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I. INTRODUCTION.

After getting the Independence the Republic of Uzbekistan has worked out an own model of development, taking into account the specific social and political traditions in the country. One of the most important conditions for the development of any country is a well functioning education system. As the education system ensures the formation of a highly developed that must be able to live in a highly, with social and personal activity, ability to function independently in the public and political life.

By 1997 on the basis of the National Model of development there had been worked out the national program for Personal Training which defined conceptional ways and concrete details, mechanisms for radical reforming the education system and personnel training.

The program is the normative scientific basis for reforms. Starting from 1997 it is being put into practice stage by stage. The document paves the way for radical reforms in the structure and content of education system of the National Program we need to change some ways of teaching the English language under school conditions as the old approach longer meet the requirements of the last year. 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. Therefore, the very time of getting Independence the head of the Republic I.A. Karimov [1] attended to change Educational system and the attempts reflected on changing in Educational system in 1997, the Educational system and personnel Training so high developed before Independence no longer meets requirements of democratic and market changes occurred in the Republic today.

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[1] I.A. Karimov. 1993, Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress. Tashkent.

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

As the President I.A. Karimov emphasized in his book "Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress" there are four path of reform and development is based:
• adherence to universal human values
• consolidation and development of the nation's spiritual heritage
• freedom for the individuals realization
• patriotism

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 on 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 I.A. Karimov[2] highlighted "Our young generation must be quick-cutter, wiser, healthier and of course, must be happier than us".

In order to achieve "Harmoniously developed generation"[3] educators should use all the suitable aids.

LEARNER DEVELOPMENT, TEACHER RESPONSIBILITY.

Now, we are told, there are five skills: reading, writing, speaking, listening and learner development. Learner development arrived much later on the EFL scene than in other areas of education and it has to be said that good teachers have

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[2] I.A. Karimov 1997. There is no future without history. Tashkent.
[3] I.A. Karimov 1998. Harmoniously developed generation is a basis of progress of Uzbekistan. Tashkent.

always encouraged learners to think for themselves and take control of their own learning – they just didn't have a term for it.

Learner development is not simply concerned with telling students to read more, use their dictionaries, and do their homework; and it is not, and should not be treated as a skill. It is far more subtle than many of the books written about it would have us believe. Nonetheless, if you are lucky enough to have a period at the start of the course you can use as an induction period, than an awareness – raising package of learner - development activities is ideal, both for the learner and the teacher. But what is more important is the continuous nurturing of self-awareness and self-development in the learners. This should be the active responsibility of the teacher.

There are many faces of learner development, but two in particular should be given a great deal of thought: (a) establishing aims and monitoring progress, and (b) integrating learner development into the existing course.

Establishing aims and monitoring progress.

The question here is "Whose aims?" If one asks learners what their learning aims are, they will probably answer, in general terms, that they want to improve any, some, or all of grammar, vocabulary, writing, listening, reading, speaking (recognize them?), while a few of the more enlightened might include pronunciation. These aims are rather too vague.

Learners must learn how to set themselves specific, realistic, and, therefore, achievable aims; otherwise they will not see any progress from their efforts, and will, consequently, get frustrated or disillusioned. The first step must be to help them consider their present performance in order to set their own aims.

We should be trying to make learner development part of our normal teaching. (see appendix 1)

The form helps intermediate and higher – level learners to think about the different areas involved in language learning. Learners need guidance as to what aims are. Documents like the above are extremely helpful, but leadership by

example is the best criterion. When the students are given instructions for a task, get them to say what they think the aims of the task are; when the task has been completed, see if they have changed their minds as to the aims, or can add to them. Doing this increase the learners' awareness of how much can be learnt in a given time, and how they can break down the elements of, say, writing, and hence become more able to home in on particular areas that they need to set their own aims for.

This establishment for aims in the classroom has the added benefits of involving learners in the achieving of aims, and eliminating the discipline problems that can arise when learners can't see why they are doing an activity. Obviously, as time goes on, the teacher has to lead fewer and fewer "What is the purpose of….? And "Why do you think we're doing….? stages in the lesson. The natural extension of establishing aims is keeping records of progress. Both learner and teacher should be encouraged to keep regular records of what the learner can do. Learners need to see at a glance what grades and comments have been earned; they also need to know that the teacher cares enough about them to be interested in their progress. If the teacher is haphazard about marking and record keeping, so will the student be.

Marking needn't always be done by the teacher. Self – marking and peer – marking, if done sensitively, are fine as long as some record is kept. Both teachers and students have many other dimensions to their lives outside the classroom, and, without keeping records, how on earth can we as teachers remember what learners have done, and thereby advice and help them? Equally, how can learners remember what they once found difficult but have now achieved a degree of mastery in? Records give learners impetus to get better and provide "proof" of progress.

A simple form (one copy completed by the teacher and another completed by the student) meets this need very well.

For example:

RECORD OF LEARNING		Term:_____	
Name:_____		Class:_____	
Date	Subject area	Comments	Grades

Yes it does take a bit of time to complete, but it is time well spent. Learners become more active in monitoring their own learning and more responsible about doing the work necessary to promote progress. And there is the psychological benefit that ensues from learners knowing that their teacher really cares about their learning.

Every area of learning is a learner-development area. Many of teachers student that the best way to help themselves to make good progress is to read; we take them on a library visit – complete with library questionnaire – or we give them a book review to complete after reading a book of their choice over a holiday. As far as it goes, we are doing our bit for learner development. But it's not really enough. It's not the good students we need to convince, and, often, it's only the good students who will take our advice and borrow and read books.

The others need a great deal more guidance than just good advice. Learner development is the responsibility of the teacher, and enhancing awareness is not really too difficult. It must be said, how-ever, that no matter what the teacher does, there will be some students who will resist any and every encouragement, technique, etc.. – and really we must some times accept defeat! One of the best ways of encouraging learners to consider why they are doing a particular thing is to set up a discussion session.

When it's time for the students to have their oral test, use the time to promote learner development. Make sure that the students know that, as it's an oral test, you

will take no part in their discussion, that you are only going to monitor their oral skills. Make sure you give them some controversial (and not so controversial) statements to discuss-ideally, one statement for each student.

For example:

"Reading books is a waste of time ; students should only read the texts used in their students books."

"If you read a lot, you don't need a teacher."

"Reading helps you learn vocabulary and grammar."

"Reading is no good. How can you remember all the words and grammar structures you have read?"

"People who read, write well."

When it's over, you –and they-will have their oral grades, and the students will have a much clearer idea of the value of reading. Such "manipulated" discussions do far more to promote learner development than any amount of teacher advice as to the merits of reading. Learner development must come from the learner. The responsibility for promoting such learner development is the teacher's.

Though the virtues of learner development are extolled, some teachers who have a syllabus and scheme of work to get through in a specified time say they have no time to devote to learner development. If learner development were treated as a separate skill, with specially designed worksheets, then , yes, there would not be time to get through the course. But we teachers should be trying to make learner development part of our normal teaching.

An example.

There are far too many techniques to go into here for encouraging students to develop their own learning skills though the coursebook (and many coursebooks now do excellent work in incorporating some learner development into their books), but one example of how an ordinary lesson can incorporate learner development is given here.

This section from the text Headway Intermediate(Unit 6, page 35,Speaking) deals with groups of people who share the sort of interest and with what is considered acceptable or unacceptable behaviour for each group.

The section in the book is headed Speaking. The aims of the lesson that follows are (briefly) to provide speaking, listening, and writing practice and to extend vocabulary. The overall learner-development aims are given after each stage.

A "mind map" (see Apendix 2 Use Your Head by Tony Buzan, BBC books, 1974)[4] of a football crowd, and embryo mind maps for other groups are prepared on a transparency for an overhead projector (OHT), or, if you don't have an overhead projector, on large sheets of paper, before the lesson.

For example:
Elicit "people associated with a football crowd", unmasking parts of the OHT as students put forward suggestions-add any suggestions not previously included. Let the students discuss how difficult it is to put words into just one category. There is always some overlap; you can draw arrows to illustrate this. Ask them if this would be a good way to record\remember\review vocabulary.

 * *Learner Development:*

 - organizing and recording vocabulary

Organising the students into groups and give each groups a different embryo mind map. Give them time to "brainstorm" vocabulary and expressions and write them on the mind map; then get a representative of each group to talk about their map.

   * *Learner Development:*

 - Introducing\encouraging peer correction, discussion.

When they have finished, find out whether the students think that this could be a way of organizing their thoughts, clarifying aspects of grammar, associating ideas and vocabulary, and making plans for writing tasks of all kinds-students will often put forward their own learning strategies here.

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[4] Tony Buzan. 1974. Use your Head BBC Books.

Leaner Development

- considering ways of recalling, reviewing, recycling what has already been learnt with a view to using it later.

- Peer explanations\sharing ideas and swapping learning strategies

If activities like this are done regularly, learners will come to appreciate the benefits of becoming more involved in their own learning.

We teachers have chosen a demanding and difficult occupation for ourselves, but also an extremely rewarding one. By taking the responsibility for helping learners to help themselves, both our job and their learning will be even more rewarding.

Teacher responsibility.

Motivation has been defined in different ways: It is what makes us act; it is a desire to work towards a goal or to reach an objective. If motivation is present, learning can be facilitated; but without it, effective learning becomes difficult. Lado[5] (1957) maintains that interest must be present if learning is to be successful. In other words, when interest is absent, one can hear things said over and over without paying too much attention to them.

Make use of the learners' environment.

Foreign language teaching should always be linked to the environment of the learners. A teacher who teaches English without alluding to the immediate environment of the school makes the English lesson detached from the learners' experiences. In order to remedy the situation, teachers can link the environment of the school (and implicitly of the child) to any activity or exercise that they want to carry out in the classroom.

A child has a natural context in which he organizes the various activities that make up his life. If these activities are " reproduced" in the language classroom, it is possible to motivate him/her to do the task at hand. Therefore games and other daily activities should constitute the heart of the English class. The only new factor

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[5] Lado R. 1957. Linguistics across cultures. Ann Arbor : University of Michigan Press.

will be the language itself. Used in this way, English will no longer be feared and students will be more inclined to study it.

Present the language in natural chunks.

In a foreign language situation, the teacher remains the main source or model for the pupils. S/he should strive hard to use the language as naturally as possible. If the teacher should use the target language unnaturally, i.e. break a sentence into smaller units to help the students get the correct pronunciation of a word or the intonation of a phrase, etc., s/he must not forget to return to the whole sentence.

Use appropriate visual aids.

Visual aids are important tools for the teacher. Used appropriately in the classroom, they enable the teacher to avoid long and confusing explanations. At the same time they help the teacher to have a lively class as students associate real objects with their English equivalents. In this way, they can exchange information with each other since they will be familiar with the topic and/ or object under discussion.

Include cultural components.

Language and culture are interrelated. One cannot study a language without noting the cultural aspect of the people who use the language natively. However, cultural aspects can be a real hindrance because they may set up barriers to comprehension. This is more evident to teachers who are not native speakers of the target language themselves. For this reason, teachers should provide sufficient background information to enable the learners to understand the cultural content that is naturally present in the target language.

Become an efficient manager.

A company's success is usually attributed to the way in which it is managed. Likewise, the success of a language course reflects the teacher's dexterity or expertise. In other words, the teacher should know how to talk to his students if they are to fully participate in the lesson. In this respect, their interests, needs and experiences must be taken into consideration. The student factor, as it is often called, should be carefully examined. Just as it takes a good factory manager to

obtain positive results in the factory, it takes a good teacher to instill in his/her student a positive attitude towards the new language. The deciding factor here is the way in which the teacher talks to his pupils. When the teacher is humane and sensitive, seeing his students as capable of contributing something to the lesson, a warm and enjoyable classroom atmosphere can be created and maintained.

Adapt materials to local realities.

It is desirable that materials presented in a foreign language class be varied and stimulating. Ideally, they should be adapted to needs of learners but most importantly they should be interesting.

The teacher should know how to adapt existing materials to local realities. Commercially produced materials usually aim at a wider audience. Consequently, they cannot coincide with the needs and aspirations of a speech group of pupils. Textbooks should be considered as tools, and teachers should know how to exploit them. The teacher should avoid slavishly following the textbook writer's instructions.

HOW TO MOTIVATE LEARNERS.

In his book on teaching vocabulary, I Scott Thornbury quotes Wilga I Rivers, a leading authority on second I language learning, who wrote some years ago: 'Vocabulary cannot be taught It can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities, and experienced in all manner of associations ... but ultimately it is learned by the individual. As language teachers, we must arouse interest in words and a certain excitement in personal development in this area ..'[6]

This certainly does not mean that the teacher is redundant. On the contrary, the teacher should play a pivotal role in motivating young learners during their vocabulary acquisition because only motivation will sustain them as they carry out this complex learning process with its long-term goals. By complex learning process, I mean the understanding of new words and the ability to store them and afterwards to retrieve and use them in appropriate situations.

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[6] Thornbury S. 2002. How to teach vocabulary. Pearson.

Motivating young learners to enrich their own vocabulary is undoubtedly a challenging task for teachers. Consequently, some simple directions adout how to make vocabulary activities motivating may be helpful.

Elicitation

As Scott Thornbury points out, 'young learners need to be actively involved in the learning of words'. One technique that might achieve this involvement is elicitation.

A standard elicitation procedure is for the teacher to present the meaning of a word (e.g. by showing a flashcard) and to ask the learners to supply the form. For example:

T: (showing a picture of a skyscraper) What's this?

S: Building?

T: Not exactly.

S: Skyscraper?

T: Good.

This activity maximises speaking opportunities and involves the learners, keeping them alert and attentive.

Personalisation

Another important way to involve and motivate learners is to make them personalise new lexical items. Personalisation is the process of using new words in a context that is real for the learner. According to Scott Thornbury, even unmotivated learners will remember words if they have been set tasks that require them to make decisions about them. The teacher can use tasks that ask students to think about their personal response to words. One such activity is subjective categorisation, where students have to categorise a list of new words which the teacher has just introduced and explained. These categories might be Friendly/Unfriendly or / like/I dislike. Afterwards, the students compare their own answers with those of a partner to see if they agree. In so doing, they express their own points of view, and, at the same time, practise the new words. As Gough

points out, it is important that students do not agree all the time so that they have something to tall; about.

Peer teaching.

Another motivating activity is peer teaching, in which students teach vocabulary items to each other. The teacher might, for example, divide the class into small groups and give each student a piece of paper with a newly-encountered word written on it, together with a definition from a monolingual dictionary. Each person has to make the other members of the group guess their word without actually saying it. Techniques and strategies they might employ include using synonyms, antonyms, mime, drawing, ccmpai ison. etc. Students generally enjoy this activity because guessing words is motivating and to succeed they have to communicate with each other.

Fun.

A Further feature to consider is the importance of fun.

The learning experience should involve as much fun (or at least enjoyment and satisfaction) as possible. Students (and many teachers) often think that to be effective, learning tasks have to be boring. In fact the opposite is the case because it has been shown that a relaxed atmosphere may facilitate the learning process the simplest way to provide fun vocabulary activities is to play games in the classroom. 'Here is an example of a very nice games useful both for practising vocabulary and encouraging students to produce language.

Hot seat.

Firs the class is divided into two teams. The students sit facing the board. An empty chair - one for each team — is put at the front, facing the team members. These chairs are the hot seat.

The teacher has a list of vocabulary items that students 'will use in this game. The teacher writes the first word from the 1ist clearly on the. board. The aim of the game is for the teams to describe that word using synonyms, antonyms, definition, mime, etc to the student who is in the hot scat. When students are in the hot seat, they cannot see the word on the board and must listen to their team.-mates and try

to guess the word they arc given. The first hot- seat student to say the. word wins a point for their team. Then a new member of each team sits in their team's hot seat. The teacher then writes the next word on the board.

This activity is motivating because it requires both mental and physical involvement from the students.The importance of physical activity is often overlooked in language teaching, and it Is beneficial in encouraging students to be both mentally and physically active, rather than just sitting passively. This is also a very student-centred activity because the

teacher acts only as a facilitator. [7]

Different contexts.

Another important way to motivate students in vocabulary activities is to introduce and use words within different contexts.

Lexical competence doesn't consist simply of remembering a set of vocabulary items. It involves mastering the use of them in appropriate contexts.

When learning new words, students need to recognise how and where they can be used. This goal may be achieved through roleplays. Here is an example.

Door to *door salesman.*

This is a pairwork activity. In each pair, one student plays at being a salesperson who tries to sell objects to the other student, who pretends to be a potential client. To make this activity work, it will be necessary to pre-teach some expressions which will enable the students to accomplish the task. For example: (for the client) / don't need it, I am busy, I can't afford it... (for the salesperson) It could improve your life, you can try it, you can have a refund ...

The essential thing about roleplays is that they provide a memorable way to use new words or expressions. In this respect, they are helpful both for learners trying to memorise new words and for teachers who want to maintain their students' motivation. Moreover, through this activity students are encouraged tc focus on the use of the language rather than on the language itself.

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[7] Carter R and McCarthy M. 1988. Vocabulary and Language Teaching. London: Longman.

Elicitation, personalisation, peer teaching, games and jroleplays are just some strategies to motivate the learners when ycu are using vocabulary teaching activities. Whilst these techniques cannot force the students to learn new words, they can at least ensure the learner.-' willing participation in the learning process.

II. LEARNER DEVELOPMENT.

§1. FOCUS ON THE LEARNER

In language teaching, research into learning strategies and cognitive styles has been a notable area of growth in recent years . In this chapter, I review this research and consider it's implications for language teaching. The implications tor methodology in particular are considerable, given evidence which suggests that accommodating learning style and strategy preferences in the classroom 'can result in improved learner satisfaction and attainment' (Willing 1988: I). This chapter answers the following questions:

1. What are learning styles and strategies?

2. What are the findings from recent theory and research into learning style and strategy preferences by second language learners?

3. Why should we incorporate strategy training into our teaching?

4. What are some techniques for teaching learning strategies and developing skills in learning how to learn?

5. How can learners be encouraged to activate their language outside the classroom?

6. Is there such a thing as the 'good' language learner?

There is a large body of literature on the issues of cognitive style, learning style and learning strategy, and some of this work is being embraced by second and foreign language researchers. While there is obvious overlap between second language acquisition research and learning strategies, research which seeks to link both strands of research is lacking. (A notable exception is work by Rod Ellis – see, for example, Ellis 1987) [8] As an example of the overlap between these two areas consider the claim made by Krashen (1981, 1982) [9], referred to in the preceding chapter, that acquisition is a subconscious process, and that grammatical
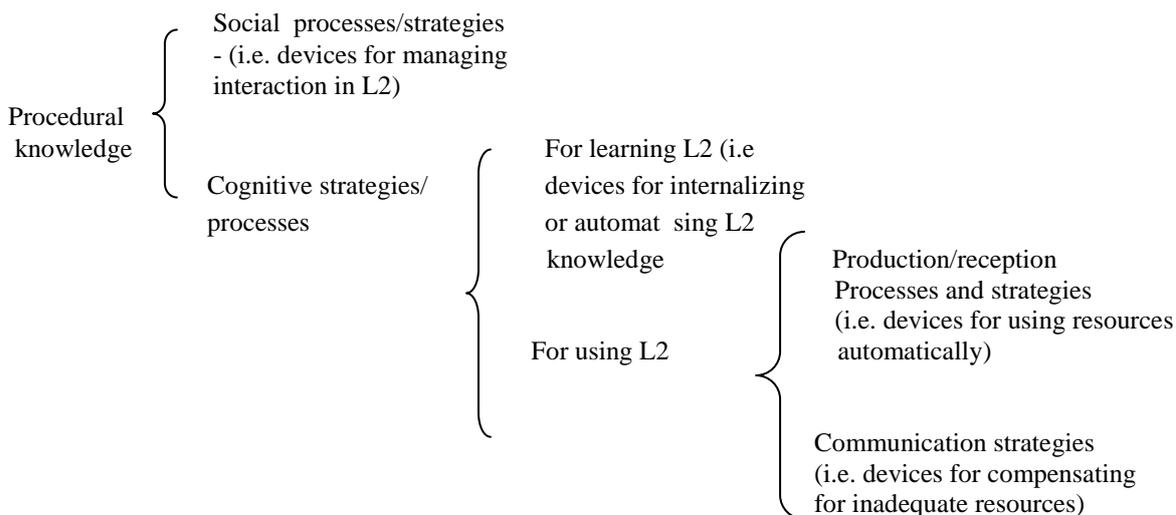
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[8] Ellis R. 1987. Learning strategies and second language acquisition. Sydney University.
[9] Krashen S. 1981. Second language, acquisition and second language learning. Oxford: Pergamon.

instruction is unimportant for this acquisition to occur. Debate about whether learning/acquisition occurs consciously or subconsciously impinges directly onto learning strategy research the critical question being: are there, certain learners, who, by virtue of their expressed strategy preferences, are better able to benefit from direct grammatical instruction than others?

'Learning style' refers to any individual's preferred ways of going about learning It is generally considered that one's learning style will result from personality variables including nsvcho1oinr.a1 and cognitive make-up, socio-cultural background, and educational experience. For Willing (1988), an individual's perceptions of his/her own strengths and weaknesses will also have an effect. He also suggests that some aspects of an individual's learning style may be alterable while others may not.

Learning strategies, which we are primarily concerned with in this chapter, are the mental processes which learners employ to learn and use the target language. Faerch and Kasper (1983[10] and cited in Ellis 1985) refer to these processes as procedural knowledge shown :

Procedural knowledge
- Social processes/strategies - (i.e. devices for managing interaction in L2)
- Cognitive strategies/ processes
  - For learning L2 (i.e devices for internalizing or automat sing L2 knowledge
  - For using L2
    - Production/reception Processes and strategies (i.e. devices for using resources automatically)
    - Communication strategies (i.e. devices for compensating for inadequate resources)

[10] Faerch C. and Kasper. 1983. Procedural knowledge as a component of foreign language learner's communicative competence. London: Longman.

Typology of procedural knowledge

In this work, we are concerned mainly with those cognitive strategies and processes for internalising and automatising L2 knowledge. However, I have included the Ellis typology to show how learning strategies relate to communication and production/reception strategies. A major problem for learning strategy theorists has been the development of a coherent taxonomy? of learning strategy types. Most researchers have developed their own lists, and there is now a plethora of these in the literature, which makes it difficult to compare research findings and suggestions for pedagogy. Ellis (1985) suggests that strategies can be categorized under three broad process types: hypothesis formation, hypothesis testing. and automatization. Hypothesis formation includes such strategies as simplification and inferencing, and refers 10 strategies whereby learners come to conclusions about the structure of the target language based on samples of the language, or by transferring from knowledge of one's first language. Hypothesis testing refers to strategies such as trying out rules when communicating with a native speaker and monitoring the speaker's reaction to evaluate whether or not the rule seems to work. Automatisation includes strategies for practicing the language G. ELLIS and Sinclair (1989) group strategies according to their macroskill focus ('that is whether they focus on listening, speaking, reading or writing). They provide comprehensive suggestions tor listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as for vocabulary and grammar.

Willing (1989) [11] draws a primary distinction between strategies for managing the learning process and strategics for managing information. Managing the learning process involves such things as developing an understanding of one's own language learning preferences, managing communicative situations for learning purposes, practicing, monitoring and evaluating. Managing information includes strategies such as attending selectively, associating, categorizing, pattern learning and inferencing.

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[11] Willing K. 1989. Teaching how to learn: Learning strategies in ESL. Sydney: National Centre for English language Teaching and Research.

There have been several recent investigations of the learning style and strategy-preferences of second and foreign language learners. In a major study of learning styles among adult learners of English as a second language, Willing (1988) obtained data on the learning preferences of 517 learners. Willing was looking for possible correlations between learning preferences and biographical variables. The principal means of data collection was a questionnaire which learners completed in the course of an interview. Low proficiency learners were interviewed in their first language. One of the major aims of die investigation was to explore possible learning style differences attributable to different learner biographical variables. It is widely accepted by teachers that such things as ethnicity, age, etc. will have an effect on preferred ways of learning. The variables investigated by Willing were:

1. Ethnic group

2. Age group

3. Level of previous education

4. Length of residence in Australia

5. Speaking proficiency level

6. Type of learning programme (e.g. whether in full-time or part-time courses)

The study came up with several surprising findings. In the first place, there were certain learning activities which were almost universally popular. In several instances, these were activities which did not enjoy similar popularity amongst teachers as was shown a follow-up investigation of teachers' preferences by Nunan (1988b). For example, error correction by the teacher was highly valued by almost all learners, while student self-discovery of error was given a low rating. For teachers, the reverse was true.

Perhaps the most surprising finding was that none of the biographical variables correlated significantly with any of the learning preferences.

None of the learning differences as related to personal variables were of a magnitude to permit a blanket generalization about the learning preference of a particular biographical sub-group. Thus, any statement to the effect that 'Chinese

are X' or 'South Americans prefer Y", or Younger learners like Z' or '1 high-school graduates prefer Q', is certain to be inaccurate. The most important single finding of the study was that for any given learning issue, the typical spectrum of opinions on that issue were represented, in virtually the same ratios, within any biographical sub-group. (Willing 19S8-: 150-1).

This finding, which runs counter to the folk wisdom of the classroom and staff-room, suggests that personality factors are more significant than socio-cultural variables and educational background for learning strategy preferences. Of course, the fact that the study was conducted in a second rather than foreign language environment may have had a significant effect on the outcomes, and it would be useful to replicate the study in foreign language contexts.

One final finding of note was that learners could be categorized by type according to the pattern of their responses on the questionnaire. Learner 'types' and their preferences are set out below.

Type 1: Concrete' learners. These learners tend to like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs and practicing English outside class.

Type *2:*. 'analytical' learners. These learners liked studying grammar, studying English books and reading newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes and working on problems set by the teacher.

Type 3: 'communicative learners. These students like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English and watching television in English, using English out of class in shops, trains, etc., learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversations.

Type 4: 'authority-oriented' learners. These learners preferred the teacher to explain everything, liked to have their own textbook, to write everything in a notebook, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them.

The methodological implications of this research are not particularly easy to evaluate. Willing believes that language classes should be constituted on the basis of learner 'types'. In many school contexts, however, this is simply not possible. If

such groupings are not possible, due to administrative and resource constraints it is still desirable to identify the strategy preferences of one's learners by administering a survey/questionnaire similar to the one used by Willing. (This can be found in either Willing 1988[12] or Nunan 1989b. Ellis and Sinclair 1989 is also an excellent source of questionnaires).

If your class consists of learners with a range of strategy preferences, then you will need to provide a range of leaning options and activities in class. This should be accompanied by opportunities for learners to reflect on and evaluate the activities (ways of doing this are presented later in the chapter.) The key question is whether there is such a thing as a 'good* learner who can be defined in terms of learning strategies: in other words, do those learners who progress more efficiently and effectively than the average share certain strategy preferences? We look at what the available research has to say on this in the next section.

§ 2 THE 'GOOD' LANGUAGE LEARNER

Much of the research into learning strategy preferences has been concerned with identifying learning strategy preferences with a view to isolating those characteristics of the 'good' language learner. Rubin and Thompson (1983)[13] suggest that 'good' or efficient learners tend to exhibit the following characteristics as they go about learning a second language.

1. Good learners find their own way.

2. Good learners organize information about language.

3. Good learners are creative and experiment with language.

4. Good learners make their own opportunities, and find strategies for getting practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom.

5. Good learners learn to live with uncertainly and develop strategies for making sense of the target language without wanting to understand every word.

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[12] Willing K. 1988. Learning Strategies in Adult Migrant. Education. Adelaide: NCRC.
[13] Rubin J. and J. Thompson. 1983. How to be a more successful language learner. New York: Heinle and Heinle.

6. Good learners use mnemonics (rhymes, word associations, etc. to recall what has been learned).

7. Good learners make errors work.

8. Good learners use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language in mastering a second language.

9. Good learners let the context (extra-linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world) help them in comprehension.

10.Good learners learn to make intelligent guesses.

11.Good learners learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform 'beyond Шеи competence'.

12.Good learners learn production techniques (e.g. techniques for keeping a conversation going).

13.Good learners learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation.

Recently, I investigated forty-four 'good' language learners in order to find out whether there were any common patterns in their experiences. The learners had all learned English as a foreign language in a variety of Southeast Asian countries including Hong Kong, Thailand, Indonesia, the Philippines, Malaysia and Singapore. They were all 'good' learners in that they had all attained bilingual competence in the language, and all were teachers of English as a foreign language. There were two strands to this research, one which looked at the 'good' language learner, and the other which explored the effect of teachers' learning strategy preferences on their own teaching style. 1 shall not be concerned with this second strand here.

There were two reasons for selecting language teachers as research subjects. In the first place, by selecting English language teachers it was easier to locate subjects with high levels of proficiency. Secondly, it was felt that because teachers would have the metacognitive and metalinguistic language to conceptualize their experiences, they would be better able to reflect on and articulate their foreign language learning experiences.

Data for (he study were provided by a questionnaire and a follow-up interview. The questionnaire was an adaptation or the one used by Willing, and asked subjects to rate thirty statements about learning preferences such as, in English classes, I like to learn by reading', I like the teacher to explain everything to us', I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes', I like to study grammar'. Subjects were required to complete the questionnaire on four separate occasions. On each occasion they were required to respond to the questionnaire from four different perspectives:

A)When you learned English, which of the following ways of learning did you like?

B)When you learned English, which of the following ways of learning did you find most helpful?

C)If you were soma to learn another language, which of the following ways of learning would you use?

D)Think of the learners you are currently teaching: how do you think they would respond to the questionnaire?

The top ten preferences for each of the categories of response are set out in the following table.

TABLE 1. Top 10 learning strategy preferences of 44 'good' learners of English as a foreign language

	A	B	C	D
1	Learning by games	Reading newspapers	Talking to LI speakers	Learning by games
2	Learning by doing	Watching television	Pictures, films, video	Pictures, films, video
3	Watching television	Learning by doing	Learning by doing	Learning by doing
4	Going on excursions	Talking to friends	Talking to friends	Having a coursebook
5	Pictures, films, video	Practising out of class	Practising out of class	Small group work
6	Reading newspapers	Talking to LI speakers	Watching television	Using cassettes
7	Small group work	Going on excursions	Small group work	Going on excursions
8	In class conversation	Small group work	In class conversation	Learning by hearing
9	Taking about interests	In class conversation	Having a cousebook	In class conversation
10	Talking to friends	Pictures, films, video	Learning by hearing	Talking about interests

Spearman correlations were calculated for the four variables. The highest correlation was between variables B and C (found most useful/would use next time). The lowest correlation was between variables B and D (found most useful/'my students would like). During the investigation, subjects were asked to record what they found most helpful, and what they found least helpful in learning English as a foreign language. Here are some of their responses. While these were provided as free-form responses, I have classified them under several headings. Despite the different contexts and environments in which the learners learned, the responses are surprisingly homogeneous.

What did you find most helpful in learning another language?

1. *Form -focused activities*

• Constant drilling.

• When the teacher talked to the class clearly with correct pronunciation.

• When I had my own textbook and made notes from teacher explanations.

2**.** *Applying skills to communicative language use outside class*

• Contact with native sneakers.

• The following helped me most: reading all kinds of printed materials, listening to native speakers through media - radio, television, cinema; writing; studying grammar books; receiving instruction from my mother who was head of the English department in a public school.

• In general: reading newspapers, magazines and books in English. Also, listening to the radio and television.

• When 1 had someone to practice with outside the classroom, at home to foreigners (native speakers).

• I listened to songs and sang songs myself and watched television, videos and movies: I read interesting novels, and read other media such as newspapers, magazines, advertisement, booklets, ail for pleasure; visiting English-speaking countries where I could communicate with native speakers.

• Practising through conversations and using the media, especially television with subtitles and newspapers. You must have someone who is proficient in the language to speak with in order to learn the language sufficiently well.

• Social interactions (exposure and practice in the use of the language) at home and with friends.

• Language taught inside the classroom is not sufficient to make a person a competent speaker in the real world. Children still make mistakes as they follow the structure of their language or make inferences from known languages, in some cases, students are good at talking or story-telling but not good at written language work. I wonder whether the. topics for conversations they make could be starting points for syllabus development and the development of other language skills.

• The language environment, the fact that my family knew and used English, and the radio and television programmes in English all helped.

• The most useful things I found were practice with other students and exposure to the community using the language 9 (i.e. the target community).

3. *Communicative language use in school.*

• There was a rule in our high school that the only language to be used was English.

• Everyone spoke English during class and during outdoor activities (e.g. PE. gardening). I also read a lot of books from the library.

whenever rules were given, these were followed by illustrations and realia. To top it all, the exposure to media - both printed and visual, contributed a lot to my learning of the second language.

• Guidance from the teacher and interactional practice with other students.

• In general, these helped most: literature (storybooks/story-telling sessions at an early age and self-access reading later on); when it is used as the medium of instruction in all subjects (unconscious learning); media

4. Affective factors

• Motivation. I find that motivation is vital to the success of learning a foreign language. I learned French in the university because I had a very close friend who was a French. I was also fascinated with the French culture and people in general. So I found it such a thrill to learn the language and to be able lo communicate with my French friend in his own tongue. Although most of our conversations were in English, those times when we spoke in Japanese were helpful. Motivation and the opportunity to use the language are the two most helpful elements in my learning experience.

• Strong interest, sheer determination and motivation to learn a second language.

• I think it is necessary to integrate all four skills in teaching a language. Our basic senses-sight, smell, sound, touch and taste - should be stimulated too when we learn a language. This will make the learning experience a very personal one and-we will not feel somewhat detached from the language. Most of time tune it is reading ink marks from the book or worksheet - it is too 'cognitive'. 1 feel it's more exciting to touch something or taste something or see something besides ink marks and learn the language simultaneously. In that way, we can relate to the language in a more natural and ultimate way and we might remember new words/expressions better.

5. Factors relating to the teacher/teaching

Resourceful teachers who provide interesting ideas and useful background and explanations to. for example, a literature text.

What, did you find least, helpful in learning another language'?'

1. *Form-focused activities*

• Reading from textbooks.

• Grammar lessons during class.

• Enumerating rules of the language and memorizing such rules did not help-it only resulted in parroting.

• Language notes from the teacher about grammar, lists of words, reading aloud, one by one around the class.

• Memorizing verb patterns, words and conversations.

• Doing grammar exercises: boring and monotonous classwork/activities.

2. *Learning mode*

• Learning by myself

3. *Factors relating to the teacher/teaching*

• I would say "teacher's talk'. Looking back, I wish he had given me more opportunities to use
the language in class, especially speaking it in and outside the classroom. It did help to have him explain everything to us, but it would have been more fun and meaningful had we been given the chance to use the language in more creative ways. Come to think of it, it would have been more fun and challenging if I was thrown into the deep end!

• Negative criticism (oral) and punishment for wrong answers; dull teachers who do not encourage creativity or who are inactive/cannot be heard clearly.

The most striking thing about this study was the fact that, despite the diverse contexts and environments in which the subjects learned English, practically all agreed that formal classroom instruction was insufficient. Motivation, a reparedness to take risks, and the determination to apply their developing language skills outside the classroom characterized most of the responses from these "good" language learners (see Beebe 1983 tor an interesting study on risk-taking). I he free-form responses Reinforced the general pattern of responses provided by the questionnaire. Given these responses, I believe that it is premature to reject the notion that there is no correlation between certain learning strategy preferences and the 'good' language learner.

In a follow-up study, a group of advanced second language learners were asked to nominate the things which helped them most and least in learning English. Similar results to those from the foreign language subject were obtained. These are

set out below, the items being rank ordered from most to least frequently nominated.

Things that helped most:

1. Conversation "with English speakers /in groups

2. Finding opportunities to practice outside class

3. Accessing media — radio, television, newspapers

4. Formal classes/learning with a teacher

5. Motivation

6. Reading

7. Grammar rules/drills

8. Listening

9. Pronunciation

10. Vocabulary

Things that helped least:

1. Learning grammar/drills

2. Lack of opportunity to use English outside class

3. Poor teaching

4. Being criticized/punished

5. Practicing with L2 speakers/poor Li speakers

6. Classes too big/too many levels

7. Use LI too much

8. Accessing media

9. Fear of making mistakes

10. Lack of motivation

11. Childish materials, e.g. picture books

12. Lack of audio-visual facilities

13. Rigid timetables and programmes

14. Reading aloud in classroom

15. Memorizing

16. No time to tudy

17. Writing

Despite the range of responses, there was a large measure of agreement about what helped/did not help these subjects to master a second language. Conversation practice inside and outside the classroom, and opportunities for activating English outside class were by far the most frequently nominated things which facilitated development. Least helpful were grammar drills, these being nominated over twice as often as the next item, lack of opportunity to activate language use outside class. Data such as these need to be interpreted carefully. For example, they do not mean that we should abandon the teaching of grammar. However, we may need to think again about how we go about teaching it: we need to be more explicit in showing learners how grammar instruction relates to the achievement of communicative objectives, and we need to incorporate into our teaching some of the strategies and techniques Findings relating to the limitations of classroom work arc more compelling. The data reinforce the desirability of encouraging learners to activate their L2 outside the classroom, and there are numerous ways that this can be achieved, from setting homework to encouraging learners to keep diaries and journals. The foreign language subjects who took part in the study I have just described had many different practical suggestions for practicing outside the classroom, and nominated a wide range of activities including the following:

1. Buy a copy of an English language newspaper. Locate the classified advertisements. Find a car/bike/television/washing machine, etc. which would be suitable for you. Say why it is suitable.

2. Listen to an English language news and weather broadcast on the radio. Find out how many separate items there are. What is the forecast maximum temperature for tomorrow?

3. Go into a hotel where English is spoken. Find out- the cost of rooms and the availability of facilities.

4. Go into an international airline office. Enquire about the economy/business, first class fares to various places.

5. Go to a bank and fill out an application for a credit card.

6. Visit foreign embassies and make enquiries from the educational, trade and cultural representatives.

7. Go to an American Express office and fill out an application for a card.

8. Look in the telephone book and find the name, address and telephone number of an English language school, the British Council, etc. Call and enquire about English classes.

9. Buy a newspaper and find the employment section. Find all the jobs you would like. How-much do they pay? Are they full-time or part-time, permanent or casual?

Here are some additional suggestions from a second language context.

1. Look in your local paper for the restaurant guide On Saturday evening you want to go with n friend to a restaurant. Your friend likes seafood. You want a restaurant with a view, it should not be too expensive. You want to pay with a credit card. Look in the Yellow Pages. Find two seafood restaurants, two licensed restaurants and two restaurants which are open seven days a week.

2. (a) Oct a map of the city from the tourist bureau. Find where you live. Find where you learn English. Trace the route from your home to school,

   (b) Look in a street directory. Use the index to find the page where you live. Now find the spot on the page were you live.

   (c) Write an invitation to party at your place. Describe how to get there from the city centre.

3. Think about a place you would like to rent. What suburb is it in? How many bedrooms has it got? Is it a house ᵣ or a semi or a unit or a townhouse? How much per week is it? Buy a newspaper Find in the 'Rent' section the classified advertisements. Find a place you would like to rent. Look in the Yellow Pages. Find some real estate agents. Call two or three agents, Ask: 'Have you got a house / townhouse /flat / semi in to rent?

If the answer is 'no'—> say 'thank you.'

Hang up.

If the answer is "yes"➔ ask "How many bedrooms?"

How much is the

rent? Thank you.

Hang up.

Imagine you have $ 1,000,000 to spend. What house would you buy? Look in the newspaper and put a circle around the places you would like to see. Bring the newspaper to school and discuss it with the teacher and the other students.

4. Buy a television programme or find a programme in the newspaper. Put a circle around all the programmes you like. Watch tonight's television news or listen to the radio. How many news items were there? What were they about? (Tick the columns.)

Politics	People	Sport	Money

Give details of one of the news items.

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5. Organize a class party. Make a list of all the things you need to buy. Write invitations to a friend, or some friends (e.g. someone in another class) to the party. Don't forget to include the following information;
   • the address
   • the date
   • the time of the party
   • the reason for the party

6. Look in the telephone book. Find the address and telephone number of a Medicare office near where you live. Find the name and telephone number of two private health insurance funds. Ring Medicare and the health insurance funds and ask:

   • What hours are you open on weekdays?

   • Are you open on Saturday?
   • Who is your local doctor?
   • What are the clinic's hours? (When is it open?)
   • What is the 'phone number of the
   surgery?
   • Who is your local dentist?
   • What are the surgery hours?
   Collect some empty medicine bottles and containers. Bring them along to class to discuss with your teacher.

7. Find the entertainment section of the newspaper. Find three things you would like to do and write them down. Tell a friend about these things.
   Look in the telephone book. Find the page which says: 'Dial it Sen/ices'. Find the number for 'What's on in Sydney for you city)'. Dial the number. What's on? I tow many different items did you hear? Write down one thing you hear.

§3. STUDENT'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE CLASSROOM.

a) Learning by Teaching at the University

What's the best way to motivate listless, uninterested students? Simply turn them into teachers! The technique practiced at several schools and universities, most notably at St. John's College in Annapolis, USA, and at more and more grammar schools in Germany, is called Learning by Teaching; it requires a radical shift in the traditional roles of teacher and learner. The results are overwhelmingly positive, especially in the field of foreign-language instruction.

Learning by teaching is by no means an exclusively modern didactic method. Seneca wrote 2,000 years ago: "Docendo discimus" (We learn by teaching). At St. John's College students teach each other philosophy and physics, ancient Greek and the integral calculus by using the "Great Books"—the original works of Euclid, Shakespeare, Newton, and Freud. There are no textbooks and no professors; the tutors, as they are modestly called, see themselves as guides who know what questions to ask and, more importantly, know when to listen. St. John's students are not extraordinarily brilliant, but they are extremely motivated and critical. By the end of the first semester at the latest, they realize that they themselves are responsible for the quality of the seminars and tutorials.

Surely one cannot expect the average student who is used to being spoon-fed at school to suddenly take upon himself the responsibility for his education! While not every institution of higher learning can make the demands on students that St. John's does, every foreign-language class can profitably use the methods of learning by teaching, as Dr. Jean-Pol Martin at the University of Eichstatt in Germany has proved.

Dr. Martin has done considerable research on a teaching technique he developed and named "Lernen durch Lehren" (Learning through Teaching). He began by assigning German pupils in his secondary-school French classes small tasks such as asking in French for volunteers to complete exercises. The pupils already knew the expressions in French needed to complete these assignments and were speaking simple French to each other instead of passively responding to the teacher. Dr. Martin found that by turning the pupils into teachers, he dramatically increased their motivation. They not only spoke far more in each class, but by working together they also overcame their inhibitions more quickly. A feeling of solidarity developed, the division of the class into an authority (the teacher) and a passive audience (the students) evaporated. The teacher remained, of course, the final expert and could always interrupt and correct. However, the pupils assumed many of the other tasks formerly carried out routinely and unnecessarily by the instructor.

For teachers who enjoy exerting a role of authority and hearing themselves talk, this method requires, of course, a tremendous adjustment. The necessary energy and patience can be rewarded, however, by an astounding increase in motivation and efficiency on the part of the pupils.

The philosophy of a St. John's education and the idea behind Dr. Martin's didactic method can also be applied to university-level courses of practically all sizes and subjects.

A practical example

I he Basic and Advanced Courses in English serve to deepen and expand students' vocabulary and to improve reading and listening comprehension. The 15 to 20 students divide themselves into four or five groups at the beginning of the semester. During the first two

classes teacher14 introduces the course goals and shows how a short story, essay or magazine article can be used to expand vocabulary or to test reading and listening comprehension. The golden rule for both presentation and the classes led be students is: Don't be boring!

After the first two weeks the students begin to plan and lead each class. They can select any text from two or three anthologies of short stories, essays, and articles. The students are absolutely free to choose the material they wish to use. Some of the short stories have exercises included; the texts are of varying difficultly and have a wide range of topics. The students who do not know which exercises to use or are not sure that their handouts have been correctly written can of course always contact teacher for ideas, suggestions, and corrections.

The students have between 45 minutes and one hour to introduce the story or essay they have chosen and to do the relevant vocabulary and comprehension exercises with their fellow students. Teacher refrains from interrupting or commenting until the final half-hour, during which teacher corrects the mistakes made in grammar and word choice in addition to leading a discussion on the various strategies teaching team used.

Finally, teacher grades the student instruction on the basis of several important criteria. Did the student-teachers maintain the interest of all their students? The usual lecture method of teaching is not encouraged, since this kind of instruction tends to make passive listeners of the students, who should be actively involved. Will the content of the chosen text be adequately and comprehensively presented? Will the team teachers use varied and interesting exercises to explain vocabulary items?

The student-instructors must then develop a test that deals with the contents of the story or essay, the new vocabulary, and, if relevant,

[14] Judy Daniel Skinner. 2000. Learning by teaching at the University. The British Council.

the grammar points covered in the lesson. Having to devise a fair and comprehensive test is an effective way to force the new teachers to think about what exactly they wanted to get across to their students.

An enthusiastic response

At the beginning of the semester the students are naturally hesitant and uncertain, but they assume their new roles quickly and speak much more English per class than before. Since all the students know that they will also have their turn as teachers, they are understanding and supportive of the others. Of course, the students have to spend far more time preparing for this new type of class than for the traditional lectures, but they do just that willingly and with enthusiasm. Not only do they learn and practice far more English; they also develop the skill of communicating information to a group, a skill that is required more and more urgently in today's society. In addition, they begin to learn to think critically and independently. This important intellectual ability is, after all, the goal of all university study.

Students will respond with overwhelming enthusiasm to the Learning-by- Teaching method. Of course, teacher has to adjust his/ her role as a teacher, has to learn when to keep quiet and how to listen more carefully. The satisfaction he/she gains from having become a partner in learning and not just a dispenser of information is priceless and makes classroom experience a joy for both teacher and students.

b) Student Generated Exercises

Clarke (1989)[15] asks why materials adaptation in the EFL classroom needs to be done solely by the teacher when greater learner involvement in the process would considerably enhance its value. While remaining sceptical about the possibilities of a fully negotiated syllabus in most classroom contexts, he is convinced that learners

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[15] Clarke D.F. 1989. Materials adaption: Why leave it all to the teacher? ELT Journal.

can—and should—make a greater contribution to what happens in their classrooms. He suggests ways in which learners, as problem-solvers, can create their own tasks, such as by constructing their own substitution tables, by developing their own reading-comprehension questions, or by producing their own data for a CALL vocabulary exercise. He also proposes greater learner involvement in test design. In all these activities, pair- or group-work is integral, and the role assigned to the teacher is that of both linguistic resource and activity coordinator. Working on this cooperative basis is important because "for learners to undertake tasks which other members of their class have devised is likely to result in a higher degree of commitment" (Clarke 1989:135).

This paragraph extends Clarke's ideas with suggestions from the experience at the British Council Teaching Centre in Dubai. Students, were involved in completely creating their own learning texts rather than in just manipulating given material. There is a great difference between the two: The latter produces Student-Involved Exercises (SIEs), and the former, Student-Generated Exercises (SGEs).

A definition and examples of SGEs

Traditionally, learners have largely been mere respondents to teacher-produced worksheet exercises (TPEs). Typically, they have been required to add to, rearrange, or complete a section of one or more texts that have originated outside thetr own linguistic context. By contrast, an SGE requires the students to create the linguistic frame of the exercise from their individual resources, thereby requiring them to make explicit their current understanding of a particular target structure. In other words, students are actively involved in exploiting all their linguistic knowledge of the L2 to express their cognitive internalization of the rules.

To illustrate how SGEs might operate in the classroom, here is a sample lesson plan for teaching the target structure some/any to pre-intermediate students:

Stage 1

1.Expose target structure (TS) via, e.g., a listening passage (not written material).

2.Teacher (T) elicits from the students (SS) whole examples of some/any from the text. T puts all the sentences on the board and asks SS in pairs to try to work out the rules of TS by applying the symbols + - ? to the examples.

3.T elicits the following paradigm from SS and writes it on the board: +   I have got some money. -   I haven't got any money. ?   Have you got any money?

4. T asks SS to think of a suitable context for the TS, e.g., shopping, and asks SS to role play a mini-dialogue in pairs.

Stage 2

5.SS A and B each write five sentences of their own, leaving the TS blank.

6.Each partner tries to answer the other's exercise. SS negotiate meaning where any thing is ambiguous, and correct local errors, e.g., spelling and punctuation. SS ask T to mediate in any disputes.

7.A and B receive back their own answered and corrected exercises. SS evaluate their own success.

8.SS write a second draft of the exercises and submit it to the teacher for approval.

9.SS circulate their final draft exercises to other SS in the class to answer.

To date, I have used SGEs as teaching/learning aids in four different areas:

Grammar

a) With beginner students to illustrate this/ that/these/those. The students had to first agree on appropriate symbols, such as two hands with pointing fingers for these, which they drew on the blackboard. They subsequently had to devise an exercise that used these symbols, like this one from an Iranian girl student:
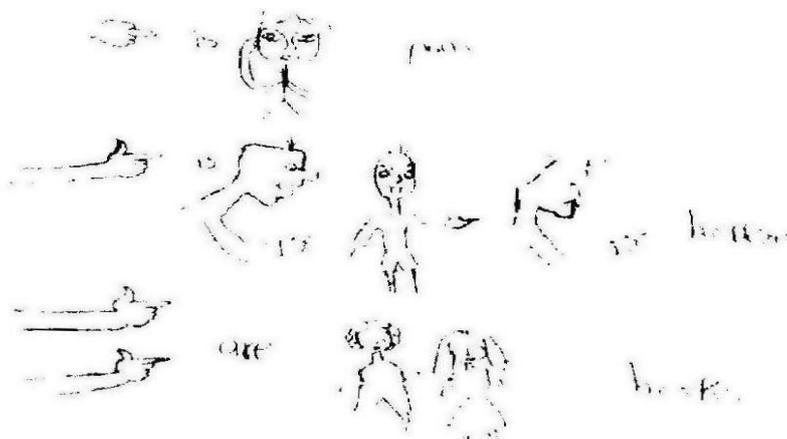
A Student-Generated Exercise Practising Deixis and Possessive Pronouns.

Needless to say, the drawing element of the SGE caused a lot of laughter, but this did not in any way hinder the main objective of the lesson, which was to practise deixis.

b) Again, SGEs were used with beginners to

practise wh- questions.

c) much/many, some/any (see lesson plan

above)

d) comparatives and superlatives

e) to differentiate between various forms of the past and future tenses

Vocabulary

Upper-intermediate students were asked to write a portrait of someone special to them. They gave their partner a choice of adjectives with which to fill in the blanks.

Extended writing

Students wrote a paragraph about a news item of their choice. The infinitive was given in brackets and their partner had to fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verb.

Questionnaires

Intermediate and upper-intermediate students were asked to design their own questionnaires about why they were learning English and what they wanted from their course. They had to interview two other students and write down their replies.

Active involvement

Rubin[16] (Wenden and Rubin 1987:17)" says that students must play an active role in the learning process and that "Being active means that students cannot just be given information, rather they must have opportunities to internalize information in ways which are meaningful to them."

It is important to note that SGEs are not merely artificial vehicles for structure in the way that many contrived teacher-produced exercises are. For example:

Change the following active sentences into the passive:

1. I was cutting down the tree when I cut my finger.

The tree-----------------------

Here all plausible context and meaningfulness has been subordinated to the structure being practised, and as a result the student response is passive and mechanical. What is different about student-generated exercises is that not only do they become meaningful per se through personal involvement in their creation, but the dimension of student-student interaction is added. In practice, the negotiation of meaning that takes place (activity 6 of the lesson plan above) is often heated and

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[16] Wenden A.Z. and J.Rubin. 1987. Learner strategies in Language learning. Englewood Clitts, N.J.: Prentice Hall International

characterized by obstinacy on both sides as the two students fight it out over their respective interpretation of the rules!

Appropriacy

Applebee[17] asserted that the new process approach to writing instruction, with its pre-writing activities, multiple drafts, and peer response, was in fact failing in the classroom because these activities were all too often incorporated wholesale into writing programmes without considering the context of individual writing assignments—that is, whether or not every activity is appropriate in a particular situation. Although this may well be true in many cases, with exercises like the ones generated in the lesson plan above every stage of the process does seem natural and appropriate. More than one draft is needed if the exercises are to be circulated in a usable form around the classroom, and peer response as well as teacher consultation is required in order to produce the final draft.

Productive performance

Stevick (1990)[18] distinguishes between two kinds of performance, the productive and the reflective. The latter consists of such activities as mimicry of pronunciation and traditional substitution frames and transformation drills, whereas in the former the student is required to start with something other than that provided by the teacher or textbook. This productive performance "comes from somewhere deeper within the student than reflective performance does. Other things being equal, the deeper the source of a sentence, the more lasting value it has for learning the language" (Stevick 1990:2).

SGEs are productive both in form and content, as students can choose what they want to say as well as deciding on how best to express it. During extended writing of SGEs, such as the one where students had to write a news-item paragraph, they wrote about news that really interested them, like the Intifada, the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, and a big fire in Bulgaria. Whereas some externally imposed examples are phoney or culturally condescending, such as Noma played the oud and Huda sang

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[17] Applebee A.N. 1984. Context for learning to write. Norwood, N.J.: ABLEX.
[18] Stevick E.W. 1990. The riddle of the "right method". Newsletter.

a song, absurdities like this are obviously avoided when students take responsibility for creating their own content. Learners are naturally more willing to tackle the demands of the task when they are able to make it personally relevant.

Learner strategies.

Since each student's needs and perceptions are unique, it is suggested that "they will have to formulate for themselves the problems they try to solve" (Odell 1973:38). By means of such problem solving, learners are able to test their individual L_2 schemata or cognitive frameworks. The transformation of inner hypotheses into actual language data contrasts with the implicit behaviourism of drills and teacher-produced exercises. Drilling does not involve risk-taking, whereas errors and backsliding are the progress norm. Error analysis and studies of learners' interlanguage have shown that errors are evidence of the internal creative construction process at work. Through encouraging linguistic risk-taking in an affective environment with immediate feedback, SGEs aid rather than hinder the process. Moreover, the risk-taking involved is equal for both partners, the writer of the frame and the writer of the answer.

Six general strategies that may contribute directly to language learning have been identified. SGEs utilize five of the cognitive learning strategies in Rubin's taxonomy (they do not engage the sixth —memorization) (Wenden and Rubin 1987:23-4):

1.Students must clarify and verify their understanding of the L, in an operational way.

2.Deductive reasoning is central to the approach, as students are consciously applying rules to produce the target language.

3.Practice—that is, focusing on accuracy of usage—is fundamental to the method.

4.Monitoring, which Rubin (Wenden and Rubin 1987:19) says is essential to learning, refers to strategies in which the learner notices errors and observes how the message is received and interpreted by the addressee. The peer-correction component obviously provides this feedback.

5. Guessing/Inductive inferencing "refers to strategies which use previously obtained linguistic or conceptual knowledge to derive explicit hypotheses about the linguistic form, semantic meaning or speaker's intention." This process is activated by both designing the frame and filling it in. In practice, this inductive inferencing was shown to be at work even with beginner students when they were asked to write and answer a series of wh- questions. Without having been taught explicitly the rules of inversion, the embryonic internalization of the structure was definitely stimulated, and all the students produced perfectly inverted questions without seeming to be aware of having done so!

Peer correction.

Zamel[19] (1987:709) advocates a pedagogy that acknowledges students' "attempts at creating and negotiating meaning." Teacher-produced exercises are largely decoding exercises, and at lower levels students traditionally do very little free encoding. However, because of the interactive nature of peer correction and the resulting double focus on both structure and meaning, SGEs are both encoding and decoding exercises. They bridge the gap between acquiring the structural code of the target language and exploiting the semantic potential of the system.

As mentioned earlier, students, in writing their own exercises based on a target structure, are testing their internal hypotheses about the L, and its rules. Because of the constraints of the interlanguage of the two students involved in the peer correction, there is genuine hypothesis testing against the linguistic and cognitive framework of each partner. The imperfection of each of the two students' interlanguage systems is vital for this testing of mutual schemata. When traditional TPEs are given in "perfect" I.,, this element of interactive hypothesis testing is missing. Feedback from pair interaction is necessarily immediate and concerned with both accurate structure and the comprehensibility of content, whereas teacher feedback (Zamel 1985) tends to be more concerned with accuracy than meaning.

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[19] Zamel V. 1985. Responding to student writing. TESOL. Quarterly, 19, pp 79-101.

Allwright (1979:172)[20] calls the development of learner independence from the teacher while fostering mutual interdependence among the learners "cooperative learning."

SGEs and the teacher

Breen and Candlin (1980:99) see the role of the teacher as that of both a facilitator in the communication process and as a resource for the students—that is, a consultant. This is certainly true in SGEs, where the teacher is a coordinator of activities and an arbiter in any student disputes rather than the provider of language examples. This is important for learner training because, as Rubin (Wenden and Rubin 1987:17) says, "If students are dependent on teachers to shape language to suit them and to provide them with proper input, they can't begin to take charge of their own learning when the teacher is not there."

From the teacher's point of view, one of the most valuable aspects of SGEs is as a diagnostic tool. Because students are actively tapping all of their linguistic resources to produce examples, the teacher is given a continuous sampling of individual student competence at any stage of the course. SGEs, therefore, highlight a variety of problems that might otherwise have remained hidden and which can be dealt with as soon as they are revealed. As SGEs are used after the pre-teaching of a target structure but before any other consolidation exercises have been done, they act as an immediate check, since by making up their own examples, students are forced to be explicit about their understanding of the rules. One student, for example, was adamant that all English sentences must begin with The, although his partner disagreed. On another occasion, the same student (!) announced categorically that the Past Simple must always be preceded by was or were. It appeared that this pernicious "virus" had already started to infiltrate the minds of other, less self-confident members of the class when it was exposed in an SGE and disposed of rapidly by the teacher.

The advantages of student-generated exercises

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[20] Allwright R. 1979. Language learning through communication practice. Brumtit and Johnson.

In practice, SGEs combine the current cardinal pedagogical principles of:
Delegation: Teachers, as classroom managers, can and should transfer as much of the responsibility for learning as possible to the students.

Cost Effectiveness: In institutions where economy is a major concern, there is no expensive photocopying of TPEs involved, and textbooks themselves might be dispensed with altogether in minimally resourced Third World teaching situations. In other words, the technique is not confined to privileged settings. Moreover, there is a considerable saving of teacher time and energy to be utilized in more creative activities than the mundane production of worksheets.

Self Management: Stern (in the foreword to Wenden and Rubin 1987) deplores the "tendency in pedagogy to infantilize learners and to maintain them in a state of intellectual and emotional dependency on teachers, course materials, tightly organized methods and gadgetry." By letting students create some of their own learning materials and subsequently criticize each other's, teachers are encouraging them from the very beginning to grow up into independent and self-confident L_2 learners.

From the theoretical perspective, there are three facets of SGEs. Students must:

1.discover meaning from within themselves —heuristic

2.test their own hypotheses against the schemata or cognitive framework of their partners—interactive

3.test their mutual hypotheses against the teacher's knowledge of the rules—diagnostic

Moreover, as Richards and Rodgers ! 1982:155-6) say, at least three theoretical views of language explicitly or implicitly underlie all currently popular language-teaching methods—the structural, the functional (semantic), and the interactional. Because SGEs combine aspects of all three, they are theoretically neutral, and this should make them transferable to almost all teaching situations.

From the recent limited experience of using SGEs in the classroom, it can be reported that there has been no initial resistance to them nor has their usefulness

been questioned by the students. Indeed, a fellow teacher who observed SGEs in operation commented on the total involvement of the participants with none of the "slack" that sometimes occurs in, for example, teacher-given information-gap exercises. As with all new pedagogical methods, however, Richards (1984:20) warns that their usefulness should be verifiable formally as well as on an informal observation basis, and that data should be sought on the types of language and linguistic interaction that particular activities actually generate in the classroom. Even so, mental strategies cannot be equated with or necessarily inferred from external behaviour, although Chamot (in Wenden and Rubin 1987:72) says that "greater involvement is thought to result in increased learning."

   I believe that SGEs are valid in the classroom because a genuine task is being undertaken that helps students to bridge the gap between linguistic and communicative competence. Whatever their ultimate theoretical justification, from both the teacher's and the students' point of view, SGEs seem to work.

c) Learner-Made Dictionaries

The idea of having learners produce their own dictionaries is probably not new. However, in this short article I would like to present a few suggestions about dictionaries made by children and by adult learners.

Children

In the case of children aged 7-14, the teacher can ask them to group English words under the following headings: Colours, Animals, Flowers, Vegetables, Fruits, Clothes, Jobs, Family, Institutions, School Subjects, Means of Transport, Hobbies, Shops, and Parts of the Body It is also possible to have words belonging to different parts of speech, as well as expressions and idioms, grouped under the same heading, e.g., Shopping, School, Weather, Holidays, Gardening, etc.

Some grammar may also be introduced into the dictionaries. It is useful for children to make lists of irregular plural nouns and irregular verbs. There are many other possibilities as well—for example, compiling antonyms, two-word verbs, or prepositional phrases.

The English items can be accompanied bv their equivalents in the children's native language. Children will also enjoy drawing pictures to illustrate some of the words. Or they may clip photographs and drawings out of magazines and use them as illustrations. The dictionaries should be produced at home and consulted, when necessary, in the classroom.

Secondary-school students.

Secondary-school learners may compile words and expressions connected with hobbies, music, and sport, as well as geography, biology, history, and other school subjects.

As far as grammar is concerned, secondary-school learners may, for instance, make a list of irregular verbs, grouping them according to the patterns they are able to detect, e.g.,

Group 1:	cost	cost	Cost
	put	put	Put
Group 2:	bring	brought	brought
	fight	fought	Fought
Group 3:	drink	drank	Drunk
	swim	swam	Swum

The dictionaries could also include tables like the one below.

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
length	lengthen	long	Long
	prolong		
intensity	intensify	intense	intensely
		intensive	intensively
catcher	catch	catchy	catchy

University students

University students need dictionaries in which they compile not only general but specialized vocabulary. For instance, a dictionary produced by a biology student specializing in ornithology could include the following sections: Names of Bird Species; Names of Bird Orders, Families, and Genera; Parts of a Bird; Other

Terms Used in Ornithology; Zoology; Botany; Biochemistry; Genetics; and others, depending on the needs. I suggest that the first two sections, namely, the Names of Bird Species and the Names of Bird Orders, Families, and Genera, be trilingual, that is, in addition to the English names and their equivalents in the student's native language, the dictionary should also list their Latin equivalents (scientific names).

University students might also be encouraged to separate active from passive vocabulary or to make lists of false cognates.

Compiling a dictionary is not merely a mechanical activity. It demands that the learner make decisions about classifying items—the degree of difficulty depending on the level of instruction and his/her age. Compiling a dictionary will not only help the student learn a lot of words and expressions, but will also enable him/her to be the proud owner of a unique book.

Have your learners compile dictionaries of their own and you will not regret it. Neither will they.

III. TEACHER RESPONSIBILITY .

§1. THE IDEAL TEACHER PROFILE.

Initial teacher education programmes should he based upon an ideal teacher profile, if they are lo be functional. Each country's profile will be different, depending on its level ol development and local constraints, but targets in knowledge and behavior should be defined before training schemes are drawn up and this is done fairly easily by a means of a needs analysis. In essence, the analysis will be concerned with lour distinct areas (other analyses will deal with learner needs in terms of curriculum, materials, examinations, and so on):

1) General level of education: Teachers should be well educated people, whatever their specialty. A stipulated status (usually marked by a diploma or degree) should be attained in a school, college, or university before entry to an institute of education.

2) Subject competence: This relates to the level of English needed if the language is to be taught effectively.

3) Professional competence: This concerns the ideal teachers* ability lo plan and execute lessons, lo use a textbook selectively, and to produce valid supplementary materials and tests. It concerns their awareness of current approaches, educational theory, cognitive psychology, class management skills, etc.

4)Attitudes: These are the teachers" beliefs about education, their relationships with students, parents and colleagues, their sense of humor, their level of vocation, their work ethic, their general motivation and willingness to be involved in extracurricular activities, their personality, and ability to engender enthusiasm, etc. These factors are more easily "caught" than taught, and teacher educators are role models in these respects.

The Roles of the Teacher in the Classroom.

   If the goal of communicative language teaching is to have one's students become communicatively competent (Larson-Freeman 1986)[21], then, what roles should the teacher play in enabling his/her students to become communicatively competent in learning.

1.   The teacher should be a manager/ planner. This means that s/he must be responsible for students' learning both inside and outside of class. In order to do this, s/he must know the needs and .wants of the students in leading-English. The teacher should specify students' objectives in behavioral and measurable terms and look for a variety of materials and leaching aids for achieving these objectives. The teacher must think of different activities for the whole class, small groups, pairs, and individuals. If the teacher fulfills this role, students will learn according to an appropriate syllabus.

2. The teacher acts as a counselor/social worker. S/he should create an atmosphere of friendliness and trust by listening lo students, accepting their ideas/opinions, and if they have any problems finding ways to solve them. In this way. students will feel relaxed, confident, assured, and not embarrassed. This behavior can definitely lower the students' affective filler (Krashen 1984)[22] which, in turn, may enhance learning.

3. The teacher is a supporter. S/he should promote students' self-reliance by encouraging students lo work Inward independence. In this way. students will develop to the fullest of their ability.

4. The teacher is a motivator/stimulator. The teacher should foster student expectations about learning and arouse their interest to it This can be done by asking them warm up. questions or giving them a purpose tor learning. In this way, students will enjoy learning language and develop a positive attitude towards learning.

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[21] Larsen-Freeman D. 1986. Techniques and principle in language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University.
[22] Krashen S.D. 1984. Principles and practices. N.Y.: Pergamon press.

5. The teacher is a promoter. S/he should promote thinking skills by encouraging students to participate in discussions and decision-making. Students will, thereby, be equipped with skills they can use their whole life long.

6. The teacher is a language instructor. Even as a reading teacher, s/he cannot avoid teaching language. This can be done by presenting new vocabulary, and teaching language patterns and reading strategies appropriate to a particular genre. Teachers should also use English in class because this is additional language input for the students. Apart from this, teachers should correct students* mistakes in language production but only if the mistakes obstruct communication. In this way. students will learn about language usage while using the language in a class.

7. The teacher is a director. The teacher should supervise learning by explaining how students should do specific activities, keeping them constantly engaged in doing tasks. The teacher should also allow time for students to work at their own pace or. if a specific amount of lime is required for an activity, to watch the time. The teacher should also make students use the target language and have students get information from reading on their own, for example

8. The teacher is a monitor. This involves going around the class while students do their activities in order to observe their performance, listen to them, and give advice when needed.

9. The teacher is a co-communicator, by working directly on a one-lo-one basis with students, the teacher becomes a partner in communication.

10. The teacher is an evaluator. S/he should judge the students' performance by helping them lo see if they have completed their tasks successfully, finding out how well they have done, and providing feed-hack. This serves not only to evaluate students, but helps teachers to evaluate their teaching materials and activities to check whether they have reached the leaching objectives or not.

If the teacher fulfills these roles in his class, students will become more efficient. They will be provided with opportunities to use the language for a communicative purpose fulfilling the aim of communicative language teaching.

In the continual assessment of current teaching materials and a systematic endeavor to design more appropriate ones, we see an effort to make the materials compatible with changes and innovations in the underlying disciplines of linguistics and psychology.

Research in these two fields gave birth to classroom procedures that focused on the teaching of structures and vocabulary. In syllabus design, textbooks were stuffed with lists of language structures and lexical items which the teacher was to present, drill, and exploit.

These teaching tasks—presenting, drilling, and exploiting—determined to a large extent the profile of the foreign-language teacher, leaching became a highly skilled operation that was the outcome of hard practice and strenuous observation. Teacher training was based mainly on observation of. Actual teaching sessions, reinforced by micro-teaching to equip the trainees with discrete teaching skills.

Communicative language teaching, for instance, is usually presented as a reaction against former approaches and as a reinforcement and justification tor new leaching procedures.

Resistance to change.

Despite all this, schools are still full of grammar-oriented teachers who refuse to embrace the new trend. These are some of the reasons for teachers' reluctance to conform to the change:

1)Some teachers reject the new trend only because it is "new." As in other domains, traditionalists refuse to change the status quo.

2)Some teachers think that the new approach has introduced an element of disorganization into the materials. In their opinion the merit of structural materials is that they are based on sound criteria of selection and grading.

3)Another category of teachers simply feel more secure with the presentation-drilling techniques that they have been manipulating for years.

4)Others fail to understand the purpose of the new strategies adopted in the design of materials and in the techniques of implementation in the classroom. These

teachers will adopt a structural approach to teaching even if the materials assigned are functional.

5)Conversely, there are those who, out of a sense of duty, will carry out the instructions in the teacher's book to the letter, despite their failure to understand the underlying theoretical assumptions of the tasks they are asked to perform.

Listing these categories of teachers brings into focus a crucial element: the attitude of the individual teacher towards the new reforms and his/her role in the spread of innovative modes of teaching. Widdowson argues that "language teachers have the responsibility to mediate changes in pedagogic practice so as to increase the effectiveness of language teaching." And he adds: "such mediation depends on understanding the relationship between theoretical principle and practical technique" (Widdowson l984:87)[23]. In other words, the new type of teaching materials, as well as the new classroom procedures, call for an alert type of teacher whose role includes far more than merely following the instructions without prior understanding and analysis.

The teacher's role.

'Teachers should be made aware of the role they have to play in the teaching operation as a whole. The majority of teachers relate to applied linguistics as subordinate recipients. They take it for granted that it is the responsibility of the linguist, as a theoretician, and the applied linguist, as a mediator, to find solutions for classroom problems and discover new ways of approaching various practical issues. Such a view yields the following picture:

Linguistics	→	Applied Linguistics	→	Teaching
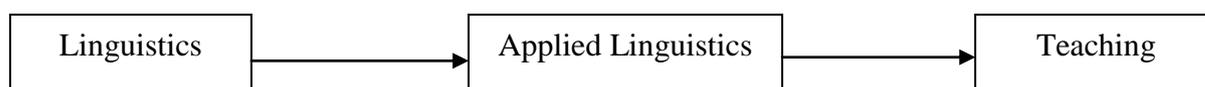
According to this view, the relationship between the three fields is uni-directional, with teaching at the receptive and passive end. This top-down relationship keeps the teacher's role within the confines of the classroom and

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[23] Widdowson H.G. 1984. Explorations in applied linguistics.

restricts his/her responsibility to carrying out the "commands" in the teacher's book.

A more appropriate model is proposed by Campbell (in Stern 1983:36) in which the arrows in the above diagram are bi-directional, giving an interactive aspect to the model. In this view, not only is the teacher as practitioner guided in his work by the applied linguist, but the latter draws on what actually takes place in the classroom.

Stern (1983:44)[24] suggests a more comprehensive model: including a number of other disciplines, such as anthropology, educational theory, history of language, and psychology. His model puts the context of language learning/teaching as an interlevel between level one, including the aforementioned disciplines, and level three, including methodology and organization. Stern says that his model should serve, above all, as an aid to teachers to develop their own "theory" or philosophy . . . in answer to these questions: "Where do you stand on basic issues?" "How do yon see your own teaching?" "What is your view of language and language learning?" "What needs to be done to teach language X or Y?" and so on.

As the above models suggest, any language activity in the classroom is the outcome of many variables and the product of an ongoing interaction between various theoretical levels. Therefore, any teaching task should be well thought out, and second-language teachers should be able to answer questions like Why have you chosen this text? Why have you used this technique? What are the objectives of the activity? How does it fit into the language course as a whole? How successful was the lesson? and so on. The answers to these questions should be traced back to the underlying foundations of language teaching. In other words, teachers should be able to relate a simple classroom exercise to deeper and more theoretical considerations.

Similarly, second/foreign language teachers should be able to account for the specificities of the teaching situation. The assigned textbook is usually designed with potential learners in mind. Sometimes it is even tried out and subsequently
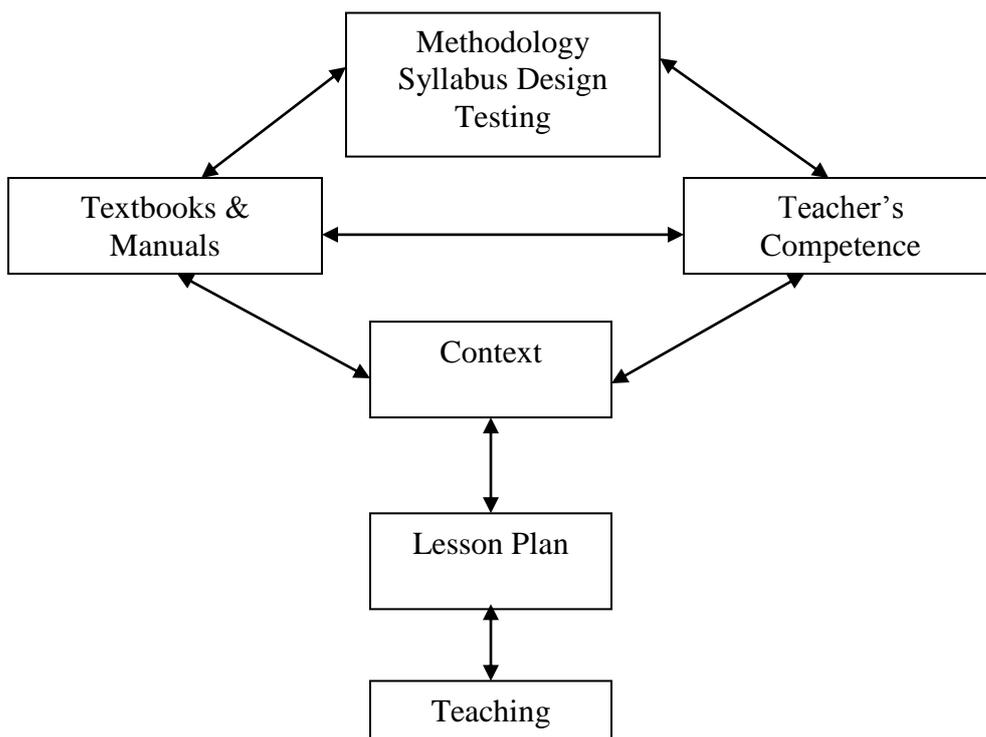
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[24] Stern H.H. 1983. Fundamental concepts of language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

revised before it is used. However, the teacher is in a better position than the textbook writer to know what his/her pupils need, what their interests are, and what should be done to adjust these interests to the requirements of the school curriculum.

The teacher as lesson planner.

In the light of what has been said, teaching should not be equated with, nor limited to, carrying out the directions in the teacher's book. Although these should not be rejected altogether, teachers ought to design their own lesson plans, keeping the instructions they think are appropriate, adapting the ones that can be adapted, ignoring what is not suitable, and even in setting their own activities and supplementary materials it need be.

By designing their lesson plans, foreign-language teachers adopt a multifaceted approach. The textbook is there to guide them as far as the locus of the lesson is concerned, but they must take into account the context and the learners. Teachers who would do this should be able to resort to their knowledge of the underlying bases in the three fields of methodology, syllabus design, and testing. The diagram below gives an idea of the active role of the teacher in preparing the lesson plan, teaching it, and evaluating the whole performance.

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              ┌─────────────────────┐
              │    Methodology      │
              │  Syllabus Design    │
              │      Testing        │
              └─────────────────────┘
             ↗                       ↖
┌─────────────────┐           ┌─────────────────┐
│  Textbooks &    │ ←───────→ │   Teacher's     │
│    Manuals      │           │   Competence    │
└─────────────────┘           └─────────────────┘
             ↘                       ↙
              ┌─────────────────────┐
              │      Context        │
              └─────────────────────┘
                        ↕
              ┌─────────────────────┐
              │    Lesson Plan      │
              └─────────────────────┘
                        ↕
              ┌─────────────────────┐
              │      Teaching       │
              └─────────────────────┘
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It is obvious that lesson planning is central to any teaching activity. This does not mean that the lesson plan should replace the textbook; both are necessary for effective teaching. However, unlike the textbook, the lesson plan is "ephemeral" in a positive sense. That is, it is subject to changes in the context that stands for the setting, the pupils, their learning styles, the time of the lesson, and the objectives of the course. Lesson planning is a process, and, as indicated in the diagram, this process is controlled by an evaluation that parallels and goes hand in hand with all the teaching activities.

The teacher's competence—including both pedagogic and linguistic competence—interacts directly with the textbook. The diagram puts the textbook writer and the teacher on an equal footing. A horizontal interaction goes on between them, and a vertical interaction involves each of them with, at the upper end, the three mother disciplines and, at the lower end, the context of teaching.

Up-to-date mediators.

This diagram helps us see the complexity of the teaching act. It considers the teacher as mediator, eliminating the imaginary line between applied linguistics and teaching. The profile of the teacher as passive executant, which used to prevail, is no longer valid. Therefore, unless teachers try to keep abreast of the literature on second/foreign-language teaching, they will not be able to understand the rationale of recent and changing classroom practices, nor will they be able to "mediate" between theory and practice in order to design and evaluate their own lessons.

§2. TEACHER DEVELOPMENT AS AN ONGOING PROCESS.

In an inspirational paper given at a conference in ltaly, then published in English Teaching forum and later included in a forum anthology, Mary Finocchiaro discusses teacher development as an ongoing process (Finocchiaro 1989)[25]: She explains that good teachers are made, not born. With the right training and classroom habits, teachers can develop in themselves the characteristics of superior teachers.

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[25] Finnocchiaro M. 1989. Teacher development: Acontinuing process. English Teaching Forum, 29, 2, pp 2-7.

All of us in the EFL/ESL profession are interested in good teaching. We engage in many kinds of professional-development activities to improve ourselves as teachers.

There are some suggestions about to teacher about good foreign language teaching these suggestions can be grouped into three categories, which reflect Finocchiaro's habits and characteristics, and research on effective teaching (Aydelott 1990[26]; Gaies 1984[27]; Prodromou 1991[28]) This research indicates that effective instruction takes place when teachers display positive attitudes toward students and the course content, utilize class time efficiently, and give clear instructions and purposeful assignments. The three categories of advice are: classroom management, relations with students, and personal traits.

Classroom management.

1) Use the target language in class. English should be used for all communication in the class. "Real communication takes place before and after the lesson," one respondent reminds us, "and having these conversations in English is a chance for the students to practice their English."

2) Speak at the students' level. Give them comprehensible language while teaching. As one respondent explains: "The teacher's first duty is to teach according to the level and needs of the students. Try not to show off while teaching; you don't have to make them believe that you speak English well." One respondent suggests that teachers avoid using texts full of unknown vocabulary and structures, because such texts "create frustration and demotivate students."

3)State the lesson's objectives at the beginning of each class. Giving the aims of the lesson at the beginning will make the lesson more meaningful for the students, and, according to one respondent, will help students "develop regular study habits."

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[26] Audelott J. 1990. What makes a good teacher? Ankara, Turkey.
[27] Gaiess S. 1984. ESL teacher education. Mexico City.
[28] Prodromou L. 1991. The good language teacher. English teaching Forum, 29, 2, pp 2-7.

4)Give clear instructions. Before giving instructions, make sure that the students are paying attention. Don't give the instructions so quickly that students can't follow them.

Relations with students.

1) Motivate the students in the first few minutes of each class. Although the importance of student motivation was mentioned by most of the respondents, they do not all agree on how teachers can motivate their students. One suggests: "Give students time to relax, have discussions on topics they are interested in—their problems maybe." Another says: "Don't spend too much time on socializing activities . . . spend more time on learning tasks." Several recommend jokes as a technique to get the students' attention, especially at the start of the lesson.

2) Give positive feedback. According to one respondent, "Giving negative feedback might be discouraging and intimidating, especially if students are shy." Another says: "Never embarrass them, be tolerant."

3)Avoid immediate error correction. All the respondents who mentioned error correction agree that immediate correction should be avoided because it discourages students' willingness to participate. One advises: "Correct the frequent errors at the end of the activity without referring to individuals."

Personal traits.

1.Be organized. "Plan your teaching time carefully and intelligently," says one respondent. Another advises: "Have a clear idea of what you're going to teach. Don't jump from one topic to another . . . because if you don't know what you're doing, then the students will be lost, too, and spend their time trying to figure out your aim."

2.Be punctual One respondent states: "Never be late. Students will lose their respect for you and they will tend to be truant. They will not see you as an authority." Concerning discipline, another respondent recommends: "Set your policies for discipline at the beginning of the course. Make it clear to your students that rules are essential for managing the class effectively."

3.Be cheerful and energetic in class. There was some disagreement between the respondents on how the teacher should behave in class—in particular, on how a teacher can demonstrate enthusiasm and stimulate student participation. One respondent says: "Smile, never frown! How can we expect students to be enthusiastic and active in front of a yawning or frowning teacher?" Another says: "You will be more efficient if you are active and never sit down, and this will give rise to increased student participation."

It would be a mistake to assume that the 10 suggestions given above are related to one particular foreign- language teaching method. Although techniques may change to reflect developments in language-teaching theory, the traits of effective language teachers remain constant. Becoming a superior teacher still requires training and time. As in any other profession, a knowledge of the fundamentals plus experience practicing them are what make a good teacher better.

Learning from the Learner.

In the past few years and as a consequence of the multiple changes and innovations taking place in English language teaching, a great emphasis has been placed on the learner as the main focus of attention. This gave rise to the notion of a learner-centred or learner-based curriculum, which differs notably from the traditional curriculum, as it is based primarily on a collaborative process between teachers and learners rather than on a number of rules and norms imposed from outside (Nunan 1988).

In a parallel direction, there has been a tendency to focus on learners' needs. It is assumed that a particular syllabus for a particular group of learners should not be designed in a vacuum; rather, it should match students' needs as closely as possible. The idea of focusing on learners' needs owes much to the Council of Europe projects conducted by Richterich and Wilkins[29] (1975/1980) and Richterich and Chancerel (1977/1980). These scholars attempted to identify and define the needs of European adult learners by means of "quantitative and qualitative information,"

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[29] Richterich R. and D.A. Wilkings. 1975/1980. System development in adult second-language learning. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Pergamon Press.

which should make it possible to depart from a "common core" of functions and topics at the start of the programme. Their work has been questioned because of their excessive generalizations, as they intended to come up with a standard model that could be applied to all the member states of the European Council. Munby (1978) also proposed a framework of needs analysis that was relatively influential initially but widely criticized in later years. He produced an end-driven system that allowed him to make syllabuses based on a paradigm of native-speaker competence but disregarding methodological and administrative variables.

This idea of considering the learner as much as possible is directly connected with the title of this article, "Learning from the Learner." English-language teachers should learn continually from their students, with the purpose of incorporating everything they learn into their teaching.

What can English teachers learn from their learners?

Teachers are constantly being enriched by daily contact with their learners, which puts them in touch with different perspectives and ways of looking at things. Things that teachers may usefully learn from their pupils include the following.

Students' Attitudes towards English and the English Class. Are these positive or negative? Do the students consider English important? How do they rate it in comparison with other subjects or disciplines? What are their attitudes towards the target culture?

Students' Motivations. Are they learning English just because it is required? Because they like it? Because they are interested in British/American culture and/or literature? Because they think they may get a better job? Because they would like to communicate with people in other countries? Because they like travelling?

Learners' Preferences for Teaching Materials. Do they consider textbooks necessary? What sort do they like best? What language do they prefer for explanations in their teaching materials? Do they like having a glossary of vocabulary at the end of the textbook? What sort of characters do they prefer in their textbooks? What sort of topics do they like best?

Learners' Preferences for Teaching Activities. What activities do they find most interesting/useful? How do they rate in interest/usefulness the various teaching activities (roleplay, dictations, writing practice, listening to tapes/songs, pronunciation exercises, oral tasks, watching videos, etc.)?

Learners' Preferences for Different Forms of Classroom Interaction. Do they like working in pairs, in small/large groups, individually, etc.?

Learners' Views on the Four Language Skills. How do they rate in importance the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)?

Learners' Preferences regarding the Assessment Method/System. When and how would students like to be assessed? By means of tests, through individual/group projects, self-assessment, etc.?

Learners' Views on the Roles of the Teacher and the Learners. Are students happy with the teacher's management of the class? What aspects can be improved? Does the student prefer a passive or an active role?

Learners' Use of Learning Strategies and Study Skills. Are learners aware of their own use of learning strategies? What sort of learning strategies do they prefer to use? When do they make use of learning strategies?

Many other issues could be included in the above list, depending on the situation and the teacher's objectives. Certainly, the issues listed should be taken into account, as they will lead to a better understanding of what our students want and need, which should result in a general improvement of teaching and learning. Furthermore, through this process teachers may become researchers of their own classes, and this may bring about a form of teacher self-development without the teacher having to leave the classroom.

How can we learn from our learners?

Once those areas of the teaching and learning processes that can be learned from our learners have been explored, we must next consider how all this can be learned— that is to say, the instruments that can be used to gather that information.

This will, again, depend on our aims, together with our own teaching and learning situation. The most common methods of information gathering are:

Observation. A careful observation of what is going on in the classroom may give us a clear indication of areas for analysis. Observation can be structured or unstructured, and may involve the use of audio or video recording equipment. In general, observation is selective in focus and can easily be adapted to the individual classroom situation. However, it can interfere with teaching and classroom management.

Observation can be used to discover things about pupil interaction, the pupils' and teacher's language, students' participation, teacher and pupil movement in the classroom, etc.

Questionnaires. Questions may be open-ended, requiring respondents to answer in their own words, or multiple choice, requiring them to choose one or more answers from among those given. The students may also be provided with checklists or rating scales. When designing the questionnaire, the teacher should bear in mind the method to be used for analyzing the data obtained. Certain types of data may be analyzed manually, while other types, because of the large amount, the complexity, or attention to particular variables, will have to be processed by computer, using a statistical test such as ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), Factor Analysis, Chi-square, t-test, etc.

Teachers should also determine to what extent the questionnaires are reliable and valid.

Individual/Group Interviews. Answers obtained from interviews tend to be more valid than those from questionnaires, but interviews are usually more time-consuming to administer. Interviewers have to be careful not to influence the respondents' answers by the way the questions are formulated (bias).

Interviews can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured, and they can be individual or group interviews. Structured interviews are just a series of questions and answers. Semi-structured interviews often have an initial question followed by probes. This is the type most widely favoured by researchers on education, as it

gives students the opportunity to express themselves freely under the interviewer's control. Individual respondents determine the shape of unstructured interviews. Group interviews can be carried out with varying degrees of structure; the interaction of respondents is the most important element.

Individual/Group Discussions. The points to be considered are written on the board or on a piece of paper and discussed in groups or by the class as a whole.

Self-Reports. Students are asked to write a report on a general or specific question. The teacher may discuss with the whole class some of the points raised by the students.

Diaries. Students are asked to keep a record of their daily experience in the English class. Although diaries should be personal, some of the students may be willing to share parts of their diaries with the teacher and the rest of the class.

Protocols. These are used as self-report verbal data and can be done retrospectively, or simultaneously with a particular task. sheet filled out by the students. Protocols have been used by a number of investigators (Hosenfeld 1976, Flower and Hayes 1981, Arndt 1987) to discover what is going on during a problem-solving activity. The verbal report may then be coded according to a scheme that will illustrate the kinds of mental operations engaged in by the subject at different stages of the activity.

Sociometric Measures. These are usually based on a question Sociometric measures give information about pupils' interpersonal relationships, and they are useful for deciding on the seating plan in a classroom, grouping students for group or pair work, etc.

Unobtrusive Measures. McCormick and James refer to this as "data being collected without the participant being aware of it" (1983:213). This includes physical traces, archives, notice boards, graffiti, letters to parents, etc.

When can we learn from our learners?

It is important to consider when the information should be collected. Certain items of information, such as students' interests or attitudes, should be gathered at

the beginning of the course so that the data can be integrated into course planning. An evaluation of the course should be conducted towards the end, when students and teacher have a more global view of class work. We believe, however, that teachers should be learning from their students all the time, as an ongoing process.

Three models for learning from our learners

I next present three simple models of learning from our learners. F'ach is based on a questionnaire with several variants.

A Needs-Analysis Instrument. The first one is a basic "needs analysis" variant adapted from Shaw's "Ad Hoc Needs Analysis" (1982). It was used at the beginning of the school year. Pupils were asked to note 10 general objectives according to their degree of interest, first individually and then in groups of four. This was followed by a general group discussion (see Appendix3).

The information obtained was extremely valuable for course and lesson planning. Questionnaires were administered to live groups of first-year B.U.P.[1] aged 13 to 15. Pupils gave the highest priority to listening to tapes, oral practice, and reading. Writing and the study of cultural aspects were valued lowest. Grammar practice, together with pair- and group-work activities, occupied a middle position in the students' ranking.

Pupils participated actively in the discussion, which was conducted in Spanish to favour communication. At the end of the year, the objectives explored at the beginning were taken up again to examine whether the objectives proposed had been partially or completely fulfilled.

Pupils' Attitudes Questionnaire. The other two questionnaires were administered at the end of the course. The first was designed to learn pupils' attitudes and views towards the teaching they had received,

together with the importance they gave to English in relation to other subjects in the curriculum. A questionnaire consisting of 10 questions was administered to a group of 40 first-year B.U.P. pupils (see Appendix 4. The questions were open-ended. The results indicated that English was generally considered an interesting

subject, although it was more difficult for them than most of their other subjects. Pupils stressed the importance of having a good classroom atmosphere, but they criticized their teachers for being very demanding.

Students' Evaluation Questionnaire. The other questionnaire was concerned with students' evaluation of both the teaching and learning processes. It consisted of 34 items, and third-year B.U.P. pupils aged 16 to 18 were asked to answer them with three possible alternatives: "Yes, always," "Sometimes," and "No, never." It was divided into six main sections. The first one focused on various aspects of lesson planning and classroom management, such as the use of the blackboard and teaching aids, classroom language, and so on. The second section was devised to obtain pupils' views on the teaching materials (textbook and workbook) they were using.

The third section centred on the method of assessment. The remaining three sections were directed to reveal students' views on teacher-student and teacher-whole class relationships, together with pupils' perceptions of the teacher as a person. Learners were also given the opportunity to add further comments if they desired.

The results obtained partially confirmed our expectations, but pupils identified certain issues we were not aware of in connection with our teaching practice. In general, they said they considered good use was made of the blackboard; we believed rather the opposite. Contrary to teachers' expectations, pupils tended to agree that there was some favouritism, and they also made it clear that the teachers did not feel completely comfortable in their classes.

The need for adaptation.

The three models described above indicate the areas that may be covered, together with the instruments to be used to help us learn from our learners. As usually happens in education, other teaching and learning contexts will require that they be adapted. We believe that becoming aware of ways in which to learn from our learners will make us better teachers.

Type*s of teacher speech modifications facilitate comprehension.*

It is not surprising that in all sorts of classrooms, not only those devoted to the teaching and learning of languages, it is the teacher who does by far the most talking. However, teachers who obtain an objective record of their teaching by recording and reviewing their lessons are generally surprised by just how much talking they do. In an in-service programme in which teachers were asked to record and analyse one of their lessons, one of the most frequent comments made by teachers asked what surprised them most, was the amount of talking they did. (For an account of this programme, see Nunan 1990.)[30] Of course, whether or not it is considered a good thing for teachers to spend 70 or 80 per cent of class time talking will depend on the objectives of a lesson and where it fits into the overall scheme of the course or programme. Normative statements sometimes appear that teacher talk is 'bad', and while it can be argued that excessive teacher talk is to be avoided, determining what is or is not 'excessive' will always be a matter of judgement. It can also be argued that in many foreign language classrooms, teacher talk is important in providing learners with the only substantial live target language input they are likely to receive.

When determining the appropriateness or otherwise of the quantity of teacher talk, then, we need to take into account a variety of factors including:

1. The point in the lesson in which the talking occurs.
2. What prompts the teacher talk: whether it is planned or spontaneous, and, if spontaneous, whether the ensuing digression is helpful or not.
3. The value of the talk as potentially useful input for acquisition

Another issue of concern is code switching between the first and target language by the teacher and the effect of this on pupil talk. In many foreign language classrooms, it has been found that teachers and learners make far

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[30] Nunan D. 1990. The teacher-centered curriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

greater use of their mother tongue than they do of the target language. Zilm (1989)*in an investigation of target language use in her German classes, discovered code-switching was affected by the following factors:

1. The nature of the activity.
2. The teacher's perceptions of how the students learn.
3. Teacher perceptions of the role and functions of the native and target language (for example, English was used exclusively for disciplining student).
4. Student perceptions of the role of the target and native language (students regarded German as the 'end' rather than the means to learning, and tended only to value its use in controlled situations such as set tasks and manipulative drills).
5. The use of English by the teacher.

The relationship between the teacher's use of the first or target language, and the pupils' use of the first or target language was an interesting finding. In a follow-up action research project, Zilm discovered that when she increased her use of German in class, rjer students' use of German, the target language, rose proportionally. (See also Strong's (1986) research on teachers' target language use in bilingual and submersion classes.)

In the literature, there are literally dozens of investigations of the speech modifications made by teachers. This research follows on from that which has investigated the speech modifications made by primary caregivers to children and by native speakers to non-native speakers (so called motherese and foreigner talk). Investigators have studied a wide range of speech phenomena, including modifications to phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse. In language classrooms, interest in the speech modifications made by teachers is motivated by the hypothesis that these modifications make language more comprehensible, and therefore, potentially more valuable for acquisition. In his extensive review of the literature, Chaudron

summarises the research on teacher speech in language classrooms which shows that the following modifications occur:

1. Rates of speech appear to be slower.
2. Pauses, which may be evidence of the speaker planning more, are possibly more frequent and longer.
3. Pronunciation tends to be exaggerated and simplified.
4. Vocabulary use is more basic.
5. Degree of subordination is lower.
6. More declaratives and statements are used than questions.
   7. Teachers may self-repeat
   more frequently.

While most studies of teacher speech modifications have taken place in classrooms where the modifications have not been deliberately made, nor manipulated experimentally, there are a number of experimental investigations into the effect of speech modifications on comprehension (and therefore, it is presumed, on acquisition). Some studies have looked at the effect of simplified input, in which the cognitive and linguistic load on the learner is reduced. Others have looked at the effect of elaboration. Elaborated input contains redundant information, the redundancy being achieved through repetition, paraphrase, slower speech and so on. These studies typically present one group of learners with an unmodified listening text and another group with a text which, although containing the same information, is modified in ways hypothesised to enhance comprehension. In their literature review, Parker and Chaudron (1987) conclude that the studies seem to indicate that, 'linguistic simplifications such as simpler syntax and simpler vocabulary do not have as significant an effect on L2 comprehension as elaborative modifications' (p. 6). However, as they point out, the studies tend to confound the different modificational categories. The fact that the criterion measure of comprehension is typically a cloze,

multiple choice or true/false test also raises questions about the results of the studies. (In effect, the researchers are implicitly 'defining' comprehension as the ability to complete cloze, multiple choice and true/false questions.)

If future research confirms the value of elaboration over modification, it will strengthen the view that when talking to second language learners, teachers should try to use elaborated rather than simplified language. In other words, they should try to build in redundancy through the use of repetition, paraphrase and rhetorical markers rather than simplifying their grammar and vocabulary.

Teacher questions.

Teacher questions have been the focus of research attention in both content classrooms (that is, classrooms devoted to teaching science, mathematics, geography, etc.) and language classrooms for many years (Gerot l989).This is hardly surprising, given the importance of questions to pedagogy. (Questions are also relatively easy to observe, document and analyse which might also explain their attraction for some researchers.) Despite their importance, Good and Brophy, in commenting on the use of questions in content classrooms, conclude that:

Unfortunately, in too many classrooms, discussions are parrot-like sessions, with teachers asking a question, receiving a student response, asking a question of a new student and so forth. Such 'discussions' typically are boring and accomplish little other than the assessment of students' factual knowledge. Such assessment is important, but if that is all that is done in discussion, students may come to perceive that the teacher is interested only in finding out who knows the answers. When this occurs, discussion becomes a fragmented ritual rather than a meaningful, enjoyable process. Furthermore, students often do not perceive a clear logical sequence to factual questions. Such questions seem more like an oral test than a lesson

intended to teach content or to engage students in a meaningful discussion. (Good and Brophy 1987: 11)

Classroom research has also shown that certain types of questioning behaviour have persisted over many years. Borge et al. (1970) point out that factual questions to determine whether or not students know basic information are far more frequent than higher-order questions which encourage students to reflect on their knowledge, attitudes and beliefs, or which require them to follow through and justify a particular line of reasoning.

The following running sequence of teacher questions is extracted from a teacher-student exchange in which the teacher is trying to get the students to talk about an excursion they went on the previous week. It is worth noting that virtually all of the questions are 'closed' requiring little more than yes/no or single-word responses from the students.

Hello, Monica how are you?

Last Wednesday, you went to (name deleted|, didn't you?

What did you do on Wednesday?

It was nice, was it?

Did you look at the animals?

What else?

Zdravko, did you go?

What animals did you see?

Was it good?

Can you draw it?

Is it small or big?

What did you do?

In content classrooms, there has been considerable research on the length of time teachers wait after asking a question. This 'wait time' research is predicated on the belief that it is important for students to have sufficient

time to think about questions after they have been asked before attempting to answer them. Rowe (1974, 1986) found that, on average, teachers waited less than a second before calling on a student to respond, and that only a further second was then allowed for the student to answer before the teachers intervened, either supplying the required response themselves, rephrasing the question, or calling on some other student to respond.

Even when given specific training, some teachers never managed to extend their wait time beyond one or two seconds. In those classrooms where teachers did manage to extend their wait time from three to five seconds after asking a question, there was more participation by more students. In particular, the following effects were observed:

1. There was an increase in the average length of student responses.
2. Unsolicited, but appropriate, student responses increased.
3. Failures to respond decreased.
4. There was an increase in speculative responses.
5. There was an increase in student-to-student comparisons of data.
6. Inferential statements increased.
7. Student-initiated questions increased.
8. Students generally made a greater variety of verbal contributions to the lesson.

The issue of wait time is obviously important in language classrooms, not only because of the greater processing time required to comprehend and interpret questions in a second or foreign language but also because of the findings by Rowe. If we believe that acquisition will be maximally facilitated when learners are pushed to the limits of their competence, then, on the evidence of Rowe, wait time should be increased.

The limited amount of research on wait time in language classrooms has yielded mixed results. Shrum and Tech (1985) investigated French and German high school classes and came to similar conclusions as Rowe,

finding that wait time following questions was less than two seconds. Long and Crookes (1986) report a similar finding in an investigation of ESL teachers in Hawaii. Holley and King (1971) found that when teachers of German were trained to increase their wait time, the length and complexity of student responses increased.

The study by Long and Crookes found that increased wait time did not lead to greater mastery of content by ESL pupils, although this may have been due to the time scale of the study. If it had been conducted over a longer period of time, the researcher may have obtained a significant result. Unfortunately, Long and Crookes do not report whether increased wait time led to more participation or more complex language by students.

Another issue relevant to the management of learning concerns the distribution of questions. It is generally considered desirable to distribute questions among all students rather than restricting them to a select few. While some students who do not actively participate in lessons do well, the overwhelming evidence presented in this book is that, all other things being equal, students will improve more rapidly if they are actively engaged in interaction than if they are passive. In teacher-fronted interactions, by distributing response opportunities widely, all learners are kept alert and given an opportunity to respond (Good and Brophy 1987: 495)There are, of course, some students, who might appear to be passive in that they are not responding overtly, but who are, in fact, mentally engaged in their lessons - Bailey, personal communication.)

While most teachers probably imagine that they are even-handed in their treatment of students, they might find, if they obtain an objective record of their teaching, that they favour certain students over others with our questions. Research shows that there is a great deal of variation in the chances afforded to different pupils to speak in class. Jackson and Lahaderne (1967), for example, found that some students were up to twenty-five times more likely to be called upon to speak than others. Furthermore,

it is generally the more able students who get called upon. If we accept that one learns to speak by speaking, this means that those most in need of the opportunity to speak are probably given the least amount of classroom talking time.

One way of monitoring this aspect of our teaching is to audiotape or videotape our teaching over several lessons, or get a friend or colleague to observe us, and note down the number of questions we direct to each student. (Techniques for doing this, through the use of seating chart observation records, are set out in Nunan 1989b.) Researchers have also found that there is a tendency for teachers to restrict their questions to certain 'action zones' in the classroom (these are usually towards the front).

One final aspect of questioning behaviour worth looking at is the use of display and referential questions. Display questions are those to which we know the answer (for example, when we hold up a book and ask, 'Is this a book?') Referential questions, on the other hand, are those to which the asker does not know the answer. In classrooms of all kinds, display questions are far more common than referential questions. Outside the classroom, however, they are virtually never used - to begin asking display questions in social situations outside the classroom could lead to highly undesirable consequences.

Several investigations have been carried out into the use of display and referential questions in language classrooms. Long and Sato (1983) looked at forms and functions of teachers' questions. They found significant differences between the types of question that learners encountered in class and out of class: for example, teachers asked more display questions and fewer referential questions. Brock (1986) discovered that teachers could be trained to increase the number of referential questions they ask, and that this prompted students to provide significantly longer and syntactically more complex responses. Nunan (1987a) also found that the use of referential questions by the teacher resulted in more complex language by students.

Student interaction was also more like natural discourse (that is, the discourse typical of out-of-class encounters).

The following features, which are characteristic of genuine communication, appear in the data: content-based topic nominations by learners; student-student interactions; an increase in the length and complexity of student turns; the negotiation of meaning by students and teacher, with a concomitant increase in the number of clarification requests and comprehension checks. There is even an instance of a student disagreeing with the teacher. (Nunan 1987a: 143).

Not all researchers agree that the distinction between display and referential questions is a useful one. Van Lier (1988), for example, argues that the distinction is irrelevant, as the function of teacher questions is to elicit learner language, and from this perspective whether or not teachers already know the answer to the question is unimportant.

Elicitation is another common feature of classroom teacher questions. Elicitation methods are designed to extract from students information which might otherwise have been provided by the teacher, and there were many examples in the database for this book of teachers extracting (sometimes painfully) information from students which could have been provided by the teacher in a few seconds.

Feedback on learner performance.

Instructing students and providing feedback on performance are probably the two most commonly conceived classroom functions of teachers.

Of the various ways in which feedback can be classified, Ъпе of the most frequent and simplest distinctions is between positive and negative feedback. For many years, behaviourist-inspired research has found that positive feedback is much more effective than negative feedback in changing pupil behaviour. Positive feedback has two principal functions: to

let students know that they have performed correctly, and to increase motivation through praise. (See appendix 5)

Much of the feedback provided by teachers often seems to be rather automatic, and its ultimate effect on the learners is doubtful. Consider the following feedback sequence taken from portion of a lesson.

Good   All right Okay Clock? Good   Good   Right   Okay   What? Right   Very good   Very good   All right The . . . ?   Okay   Right

In the lesson from which this sequence was taken, the positive feedback consists of short interjections of 'good' 'okay' and 'all right'. Negative feedback consists exclusively of the teacher repeating the student's response with a rising intonation. All students, even low proficiency students such as the ones taking part in this lesson have no trouble recognising this as a phonologically marked cue indicating that an incorrect response has been given.

In the section on questions, you can refer to research which indicate that more able students were much more likely to be given the opportunity to speak than less able students. The research on who gets positive and negative feedback is just as telling:

When high-achieving students gave a right answer, they were praised 12 percent of the time. Low-achieving students were praised only 6 percent of the time following a right answer. Even though they gave fewer correct answers, low-achieving students received proportionately less praise. Similarly, low achievers were more likely to be criticized for wrong answers. They were criticized 18 percent of the time, and high achievers were criticised 6 percent of the time. Furthermore, teachers were twice as likely to stay with high-achieving students (repeat the question, proside a clue. ask a new question) when they made no response, said [1]I don't know,' or answered incorrectly. (Good and Brophy 1987: 32)

It is important that we develop an awareness, not only of the ways in which we provide feedback to learners, but also that we monitor who gets the feedback. It is clear from research that teachers, in general, are not aware of the signals they transmit to individual students. This is particularly important in content classrooms containing both first and second language speakers. Investigations carried out in mixed classrooms indicate that teachers address the non-native speakers much less frequently, that interactions tend to be managerial rather than instructional, and that such learners receive more negative feedback than the native speakers.

(For examples of this research, see Laosa 1979, cited in Chaudron 1988, and Schinke-Llano 1983.)

A rather idiosyncratic view of the role of feedback in foreign language teaching is taken by Gattegno who argues that praise and criticism as conventionally delivered breeds a dependency relationship between teacher and learners. In Gattegno's view, learners strive to provide appropriate responses to earn the approval of the teacher, and that this inhibits the development of their own internal criteria for judging the correctness or otherwise of their attempts at using the target language.

In my approach, I do not correct learners; I only throw them back onto themselves to elaborate further their criteria and to use them more completely. Against a common teachers' demand for immediate correctness through so-called imitation, I take upon myself the burden of controlling myself so as not to interfere. By doing so I give time to a student to make sense of 'mistakes' (which are precious indicators of the discrepancy between what is and what should be) and to develop exercises that foster progress. (Gattegno1972:31)

Whatever the merits or otherwise of this approach (and we look at Gattegno's Silent Way in greater detail in Chapter 12) it is extremely difficult not to provide corrective feedback in the

classroom. In addition, there is compelling evidence that learners expect feedback. In a major investigation of the learning preferences of adult * ESL learners, error correction by the teacher was one of the most highly valued and desired classroom activities (Willing 1988).

§3. ASSESING AND IMPROVING TEACHER PERFOMANCE.

Anything that can be done to improve teachers' classroom performance is important. Recognizing the need to modify the present system of evaluating teachers' performance, we devised an evaluation sheet for assessing teachers of English[31]. (See appendix 6)

A design for evaluating teacher performance.

The purpose of the evaluation sheet is: first, to determine the teacher's performance in the four categories described above; second, to diagnose his/her weaknesses; and third, to propose training programmes for the teachers and do follow-up observations in their classrooms.

The four aspects are, weighted as follows:

1.Technical knowledge

2.Methods of teaching

3.Teacher-student relations

4.General conduct and manner

The total scores translated into the following assessments:

90 and above	Excellent
80-89	Very good
60-79	Good
50-59	Satisfactory
Below 50	Weak

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[31] Child D. 1986. Applications of psychological for the teacher. London: Renebart and Winston.

Generally speaking, the evaluation sheet proves very effective, and it is clear that its specific criteria will help senior teachers/advisers in their observations of teachers' performance. The evaluation sheet also helpes the evaluators to comment on the particular strengths and weaknesses of the teachers' performance. Consequently, training programs could be organised to meet the teachers' specific needs.

Helping teachers improve their performance.

In helping teachers to increase their effectiveness in the classroom and thus their students' potential as learners, I have found that a few general admonitions, as well as some particular do's and don'ts, are useful. Two particular areas that we have found helpful in improving teachers' performance relate to (1) learning to manage group discussion as a teaching technique, and (2) becoming aware of negative personality characteristics that can be modified or eliminated.

Learning Group-Management Skills. Learning to manage group discussion is a particularly useful skill for both teachers and teacher trainers, for it offers learners an opportunity to interact with each other. Although it is one of the oldest instructional techniques, it is one of the most effective. For trainees and students alike, it can be a motivating and pleasurable, as well as an effective, experience.

Although to a casual observer managing a group discussion seems to require little instructional skill, a great deal of preparation, organization, leadership, and evaluation are involved. Good group discussion rarely occurs by chance; a lot of hard work has taken place behind the scenes. And if learning is to be reinforced, work still remains to be done after the discussion is finished.

To properly manage a group discussion, the teacher should be sure to learn the names of the group members as soon as possible, and to see that they are seated in a circle or around a table if possible. It is also helpful to remember four techniques that can be useful in starting a discussion:

1.Questions (factual, evaluative, interpretative).

2. Probes (follow-up questions, repeating a question, prompting a participant)

3.Expectant body language (leaning forward in an expectant manner, raising an eyebrow in a questioning manner, etc.)

4.Silence (to encourage further discussion)

Eliminating Negative Personality Characteristics. The success of an individual teacher is by no means entirely a matter of his degree of professional training. He brings with him certain important personality characteristics that can go a long way towards determining whether his students make the most of their opportunities for learning. In particular, teachers should be made aware of certain negative characteristics and mannerisms that they can eliminate or modify. For example, verbal mannerisms can be annoying. Recurring phrases and words such as er, okay, and don't you know need to be eradicated. Job stereotypes also cause problems for some instructors and teachers. When you are teaching, do not imply that certain jobs are the preserve of one sex or the other.

Certain body positions can be distracting. Leaning on a table in front of students or constandy looking out of the window are annoying. So are constantly looking at the floor, sitting on the edge of a table and swinging your feet, and frequently wetting your lips. The best precaution is to be sensitive to the dangers. If you know the effect of mannerisms and stereotypes on students and trainees, the problem is largely solved. It is a simple matter to remove the most offensive mannerisms by monitoring your behaviour.

Feedback on how well or how badly one is doing is extremely important. Inviting colleagues into your classes can be helpful. However, you will have to encourage most of them to point out your most irritating habits. Often a simple remark will help you to improve, your performance dramatically.

An important variable in the learning situation is the teacher himself. His skill is dependent on two factors: his own proficiency in the language and his knowledge of and expertise in methods and techniques of language teaching (Child 1986: Christo-pherson 1973; Wilkins 1974) Since the qualities of language teachers define their students' potential limits of achievement (Abercrombie 1956; Davies

1981; Elton 1987), anything we can do to enhance the teachers' skills has a direct bearing on the learners' achievement.

IV. CONCLUSION

New graduates in many disciplines find themselves in the same universal predicament: people will not employ them because they are inexperienced, and to get experience, they first have to find a job. English-language teaching seems to be one of the few areas where experience is not an emphasised prerequisite, as there is a high demand on the profession. In some cases even adequate certification is not a requirement if the job seeker is a native speaker.

Indeed, there is no consensus today as to who is qualified to teach English to speakers of other languages. Native speakers with no background—academic or experiential—are usually preferred over non-natives with proper training and years of experience in the profession. Being a native speaker is generally taken to be synonymous with being able to teach English.

Among nonnative speakers there is a similar case: anybody who has been exposed to the English language long enough to attain a relatively good command of the language is usually deemed "qualified" to teach it. Especially if that person has studied English language and literature at the undergraduate level, she is considered "highly qualified" in ELT, regardless of whether she has had training in teaching or not. "Those who know can teach" seems to be the current motto in English-language teacher employment, and will remain so until the ELT market worldwide is saturated with teachers.

Inadequate preparation.

Whether native speaker or not, most of these teachers are thrown into the classroom without proper training. At best, they have short training courses that are far from adequate to prepare them for actual teaching situations.

However, the aim is not to show the discrepancies in ELT staff employment. It is true that lack of proper pre-service training remains a major impediment to these teachers for a considerable part of their career. Yet, the argument is that even a properly trained teacher who has completed several courses on various sides of

ELT and has—even if for only a few hours—actually taught real students as part of the training programme, will face intense difficulty in becoming a real teacher. The laboratory conditions of the pre-service training, where everything is prearranged for the convenience of the student-teacher and where she teaches at most a few isolated units in a book, are not adequate preparation; they do not prepare her for the hardships of actually becoming the teacher of a class, or rather classes, especially during the first weeks, with the additional responsibilities of the related paperwork and exam preparation, as well as the assessment of students' papers. There is no longer a trainer who will comment on the work done. The new teacher has not yet developed the skill of self-evaluation; she does not know if she is doing the right thing, or is completely on the wrong side. She could, of course, ask for help from colleagues, but avoids doing so for two reasons: for one thing, she is now "qualified" and does not want to be considered "incompetent"; also, her colleagues all seem too busy to help.

But help is needed, immensely so. It may come, in the form of in-service training programmes, but too late, and too general. Something else is needed: help from colleagues who have done it before, who understand the anxiety, the "what if" worries of this individual teacher.

Mutual assistance.

A new teacher needs assistance from colleagues, but is, even if only theoretically, expected to assist them, and she is usually given the title "assistant" (lecturer or instructor), though in practice there is no assistance taking place. THE suggestion is to revive this job title, only with the slight difference that the assistance is mutual. The assistant teacher will both assist and be assisted by the experienced teacher. Although this apprenticeship system may have some disadvantages, its successful application will enhance the quality of instruction in ELT programmes, as it will not only provide assistance for inexperienced teachers but will also help create —and maintain—a climate of colleague-ship and exchange of ideas among the staff.

How will this system work? The name "apprenticeship system" suggests that there will be an expert teacher who will transfer a list of "do's and don'ts" to the inexperienced teacher, observe and judge the new teacher's classroom performance, while the latter assumes a passive "spoon-feed me" attitude. However, this would only be a repetition of the usual pre-service training programme, where the student-teacher is expected only to pick up a few tactics in classroom management and use of instructional resources, apply these in the laboratory-like conditions of the class she is doing training-teaching in, and, afterwards, listen to the trainer's remarks, which are mostly positive—as trainees must not be discouraged, for they will improve later when they really start teaching, anyway.

In the apprenticeship system we envisage, the new teacher will be assigned a mentor well before actual teaching starts. (It would be ideal if a new assistant teacher [AT] could be assigned to assist and observe an experienced teacher [ET] for a semester before she starts teaching, but that is perhaps financially not feasible in most schools.)

The AT will know that the ET is ready-to share her experience with the AT. The ET will guide the AT in all matters related to teaching. Even the most basic chores may be troublesome for the AT. She will not know what the students are like. For example, in the training programme she may have taught seventh-grade secondary-school students, a thing in no way similar to teaching freshman students at a university, which she has to do now. The ET first has to provide the AT with information about the students' background: How-good is their English? What language skills do they need most? What level are they expected to reach at the end of a certain course that the AT is going to teach? . . . Then, what teaching resources are available to teachers in this school? How can she use them? How many students is she likely to have in a class? How about office hours?... There are many similar matters that the AT needs to know. Experienced teachers, newly employed in a school, will have no difficulty in finding the answers to these questions, because they will know what to look for. But a new teacher will not. Then, the AT

needs information about the courses she is going to teach. If they are independent courses not taught by other staff members, she needs immense help in course preparation (And, yes, sometimes novice teachers are given independent courses with no course design laid out beforehand.) The ET should not do the job for the AT but should only guide her as to what should be included in the course and offer helpful advice.

During the first days of actual teaching, the AT should be observed in the class by the ET many times and criticised frankly, though not in a discouraging way. The students' response will not be adequate feedback for the AT, who needs an expert's comments. Before and after each class the two teachers should talk about the AT's expected and actual classroom performance. The FT should not just judge that performance, but rather lead the AT to question her attitude toward students, use of teaching aids, general class management, etc. The AT should be trained to assess her own performance and interpret the students' response effectively.

The AT should also observe the ET's classes and comment on her performance. This will give the two a chance to exchange roles and break the monotony of the relationship. The AT will benefit greatly from seeing the ET at work and comparing the ET's preparations with her actual classroom performance. It is helpful, especially lor an inexperienced teacher, to know that nobody is perfect, but that overall performance is what matters.

Especially in exam preparation, the ET's guidance will be of great importance to the AT. (And, yes, again, normally novice teachers arc expected to prepare their own exams without any outside help.) In her undergraduate training programme, the AT has been taught what kinds of tests there are, how reliable they are, how test results arc interpreted, etc. But she may never have had to prepare an exam before. Now she knows what she has taught but does not know how to test students on what they have been taught. She can prepare questions, but is not sure they will be appropriate. The ET will be able to guide her through all this. Again, the ET should not do the job for the AT, but only offer helpful comments when necessary.

In short, the ET should guide and supervise the AT's work but avoid doing it for her. The ET should be prepared to extend help when necessary, but should not give the AT the impression that she is ready to play "mother goose" for her. The AT should also be ready to assist the ET; as the FT will be allocating some of her normal working hours to helping the AT, the ET will need assistance in her own teaching.

Necessary precautions

The apprenticeship system is vulnerable to exploitation. Both the AT and the ET may see it as an opportunity to leave some of their work to the other, relying on the informal relationship they are likely to develop. The reverse may also happen. Either the AT or the ET may develop an aggressive or negative attitude toward the other teacher and try to destroy rather than assist her work. Especially, the ET may assume the "all-knowing expert" role, overcriticising and therefore discouraging the AT.

It is the administration's duty to make the best match among ATs and ETs, basing the selection on personal characteristics of both teachers, however difficult this might prove.

Conclusion.

If carried out successfully, this system will fulfill an important role in teacher development. Learning is a continual process, and teaching, of course, is also a continual process of learning. One can never be a "perfect" teacher. No diploma or certificate is the final proof of one's eternal competence in teaching. Young or old, experienced or novice, a teacher needs to improve herself continuously if she does not want to become dated and fade away. All teachers, regardless of their age and experience, should be subjected to continual evaluation and training, but more focus is needed for the inexperienced teachers. A newly appointed teacher might be talented and enthusiastic about her job, but she still needs considerable guidance through the initial period of her career. She needs individual help for her individual needs. The best assistance for such teachers will come from their colleagues, who

will also benefit from the experience, as they will be in contact with fresh enthusiasm that has recently been trained in a school and exposed to new trends and approaches in the profession. The apprenticeship system will enable both teachers to learn to grow, while it will also function as a vehicle for creating a co-operative spirit among the staff members.

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