacher-generated materials. “Research on the role of commercial reading materials has found that reading teachers often assume that

commercial materials can teach reading”⁸. They believe that such materials incorporate scientific principles and state-of-the-art instructional practice. They may consequently become

“deskilled” through their overdependence on materials; that is, their Input to the instructional program gradually becomes limited to making decisions about presentation, timing, and the orchestration of practice activities.

Teachers also have specific beliefs about problems with the programs they work in, which they may pass on to new teachers who enter the program. For example, teachers in one institution described the major problems in their program: Teachers tend to work in isolation from each other. Teachers don't have much understanding of the overall philosophy of the program. There is no proper way of placing students into the most appropriate classes. There are too few teachers' meetings. The assessment instruments we are required to use do not match the communicative approach we are trying to implement. Central questions concerning teachers' beliefs about the programs they work in hence include:

- What do you think are the most important elements in an effective language teaching program?
- What do you think the role of textbooks and teaching materials in a language program should be?
- How useful do you think instructional objectives are in teaching?
- How do you decide what you will teach?
- To what extent is your teaching based on your students' needs?
- What is your attitude toward assessment in a language program?
- What changes would you like to see in your program?

Professionalism is a recurring concern of language teachers and language teaching organizations. Language teaching is not universally regarded as a profession - that is, as having unique characteristics, as requiring specialized skills and training, as being a lifelong and valued career choice, and as offering a high level of job

⁸ Shannon,P.1987. Commercial readings materials, and the deskilling of teachers. E.S Journal.

satisfaction. The degree to which individual teachers have a sense of professionalism about their work depends upon their own working conditions, their personal goals and attitudes, and the career prospects available to language teachers in their community. In the survey by Richards et al., English language teachers reported their belief that language teaching is a profession and that teachers engaged in it are professionals. They reported that they are willing to assume professional responsibilities, that they can take charge of their teaching, and that they can improve the learning outcomes of their students. They shared a common view toward the language they teach, stressing its value and importance in their community for education, career, and business communications.

One teacher sets himself as a conservator of traditions. But he also sees himself as a professional, and has a well-articulated view that teaching should be seen as a profession. He waxes bitter about its lack of public recognition – “I think teaching is still a most despised and rejected profession” - and blames 'irresponsible' teachers in the private schools, as well as the activities of the state teachers' union, for this. Other teachers do not think of teaching as a profession at all. Another one... insists it is a job, not a calling, with fixed limits of time and emotional involvement. That does not stop him from feeling a strong sense of solidarity with other teachers, and being a firm supporter of the teachers' union. At this end of the spectrum, the image of teaching is rather more like a skilled trade than a learned profession. A sees the teacher key to professionalism in teaching as centering on giving teachers the means to better understand their own classroom practices. I think we should be thinking about the best means or best professional development practices that will make teachers professionals.

Beliefs about teaching. By the time a student completes secondary school, he or she has been exposed to thousands of hours of teaching from a variety of different teachers. As a result the learner may have formed very definite views about what constitutes effective or ineffective teaching. This is reflected in the following statements by language learners. Teachers should explain grammar rules. You can't

learn very much from other students in groups. It's useful for the teacher to correct all the mistakes I make in my writing.

Differences between learners' and teachers' beliefs can lead to students undervaluing an activity assigned by the teacher. For example, a teacher working with intermediate-level students in a speaking class reported! that she included a large number of group and pair work tasks in the course. However, her students gave her poor evaluations for the course. They commented that they could not see the point of such activities because they could not identify the teaching point.

Learners often have specific expectations as to how teachers teach and what their roles and responsibilities are. For example:

- The teacher's responsibility is to provide information.
- The teacher should follow the book.
- The teacher should always set an example.

Students can often articulate these views in very specific terms, as is illustrated by the following comments from Australian high school students about what they expected from their English teachers. A good teacher is someone who can persuade other people to express themselves, someone who can, yes, bring out the creativity in I the kids. Because I think probably everyone's got creativity they don't use, and I think it's how good the teacher is that they can show that show creativity to the person and persuade them to use it. Teachers need patience, that's for sure. I guess they would have to have a very creative mind and an ability to judge because for a teacher to go home and mark 32 pieces of writing is not the thing that most people would want to do. So they have got to keep an open mind about I it because they can't just say - well that piece of writing it's no good I because... it's written in some other form than everybody else's.

Learners from different cultures may have different beliefs about what constitutes good teaching. For example, an Australian student studying Chinese in China commented: "The trouble with Chinese teachers is that they've never done any real teacher-training courses so they don't know how to teach. All they do is follow the

book. They never give us any opportunity to talk. How in the world do they expect us to learn?"

This can be compared with the comments of a Chinese student studying in Australia: "Australian teachers are very friendly but they often can't teach, very well. I never know where they're going - there's no system and I just get lost. Also, they're often badly trained and don't really have a thorough grasp of their subject."

Beliefs about language learning Students bring to the classroom very specific assumptions about how to learn a language and about the kinds of activities and approaches they believe to be useful. For example: The best way to learn a language is to mix with native speakers of the language. It is not useful to try and remember grammar rules. You need to practice every day to improve your English.

Language learners might value some language learning strategies which the teacher may try to discourage. For example, students from a culture where rote learning and memorization are widely used may think that these are useful strategies in learning English. However, their teacher may come from a culture where such strategies are not valued and may try to discourage their use by learners. **Beliefs about appropriate classroom behavior** Learners may have views about what constitutes appropriate classroom inter-action and classroom behavior. These beliefs may be culturally based and, at times, at odds with the teacher's beliefs. For example: It is not polite to ask the teacher a question during class time. You shouldn't leave the classroom until the teacher has dismissed the class. It's OK to get up and ask another student to help you when you need to. It's OK to copy another student's answers for a homework assignment. The last statement indicates that what might be considered cheating in one culture may have an entirely different value in another.

Beliefs about self Learners often have specific beliefs about their own abilities as language learners, as is seen in the following statements. "I'm not a good language learner. I can't pick up the language naturally. Remembering vocabulary is easy for me but I feel uncomfortable when I have to speak to a native speaker."

Learners' perceptions of their own strengths and weaknesses as language learners can influence the use they make of opportunities available for language learning and the priorities they set for themselves. Beliefs about goals Learners may have very different goals for language learning.

- I just want to be able to make myself understood.
- I'd like to be able to write well in English.
- I'm not interested in learning to read, only to speak.

For some learners, a native-like pronunciation may not be considered an important goal, since they will use English mainly to speak with other nonnative speakers of English. For other students, however, acquiring a native-like accent in English may be a high priority. Since learner beliefs are influenced by the social context of second language learning, there are often cultural differences between the belief systems of learners from different cultural backgrounds.

Just as teachers' belief systems influence how they go about teaching, learners' belief systems influence how they conceptualize learning and the way they interpret learning within the classroom context. I demonstrated in my study of first grade students in a reading class. I found that students had very different understandings of the nature and purpose of reading, and no single set of beliefs about reading was shared by all children. Six different beliefs about reading were held by the students in the class. These guided the way students approached reading during class time and influenced the kind of reading behaviors they used:

1. Reading is saying words correctly. For these children, the focus was on saying words aloud. They viewed reading as performance in calling out words.
2. Reading is schoolwork. For these children reading was just another obligatory assignment to be completed before moving on to some thing that they would really like to do. It was not normally something they would like to do on their own.
3. Reading is a source of status. That is, it was an activity to be announced and performed in front of others.
4. Reading is a way to learn things. For these children reading meant studying, and they chose to read materials that contained information.

5. Reading is a private pleasure. These children chose books that had personal meaning for them.

6. Reading is a social activity. For these students reading was a shared activity conducted collaboratively in pairs or groups. It was a source of pleasure with friends.

The first three definitions of reading were common among students in lower-ability reading groups, and the second three were expressed almost exclusively by children in higher-ability groups. They reflect a view of reading as “a personally meaningful activity. I also found that teachers unconsciously supported these different views of reading by the way they interacted with students during teaching. For example, although the teacher's approach with all reading groups incorporated all six beliefs, children in the lower groups received a heavier emphasis on word-based experiences. Similarly, instruction with the higher groups emphasized meaning, personalization, and sharing of information. The children “formed definitions of reading as they interpreted classroom reading experiences in light of their previous reading experiences with and understanding of reading.

Some of the views learners hold about language learning and language teaching can be related to differences of what is referred to as cognitive styles or learning style. Cognitive styles have been defined as characteristic cognitive and physiological behaviors that “serve as relatively stable Indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. Cognitive styles can hence be thought of as predispositions to particular ways of approaching learning and are intimately related to personality types. Differences in people's cognitive styles reflect the different ways people respond to learning situations. For example:

- Some people like to work independently, while others prefer working in a group.
- Some people like to spend a lot of time planning before they complete a task, while others spend little time planning and sort out problems that arise while they are completing a task.

- Some people can focus on only one task at a time, while others seem to be able to do several different tasks at once.
- Some people feel uncomfortable in situations where there is ambiguity or uncertainty, while others are able to handle situations
 - There is conflicting information and opinions.
- When solving problems, some people are willing to take risks and to make guesses without worrying about the possibility of being wrong, while others try to avoid situations where there is such a risk.
- Some people learn best, when they use visual cues and write notes to help them remember, while others learn better through auditory learning, without writing notes.

I suggest that differences of this kind reflect the cognitive styles of four different types of learners; who are characterized by the following learning styles.

Concrete learning Style. Learners with a concrete learning style use active and direct means of taking in and processing information. They are interested in information that has immediate value. They are curious, spontaneous, and willing to take risks. They like variety and a constant change of pace. They dislike routine learning and written work, and prefer verbal or visual experiences. They like to be entertained, and like to be physically involved in learning.

Analytical learning Style. Learners with an analytical style are independent, like to solve problems, and enjoy tracking down ideas and developing principles on their own. Such learners prefer a logical, systematic presentation of new learning material with opportunities for learners to follow up on their own. Analytical learners are serious, push themselves hard, and are vulnerable to failure.

Communicative learning Style. Learners with a communicative learning style prefer a social approach to learning. They need personal feedback and interaction, and learn well from discussion and group activities. They thrive in a democratically run class. **Authority-oriented learning style.** Learners with an authority oriented style are said to be responsible and dependable. They like and need structure and sequential progression. They relate well to a traditional

classroom. They prefer the teacher as an authority figure. They like to have clear instructions and to know exactly what they are doing; they are not comfortable with consensus-building discussion.

A large-scale study of adult ESL students sought to identify how these kinds of differences in cognitive styles affected learners' preferences in six different areas: preferences for particular kinds of classroom activities

- preferences for particular types of teacher behavior
- preferences for particular grouping arrangements
- preferences for particular aspects of language which need emphasis
- preferences for particular sensory modes, such as visual, auditory, or tactile learning
- preferences for particular modes of learning on one's own outside class.

It was found that differences in cognitive styles affected learners' preferences for particular approaches to learning. For example, concrete learners tended to choose the following:

- In class, I like to learn by games,
- In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.
- I like to learn English by working in pairs.

Learners with analytical learning styles, however, reported the following preferences:

- I like to study grammar.
- At home, I like to learn by studying English books.
- I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.

Information of this kind can help indicate whether teachers and learners approach learning in the same way. While it is not necessary to put learners into boxes labeled according to cognitive styles, it is useful to try to identify which approaches to learning they favor and how teaching can accommodate their learning preferences. It is also important to recognize that cognitive styles may reflect cultural factors. Willing, for example, investigated the cognitive style

preferences of different ethnic groups and found differences according to the learners' cultural backgrounds.

Whereas cognitive styles can be thought of as relatively stable characteristics of learners which affect their general approach to learning, learning strategies are the specific procedures learners use with individual learning tasks. When confronted with a classroom learning task, such as reading a chapter of a book or preparing a written summary of a passage, the learner can choose several different ways of completing the task. “An important aspect of teaching is to promote learners' awareness and control of effective learning strategies and discourage the use of ineffective ones”⁹.

Each of these choices or strategies offers particular advantages or disadvantages, and the use of an appropriate learning strategy can enhance success with the learning task. I define learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations”¹⁰. I suggest that language learning strategies have the following features:

- They contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
- They allow learners to become more self-directed.
- They expand the role of teachers.
- They are problem-oriented.
- They are specific actions taken by the learner.
- They involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
- They support learning both directly and indirectly.
- They are not always observable.
- They are often conscious.
- They can be taught.
- They are flexible.

⁹ Littlewood, W. 1986. *Communicative Language Teaching*.

¹⁰ Oxford, R. 1990. *Language learning strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. New York. Newbury House. pp.2-26.

- They are influenced by a variety of factors.

There are great amount of ongoing research into the nature of learning strategies and into identifying learning strategies that are effective for different purposes. I identify four general types of learning strategies:

- Memory strategies, which help students to store and retrieve information.
- Cognitive strategies, which enable learners to understand and produce new language.
- Compensative strategies, which allow learners to communicate despite deficiencies in their language knowledge.

§ 2.2.Individual and collaborative techniques in teacher development

One of the main reasons to pursue professional development is to be empowered to have the opportunity and the confidence to act upon your ideas as well as to influence the way you perform in your profession. Empowerment is the process through which teachers become capable of engaging in, sharing control of, and influencing events and institutions that affect their lives. As teachers, we have the capacity to empower ourselves if we keep in mind the following precepts;

- Be positive.
- Believe in what you are doing and in yourself.
- Be proactive, not reactive.
- Be assertive, not aggressive.

Feeling empowered can also manifest leadership skills- and teacher empowerment leads to improvement in student performance and attitude. To be an effective teacher requires a combination of professional knowledge and specialized skills as well as your own personal experiences and qualities, and adding to their knowledge base and acquiring new skills are among the main reasons teachers participate in professional development activities.”¹ For both a novice teacher and a veteran teacher, learning about new ideas and techniques in English language teaching can be motivating and encouraging. Many English language teaching experts believe that ongoing professional development is essential, especially in

today's world of constantly changing technology. Teachers of English who have been trained to use new techniques and resources are more inclined to cry them with their students.

Teachers all around the world face similar challenges due to the very nature of school environments. They teach their classes independently from their colleagues, which makes them feel isolated. Sometimes teachers, especially those¹¹ who are new to the field, can become overwhelmed by the demands to school bureaucracy, and if teachers do not receive regular supervision or feedback, they can become frustrated.

Professional development activities can alleviate some of these issues. Such activities can also bring together teachers who have development opportunities can take many forms. Some are individual or informal while other occasions are collective or structured. The most obvious professional development activity for an English teacher is reading journal articles about reaching English: reading journals (and maybe even writing an article for one) keeps you informed about new trends and research developments. However, in this article, I will focus on activities that are active and interactive and that often involve reflective teaching.

How can you decide which activity (or activities) best suits your needs and interests; What you need or want as a novice teacher may be completely different from what you might pursue after five years of teaching or after a decade or more in the classroom. Many of the suggestions in this article have similar experiences and interests. Just having the opportunity to share experiences and ideas with colleagues can help a teacher gain a sense of community and belonging.

Find professional development activities that suit you. Teacher been around for quite some time, but this article includes information about how some teachers actually put these ideas into practice; such information might help you decide which strategy or method best suits you and your teaching situation.

A myriad of definitions exists for reflective teaching; some describe individual practices while others explain what a group of like-minded teachers could do.

¹¹ Curtis and D. Nunan.2001. Pursuing professional development. Ontario, Canada.

”Many researchers believe that teachers can learn a great deal about the reasons behind their teaching philosophies and practices by examining their experiences and asking and answering questions about them”¹². No approach to reflective teaching is superior to another; in fact, language teachers can learn strategies from other academic disciplines. I see reflective practice as a fundamental part of . continuing professional development; it provides me with opportunities to analyze and ask questions about my objectives as well as to examine how I plan and what I teach include the following key characteristics in describing a teacher who engages in reflective teaching practices as someone who is able to identify, analyze, and attempt to solve problems that occur in the classroom; is conscious of and questions his or her beliefs about language teaching is cognizant of the institutional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches is responsible for his or her own professional development.

On an individual level, reflection can help a teacher develop a greater awareness of his or my own teaching as well as a better understanding of student learning. “Reflective teaching helps free teachers from impulsive behavior or, on the other attempt, from monotony in their teaching; it also allows teachers to develop their own educational perspectives”¹³.

Teachers can also benefit from sharing their reflective teaching experiences with their colleagues; some methods of sharing are informal while others tend to follow a specific framework. One way to take control of one's own learning is through cooperation with other teachers. “Collegial cooperation can help teachers become more assertive and decisive about their personal learning; it can also boost their confidence and empower them to find solutions to challenges they face in their teaching”¹⁴.

When teachers collaborate in reflective teaching practices, it is important to keep in mind that the most beneficial and effective approaches are the ones that give all

¹² Richards and Farrell. 2005. *The Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge

¹³ Zeichner, K. 1992. *Rethinking the practicum in the professional development*.

¹⁴ Charles Lockhart. 2005. *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classroom*. approach language teaching.

the participants, you and your partner(s), the chance to assess your teaching in a nonjudgmental and supportive manner. Probably the most difficult aspect of colleague collaboration is making a commitment to the method you decide to put into practice. Finding time in a busy teaching schedule is challenging, but such an experience can lead to added self-confidence and new inspiration in how you let's take a look at some activities and techniques that you can try out on your own and then perhaps use with colleagues and the English language teaching community at large.

Individual technique: Keep a teaching journal. Writing down observations and thoughts about your teaching is one way to gain insight about the how's and why's behind your teaching style as well as a means to document what goes on in your classroom. By keeping a journal, teachers can examine the details that indicate why a particular lesson was successful or why one was not. How likely are you to accurately remember the subtleties of what happened during a lesson a month, or even a week, later? The process of describing events, asking questions, and formulating hypotheses can reveal aspects of language teaching that further a teacher's own professional development.

There are many ways to keep a teaching journal. Some teachers consider the process of writing a journal to be informal and personal, a kind of private, professional diary. You might write about classroom activities, student-teacher interactions, and your feelings about a particular lesson how successful it was, what factors affected the lesson's success (or lack thereof), what you might do the next time you teach that lesson, how students' reaction to the lesson might influence how you proceed in the next class, and so on.

“It is important to identify a particular goal, or goals, to write about in your teaching journal”¹⁵. Getting in the habit of writing about your teaching may take time. In the beginning, it may be difficult to write freely (without editing yourself), but give yourself time to get used to keeping a teaching journal. With a little bit of patience, as well as the determination to write in your journal on a regular basis,

¹⁵ Farrell. 1998. Being Teacher Evaluation Study.

you will begin to see patterns not only in your journal entries but also in your teaching. Writing down questions and ideas to think about later can help you direct your focus on the goal you wish to achieve. I have been keeping a teaching journal for over six years. At first it was difficult for me to figure out what I wanted to learn about myself and my teaching until I remembered to start out with a simple objective. I decided to concentrate on how I interacted with one particular group of students and how they interacted amongst themselves over a two-month period. I found that I did not have time to make entries immediately when the class ended, so I began jotting down a few key words and phrases in a small notebook (used only for journaling), which I then used as a starting point. I expanded these notes into a brief narrative and usually ended each summary with question (e.g., How can I reduce my teacher talk time?) or a suggestion for myself (e.g., Remind students to review and use our rules for negotiating).

By the end of the two months, I was surprised to realize how much insight I gained from my journal entries. I discovered procedural patterns in the way I managed student group work. I noticed that I did not always check to see whether students understood instructions before they began a class assignment; I corrected this oversight once I realized how much more productive and creative I students were when I gave directions both orally and in written form. What impressed me the most was how the journal writing process helped me reconsider classroom interactions, which led me to change my techniques to some extent, not only with the selected class but with others as well. I continued to write about my selected class until the end of the term. My entries provided me with new questions that I wanted to concentrate on.

Collaborative technique: Share journals. The usefulness of keeping a journal increases when a teacher shares journal entries with a colleague or group of colleagues. This technique allows teachers to compare their experiences and to comment on solutions to problems and point out successful parts of a lesson that they might try with their own classes. In responding to journal entries, teachers can ask each other questions and offer suggestions.

When writing responses to someone else's journal entries, colleagues must keep in mind what the get to tip objective is why are we writing collaborative journals' How teachers respond can vary; possibilities include offering encouragement, commenting on classroom management issues, giving specific answers to queries, or asking questions to help the writer stay on task. Collaborative journals can also be an effective tool to help novice teachers gain insight from their more experienced colleagues, removing some of the anxiety or trepidation that the new teachers might feel.

While conducting weeklong seminars for Senegalese English teachers, my fellow trainers and I introduced the concept of collaborative journals. For a group of part-time teachers, we explained the concept and the procedure; then we asked the teachers to write down their thoughts about an idea or activity from the day's sessions that they might try with their own classes. We collected the journals and wrote comments that consisted mostly of words of encouragement and helpful questions. Occasionally we would elaborate on how an activity mentioned in a journal could be adapted to a Senegalese context. We repeated the process each day, modeling how this technique could be used with like-minded and motivated colleagues and how it could be an effective tool for teachers to use to build up their students' writing abilities and levels of confidence in a supportive way.

While working with teacher trainers who were already familiar with the notion of collaborative journals, we asked the group to comment in their notebooks on how they could put into practice one aspect of the training. We then collected the journals and redistributed them so that one of the other teacher trainers would respond to that day's entry. The participants found the collaborative journal exchange to be an enlightening experience because it gave them the chance to find out what their colleagues were learning from the sessions and to make comments in a supportive way.

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Individual technique: Analyze a critical incident. One effective means of reflective inquiry is to analyze an unexpected event that happens during a class. Such analysis usually involves the teacher writing down a description of what occurred and then considering why it happened and how it might affect future learning and reaching interactions. A critical incident can refer to a positive or negative classroom event, but what makes it critical is how that particular incident caused

¹⁶ Harmer, J. 1991. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London; Longman.

you 10 pause, think about it, and review how it relates to your beliefs and perceptions about teaching. This type of analysis can help you decide how to modify your teaching style or behavior, which can improve your teaching performance in similar situations in the future. The examination of a critical incident can be done individually or collectively, and often the analysis is a component of journal writing or discussion groups.

Let me share an experience I had as a teacher trainer that led me to step back and analyze a situation in my classroom. I was conducting my first workshop in a two-week training course with forty Burmese teachers of English in Mandalay and had decided to have the teachers work in small groups. I randomly divided the teachers into groups of four or five to complete a task related to my presentation on teaching oral skills. I instructed the groups to each create a mini-lesson to present to the rest of the teachers, who would then critique it and offer constructive criticism. I thought that everyone understood the objectives of the activity and what my expectations were, so I was perplexed when most of the groups basically copied the model lesson plan without considering how they might adapt it to use in their own classes. When I asked one of the groups why they had completed the task in such a way, 2 teacher replied, Well, what you presented works best. We could not improve on it.

That evening as I made notes for the next day's lesson, I decided to write out a description of what had occurred and to try to answer the following questions objectively:

What happened before the teachers began the assignment? How did I present the assignment? What were the results? What factors may have contributed to the outcome? What was my reaction at the time of the incident? After reviewing the incident, how might I change how I presented the information as well as my reaction?

By writing down my impressions, I realized that I had not considered the teachers' cultural imperative to not criticize the expert (me) and the importance of polite agreement in this context. I also recognized that I had not thoroughly prepared the teachers to complete the task I had given them.

I decided to begin the next session by encouraging the teachers to share their experiences and to view each other as resources. I also provided the teacher with a template and a list of possible topics and scenarios for the activity; this allowed them to be more invested in the activity. Once the teachers understood that I valued their perspective and cultural sensitivity and that I wanted them to use these resources to modify the model lesson, they enthusiastically began discussing what changes they might make. Through analyzing what had happened that first day, I was able to modify the sessions that followed; that proved to be beneficial not only to the teachers but to me as well.

Collaborative techniques: Try peer mentoring and coaching. Peer mentoring and peer coaching are two techniques that are useful for teachers who have not spent much time (in the English language classroom) on the other side of the desk. But these techniques can also motivate experienced teachers to reflect on and refine their own teaching strategies and practices. Both methods should be seen as collaborative endeavors that improve a particular aspect of teaching. They also can be used to introduce a new policy or procedure and to explain how to implement it within a given classroom context.

In peer mentoring, a novice teacher is generally paired with an experienced one. "The goals behind peer mentoring include giving new instructors individualized attention and encouragement and, at the same time, strengthening their teaching skills."¹⁷ Although one of the participants usually is more skilled and knowledgeable than the other, mentoring is not meant to be used to critique or evaluate; instead, it provides an opportunity to focus on individual teachers, provide support, share knowledge and experience, and answer questions.

My first experience with peer coaching occurred at college when a colleague

¹⁷ Bartlett, L. 1990. *Teacher Development Through Reflective Teaching*. New York: Cambridge.

and I were assigned to redesign and combine the listening course I taught and the speaking course that that teacher had been teaching for several semesters. We met to discuss how best to integrate the materials, selecting activities that already reflected both skills and deciding which ones we could revise or omit. We divided up the lessons that needed revision and developed preliminary drafts for each. We then decided to try out the new materials with our students; one of us would teach the module while the other observed the class and took notes. Afterwards, we discussed what had worked and what we might consider changing, and he and I found the peer coaching experience to be both professionally and personally rewarding, and the head of the department was pleased with the final product.

Collaborative technique: Form a teacher support group. One type of teacher support group is a study group, also known as a study circle. A study group is a group of teachers who meet regularly to discuss a particular aspect or issue related to their teaching. The number of participants can range from three to fifteen. The meetings are structured and have an agenda to follow, and each teacher takes a turn as the facilitator of a meeting. However, the meetings are informal and collegial, with everyone participating in the dialogue. Such meetings are not the same as workshops; no one teacher is “the expert”, and the goal is to learn together about a specific aspect of their teaching strategies and practices. Between meetings, the group reads materials related to the issue to be discussed at the next session. A study group can also be conducted online if that is more convenient and the technology is available.

In Uzbekistan UzTEA (Uzbekistan Teachers of Association) was found. Teachers gather in a week or a month and form a study group to find out what their students perceived to be their needs and goals in learning English. The group first met to discuss what they wanted to focus on and agreed on the format that they would use to conduct the meetings. The teachers agreed to meet once a week for six months and chose a time that best suited their busy schedules. The group then designed a short questionnaire, and each teacher had two classes or students complete the forms. Together the teachers reviewed the results, which showed that the majority

of students planned to go to a university or training institute after high school. Most of the students surveyed also believed that they would need English, no matter what their plans were for the future. This finding led the study group to focus on how the teachers could bring the real world into the classroom and how they could prepare their students to become independent, self-directed learners of English. During their meetings, the teachers discussed how they could design lesson plans that integrated skills and were relevant to their students' interests. Teachers shared lesson plans with the rest of the group, and together they revised and improved the plans.

Most of the teachers who participated in this study group found the experience to be a positive one. They especially liked learning from and interacting with one another; they realized the strong correlation between the group's discussions and practical classroom applications, and they valued having a non-threatening environment for collaboration. The group plans to continue meeting regularly, inviting other English teaching colleagues to join them.

Collaborative technique: Join a teacher support network. Support networks are similar to teacher support groups yet differ in that they usually include teachers from, several schools in the same community or region. Some support networks rotate schools where meetings are held while others meet at a neutral venue that is not affiliated with any specific school. How a support network operates depends on the goals of the group, but fundamental basics such as membership, size, organization, meeting time, and venue should also be considered.

Sometimes it is beneficial to begin a supportive network at a grassroots level. In Nouakchott, Mauritania, a motivated group of about forty teachers of English from both the private and public sectors decided to meet informally on a monthly basis to share ideas and experiences. I have included this particular group under teacher support networks (instead of teachers' associations) because the teachers decided that they first wished to identify English teachers who were interested in attending meetings regularly before attempting to register the group as an official association. The group posted this description on its website.

UzTEA (Uzbekistan Teachers of Association) work for teachers of English in Uzbekistan. The association is open to all teachers of English and welcomes everyone, including private tutors, public school teachers, higher education professors, ministerial inspectors, and instructors from private centers. UzTEA functions as an organization to facilitate communication and contact between English teachers throughout the country by holding monthly meetings, sharing methodology and publications, hosting conferences, and communicating via website and email.

UzTEA meetings follow the same format each month: announcements, updating of the contact list, selection of next month's volunteers, ice breaker, teaching point, and distribution of miscellaneous materials. The feedback from the meetings has been overwhelmingly positive; for many of the teachers, this is their only chance to feel connected to their English teaching colleagues and to have an opportunity to improve their own English skills and teaching practices.

Collaborative technique: Form or join local and national teachers' associations. Joining an official teachers' association is another means of pursuing professional development. Often such associations began as support networks whose active members decided to give their group an organizational framework. As stated on UzTEA's website, the main objective of the association has been to offer English language teachers "an alternative developmental framework through exchanges, organization of professional events, and a profound sense of belonging and worldwide collaboration through affiliation to other international professional organizations. UzTEA members have gained recognition and support at both national and international levels by developing professional relationships with several organizations.

Collaborative technique: Urge your association to connect with other associations. Sharing ideas and experiences with other teachers in the same geographical region can be mutually beneficial. First, members or established teacher organizations can offer invaluable advice to colleagues in neighboring countries who want to establish a similar organization. Members of the established organization can

provide valuable information about what steps lead to the formation of a successful association as well what obstacles exist and how to overcome them; the “new-comers” can decide which tactics might work best for their group in their particular context. Their experienced neighbors can also gain from this kind of dialogue; recounting the evolution of their association could lead to reflective inquiry, resulting in reassessment as well as opportunities for discussion and improvement, encouraged the group to start small and to create an all-inclusive environment by inviting both experienced and new teachers to participate in their activities.

Collaborative technique: Become active in an international professional association. Joining an international professional association is another way to connect with colleagues and pursue personal goals for professional development. The benefits to becoming a member of an international organization include receiving regular newsletters, being a part of interest groups that focus on teaching topics and issues that concern you, and having the opportunity to share and learn from other like-minded individuals.

Collaborative techniques: Participate in workshops and conferences. One professional development activity that most teachers have experienced during their teaching careers is participation in a workshop. You may have done this while training to become a teacher of English, or perhaps your school administrator or the regional inspector for English teachers organized a seminar on a topic of interest. At workshops the presenter is typically someone knowledgeable about the subject being addressed; you yourself might have led a workshop.

The purpose of a workshop is to provide teachers with the opportunity to learn more about a specific area or skill related to teaching and learning (in this case, English language) within a set amount of time. Workshops are designed to give participants a chance to try out practical applications about the topic being presented and to contemplate how they might utilize or adapt elements of the activity for use in their own classrooms. I have both presented at and participated in successful and unsuccessful workshops; the ones that were successful were carefully planned and were about a topic that was relevant and interesting to the

attendees. Effective workshops are ones that highlight a particular teaching point or strategy and make it relevant to the context of the participants.

Participating in conferences is an excellent way for teachers to gain confidence and demonstrate their expertise. For teachers who have never presented at a conference, probably the best advice is to start small and attend a local conference that focuses on short presentations on successful practices in the classroom; several teachers can present an activity that has been effective with their students. After gaining experience at a local conference, teachers may feel empowered to go on to a larger conference. The first time at a large conference, you might want to present together with colleagues from your study group or support network. Or you could present a poster session that spotlights an activity or aspect of teaching that would be of interest to other teachers of English.

Participating in conferences benefits teachers because it motivates them to try new techniques or find solutions to recurring problems in the classroom. Conferences can provide teachers with information and strategies to create new policies or make changes in curriculum. Conference participation also enables teachers to develop long-lasting professional and personal contacts in the English teaching community. Lastly, participating in a conference can empower teachers to be leaders. When they return from a conference, they can teach their colleagues what they learned there and lead those colleagues to adopt new and helpful teaching practices.

Action and reflection (praxis) to be effective, professional development opportunities have to be rooted in practices that give adults the chance to reflect on what they do and then modify their actions, if they deem it necessary. Organizational setting professional development programs need the support of the institution, not only with funding but, more importantly, with a commitment to helping develop and sustain programs for teachers.

Choice and change. Adults learn best when given the chance to make their own choices and to change them if they are not successful. This requires a differentiated approach to professional development one that offers a range of options. Adults engage in learning when they see that a specific learning opportunity can help them

cope better with their everyday lives. Motivation to engage in professional development will depend mostly on the perceived benefits it offers. It is therefore fundamental that professional development initiatives take into account the concerns expressed by teachers.

A one-size-fits-all approach to professional development can result in teacher frustration, but when teachers are given the chance to actively participate in the planning and implementation of the programs, the results can be impressive.

Three kinds of adult learners participate in professional development. The first kind are goal-oriented participants, those individuals who use education to accomplish fairly dear objectives, and who choose to continue education in episodes, each beginning with the perception of a new need. The second kind are activity-oriented participants, those who take part in educational processes because they experience pleasure in the participation as well as in the content or purpose of the activity. We could call these people “joiners”. Last, there are those participants who are learning-oriented, those who seek knowledge for its own sake. Unlike others, these adults have been engrossed in learning and are likely to continue to be engaged in learning as long as they live and solving the problems stemming from our daily lives. Teachers progress along five distinct moments or cycles in their careers.

Phase 1: Exploration and stabilization. Their first phase teachers go through upon entering the profession is exploration and stabilization. The theoretical knowledge gained during teacher education as well as more informal knowledge gained through the apprenticeship of observation is confronted with the reality of the classroom. Professionals at this stage seek balance and stability and tend to develop resources for teaching in order to confront the multitude of problems arising from interaction with students, colleagues, administrators, and the wider school community. Typical teacher thinking at this stage focuses mostly on getting the teaching part right and sometimes overlooks student learning. However, once teachers have found the resources that help them cope with classroom and school situations on a daily basis, they move on to the second career phase.

Phase 2. Commitment. Once they know what to expect from die school environment, teachers begin to focus on improving student learning. The crisis to be resolved at this stage is providing quality teaching that will result in quality learning.

Phase 3. Diversification and crisis. During the third phase, teachers tend to question their role. It is at this stage when most teachers begin considering career moves, for example, moving into administration or possibly leaving teaching altogether. The crisis at this stage is an identity crisis. Teachers ask themselves whether they want to keep doing what they are doing for the rest of their lives. Hence, teacher support seems to be particularly important at this stage.

Phase 4. Serenity and distancing. The fourth career stage may come in one of two forms. If teachers are satisfied with their career choice, they may become settled in the position of their choice and will generally find renewed energy to pursue even better student learning. However, if for any reason teachers fail to fulfill their dream, a distancing may occur, Professionals who distance themselves from teaching are likely to comply with school regulations, but will not really pursue improvement in their teaching. These teachers need incentives to help diem find new meaning in what they do.

Phase 5. Conservatism and regret. Finally, and towards retirement, one of two crises may happen. Some teachers become extremely conservative in their ways, thus perpetuating a model of teaching that is comfortable for them but not necessarily effective for student learning. Other teachers regret the fact that they will have to retire. This kind or teacher still feels the joy of teaching and can be a powerful motivator within the educational community.

In their work on mentoring. Furlong and Maynard propose chat as teachers progress through different phases in their development, different approaches can be used to support that development. These authors suggest using an apprenticeship model to professional development, that is, learning from an expert, during the initial career stages or until teachers have developed an individual teaching style. This approach allows the development of concepts and frameworks about teaching

and learning and helps teachers learn “how to see”. One potential pitfall of this model is that, in emulating models, teachers may be cloned into the teaching style of the model, thus failing to develop their own style.

To help teachers overcome a potential plateau, which is likely to occur if they become weary of their performance, I suggest using a competency-based model of professional development. This model helps teachers set short- and long-term goals for growth in the more technical aspects of the profession, such as incorporating new teaching skills into their repertoire. Teachers learn “how to do” with this model. However, a hidden danger is that teachers who are unable to perform at the desired level may become frustrated, particularly if they don't understand the specific teaching behaviors to be adopted.

I also propose a third model of professional development, one that incorporates a strong reflective stance reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action. The emphasis of this model is on learning to be' and the idea that reflection should not be limited to later stages of career development, but rather should be a component of all professional development programs,

If we define reflection as an active process of education that leads to action, then it goes without saying that it should be incorporated at every stage of the career cycle. In order to put forward the idea of reflective modes of professional development, we turn now to a description of various options for professional development as they relate to career stages and the principles of adult learning cited above.

The six approaches described below can serve different purposes at different stages of a teachers career. In selecting these options for professional development, special attention has been paid to the possibility of their being adopted in a variety of situations. Most of the models below require funding or investment in additional resources; however, they all require time. Time then becomes a key factor in the success of these programs.

Another key feature shared by all these options is their emphasis on a collaborative relationship in which trust is a key element. Trust needs to be built,

and in order to do so confidentiality is paramount. Nolan and Hoover clearly state...partners agree to work together as colleagues.,, leadership is shared and roles are blended and exchanged freely... this is a voluntary relationship with mutual vulnerability and shared power.... Shared responsibility, trust and mutual vulnerability are three important characteristics of colleague relationships.¹ In discussing their approach to professional development, Costa state that “Learning cannot occur without a foundation of trust. To this end, the colleague, or teacher, controls die agenda.

The six models that appear below are focused on the enhancement of teachers' personal and professional situations. In all cases, interventions and collaborations are intended to be nonjudgmental, and the agenda is decided by die participants.

Teacher evaluation is not and cannot be an integral component of these models. Evaluation undermines crust and establishes a hierarchy of power. Evaluation is a process separate from that of development in its focus and scope. Hence, the models outlined below will deal with evaluative forms of teacher development.

Option 1: Conference plan. Many teaching professionals attend conferences, seminars, or courses as a pan of their teacher development, Most of the decisions about which events to attend can be made by teachers, although sometimes, if funding comes from institutional sources, attendance is mandatory and teachers¹⁸ can exercise little choice. In either situation, the mere fact of attending the event will not necessarily result in an enhancement of die professional. Many of these events are chaotic, overcrowded, and hectic; participants find it hard to focus on development goals while running from one session to another. A conference plan can help participants focus during and after the event, and it may result in better self-directed learning.

Before the conference starts, teachers set personal goals about what they expect to gain from the event. These goals are set individually or in consultation with peer coaches or administrators, and their aim is to aid reflection on the reasons for attending the event. Teachers build their individual agendas for the event and fol-

¹⁸ Costa and Garmstin.1998. Research on Teacher Development

low them during attendance. Upon completion of the event, teachers implement actions in the classroom, reflect upon these, and finally share them with other colleagues.

There are a number of variations participants can make in developing their conference plan. They may choose to implement a new teaching procedure, they may opt for writing a journal article, or they may contribute to the institution's newsletter or Web page. In short, conference plans allow participants hi professional development events to become self-directed, active, and focused, and to find opportunities for growth even in events that do not necessarily suit their particular needs.

This option for professional development is particularly suited to professionals who are in need of incentives to renew their commitment to their careers. It is also a useful and safe way for novices to explore new ideas and techniques.

Option 2: Peer coaching. Peer coaching can be defined as a voluntary process of observing teaching then sharing perspectives and advice based on that observation. In order to become involved in this process, participants need adequate training in coaching and the skills necessary to help establish confidentiality and trust. Most peer coaching models are based on the three-part clinical supervision framework. Peer coaching incorporates die three phases in the following way:

Phase 1: Pre- conference. This conference is carried out before the class observation. Its purpose is to clarify goals and specify success indicators and processes for self-assessment. The teacher, who controls the agenda, will specify for the coach a clear focus for observation, that is, what and how to observe. One of the benefits of the pre-conference is that in walking the coach through the lesson plan, the teacher is actually rehearsing the class. During this rehearsal, teachers can develop insights that help them perform better without external direction.

Phase 2: Observation. While the teacher teaches the lesson, the coach will collect data to be analyzed later. It is fundamental that the coach collect only the data that the teacher has requested and use only the data collection instruments agreed upon in the p re-conference. The teacher should make clear to the students why the

coach is in the classroom. Coaches should sit where they can get a good view of the students and the teacher. In traditional supervisory practices, observers tend to sit at the back of the room, thus missing some of the critical action in the classroom, such as students' facial expressions and eye contact between teacher and students. Upon finishing the lesson, the teacher and the coach give each other time to reflect on the experience.

Phase 3: Non- conference. After some time has elapsed, teacher and coach get together to analyze the data collected during observation. This post-conference can take three different formats along a continuum ranging from teacher control to coach control. At the teacher-control end, we find mirroring coaching in which the coach gives the data to the teacher, who in turn analyzes it without the presence of the coach. At the other end of the coaching continuum we have expert coaching in which the coach acts as an expert, analyzing the data collected and giving suggestions to the teacher. Between the two ends we find collaborative coaching in which the coach takes an active role in helping the teacher reflect on the data. The teacher keeps control over the agenda and the coach refrains from giving advice unless the teacher specifically asks for it. In this coaching format, the agenda is set by the teacher and reflection is limited to the data collected and the methods used to collect it.

Peer coaching adapts itself to different career stages and is congruent with adult learning principles. Mirroring coaching can be best used by teachers who are interested in exploring the effectiveness of their own practice or incorporating new methods and Techniques into their teaching repertoire. Expert coaching is ideally suited for novices, marginal teachers, or teachers seeking outside help to overcome a professional plateau. Collaborative coaching, with its emphasis on collegiality, can become a mutually beneficial process.

Option 3. Action –research. Action research is practitioner research aimed at improving one's own practice. Action research is a small scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such an intervention. When engaging in action research, teachers formally ask questions

about issues that concern them, refine those questions in light of the contextual constraints in their teaching situation, develop an action plan to answer those questions, implement the plan, and reflect on the results.

The importance of posing the right questions cannot be overstated. I suggest that teachers ask themselves five key questions:

- What am I doing?
- Why am I doing it in this way?
- What impact is it having on learners?
- How might I do things differently?
- If I did things differently, what impact might it have on learners?

These questions can be a helpful way to start an inquiry into one's own practice. Topics for action research can include issues pertaining to the learners, the teacher's beliefs, the curriculum, teaching methods, or the school/organization.

Action research is a powerful development tool for professionals who are exploring their role and their effectiveness. Given the contextual nature of action research, the results will not be readily generalizable, but they can help teachers understand what impact their actions have on learners and can renew their interest in the profession.

Option 5: Collaborative study group. Collaborative study groups are small groups (not more than 10 participants) of colleagues who get together on a regular, long-term basis (at least once a month for an academic year) to explore issues of teaching and learning. In so doing, they support each other at the personal and professional levels and create new learning opportunities from within the profession.

“Leadership in collaborative study groups is shared. Even though the group as a whole decides on the agenda, participants take turns chairing the meetings.”¹ Every session has a predetermined schedule, and three participants play the following key roles.

The rotation of the key roles allows all members of the group to have the same opportunities for leadership. These roles also keep the groups productive and on

task, thus maximizing time and effort. Most collaborative study groups choose to focus their discussions on students' learning and teacher effectiveness. In order to achieve these goals, they work from an agenda that incorporates a collaborative analysis of teaching or learning artifacts.

Collaborative study groups have enormous potential for mid-career professionals who need time and space to reflect on their practices and who are willing to disclose their own practice to the appraisal of others. This option is also suitable for groups of striving teachers who need mutual support in order to progress. In this latter case, it is suggested that 3 facilitator external to die group be appointed. This facilitator will have expanded functions and serve as an academic advisor to the group as well,

Option 5. Individul development plan. An individual development plan is a structured series of actions aimed at enhancing teacher performance. It should include clear goals and objectives, a schedule of activities for the academic term. ¹ Chisman, F.P., and J.A.. Crandal.2007. Handbook of Research on Teaching.

III. TEACHER SUPERVISION. MOVING TOWARDS ON INTERACTIVE APPROACH

§ 3.1. The nature of Language Learning activities and Language Use in the Classroom

The nature of Language Learning activities examine lessons in terms of the activities teachers use to achieve their instructional goals. An activity is described as a task that has been selected to achieve a particular teaching/learning goal. Research on teaching suggests that the notion of activity is central to an understanding of teaching. It influences both how teachers conceptualize teaching as well as the ways they organize their lessons. In the following the kinds of activities commonly used in ESL classes are described and the decisions that teachers have to consider when planning and using activities are discussed.

Lesson planning usually begins with consideration of general goals for a lesson, and then leads to decisions about the kinds of activities which will help attain these goals. Rather than breaking down the goals into behavioral objectives and then developing activities to match objectives, however, teachers often develop objectives as they plan specific teaching activities. It is while developing activities themselves that consideration of objectives becomes important, for this is where ends for learning become integrated with means for learning. Activities are, hence, the basic structural units of planning and action in the classroom¹ similarly observes:

Teachers tend to see lessons or units of work as the basic building blocks of their program. These lessons and units in turn are composed of sets of more or less integrated tasks and manipulative exercises of various sorts. The teacher's immediate preoccupation is thus with learning tasks and with integrating these into lessons or units.

The nature of language learning activities will now be examined in detail. Language teachers use many different kinds of approaches to teaching¹⁹, depending on their assumptions and beliefs about how students learn and on the kind of

¹⁹ Clark, C.M., and Yinger, R.J. 1979. Teachers' thinking. Berkeley.

methodology that they believe best supports this learning process. For example, in lessons based on a Situational Language Teaching approach, the sequence of classroom activities moves from presentation to controlled practice to free practice. In a Process Writing approach, activities move from pre-writing to drafting to revising. In skills classes, teachers often choose activities that support specific sub skills or micro-skills, as is seen in the following two lesson plans:

Lesson Plan #1

Class: Intermediate Reading/Writing Week 6

Aims: to practice reading strategies to practice summary writing

Resources: newspaper article on global changes in the weather; worksheet of comprehension questions

Activities:

- 1) Write headline of article on board. Students work in groups to predict four things the article might mention.
- 2) Distribute copies of the article. Students read within a five-minute period to identify the five main points of the article.
- 3) Students compare answers.
- 4) Students read the article again and answer comprehension questions on the worksheet.
- 5) Students compare answers.
- 6) Students write a two-paragraph summary of the article.

Lesson Plan #2

Class: Upper Intermediate Listening

Aims: to practice listening to an authentic news broadcast and to get key information from it

Activities:

- 1) Ask students to work in groups and list five important events in the news in the last week. Groups share information.
- 2) Groups share information.
- 3) Play the tape. Students decide if any of the events they mentioned are talked

about on the tape. Distribute the worksheet, which lists three topics and a set of questions. Students listen for answers to the questions.

4) Students compare their answers in groups. Play the tape again. Discuss problems students had with any words or expressions on the tape.

5) Students compare their answers in groups.

In lesson plan #1, the reading lesson, the teacher divides the lesson into six activities which focus on prediction, reading for global comprehension, reading for detailed comprehension, giving and getting feedback, and summarizing. In lesson plan #2, the listening lesson, the teacher similarly divides the lesson into six activities which focus on gathering background information, listening for key words, listening for specific information, giving and getting feedback, and diagnosing listening difficulties. Despite the many kinds of activities which teachers use in language teaching, a limited number of activity types tend to recur no matter what kind of approach or methodology the teacher is using. These activity types can be classified according to the following categories. Presentation activities. These are tasks in which new learning material is presented for the first time. A presentation activity serves to introduce and clarify a new learning item. This could be a lexical item, a grammatical item, a function, a discourse feature, or a learning strategy. For example, a teacher may present patterns withif clauses using a chart or table as the first activity in a grammar lesson. Not all lessons include a presentation activity. For example, in the listening lesson plan there is no direct presentation of the strategies. A different lesson plan for the same lesson might have included the teacher first talking about listening strategies and which strategies to use when listening to a news broadcast. Practice activities. These are defined as tasks which involve performance or learning of an item that has been previously presented. Practice activities in language teaching often involve a degree of control over student performance or involve the use of a model. For example, in u conversation lesson, dialogues may be used to practice sentence patterns, grammar, or functions, and drills may be used to practice pronunciation

and to develop sentence fluency. In the reading lesson plan, most of the lesson is devoted to activities which practice reading skills.

Memorization activities. These tasks involve memorization of information or learning material. Memorization activities may be used as the strategy to help consolidate new learning items or as preparation for a subsequent activity. For example, students may be asked to memorize a list of vocabulary which they will later use in a speaking task. While traditional approaches to language teaching made extensive use of memorization activities, contemporary approaches tend to discourage memorization in favor of activities which promote more creative uses of language.

Comprehension activities. These tasks require students to develop or demonstrate their understanding of written or spoken texts. Comprehension activities may address different levels of comprehension, including literal comprehension (understanding meanings stated explicitly in a text), inferential comprehension (drawing conclusions and making predictions based on information in the text), and evaluation (making judgments about the content of a text based on personal or other values). For example, students may read a passage and make inferences about the author's attitude toward the topic or listen to a lecture and write a summary of it. Several activities in the reading and listening classes above focus on comprehension skills.

Application activities. These are defined as tasks which require learners to use in a creative way knowledge or skills that have been previously presented and practiced. Application activities may require students to integrate knowledge and skills acquired from different sources, to apply learned items to a new context or situation, or to personalize learning items through relating them to their own ideas, needs, feelings, and experiences. For example, after having practiced a dialogue in which certain sentence patterns or functions were used, students may now perform a role play in which they have to use the patterns and functions creatively in a situation, involving transfer and negotiation of meaning. An application activity in a writing class might represent the final stage in a sequence of activities in which

students first read an essay where certain rhetorical forms are used (presentation), do a set of exercises to practice using different rhetorical and discourse devices in paragraphs (practice), and then complete a written assignment incorporating the rhetorical and discourse devices using ideas and information of their own.

Strategy activities. These tasks develop particular learning strategies and approaches to learning. For example, in order to improve learners' use of systematic guessing when encountering new vocabulary in a reading text, learners may be given exercises which train them to focus on suffixes, prefixes, and word order as useful linguistic clues for guessing the meanings of new words in a text. In listening, learners may be trained to use clues in the situation to help understand meanings. This could involve, for example, making predictions based on the setting, on the roles of the people involved in the interaction, and on the people's intentions and purposes. In the reading lesson (lesson plan #1), the first activity, which involved making predictions based on the headline of a newspaper article, was designed to develop the strategy of using predictions to guide one's reading.

Affective activities. These include tasks which have no specific language learning goal but are intended to improve the motivational climate of the classroom and to develop the students' interest, confidence, and positive attitudes toward learning. For example, in a foreign language class, students may keep a journal in which they write about their feelings, fears, and satisfactions in relation to the experiences they have in the class. They may share these both with their classmates and the teacher, and attempt to resolve concerns as they arise.

Feedback activities. These tasks are used to give feedback on learning or on some aspect of performance on the activity. For example, in a writing lesson, after completing a first draft of their assignment, students may work in pairs to read each other's assignments and provide suggestions for improvement. This feedback may address content, organization, or clarity of expression, and serves to provide information that may be useful to the student when revising the piece of writing. In the listening lesson (lesson plan #2), the teacher used a feedback activity when

playing the tape at the end of the lesson and discussed problems students had with any words or expressions on the tape.

Assessment activities. These tasks enable the teacher or learner to evaluate the extent to which the goals of an activity or lesson have been successfully accomplished. These activities may be used to diagnose areas which need further teaching or to evaluate student performance. Tests of different kinds are common examples of assessment activities; however, most classroom activities can also be used for assessment if they are used to determine how much students have learned rather than as a presentation, practice, or an application activity.

This classification is intended to help focus on the relationship between activity types and the purposes for which they are used in language teaching. Such a classification cannot be regarded as definitive, since some activities can be used for several different purposes, and distinctions between activity types can overlap. However, such a list can be useful in trying to clarify what it is that teachers do when they teach and why they select the kind of classroom activities that they commonly use. Ideally the activities selected by the teacher are appropriate to the purposes for which they are intended, but sometimes there is a mismatch between activities and purposes, as in the following examples taken from a supervisor's comments on two student teachers' lessons:

In your reading class, your reported goals were to develop fluency in reading and to develop good reading habits, including reading for main ideas and keeping the purpose of the passage in mind while reading. This should involve a top-down approach to reading, i.e., one in which the reader is encouraged to use background information, prediction, and context while reading, rather than to use a word-by-word reading strategy. However, you use reading aloud as a regular classroom activity. There is a conflict here between teaching goals and the activity used to support these goals, since reading aloud requires students to focus on the form of a text rather than its meaning and to give every word in the text equal importance.

You report that your goals in your writing class are to develop fluency in writing and to develop the student's ability to use drafting and revision skills when writing.

However, the classroom activities you most commonly use involve copying and making minor changes to model paragraphs and compositions and sentence-based exercises which give students little opportunity for drafting and revision. In selecting and designing classroom activities to accomplish specific teaching and learning goals, a number of issues have to be resolved. These relate to the following dimensions of activities: purpose, procedures, sequencing, complexity, resources, grouping, strategies, language, timing, outcomes, and assessment.

How will the purposes of an activity be communicated to the Students? A number of options are available in introducing the purposes of an activity. For example, the teacher may ask students to begin an activity without explaining its purpose, or the teacher may decide to explain why he or she is using a particular activity. Some activities are very familiar to students, and teachers often assign them without explaining what their purpose is. Dictation, group discussion, and oral drills are examples of such activities. At other times the teacher may choose a particular strategy to communicate the goals of an activity or to introduce the activity. Such strategies include:

- Saying that students will enjoy the activity.
- Saying that students will benefit from the activity.
- Describing what students will learn from the activity.
- Saying how the activity will prepare students for a test.
- Saying how the activity relates to previous or later learning.
- Asking students to do the activity and, after they have completed it, asking them what they thought the purpose of the activity was.

What procedures will students use in completing an activity? For most classroom activities a number of options are available. For example, if students are asked to write a short composition, should they gather information and take notes and then prepare a first draft, or should they go straight into a first draft? When reading a magazine article, should they preview the article first by skimming through it quickly, or should they begin by reading the article carefully? The extent to which students are clear on the procedures they are to use in carrying out an activity will

affect both how quickly they understand the dimensions of the activity and the effectiveness with which they complete it. Strategies used to communicate procedures for completing an activity include:

- Describing the procedures the students should use.
- Demonstrating the procedures in front of the class.
- Selecting a student to demonstrate the procedure.

What kinds of demands does the activity make on learners? I identify four dimensions of task complexity -risk, ambiguity, knowledge, and procedure.

Risk: Low-risk tasks are those with which students are relatively familiar; they know what is expected of them.

Ambiguity: Ambiguous tasks are those in which there is no single, straightforward interpretation, or in which multiple interpretations are possible.

Knowledge: The knowledge demands of a task depend on the extent to which the task involves lower or higher cognitive levels. I suggest that memory tasks are at a relatively low cognitive level, problem-solving tasks are at a relatively mid-cognitive level, and tasks which require students to be innovative, creative, and inventive are at a high cognitive level.

Procedure: The difficulty of a task may also depend on how it is to be carried out. Tasks with low-level procedural demands involve simple sequential operations. A task with higher-level procedural demands requires the student to perform several operations at the same time, such as making an oral presentation before the class on an assigned topic without the use of notes.

What resources will be required? Activities differ in the kind of resources that are needed to support them. For example, with activities in a composition class, the resources students need to use may include a file of articles to read to gather information about the topic; sample compositions on the topic to illustrate various theoretical models; a revision checklist which draws students' attention to specific features of sentence, paragraph, or text organization that they should attend to in revising; a set of revision questions which students ask themselves about the first draft of their compositions as a preparation for revision activities. Resources may

include textbooks or teacher-produced materials. Both kinds of materials may be selected to accommodate different learning approaches, student interests, and proficiency levels within the same class.

What grouping arrangements will be used? A central question in planning learning activities is deciding whether students will complete them individually, in pairs, in groups, or as a whole-class activity. Grouping arrangements should be maximally effective according to the particular type of activity which has been chosen. The decision about what grouping arrangement to choose may be based on a number of factors.

Pedagogical factors. A pair or group activity might be considered essential for a speaking task, but not necessarily for a listening task.

Ability levels. In setting up groups, decisions must be made as to whether students of mixed ability or of similar abilities should form a group.

The teacher's personality and individual teaching style. Some teachers like to be in control of a lesson, for example, and hence make use of whole-class learning arrangements.

The teacher's personal philosophy of teaching. A teacher may feel their students learn best when working with others and that the teacher's role is that of facilitator.

The institutional culture. Some teaching institutions may favor particular learning arrangements. An institution that favors collaborative learning, for example, is likely to encourage teachers to use group work.

Cultural factors. In some cultures students expect the teacher to be in charge of the class and do not think they can learn anything useful from working with other students.

Should a particular learning strategy be used in carrying out an activity? For any particular learning activity, the teacher often has to decide which strategy is likely to be most effective. For example, in completing a reading comprehension activity where students read a text in order to answer questions about it, several strategies are available. Students should (a) first read the comprehension questions at the end of the passage and then skim the passage for answers; (b) first read the

comprehension questions and then read the article carefully for the answers; (c) first read the passage carefully, read the questions, and then skim for the answers; or, (d) first skim the entire article, read the comprehension questions, and then read the article carefully for the answers. The teacher must decide which of these strategies to encourage students to use,

What language or language learning focus should the activity have? Learning activities vary in their goals. For example, an activity may focus on a specific area of language such as developing particular skills or practicing an item of grammar, a feature of pronunciation, or vocabulary, or the activity may encourage the integrated use of a variety of aspects of language. An activity may focus on accuracy, appropriate language, or fluency. The design of learning activities and the way they are introduced and presented in class are key factors in focusing learners' attention on the linguistic dimensions of the task and the language resources they may need to use in completing it. For example, before introducing a role-play activity in which students will practice giving invitations and accepting or declining them, the teacher must decide whether the activity will include a focus on specific ways of inviting, and hence pre-teach some of the language the students will need, or whether the students will use their own linguistic resources in carrying out the role play.

How much time should students spend on the activity? The amount of time students spend on classroom activities has been identified as one of the most important factors affecting student learning. Three aspects of this issue have been identified:

- The amount of time that has been allowed by the teacher; this is known as allocated time.
- The degree to which students are engaged in the activity during the time provided; this is known as time-on-task.
- The extent to which students are successfully engaged: that is, the proportion of time-on-task during which students are achieving high accuracy in completing the activity; this is known as academic learning time.

Teachers vary in the amount of academic learning time that they manage to achieve within their lessons. For example, during a 50 minute lesson, only 30-35 minutes may actually be used for instruction (allocated time), and the proportion of that time which can be regarded as academic learning time may be much less. “An important challenge for teachers is to maximize academic learning time within lessons - the time students spend involved in learning activities and succeeding with them - which is the most important variable affecting students' achievement.”¹

What will the outcome of the activity be? Activities vary in the extent to which they lead to a particular learning outcome or product. For some activities, doing the activity itself is the main learning goal; the focus is more on the processes involved than on any particular learning outcome. Examples of activities of this kind include pleasure reading and free conversation. For other activities, however, particular learner outcomes, such as book reports or term papers, may be required. Teachers hence have to consider questions such as the following:

One distinguishing feature of language classroom is that language is usually both the goals and the means by which this goal is achieved. The teacher has a number of competing concerns. For example, the teacher plans activities designed to facilitate the learners' acquisition and use of the target language. At the same time, however, the teacher uses the target language as the principal means for giving instructions and directions, modeling target language patterns, and giving feedback on student performance. The students likewise learn language both in order to negotiate classroom interaction with the teacher and other students, and to complete the demands of classroom work. This chapter focuses on the linguistic dimensions of these processes and their effects on the kind of language use that occurs in second and foreign language classrooms²⁰. The chapter examines in particular (1) how teachers modify their language, (2) how teachers use questions, (3) how teachers give feedback, and (4) the language of classroom interaction, including the language students use when completing activities.

²⁰ Levin, T., with Long, R. 1998. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

A major portion of class time in teaching is taken up by teachers talking in front of the class. No matter what teaching strategies or methods a teacher uses, it is necessary to give directions, explain activities, clarify the procedures students should use on an activity, and check students' understanding.

“A large proportion of the teacher's total communicative efforts can be taken up with coaxing along the communicative process itself, especially when the learners are relative beginners.”¹ The teacher has to get the pupils' attention, monitor their understanding by constant checking, clarify, explain, define and when appropriate summarize. This is seen in the following examples of a teacher explaining a textbook exercise to students and monitoring the students' progress.

T: Have you finished yet? Have you completed the questions at the bottom of the page?

SI: Not yet.

T: (to another student) Where are you up to, Juan? Are you finished yet?

S2: No, not yet.

T: Try to finish up to here (points at book).

T: Write your answers on a separate piece of paper, Akmal, don't do it in your book.

T: You work together with Akmal now and check your answers. Do you understand? OK. Check answers.

T: Yes. Check your answers. You and Akmal check your answers together.

The repetitive nature of the teacher's requests and instructions in this example is ¹ Ellis, R. 1990. *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford.

characteristic of what happens in teaching. Repetition is one of many strategies teachers use to make their directions and instructions understandable to the learners. Other strategies include:

Speaking more slowly. When teachers speak to language learners in the classroom, they often use a slower rate of speech than they would use in other situations.

Using pauses. Teachers tend to pause more and to use longer pauses when teaching language learners, particularly lower-level students. These pauses give learners more time to process what the teacher has said and hence facilitate their comprehension.

Changing pronunciation. Teachers may sometimes use a clearer articulation or a more standard style of speech, one which contains fewer reductions and contractions than they would use outside of a teaching situation. For example, instead of saying, 'Could you read that line, Jamila?' the teacher might more carefully enunciate 'Could you...?'

Modifying vocabulary. Teachers often replace a difficult word with what they think is a more commonly used word. For example, the teacher might ask, 'What do you think this picture shows?' instead of 'What do you think this picture depicts.' However, teachers sometimes unwittingly complicate vocabulary instead of simplifying it. For example, teachers might say, 'What do you think this picture is about supplying an idiomatic (but not necessarily simpler) replacement for depicts.'
Modifying grammar. Language teachers often simplify the grammatical structure of sentences in the classroom. For example, teachers may use fewer subordinate clauses in a classroom situation than in other contexts, or avoid using complex tenses.
Modifying discourse. Teachers may repeat themselves or answer their own questions in order to make themselves understood, as we saw in the dialogue earlier.

These kinds of modifications in teachers' speech can lead to a special type of discourse which has been referred to as teacher talk. When teachers use teacher talk they are trying to make themselves as easy to understand as possible, and effective teacher talk may provide essential support to facilitate both language comprehension and learner production. This is how teachers provide learners with comprehensible input which is finely tuned to the learner's level of comprehension), which he sees as the essential ingredient for second language acquisition. However, sometimes teachers may develop a variety of teacher talk which would not sound natural outside of the classroom. The following are

examples of teachers using this variety of teacher talk when teaching low-level ESL learners.

Although these examples may be extreme, they illustrate that in their efforts to provide students with comprehensible input, teachers may sometimes develop a style of speaking that does not reflect natural speech.

Research suggests that questioning is one of the most common techniques used by teachers. In some classrooms over half of class time is taken up with question-and-answer exchanges. There are several reasons why questions are so commonly used in teaching.

- They stimulate and maintain students' interest.
- They encourage students to think and focus on the content of the lesson.
- They enable a teacher to clarify what a student has said.
- They enable a teacher to elicit particular structures or vocabulary items.
- They enable teachers to check students' understanding.
- They encourage student participation in a lesson.

They can be used to allow the learner to keep participating in the discourse and even modify it so that the language used becomes more comprehensible and personally relevant. Teacher must create a continent classroom environment which allow students to be free in learning.

§ 3.2. Observation of other teachers' teaching in classroom.

Classroom observation of in-service teacher trainees by supervisors and trainers is part of this action research trend, even though all too often such an observation consists of the observer storming into a classroom, observing silently for a period while taking notes, and then walking out, accomplishing little except anxiety and confusion. However, it is possible to conduct collaborative classroom observation with constructive feedback, which promotes trainee development by allowing them 10 freely evaluate the theories and classroom techniques that they have studied in their training courses and degree programs. Observation can encourage teacher trainees to reflect Upon their teaching and make such reflection a permanent part

of their teaching regimen. I will present a Teacher Observation Program (TOP) for in-service teacher trainees that benefits teacher practice because it is a reflective model. I will begin by discussing a rationale for this TOP, and will then describe a proposed implementation of the program.

Some teacher training courses emphasis theory so much that they completely neglect its application in the classroom. This dependence on theory can make teacher trainees insecure about their teaching practices. When ELT literature introduces new concepts such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the eclectic approach, trainees get apprehensive about what is considered correct and what they have been doing professionally.

Classroom observation can also be threatening for teachers who have to present a lesson to their students in front of an observer who is considered an expert²¹. This intimidating situation becomes worse if the observer's evaluation directly affects whether the teacher receives his or her professional qualification or promotion.” Nevertheless, classroom observation, under the appropriate guidance of trainers and observers, can give trainees the confidence to discover how to apply the new ideas they learn in an in-service teacher training course.”¹ Trainees committed to receiving a professional certificate sometimes dedicate up to a year towards this endeavor; therefore, they should be given every opportunity to take advantage of professional practice, which includes observation. A TOP should be a compulsory part of even long-term teacher training course, which is all the more important for courses taught by trainees who have had no prior observed practical teaching or pre-service training.

The aim of a TOP is to facilitate focused, critical, reflective practice among trainees by enabling them to observe different teaching styles and to reflect upon their own teaching. Teach lessons using various techniques and methodologies; rationalize a range of teaching procedures and processes they use with their classes; and reflect upon their teaching and make changes if necessary. The TOP model I propose has the following characteristics:

²¹ Ur, P. 1992. Teacher Learning. ELT journal 46.

- It is reflective. My three models of teacher education can be applied to teacher observation: (1) in the craft model the observer expects the trainee to follow science model the trainee is required to choose an approach that directions and imitate a master teacher; (2) in the applied has scientific validity, such as CLT, and then base the lesson on that approach, leaving no room for change or unpredictability; and (3) in the reflective model, the role of the student teacher is to develop, and the responsibility for development resides with the trainees, who must constantly reflect on their practice,
- It is collaborative. The observer in this model helps the trainees to develop and refine their reflective practices. A true dialogue between observers and Trainees is essential for the reflective TOP since there must be agreement about what was supposed to occur and what actually did occur. Trainees should be informed throughout the observation process that the responsibility for their professional development lies with them, and that the observers are there not only to evaluate but also to help.
- It is development. A developmental model of observation ensures that teachers are given the chance to develop their own judgments of what goes on in their own classroom...sharpen their awareness of what their pupils are doing and the interactions that take place in their classes...and heighten Their ability to evaluate their own Teaching practices. A TOP is developmental when it incorporates derailed post-observation sessions and allows trainees the flexibility to design the observation Tools and decide who they want to include in the observation, which may include a peer or colleague in addition to the observer. Such a model would replace the unreflective learn-the-theory-and-then-apply-it model.

Six steps of a reflective Teacher Observation Program. In the following six steps are given for implementing the reflective TOE For the model to be truly reflective, each of these steps must be discussed beforehand with the trainees. Therefore, depending upon trainee Input, this proposed reflective TOP might be modified.

Step 1: Analyze trainees' observation need. As the first step of the TOP, observers investigate the needs of the teacher trainees regarding the upcoming observation. Observers use surveys, interviews, and possible field trips to the trainees' schools to gather data about the trainees' level of knowledge and what the trainees hope to achieve by teaching an observed lesson. Observers should use this time to get a complete picture of the instructional context, including what textbooks trainees use, what curriculum they follow, and how much flexibility they have from their school administration to try out something new in their classrooms. Observers then make a rough draft of a trainee observation plan.

Step 2: Prepare trainees for observation procedures. In Step 2, observers share the results of the needs analysis with the trainees and invite their feedback. As they discuss the rough draft of the observation plan, the observer and trainee effectively design the observation procedure together. This includes deciding together on the number of observations, the type of observation tool to be used, the number of observers (as a peer might observe as well), the scheduling of the feedback sessions, and the assessment criteria.

To prepare for the observation, trainees are introduced to reflective lesson plans and encouraged to use them during the observation. These plans allow a teacher to manage time and objectives, and they are reflective because they contain a column for notes, which is useful when the lesson plan is used again. One extensive idea on reflective lesson plans, and Appendix 1 contains one that I adapted and used during an observation.

Step 3: Trainees observe trainers teaching. In Step 3, in-service trainees adopt the role of observer and observe their trainers reaching students in various contexts. Since most trainers teach in different types of teaching contexts (elementary, high school, and university), trainees have an excellent chance to observe diverse types of classes with students of all levels. A group of no more than five trainees can observe one trainer at a time, and a variety of trainers can be observed.

To focus their observation, trainees use a range of observation tools. Focused observations are "more meaningful when the trainees are informed of what they are

supposed to be looking for. This is achieved by using a set of questions specifically relating to methods and techniques, such as the use of materials, student participation, and the nature of error correction. I present a comprehensive list of possible focused observation questions that a group of trainees can refer to before they begin observing.

For their own observations, trainees will need a less complex observation tool, and the focused questions will help them develop one. Such a tool need not be too comprehensive or complex, and may include simple columns for time, events, and comments.

Step 4: Observers contact trainees' schools to build rapport. It is imperative that observers create a collaborative relationship with not only their trainees but also with the trainees' schools; this has been suggested by many teacher educators. The observer who is an outsider to the school's culture will not be able to adequately interpret the students' or trainees' behaviour, and neglecting the educational context could skew the observation results. Observers should therefore coordinate with trainees' schools to fully comprehend the situations under which the trainees are required to teach.

Step 5: Observers observe trainees and trainees reflect on their teaching. Step 5 is the heart of the proposed TOP for which Steps 1 to 4 were preparation. The observer visits the school and observes the trainees teach their classes. This step includes a pre-observation conference, the actual observation, and a feedback session.

Pre-observation conference. The trainee meets the observer to discuss the observation plan well before the class because suggestions made to the teacher just before they teach a lesson can undermine a teacher's confidence. Observers go over copies of lesson plans with the trainees and make suggestions. However, at this stage the observers must not rely too heavily on the aims and sub-aims of the lesson plan because classroom interactions are extremely complex, and if we concentrate on training teachers to view the aims and sub-aims as the building

blocks of a lesson, we run the risk of hindering their ability to view the whole of the lesson.

The observer and trainee also discuss the observation and evaluation criteria to help the trainee reflect on important issues and focus on what the observer will look for. In conjunction with the focused questions in Step 3, these evaluation criteria can also help trainees develop their own observation tools.

Observing the class. At this point, all of the previous steps merge to make the observation a collaborative, developmental, and non-judgmental endeavor, and the observer becomes a partner in the process and not just an intimidating expert. In addition to carefully completing the observation tool, the observer can consider becoming a participant and joining in or monitoring group work, talking to the students about their learning, or even co-teaching.

Feedback from the observation. The feedback session can be either immediate or delayed. Many teacher educators vouch for delaying feedback because even one day gives trainees time to digest their lesson and come to a more complete self-evaluation. Delayed feedback gives the trainee the opportunity to come to a more mature, more balanced appraisal of the lesson by viewing the lesson holistically and avoiding the narrower point-by-point, stage by-stage criticisms

Four post-observation feedback stages relate well to the reflective TOP because they stress the collaborative nature of the feedback process. These stages are outlined below.

Stage 1. Establishing the facts: What happened? In this stage, the observer and the trainee go over each step of the lesson in detail. In this way, each participant can be clear about how close together (or far apart) their interpretation of the events is, and also how far they agree on the significance of the events.

Stage 2. Objectives and achievements: The discussion then moves towards the objectives the teacher had in mind for the lesson. Achievement of the objectives is discussed along with what the students learned from the lesson and how the teacher evaluates the student learning outcome.

Stage 3. Generating alternatives: What else could have been done? In this stage the trainee is encouraged to think about the positive and negative effects of teaching alternatives he or she might have used. This can be the most difficult stage because considering alternatives is a challenge for teachers. Somehow, the trainees must be brought to the point where the discussion of alternative strategies, procedures, and so on is not seen as a criticism (or even an implied criticism), but as an essential element in their on-going professional development.¹

Stage 4. Self-evaluation: What have you learned? In the last stage the trainee and the observer both reflect on what they have learned from the observation. When trainees discuss their interpretation of what they have learned, the observer should listen attentively²².

²² Ellis, R. 1990. *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford.

CONCLUSION

Professional development is an ongoing process, one that evolves as you assess and reexamine your teaching beliefs and practices. Some of the approaches described in this article can be pursued individually while others prove to be more beneficial if done collectively. Some activities can be done informally (journals, study groups, etc.) and some follow more traditional formats (e.g., workshops, conferences).

The need for professional development. In the aftermath of the Coleman report, the search for a comprehensive approach to professional development became more urgent. Over the past 20 years, the teaching profession has witnessed a multitude of approaches to teacher development, but few have yielded the expected results, and even fewer have managed to survive die initial enthusiasm for the innovation. The greatest problem faced by school districts and schools is not resistance to innovation, but the fragmentation, overload and incoherence resulting from the uncritical acceptance of too many different innovations.

My aim is to provide an overview of effective approaches to teachers' professional development. These approaches have been selected for their congruence with best practices in the field and for their effectiveness in bringing about quality teacher learning over time. In presenting the various approaches, an effort has been made to contextualize them within two important success indicators for teacher development programs: their congruence with the principles of adult learning and their differentiated nature in light of research findings on the lives of educators.

To be effective, an adult education program should comply with certain principles of adult learning, which are: Voluntary participation. Adults will learn better in situations where they themselves choose to get involved, When decisions are made by others, ownership of the process is lost, and results can be dismal. For adults to progress in their learning, they need *to* feel they arc valued and respected. In this sense, moving away from a deficit model of teacher development (one based on

the belief that teachers do not know how to teach and that instruction in a given method will solve all problems), and emphasizing the wisdom teachers can bring to the task, can be a powerful motivator for engagement in teacher development initiatives. Adults learn best in situations where they can share and learn from other adults. However, collaboration does not happen naturally, and institutions and administrators should make efforts to promote it if adults are to learn successfully. In reflecting on the duties involved in a mentoring situation, points out, It is ironic that we spend years learning how to make our teaching implicit... only to have to unpack what we do and why for sharing. In unpacking our knowledge, as is the case with the professional development options described above, we are also opening up our practice for scrutiny, either by us or by others. This opening up of practice is certainly powerful and potentially beneficial to all involved in teaching and learning. Teachers also have specific beliefs about problems with the programs they work in, which they may pass on to new teachers who enter the program. For example, teachers in one institution described the major problems in their program: Teachers tend to work in isolation from each other. Teachers don't have much understanding of the overall philosophy of the program. There is no proper way of placing students into the most appropriate classes. Language learners might value some language learning strategies which the teacher may try to discourage. For example, students from a culture where rote learning and memorization are widely used may think that these are useful strategies in learning English. However, their teachers may come from a culture where such strategies are not valued and may try to discourage their use by learners. Beliefs about appropriate classroom behavior Learners may have views about what constitutes appropriate classroom interaction and classroom behavior. These beliefs may be culturally based and, at times, at odds with the teacher's beliefs. For example: It is not polite to ask the teacher a question during class time. You shouldn't leave the classroom until the teacher has dismissed the class. It's OK to get up and ask another student to help you when you need to. It's OK to copy another student's answers for a homework assignment. The last

statement indicates that what might be considered cheating in one culture may have an entirely different value in another.

Learners' perceptions of their own strengths and weaknesses as language learners can influence the use they make of opportunities available for language learning and the priorities they set for themselves. Beliefs about goals Learners may have very different goals for language learning. Looking from a teacher-thinking perspective at teaching and learning, one is not so much striving for the disclosure of the effective teacher, but for the explanation and understanding of teaching processes as they are. After all, it is the teacher's subjective school-related knowledge which determines for the rest part what happens in the classroom; whether the teacher can articulate his/her knowledge or not. Instead of reducing the complexities of teacher-learning situations into a few manageable research variables, one tries to find out how teachers cope with these complexities. In this chapter, the nature of teachers' belief systems is examined.

Teachers' belief systems are founded on the goals, values, and beliefs teachers hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, and their understanding of the systems in which they work and their roles within it. These beliefs and values serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and action, and hence constitute what has been termed the culture of teaching. Increasingly, the language teaching profession, like all of education is faced with accountability issues that call for improved teacher development as a means of improving student learning. This renewed interest in the improvement of teaching seems to stem from the long overdue realization that, given good teaching, chances are learners will learn more.

Although somewhat overshadowed by the impact of the influence of teaching on learning cannot be understated. In the context of postmodernism, truth becomes an elusive, relative, contextual issue dependent on the individual. My report is an example of the excesses of the truths that we now doubt. This work, the product of an extensive statistical research project, claimed that the greatest factors impacting a learner's learning are those over which the institution has no control, such as

family, economic status, and social relations. The same report mentioned the role of teaching claiming that, given the research results, the impact of teaching on learning was so low that it was not a variable worth considering. Based on such conclusions, efforts to improve education in recent decades have focused mainly on overcoming the exogenous factors pinpointed by the report, and have ignored teaching quality. However, new research methods and procedures seem to indicate that teaching quality is not a minor variable at all, and that the better the teaching, the more likely quality learning will occur.

The need for a systematic approach to professional development when he states that quality staff development driven by a compelling vision of student learning and a data-based assessment of current reality is essential if teachers are to consistently apply in their classrooms the findings of the most recent research on teaching and learning. This professional development must be significantly different from what it has been in the past if it is to produce high levels of learning for students and staff members. In trying to understand how teachers deal with these dimensions of teaching, it is necessary to examine the beliefs and thinking processes which underlie teachers' classroom actions. This view of teaching involves a cognitive, an affective, and a behavioral dimension. It is based on the assumption that what teachers do is a reflection of what they know and believe, and that teacher knowledge and teacher thinking provide the underlying framework or schema which guides the teacher's classroom actions.

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the goals and the means by which this goal is achieved. The teacher has a number of competing concerns. For example, the teacher plans activities designed to facilitate the learners' acquisition and use of the target language. At the same time, however, the teacher uses the target language as the principal means for giving instructions and directions, modeling target language patterns, and giving feedback on student performance. The students likewise learn language both in order to negotiate classroom interaction with the teacher and other students, and to complete the demands of classroom work. This chapter focuses on the linguistic dimensions of these processes and their effects on the kind of language use that occurs in second and foreign language classrooms. The chapter examines in particular (1) how teachers modify their language, (2) how teachers use questions, (3) how teachers give feedback, and (4) the language of classroom interaction, including the language students use when completing activities.

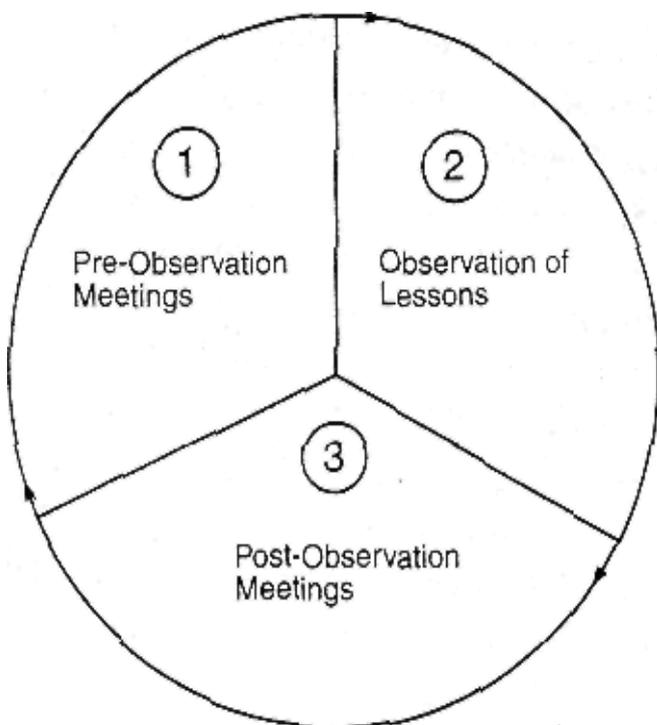
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The aim of the observation should be to develop the teacher judgments about what is going on in their own classrooms. Observers should not tackle too much in one visit rather focus on one or two items, depending on the teachers' need. Observers should try to link the visits to the course so that the teacher's attention in the classroom is focused on items being discussed in the course.

The cyclical supervisory model consists of the same three phases of the teacher development model. During the pre-observation meeting, the observer (who may be the STs colleague, the ESOL inspector, or her educator) and the teacher himself/herself set a limited number of professional targets. These may be any aspect (s) of the lesson that the ST in service trainer would like the observer to target. Depending upon the needs of a particular ST/teacher, both the observer and the teacher may choose to run through a checklist established for this purpose, consisting essentially of the following: lesson topic, lesson content, objectives,

materials, prerequisite learning, lesson development, closure, student evaluation, etc. It is vital, to hold this meeting well in advance of the observation to enable the teacher or ST.

1. Pre-observation meeting: devoted to selling targets for the lesson observation



2. Observation proper devoted to collecting data on set targets.

3. Post-observation meeting: Looking back at the lessons taught through data collected and planning for future action.

In my school practice I observed a teacher's lesson, who works at college for many years. Her student were very active in lesson, all of them were interested in theme. The teacher, first of all, used one "warm-up" activity to motivate students. Then in explaining new theme, she gave one example according to the theme, and asked students to translate the example, and asked students with the help of the example to give new grammar rules. I think if rule is given by learners, they can easily remember.

Some teacher training courses emphasis theory so much that they completely neglect its application in the classroom. This dependence on theory can make teacher trainees insecure about their teaching practices. When ELT literature introduces new concepts such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the eclectic approach, trainees get apprehensive about what is considered correct and what the have been doing professionally.

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Professional development activities can alleviate some of these issues. Such activities can also bring together teachers who have development opportunities can take many forms. Some are individual or informal while other occasions are collective or structured. The most obvious professional development activity for an English teacher is reading journal articles about teaching English.

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