

Universidade do Minho
Escola de Letras, Artes e Ciências Humanas

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**Second Language Teacher Education:
A Proposal for a Communicative Language
Teaching In-Service Training Course for
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Language Teachers in Huambo — Angola**



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Language Teachers in Huambo — Angola**

Doctoral Thesis in Language
Sciences with Specialization in
English Linguistics

Work supervised by
Professor Isabel Ermida, PhD.

March 2022

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To my beloved mother Luisa Naialela

Statement of integrity

I hereby declare having conducted this academic work with integrity. I confirm that I have not used plagiarism or any form of undue use of information or falsification of results along the process leading to its elaboration. I further declare that I have fully acknowledged the Code of Ethical Conduct of the University of Minho.

Abstract

Second Language Teacher Education: A Proposal for a Communicative Language Teaching In-Service Training Course for Unqualified Secondary School English Language Teachers in Huambo — Angola

The existence of a considerable number of unqualified English teachers in Huambo-Angola constituted the *raison d'être* of the investigation. Considering the ubiquitous nature of the scientific problem, the study was set to establish a primary model of Second Language Teacher Education for untrained English teachers in Huambo and elsewhere. The enquiry comprised first a secondary research through literature review entailing pertinent theoretical issues underscoring Language Teacher Education focussed on Second Language Teacher Education (for example, teacher training, teacher development, knowledge base, training models and modes, among other aspects), and Communicative Language Teaching. The main emphasis was on the primary research, which was a district-wide qualitative action research aimed at answering our research question by testing two main hypotheses (**H1**. The in-service teacher training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will equip the unqualified Secondary school English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills. Thus, their knowledge of English language teaching methodology will be upgraded, and their teaching practice quality will improve. **H0**. The in-service teacher training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will not cause significant changes in the teaching quality of the unqualified Secondary school English teachers in Huambo). It comprised a questionnaire (used to determine the English Language Teaching knowledge level of the subjects prior to the intervention), a pre-test (assessment administered before learning had occurred intended to measure change overtime), an in-service English teacher training programme of Communicative Language Teaching (expected to change the participants' teaching praxis), a post-test (to measure the extent to which the trainees grasped what was imparted during the training course), and observation of lessons (aimed at providing further evidence of success or failure of the intervention). The results showed clear improvements made by the subjects as compared to their prior English Language Teaching knowledge. Therefore, it is recommended that Huambo's local educational authorities generalise the teacher training model proposed in the study through periodic compulsory training in English Language Teaching methodology.

Key words: Communicative Language Teaching, English Language Teaching, Second Language Teacher Education.

Resumo

Formação de Professores de Inglês como Segunda Língua: Uma Proposta de Curso em Serviço Sobre o Método Comunicativo de Ensino de Língua direcionado aos Professores de Inglês do Ensino Secundário do Huambo - Angola que Não Tenham Formação em Metodologia de Ensino de Inglês.

A existência de um número elevado de professores de língua Inglesa sem formação para o efeito constituiu o ponto de partida para o presente estudo. Considerando a seriedade das consequências do problema que nos propusemos solucionar, o estudo visou estabelecer um modelo de formação de professores de Inglês como segunda língua no Huambo – Angola e onde mais for necessário. A investigação incluiu na primeira parte uma pesquisa secundária através da revisão da literatura compreendendo aspectos teóricos que fundamentam a formação de professores de Inglês como segunda língua (tais como treinamento de professores, desenvolvimento profissional dos professores, base de conhecimentos para o ensino de Inglês, modelos e modos de formação de professores, etc.) e o método Comunicativo de Ensino de Língua. O estudo teve maior enfoque na pesquisa primária que foi do tipo pesquisa de acção e visou testar as duas hipóteses principais da investigação (H1 a formação em serviço sobre o método Comunicativo de Ensino de Língua proposto no estudo proverá os professores de Inglês não qualificados do Ensino Secundário do Huambo com conceitos e habilidades básicas de ensino de Inglês e a qualidade da sua prática melhorará. H0 é essencialmente o oposto da H1). O estudo primário foi realizado através de um questionário, um pre-teste, um curso de metodologia de ensino de Inglês, um pós-teste, e observação de aulas. Os resultados mostraram melhorias no conhecimento metodológico dos participantes. Portanto, recomenda-se as autoridades educacionais da província do Huambo a generalização do modelo de formação proposto no estudo através de treinamento periódico obrigatório de docentes não qualificados.

Palavras-chave: formação de professores de Inglês como segunda língua, método Comunicativo de Ensino de língua, metodologia de ensino de Inglês.

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List of Abbreviations

- AR – Action Research.
- ASM – Applied Science Model.
- BE – Basic English.
- CA – Communicative activities.
- CBA – Competency-Based Approach.
- CBI – Content-Based Instruction.
- CBLT – Competency-Based Language Teaching.
- CC – Communicative Competence.
- CCQs – Concept Checking Questions.
- CD – Course Design.
- CLT – Communicative Language Teaching.
- CM – Craft Model.
- CR – Consciousness Raising.
- DA – Deductive Approach.
- DAA – Discourse Analysis Approach.
- DM – Direct Method.
- DS – Discovery Strategies.
- EFL – English as a Foreign Language.
- EGL – Explicit Grammar Instruction.
- ESL – English as a Second Language.
- ESP – English for Specific Purposes.
- FLA – First Language Acquisition.
- GE – General English.
- GPK – General Pedagogic Knowledge.
- GSL – General Service List of English Words.
- GTM – Grammar Translation Method.
- IA – Inductive Approach.
- INIDE – Instituto Nacional de Desenvolvimento da Educação.
- ISCED- Instituto Superior de Ciências da Educação
- L1 – First Language.
- L2 – Second Language.

LTE – Language Teacher Education.
PBA – Product-Based Approach to course design.
PCK – Pedagogical Content Knowledge.
POA- Process-Oriented Approach to course design.
QR – Qualitative Research.
RM – Reflective Model.
SJM – Social Justice Model.
SL – Second Language.
SLA – Second Language Acquisition.
SLL – Second Language Learning.
SLT – Second Language Teaching.
SLTA – Situational Language Teaching Approach
SLTE – Second Language Teacher Education.
SOC – Social Strategies.
SW – Silent Way.
TBA – Task based Approach.
TBI – Text-Based Instruction.
TD – Teacher Development.
TE – Teacher Education.
TESOL -Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.
TT – Teacher Training.
T-T-T – Teacher-Talking-Time.
VCM – Vocabulary Control Movement.

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INTRODUCTION

Today's globalised world exerts an ever-growing pressure on developing countries, like Angola, willing to partake and benefit from global economic opportunities, to voice on current political world affairs, and to get access to cutting-edge technology all made possible by the English language. As a result, there is a great demand for competent teachers and effective teaching methods. It seems obvious that prior to exerting the teaching profession, one must undergo serious formal training because English Language Teaching (hereafter ELT) is a vast area embracing many aspects related to how languages are acquired/learned and to the way they should be taught. Furthermore, to get a better understanding of language teaching, we need to be acquainted with the language teachers: their actions, thinking processes, knowledge of the profession, and how that knowledge and those reflections could be used in formal teacher training (Freeman and Richards, 1996: 1). Thus, central to the field of ELT is Language Teacher Education (hereafter LTE). Seen as 'the processes and practices of teaching and learning about teaching, that is, ... teacher education is an articulation of the knowledge of teaching and learning about teaching' (Loughran, 2010: 587), LTE shapes the awareness, way of thinking, and practice of language teachers (Freeman and Richards, *op.cit.*). Consequently, LTE is critical for maintaining acceptable standards of teaching quality, and the professionalisation of language teaching. This owes to today's greater quest for specialised knowledge in ELT as it requires from its practitioners to have know-how acquired through formal training and teaching experience; and to become a member of the ELT field one must meet certain requirements and values (Barduhn and Johnson, 2009: 59).

Recent trends in LTE have given prominence to a new area emphasising the education of professionals whose focus is on the second language learner. This relatively new field of LTE has come to be known as Second Language Teacher Education (hereafter SLTE). Central to SLTE is the distinction between two major movements. The first focuses on an inward inspection of the field of SLTE with the intention of obtaining a better comprehension of ELT methods based on applied linguists and teacher educators' research. The second entails external processes (for example, globalisation) forcing national educational authorities for new language teaching guidelines and more control over teaching and teacher training (Burns and Richards, 2009: 1). As a consequence, SLTE is permeated by issues such as what is it that second language teachers need to know in order to do the work of this profession? And how is this knowledge best learned by individuals who wish to become members of this profession? In other words, at the core of SLTE is to know its knowledge base and how it could be taught to student-teachers. SLTE knowledge base is described as to encompass 'research and perspectives on, for example, knowledge and experiences, beliefs and attitudes, teacher socialisation and learning, teacher cognition, teacher identity, reflective teaching, and values and

ethical dispositions' (Tedick, 2005: xviii). Thus, embedded in the concept of knowledge base is pedagogical content knowledge. In addition to the above, this includes language analysis, discourse analysis, phonology, and methodology. This type of knowledge underscores teachers' classroom practice (Burns and Richards, *op.cit.*).

Being an English language teacher and a teacher-trainer at '*Instituto Superior de Ciências de Educação do Huambo*' (hereafter ISCED) [Higher Institute of Teacher Education in Huambo] and its head of the Modern Languages Department (this department orients and monitors the teaching activity with respect to Portuguese, English, and French), the genesis of our investigation is to be traced back up on noticing that a considerable number of English teachers in Huambo-Angola (circa 95%) did not have any formal training in ELT. This state of affairs originated back in 1993 when after the elections, Angola went through a devastating war. During that time, many educational institutions were destroyed, resulting in the extinction of various courses, among them the training of English teachers in most of the Angolan provinces where it used to be administered. After the conflict, only three, from the eighteen Angolan provinces, had conditions of training English teachers: Huila, Luanda, and Benguela as opposed to the previous ten regions including Huambo (this is one of the geographically smaller provinces, situated in the central region of Angola, approximately 450 km south east of the capital, Luanda. The province has an estimated population of 4 million people, approximately 20% of the national total of approximately 24 million people. Thus, it is the second most populated province in Angola). Thereafter, in the provinces where English teacher training was no longer done there is a great number of unqualified English teachers. For the intents of providing a better perspective of our research problem, we will describe its context.

Context of the research problem

The Angolan educational system has four main strands: Pre-school, Primary school, Secondary school, and University. In this system, English is introduced at grade seven, as a foreign language; all the students are expected to learn English or French until the second year of University and those who decide to specialise in ELT must continue till the end of the course (i.e., having a degree in ELT). From grade seven to the second year of University, students are expected to progress from beginner to an intermediate level of English language proficiency. This organisation is similar to many around the world and it shows how seriously the Angolan educational authorities take language teaching. Regarding ELT, it is approached from the viewpoint that the learning of a foreign language is in itself a communicative, social, cultural, and technological experience for the student (*Instituto Nacional de Investigação e Desenvolvimento da Educação* (hereafter INIDE), 2005) [the national institute for research and

development of education]. Moreover, the main aim of ELT practice is to equip learners with linguistic tools that would help them handle simple and complex interactional interchanges with both local and foreign professional partners, once they have completed their studies. This embraces being able to use grammatical and lexical knowledge appropriately, showing capacity to decode written and oral messages, deepening the knowledge of the students' own socio-cultural reality through the contrast of it with the mores of English speaking communities, being autonomous learners, and being able to apply the knowledge so acquired in real communication (INIDE, 2003: 5-9). Therefore, we can see that the main goal of teaching English in Angola is to enable students to acquire Communicative Competence (henceforth CC); and the chief methodology to reach it is Communicative Language Teaching (hereafter CLT). In point of fact, the Angolan national methodological orientations issued by the INIDE (2005: 17) are the following:

- The teacher must be a facilitator.
- The teaching and learning process should be based on the learners' needs.
- Teaching must be approached through the use of varied materials respecting the students' ages, interests, and socio-cultural background.
- Teaching should be aimed at creating autonomous learners.
- Students should be helped to develop all the four language skills (speaking, writing, listening, and reading) in an integrated and balanced approach.
- Teachers should enable students to use language both fluently and accurately.

Despite being the official ELT policy, the adoption and use of CLT in Angola is restricted to a considerable degree due to the reduced number of English language teacher training institutions. The massive demand for English teachers has forced the educational authorities to allow unqualified personnel to teach English. In fact, most teachers in Secondary Schools in Huambo had been recruited just for the fact that they could speak English.

Briefly, although there is a clearly defined strategy for ELT in Angola, the increasing request for language teachers has compelled the Angolan educational authorities in Huambo to hire people without formal training in ELT to work as English teachers. Unfortunately, this type of decision has severely affected the teaching quality in the area. A number of studies have provided proof of the consequences that teaching without qualifications has had in Huambo. For example, Cambambi (2017), in a study investigating the reasons underscoring students' tendency to make direct translations when learning new grammatical structures, and failing to construct grammatical sentences correctly, discovered that their teachers were not familiar with grammar teaching techniques other than direct translations. Njele

(2016), investigating the causes of Medical school students' inability to speak English language related to their field of study, learned that teachers had been using a General English syllabus because they were not trained to teach English for Specific Purposes. Tchitangueleca (2016) found a correlation between lack of training and poor management of classroom disruptive behaviour. Cangombe (2016) investigated the causes of students' problems in learning vocabulary and uncovered not being trained in ELT as the leading reason for the phenomenon. Kalayi (2016) studied teachers' deficiency in methodology for language skills integration and revealed that it was caused by absence of ELT training opportunities. Pio (2016) investigated the use of Task-Based Approach to upgrade ELT knowledge of untrained teachers as a remedial work to battle the amount of learning problems students faced in rural areas, with similar results to the above. Although many other studies have been conducted illustrating the extent of the damage unqualified personnel have been inflicting against good practice of ELT in Huambo, we do not intend to describe them all because they are essentially similar to the ones already alluded to.

To solve our research problem, we could think of three main scenarios. The first one would involve government dismissal of all untrained teachers and hiring trained ones. However, the social impact such measure would have on the affected population is discouraging. Moreover, there are still very few qualified ELT teachers in Huambo. The second situation would be to coerce them to have compulsory formal training at University. Nevertheless, as almost all teachers at the Secondary School have degrees in other areas, they may be reluctant to read another University course. We endorse the possibility of periodic in-service training while a natural replacement of teachers happens with age, and massive pre-service training offering more competent teachers.

Therefore, to approach our problem, we will seek answers to the research question of *what type of training course and content can we use to equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills within a communicative methodology?*

And for which we propose the following hypotheses:

- *H1. The in-service teacher training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills. Thus, their knowledge of English language teaching methodology will be upgraded, and their teaching practice quality will improve.*
- *H0. The in-service teacher training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will not cause significant changes in the teaching quality of the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo.*

Research aim and objectives

Our research goal is to explore and describe effective teacher training procedures so that a primary model for teacher education in Huambo could be established in the search for a remedial solution to the existence of an expressive number of unqualified personnel.

To achieve the above aim, our investigation will pursue the following objectives:

1. To discover the main theoretical framework with respect to language learning and teaching in Angola.
2. To explore SLTE in respect of its conceptual background.
3. To describe the scope of SLTE.
4. To discuss models of the knowledge base of SLTE.
5. To explore Communicative Language Teaching as the pedagogical content knowledge for the in-service training course aimed at the solution of the research problem.
6. To discuss SLTE models, modes, and activities.
7. To identify aspects of in-service SLTE course design.
8. To examine the teaching practice of Secondary School English teachers in Huambo.
9. To design and administer an in-service training course for the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo.
10. To evaluate progress after the training project through post-test and observation of lessons.

Importance of the study

Effective language teaching puts together many factors to generate erudition. Mainstream literature on LTE has placed great emphasis on imparting such knowledge to student-teachers. In fact, the knowledge base of many LTE programmes includes extensive work on language and methodology. All this seems adequately aligned with normal training situations where people undergo initial training prior to the actual exercise of the profession. Pre-service training can successfully equip teachers with received and experiential knowledge. After this phase, for teacher development, in-service training is used to upgrade teachers' awareness of ELT methodology. However, to our best knowledge, very few publications are available in the literature that addresses the issue of abnormal situations where people have been teaching English without any prior formal ELT training. In point of fact, having scanned most of the articles published in three leading journals in ELT (namely, *TESOL Quarterly*, *English Language Teaching Journal*, and *English Teaching Forum*) of the last three decades, we found very little about training unqualified English teachers. We also glanced over works of reference in SLTE, such as Wallace (1991); Freeman and Richards (1996); Tedick (2005); Burns and Richards (2009); Townsend

and Bates (2007); Johnson (2009), among others and found little regarding our present concern. Hence, our investigation is crucial to the field of SLTE owing to the fact that it helps expose an underinvestigated area and is set to establish a theoretical framework that could be utilised to approach similar problems involving untrained English teachers in Angola and around the world. Furthermore, our work may offer a direct contribution to the importance of professionalism in ELT by offering a training platform for many unqualified English teachers around the world.

Secondly, for local immediate societal gains, our study's importance is revealed as a tool to help materialise a long-desired goal of the Angolan educational authorities relative to enabling most of its citizens to speak English, since it is surrounded by English-speaking countries and Angola is a member state of the Southern African Development Community, whose working language is English.

Finally, at a personal level, this investigation is crucial for us to gather further understanding of the complex processes involved in SLTE, learn more about specific actions that lead to certain learning outcomes, view the training process from an expert standpoint, and have a chance of designing a training course and test its effectiveness.

Delimiting the research

The ELT knowledge base comprises many aspects. Understandably, we cannot hope to discuss everything involved in it. Therefore, we intend to undertake an in-service investigation aimed at acquainting its participants exclusively with the official ELT policy in Angola.

Consequently, among many aspects, the study will not:

- Address how to train teachers to teach language skills.
- Examine any teaching action, assumptions, or methodology being used by those teaching English under or above the Secondary School.
- Entail general selection criteria for teaching methods.

Underlying assumptions of the study

Our investigation rests upon the following beliefs:

- A trained teacher is more likely to cause learning to happen more effectively in his/her classroom.
- Students exposed to teaching methods and materials that address their learning and target needs are more likely to be motivated to learn the foreign language.
- Language learning can be enhanced by the adoption of the methodological precepts research has evidenced to be more effective for the students' learning.
- ELT professionalism can guarantee acceptable standards of teaching and learning.

- LTE can prevent teachers from deviating from required standards of ELT.

To achieve our main goal, the remainder of this thesis is structured in three chapters. The first one comprises six main sections: (1) terminology and historical background of SLTE, (2) the scope of SLTE, (3) knowledge base of SLTE, (4) communicative-based language teaching, (5) teacher preparation procedures, and (6) SLTE course design. In chapter two, the methodology used to undertake the investigation will be described. It will entail the following: description of the study, research design, research method, population and sampling method, data collection instruments, ethical considerations, and results. The last chapter will be devoted to the interpretation and discussion of the results. Other pertinent parts of the work will include: conclusions and recommendations, bibliography, and appendices.

CHAPTER ONE: LITERATURE REVIEW

Language teacher education is a vast and intricate area comprising a web of pillars sustaining the development and perfection of what is needed to know to become effective and efficient language teachers. The knowledge emanating from LTE empowers teachers to cope with a variety of language learning and teaching factors associated with the complex demands of the language teaching profession. As a result, a trained teacher possesses qualities, specific skills, and uses strategies to achieve both learning and teaching goals. It is, therefore, surprising to encounter people engaging in such high stakes professional endeavour without formal training.

This chapter is the theoretical foundation of the thesis. It aims to explore and discuss SLTE in respect of its conceptual background, describe and discuss the scope of Second Language Teacher Education, describe models of the knowledge base of SLTE so that we are able to derive one appropriate for our primary research, discuss in detail the knowledge base proposed for the in-service training course directed at the solution of the research problem, to debate on teacher-training models, modes, and activities applicable to the knowledge we intend to impart. The chapter ends by describing SLTE course design procedures inherent to the SLTE programme we proposed.

To attain our goals, the chapter is composed of six main sections. The first one appertains to the clarification of terminology and historical background of SLTE. The second deals with the scope of SLTE, including teacher-training and teacher development. The third, relates to the knowledge base of SLTE. The fourth is an extension to the third, addressing communicative-based language teaching. The fifth looks at teacher preparation procedures. The last one concerns SLTE course design.

A more comprehensive picture of the literature review is provided in the figure below.

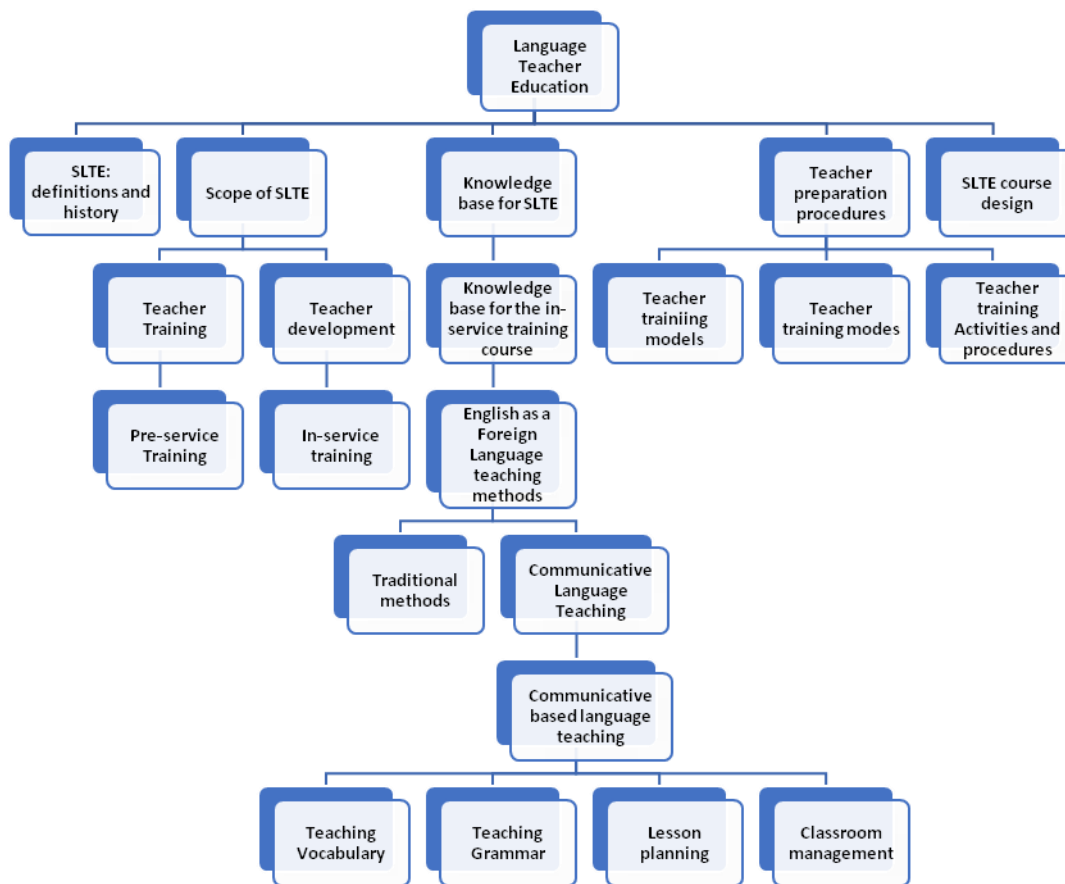


Figure 1. Theoretical background.

1.1. Second language teacher education: definitions and history

A logical starting point, in our understanding, is to establish the grounds with reference to the matrix language teacher education will be approached in the current investigation report. From the premise that SLTE is seen within the broader area of LTE, it is critical to clarify a priori the concept of LTE. Thus, this section will discuss present-day understanding of what is entailed in LTE, distinguish two major terms encircling LTE (teacher education versus teacher training), and elaborate on the concept and historical background of SLTE.

A clear-cut definition of LTE is that it is seen as ‘the field of study which deals with the preparation and professional development of teachers’ (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 542). As such, it comprises the sum of experiences and activities through which individuals learn to be language teachers. These experiences can be gained in formal or informal settings, in undergraduate, pre-service, or in-service activities (Freeman, 2001:72). Furthermore, ‘learning to teach involve the development of theories and interpretive skills which enable teachers to resolve specific teaching incidents, creating their working theories of teaching in the process’ (Freeman and Richards, 1996: 5). Therefore, LTE can be taken to mean any programme aimed at the development of teaching competence so that

candidates to the language teaching profession are empowered with the knowledge required for an effective and efficient performance as teachers.

A number of terms are pertinent to all those involved in LTE. Although most of them may seem obvious, the notions they represent may be complex enough to inspire prior clarification. A *sui generis* pair requiring clarification is the distinction between teacher education (TE) and teacher training (TT).

The former is broader in scope and embraces professional training (both pre-service and in-service training), and general post-secondary education. Accordingly, TE entails the study of academic disciplines, educational subjects, and supervised teaching practice (Rowntree, 1981: 313 in O'Neill, 1986: 258). Additionally, TE is understood as

The process of successful learning (usually, but not necessarily, aided by teaching) of knowledge, skills and attitudes, where what is learned is worthwhile to the learner (in the view of whoever is using the term) and usually (in contrast with training) where it is learned in such a way that the learner can express his own individuality through what he learns and can subsequently apply it, and adapt it flexibly, to situations and problems other than those he considered in learning it. (Rowntree, *op.cit.*: 75).

Therefore, educators engage 'in the induction and professional learning of future teachers through pre-service courses and/or the further development of serving teachers through in-service courses' (Murray *et al.*, 2009:29).

The latter refers to the acquisition of knowledge, attitudes and skills required for an acceptable performance in a practical job. Thus, to achieve effective performance, teacher trainers use an array of techniques to modify attitudes, knowledge or skill behaviour in a particular task or set of tasks (Hills, 1982 in O'Neill, *op.cit.*: 260).

Putting both concepts together, in the literature on teacher preparation, the use of TE or TT has been subject to considerable debate. Some maintain that there should be a distinction between them, and others contend that they are interchangeable terms. For example, in Richards and Nunan's (1990 in Ur, 1996: 3) standpoint, training 'can imply unthinking habit formation and an overemphasis on skills and techniques', whereas education helps teachers-to-be to develop theories, cognizance of options, and decision-making skills. In the same perspective, Peters (1966:1 in Ur, *ibid.*) sustains education as entailing the development of moral, cultural, social, and intellectual aspects of the training process. Moreover, in his view, training is aimed at the preparation of teachers for a specific function or profession.

O'Neill (*op.cit.*) approaches the two concepts in the following way:

The term education, then, includes the total intellectual, emotional, and social development of the individual. Expanded, it comprises the philosophical, professional, and pedagogical components of a teacher preparation program. Conversely, the word training is restricted more to specific, systematic, standardised, well identified, job related, results-oriented practices. Consequently, training involves

activities that relate to the mechanical, technical and vocational aspects of the teaching process;
activities which might be aptly labelled rote, ritualistic, or repetitive.

It is our belief that in any training education is latent and that teacher education does not occur without training. Consequently, there seems not to be any clearly defined boundary between the two concepts. Based on this premise, following the most prominent writers in the field (e.g., Ur, 1996; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Burns and Richards, 2009, among many) in this investigation report, we will use teacher education and teacher training interchangeably. Moreover, in this work those learning to teach (both new to the profession and experienced) will be referred to as student-teachers, teacher-learners, teachers-to-be, or simply trainees.

Another issue related to terminology concerns SLTE. As a specification of the major area of LTE, the genesis of the term SLTE can be traced back to the 1960s when the four-word concept was integrated as comprising second language (SL) subject-matter and the professional process of teacher education. Initially, SLTE focused essentially on the content (the SL). Thus, it relied on insights from various academic disciplines, such as Linguistics, Psychology, and Literature. However, by the year 1990, more importance was given to understanding how people learned to teach languages. Consequently, the relationship between SL as the content and teacher education, covering the processes of teacher training and teacher development, came to the spotlight. The publications of Richards and Nunan (1990); and Freeman and Richards (1996), containing a number of works intended to bridge the gap between LTE and the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) by suggesting the type of knowledge SL teachers ought to possess to function effectively, marked the new era of SLTE, whose core premise is grounded on the perception that in order to understand language learning, we need to comprehend how people learn to teach languages (Freeman, *op.cit.*; Farrell, 2018: 2).

All the above happened in response to two issues. The first one appertains to an internal change in the area of Second Language Teaching (SLT) geared by new understandings of its knowledge base prompted by Applied Linguistics' research and recent developments in LTE. The second relates to external pressures coming from the need many developing countries have to conform to a more globalised world, where English is the language of international trade and communication. Thus, these countries have a growing request for competent English teachers offered by effective SLTE programmes (Burns and Richards, *op.cit.*: 1).

Closing remarks to the current section give prominence to the fact that we side with the view of LTE as a macro process of professional initiation and development of competent teachers. Moreover, we take that TE and TT are concurrent but essentially similar terminologies and are fine-tuned into SLTE

in the process of making our review of literature aligned with our second/foreign language research context. Finally, it should be made clear that although we are using the concept of SLTE, in effect, it also involves English as Foreign Language (EFL), as we do not intend to create another field of TE, one which would be Foreign Language Teacher Education. In fact, the literature on SLTE entails the training of professionals of additional languages in general.

Following the clarification of terminology, our attention will be on the scope of SLTE.

1.2. Scope of SLTE

The underlying approach to our description of the scope of SLTE is the notion that it encompasses its range of coverage. Therefore, the aim of this part of the work is to offer a top-down discussion of what is involved in SLTE. This goal is expected to be attained by looking at the concept of the scope of SLTE, teacher training (through pre-service training), and teacher development (through in-service training).

The scope of SLTE is perceived as to embrace three dimensions: content, process, and outcome. In terms of content, it is viewed in relation to what SLTE is supposed to be about and what prospective teachers should learn through particular designs and activities (Freeman, 2009: 15). With regard to process, the scope of SLTE should answer the following questions: 'which learning processes are implicit and explicit in particular activities? And how do these aggregate to professional learning and identity over time, through a SLTE programme, and even over a career?' (Freeman, *ibid.*). According to Freeman (2001: 76), the outcome facet of SLTE relates to the assessment of results of the training process.

The three scopes fall under two major areas of SLTE: teacher training and teacher development.

1.2.1. Teacher training

One way of looking at teacher training is that it includes strategic intervention aimed at the acquisition and mastery of specific teaching skills. The procedure is usually centred on predefined results achievable through a sequence of steps in a given amount of time. Accordingly, teacher training capitalises on discrete, practical, and learnable teaching abilities (Freeman, 1989: 39).

A broader perspective on teacher training goes beyond simple mastery of particular teaching skills and establishes the source of content for the training, the process of teacher learning, and the assessment criteria for the outcomes. The essence of this paradigm is captured by Freeman (*op.cit.*) in the following excerpt:

In teacher training the content is generally defined externally and transmitted to the teacher-learner through various processes. Outcomes are assessed on external, often behavioural, evidence that the learner has mastered the content. In a typical postgraduate teacher education programme, for example, the faculty defines the curriculum which teacher-learners must master. Often this content will include course input on language (through the study of phonology and applied linguistics), on learning (through second language acquisition; SLA), on teaching (through methods and testing courses) and so on. The content may be presented through conventional processes – such as lectures, readings and the like – or through more participant-oriented processes – such as project work, case studies and so on. The assessment of impact is usually measured through some form of demonstration – such as exams, academic articles or portfolios. In short-term teacher training courses, the same broad typology holds (for examples, see Woodward 1992; Ur 1996).

The same line of argument is followed by Richards and Farrell (2005: 3). They maintain that teacher training can occur as a first encounter prospective teachers have with the teaching profession. Thus, it includes acquiring basic teaching concepts and principles, and how these are practised in the classroom under trainers' supervision and feedback.

In short, teacher training applies to a situation in which trainees learn the basic teaching skills and techniques (e.g., lesson planning, classroom management, teaching the four language skills, teaching vocabulary, presenting and practising structures, correcting errors, etc.) needed to start their teaching career (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 542). As such, it is essentially concerned with entry-level teaching skills typical of pre-service teacher education.

1.2.1.1. Pre-service training

As implied by its name, pre-service education refers to 'a course or programme of study which student-teachers complete before they begin teaching' (Richards and Schmidt, *ibid.*: 416). This initial training encompasses basic teaching techniques and general theoretical and practical teaching insights. Pre-service training is taken to be responsible for future teachers' professional effectiveness and career commitment.

To illustrate a pre-service teacher education scenario, we could describe the English teacher preparation programme offered by the author's workplace. It should be recalled that the investigator is a teacher-trainer at ISCED. The aforementioned course is a five-year graduation programme for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. The main goal of the pre-service training endeavour is to educate reflective language teachers knowledgeable with a variety of teaching approaches, methods, techniques, ELT materials, among other aspects needed to function as effective language teachers. The main areas of the course entail Language, Linguistics, Methodology, and Teaching Practice. With regard to Language, students are expected to progress from intermediate language users to an advanced proficiency level. Linguistic knowledge encompasses general linguistic theory,

Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, and Applied Linguistics. The methodological element includes basic teaching skills, such as how to teach vocabulary, teaching grammar, lesson planning, etc. Other facets embrace the teaching of the four language skills, language assessment, the use of technology in the language classroom, teaching by principles, classroom management, syllabus design, and many other areas. Teaching practice goes from simulated teaching (micro teaching) to real teaching (macro teaching using real learners). The knowledge is imparted using different modes (e.g., lectures, seminars, workshops, group work, guided-reading, etc.). With respect to assessment, students are submitted to both formal tests, and other less formal testing procedures. To end the course students must write and defend a monograph.

In short, the scope of SLTE with reference to teacher training depicts a situation in which prospective SL teachers, with no prior contact with a methodological base for SLT, are submitted to exhaustive preparation on the critical theoretical and practical foundations needed for a solid begin of their teaching career. However, shared similarities to other professions suggest that entry-level teaching skills are seldom enough to sustain a prosperous teaching endeavour. Thus, reflection-on-action usually leads to the need of growth in one's profession, hence the need for teacher development activities.

1.2.2. Teacher development

Teacher development (hereafter TD) describes situations in which teachers, through introspective reflection on their practice, identify gaps in their knowledge of the profession and decide to act upon it. As a consequence, TD is usually about teachers' general growth, instead of simply improving abilities directed at a specific job. Moreover, it deals with teachers' views of teaching and self-understanding (Richards and Farrell, *op.cit.*: 4; Freeman, 1989: 39).

In brief, TD 'looks beyond initial training and deals with the on-going professional development of teachers, particularly in in-service education programmes' (Richards and Schmidt, *op.cit.*).

1.2.2.1. In-service training

Richards and Schmidt (*op.cit.*: 416) define in-service training as 'experiences which are provided for teachers who are already teaching and which form part of their continued professional development'. They add that in-service training usually has a particular purpose and often involves the following cycle of activities:

1. Assess participants' needs
2. Determine objectives for the in-service programme

3. Plan content
4. Choose method of presentation and learning experiences
5. Implement
6. Evaluate effectiveness and
7. Provide follow-up assistance

In point of fact, in our investigation we followed the steps above (see chapter two). First, we began by assessing the subjects' needs, through a questionnaire and a pre-training test. Then, we established the course objectives. Following this, we decided on the content, we chose the Reflective Model (see section 1.5.) through both the lecture and the group modes (see section 1.5.) to convey knowledge of CLT, we carried a month-long training programme, and we evaluated the course effectiveness through a post-training test and classroom observation.

Having established what is involved in SLTE (the content, process, and outcome assessment of teacher training and TD courses), in the impending section, we address a crucial concern of SLTE: what do SL teachers need to know to function as effective professionals? As seen above, this refers to the content part of the scope of SLTE.

1.3. The Knowledge base of SLTE

It is self-evident that at the foundations of any SLTE programme lays a body of knowledge representing what is expected from teachers to perform their daily duties with utmost confidential trust. The current section explores and discusses the knowledge ground required for SL teachers to become competent practitioners. To reach our goal, this part of the thesis will comprise a general glance at TE knowledge base, a review of models of SLTE awareness ground, and our suggestion for SLTE cognition background.

Reviewing the genesis of TE knowledge base, Fandiño (2013: 84) draws on the work of Pineda (2002) to claim that its initial conceptualisation was limited to content knowledge and pedagogical strategies.

A more solid view on the subject is provided by Shulman (1987: 8). He proposes a generic view of TE knowledge base by establishing seven basic types of knowledge teachers are expected to master for a successful professional life (see table 1).

Table 1. Shulman’s categories of teacher knowledge base

Content knowledge	
General pedagogic knowledge	Wide-ranging principles establishing the condition under which learning can take place (i.e., classroom management).
Curriculum knowledge	The ‘tools of the trade’ for teachers, encompassing materials and programmes.
Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)	An association of content and pedagogy, plus teachers’ own form of professional understanding. The importance of PCK is revealed when distinguishing the specialised knowledge of a teacher of a particular area from that of a general pedagogue.
Knowledge of learners and their characteristics	
Knowledge of education contexts	Comprising knowledge of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, and the character of the communities and cultures.
Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds	

Shulman’s thesis could be seen as an attempt to combine content, pedagogy, curriculum, and context for the intent of annulling the perspective of teachers’ knowledge base as entailing exclusively the acquisition of professional and experiential skills.

As it can be understood, Shulman’s categorisation represents general insights into the TE knowledge base. For our current intents and purposes, we are more interested in SLTE awareness ground.

Graves (2009: 117) offers a succinct historical background of SLTE knowledge base. In her account, up to the 1970s, it was enough just to know the language (its structure, phonology, etc.) to be eligible to be a teacher of it. Later, language teaching know-how was learned through the study of teaching methods and training in handling particular teaching techniques. Assuming that teachers would be able to put together linguistic content knowledge and pedagogy on the job, not much emphasis was placed on understanding the importance of the contexts in which student-teachers would work. Thus, TE had a two-part knowledge base which embraced linguistic knowledge (language, language learning theories, target culture), and cognition of methodology.

Based on Richards (1998), Graves (*op.cit.*) explains the growth of SLTE knowledge base as an influence of the broadening of the scope of language teaching as a profession, which resulted in the knowledge base to be extended beyond linguistic and cultural knowledge to comprehend other subject

areas, like discourse analysis, Second Language Acquisition (hereafter SLA), language testing, among others. Unfortunately, this move was not accompanied by a substantial change in the core ways TE was undertaken. Thus, the cognizance structure remained divided. The teaching of content was still separated from teaching practice, and in turn it was disconnected from real teaching (Freeman and Johnson, 1998 in Graves, *loc.cit.*).

In addressing the aforementioned concerns, the literature on SLTE is permeated with honourable attempts to guide SLTE knowledge base toward modern concerns of how teacher learning affects language learning.

Lafayette (1993 in Fandiño, *op.cit.*) advocates SLTE awareness basis anchored on three fundamental pillars: language competence, civilisation and culture, and language analysis. He stands his grounds by highlighting the importance of possessing a good command of the language to function as a model for the students. Furthermore, on the principle that SL learners are expected to develop cultural sensitivity toward the SL, teachers should be made aware of its civilisation and culture. Finally, in Lafayette's point of view, it is imperative that SL student-teachers are made knowledgeable with not only language structures, but also major theoretical insights coming from Applied Linguistics, such as SLA.

A broader approach to SLTE knowledge base is proposed by Richards (1998 in Graves, *op.cit.*: 119). He suggests that a far-reaching paradigm on what SL teachers must know to function as effective professionals would include six main strands. First of all, teachers-to-be should know about teaching theories, comprising main instructional practices, as well as their own theories. Secondly, teaching skills should be demonstrated and practiced through training in the essential aspects of effective teachers' repertoire. Thirdly, it is crucial that trainees acquire good communication skills and reach an advanced level of language proficiency. Fourthly, student-teachers should be made familiar with the subject matter knowledge inherent to SLL and teaching, such as main concepts, theories, and disciplinary knowledge. Fifthly, trainees should acquire complex cognitive and problem-solving strategies which underscore effective teaching practices through training in pedagogical reasoning and decision-making skills. Finally, SLTE programmes should contain contextual knowledge (e.g., educational and linguistic policies, and contextual factors, like the students, institutions, programmes, etc.).

A similar conceptualisation of the knowledge base of SLTE is proposed by Roberts (1998). He believes that for a wide-ranging description of the set of competencies teachers are expected to master, the following should be crucial:

1. Content knowledge (the subject matter: ESL/EFL)
2. Pedagogical content knowledge (see table 1)

3. General pedagogic knowledge (see table 1)
4. Curricular knowledge (the official curriculum and resources)
5. Contextual knowledge (learners, school, and community)
6. Process knowledge (interpersonal and team skills, observation and inquiry skills, and language analysis skills).

Therefore, Roberts places considerable emphasis on student-teachers as active agents of the SLTE process.

In the hope of providing an innovative perspective on the analysis of how the SLTE knowledge base has historically been portrayed, Freeman and Johnson (1998: 397) advocate a reconceptualisation of its basic tenets. To sustain their view, they claim the following:

Essential to this reconceptualisation is the premise that the institutional forms and processes of teacher education frame how the profession responds to the basic sociocultural processes of learning to teach. As such, our teacher education practices constitute our professional self-definition. We argue that the core of the new knowledge base must focus on the activity of teaching itself; it should centre on the teacher who does it, the contexts in which it is done, and the pedagogy by which it is done. Moreover, this knowledge base should include forms of knowledge representation that document teacher learning within the social, cultural, and institutional contexts in which it occurs. Finally, we believe the knowledge base of language teacher education needs to account for the teacher as a learner of teaching, the social context of schools and schooling within which teacher-learning and teaching occur, and the activities of both language teaching and language learning. This tripartite framework calls for a broader epistemological view of ESOL [English for Speakers of Other Languages] teacher education, one that accounts for teaching as it is learned and as it is practiced; we argue that it will ultimately redefine how we as teacher educators create professionals in TESOL.

With the above reconceptualisation, the authors hope to address a critical question resting at centre of the knowledge base of LTE: who teaches what to whom, where? Consequently, the question amalgamates three general concerns of LTE, namely '(a) the nature of the teacher-learner; (b) the nature of schools and schooling; and (c) the nature of language teaching' (Freeman and Johnson, *ibid.*: 406).

However, Tarone and Allwright (2005: 6) have criticised Freeman and Johnson's work as failing to adequately consider SLTE programmes, despite claiming that their design is tailored around second language teacher learning. In fact, Freeman and Johnson's framework does not contemplate the Second/Foreign language learner. Therefore, in the view of Tarone and Allwright (*ibid.*: 17), a comprehensive SLTE knowledge base should encompass a clear description of the learners (who they are, their reasons for learning, their learning needs, their motivation, etc.), and should be clearly separated from general TE by drawing on SLA research.

The four SLTE knowledge base frameworks described thus far are essentially in agreement regarding content knowledge, PCK, and contextual awareness as the most critical elements of a sound

knowledge base to educate SL teachers. Moreover, they are all based on the main aspects proposed in the Shulman's categories of teacher knowledge base.

Following the same approach, and assimilating what has been described by the writers mentioned above, adapting the Shulman's categories, we would propose the following as a knowledge base for SLTE.

- **Content knowledge**

Grounded on the fact that in some ESL/EFL teaching contexts student-teachers come to TE programmes with serious problems of Communicative Competence, they should be submitted to intensive English language learning courses. For example, to fine-tune the subject matter knowledge of the trainees of the English teacher training course administered in our context of research (ISCED), during the five-year education period, they are expected to progress from an intermediate level of English proficiency to an advanced one, by undergoing regular English classes. Thus, the content knowledge will entail advanced level of acquisition and use of the four language skills (speaking, writing, listening, and reading), and the three language systems (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation).

- **General pedagogic knowledge (GPK)**

This type of cognition would allow the SL teachers-to-be to gain knowledge of the historic evolution of education, its humanistic character, its organisation, among other aspects. To this effect, GPK would entail topics, such as the concept of education, the development of education as a social phenomenon, contemporary pedagogical approaches to the teaching and learning process, and many others. Therefore, the function of the GPK is to establish a general ground on which the specialised knowledge of ELT can be built.

- **Pedagogical content knowledge**

As seen above, PCK merges content and pedagogy. As applied to ESL/EFL teaching, it would embrace a wide range of topics. Some of which could be teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar, language lesson planning, language classroom management (roles of teacher and roles of learner, use of eye contact, gesture and voice, classroom arrangement, attention spread, teacher talk and students talk, eliciting, giving instructions and setting up activities, monitoring starting and finishing the lesson, establishing rapport and maintaining discipline, the language of the classroom, etc.), EFL teaching methods, teaching language skills, language assessment, teaching large multilevel classes, syllabus design, selecting, evaluating, and adapting materials, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and so on. These topics are common to many SLTE programmes owing to fact that they are believed to offer a solid floor for initial training in the ELT profession. In point of fact, the ELT course at ISCED employs

such PCK base to ensure that its pre-service trainees, upon the completion of the educational course, are able to teach English effectively. Therefore, we acknowledge that Second Language Teacher Education PCK ground should be composed of all the necessary background information needed for student-teachers to have a safe and confident beginning of the teaching career.

- **Complementary SLL theoretical knowledge**

This refers to main linguistic areas that aid the comprehension of SL learners' characteristics, their mind set, the effect of language in society, First Language Acquisition (FLA), SLA and SLL, and knowledge of SL educational contexts. The scientific areas appropriate to impart such knowledge bases are Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, General Linguistics, and Applied Linguistics.

- **Curriculum knowledge**

It is imperative that teachers are aware of the legal aspects governing the teaching profession. As such, we would expect the curriculum knowledge base to help student-teachers grasp all the fundamental concepts referent to curriculum design, implementation, and evaluation.

Heretofore, we have discussed SLTE knowledge base from general perspectives. In the coming sections, we will narrow it down to the specifications of our primary research.

1.3.1. Knowledge base for the in-service training course

It should be recollected that the current thesis revolves around the training of unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo-Angola. As revealed in the introduction, we are set to suggest an effective knowledge base and training procedures to educate them in the use of what is legally expected with regard to ELT methodology. Therefore, with this section, we have reached the centre of our argument. Drawing on the Second Language Teacher Education PCK suggested above, we will embark on an in-depth discussion of Communicative Language Teaching, considering that it is the approved ELT methodology in our context of investigation. However, since CLT is placed in the same milieu as other EFL teaching methods, we will first describe what we take as other prominent methods on an equal footing with CLT.

1.3.1.1. English as a foreign language teaching methods

The field of ELT has undergone great shifts and trends over the last few decades. Various methods have come and gone. We have seen the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the Direct Method (DM), the Audiolingual Method (ALM) and many others. These shifts and trends have been motivated by a search for better learning opportunities for the language learner incorporated in one single method. CLT has

tried to batter the weak aspects of many of the prior methods and build on their main strengths, so as to provide practical and theoretical grounds on which a more Communicative Competence oriented language teaching would be based. In the current section our concern is to present a plethora of methods in ELT, and identify their positive and unconstructive aspects.

A. Traditional methods

We will present and discuss the main principles and techniques of the GTM, the DM, the ALM, and the Silent Way.

A.1. The grammar translation method

Deeply rooted in structural approaches, the GTM was once the classic of language teaching. The GTM is guided by the following nine principles. First, language learning is motivated by the purpose of reading the literature of the target language. Second, the teacher is the only authority in the classroom. Third, a substantial amount of class time is spent on translating. In addition, grammar is taught deductively. Fourth, teaching is a one-way interactional activity: teacher-to-student. Fifth, written language is superior to the spoken one. Thus, students learn mainly literary language, as culture is comprised of literature and fine arts. Sixth, the teaching activity is centralised to grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing at the expense of speaking, listening, and pronunciation. Seventh, students' native language is the most predominant in the classroom. Eighth, learning success is determined by translations, and questions about the target language culture in which students apply grammar rules. Finally, error treatment is done explicitly (Broughton *et al.* 1980; Larsen-Freeman, 1987: 11- 12; Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 17-19).

The main teaching techniques of the GTM include translation (reading passages are translated from the target language to the students' mother tongue), reading comprehension questions (here students answer questions about a given text based on their understanding of it), antonyms/synonyms (students are supposed to find synonyms/antonyms in a reading passage for a set of words), deductive application of rules (grammar rules and exceptions are presented with examples), fill-in-the-blanks (students fill in the blanks of sentences with missing words using new items), memorisation (students memorise translated word lists), use words in sentences (students construct sentences using new vocabulary items), composition (students write about a given topic in the target language), among others (Larsen-Freeman, *ibid.*).

From its principles and techniques at least five remarks become clear. First, the GTM emphasises essentially the teaching of language form at the expense of meaning. Second, as texts can be removed from their context of use and inspected as objects for analysis, in the GTM language as

language not as use is one of the main premises. Third, vocabulary and rules internalisation are the capital emphasis of language teaching at the expense of appropriacy and use, and students are exposed to a restricted quantity and variety of language use. Fourth, real communication among learners is also demarcated. Finally, in the GTM there is a strong teacher control and high teacher-talking-time. In brief, the GTM relies on strong mechanical drills as way of imparting linguistic knowledge to students (Maley, 1986: 89).

In the context of the present research, due to poor training and or lack of it, English teachers are often using what could be taken to be GTM. For instance, a typical example of an English language lesson would be the teacher explaining grammar rules in Portuguese (the students' mother tongue), students translating lists of vocabulary items, writing compositions, memorising and translating dialogues, doing gap-filling exercises etc. Moreover, students are more exposed to language form as opposed to knowing what it means, and when and how it could be used. Therefore, there is a tendency of overlooking the learning of language for communication. As a consequence, many students, although being aware of grammar rules, are unable to use those rules in real conversation.

The problems disclosed in the GTM have made ELT experts to ponder on other ways of teaching a language. Some professionals came to conclude that as children do not need translations for acquiring their first language, SL learners would not need translations as well. That is where the direct method comes into play.

A.2. The direct method

The principles of the DM are summarised by Brown (2001: 21). First, in this method, the purpose of language teaching is to instruct students on how to communicate in the target language with a total exclusion of translation. Second, teachers and students work as partners in the teaching and learning process. Third, the teaching and learning process is characterised by an association of meaning and target language directly. Thus, the teacher introduces the new language through realia, avoiding any translation whatsoever, while encouraging students to use the target language as if they were in real communication situations. Fourth, interaction patterns in class go from teacher-to-student, student-to-teacher, and student-to-student. Fifth, there is not much concern about students' feelings. Sixth, spoken language is superior to written one, and vocabulary is given more attention than grammar. Seventh, evaluation criteria are strongly based on language performance rather than competence. Finally, self-correction is seen as a key point in error treatment.

The main teaching techniques of the DM are:

- Dictation
- Question-and-answer exercises
- Paragraph writing
- Reading aloud
- Self-correction
- Conversation practice
- Fill-in-the-blank and
- Map drawing

(Larsen-Freeman, *op.cit.*: 29).

We can grasp that proponents of the DM believe that students require an intense contact with the target language. Moreover, in the DM spoken language is superior to the written one. This results in reducing the focus on form during lessons. However, this is not helpful either as grammar will always be present in the conversation students practice in the classroom. Furthermore, despite leaving explicit grammar teaching and translations aside, it is still strongly rooted on directly observable behaviours, a perspective that ignores the fact that language learning is essentially a mental process.

A.3.The audio-lingual method

Promoters of this model maintain that language learning results from habit formation and that as the habits of the learner's first language may interfere with the target language learning, committing errors should be prevented as much as possible. From this basic assumption, several principles derive and orient the teaching and learning process. First of all, students are supposed to learn the target language in a way that they will not need to think later when using it. Secondly, the teacher directs and controls the learners' language behaviour by getting them imitating language models. Thirdly, the teaching and learning process is characterised by vocabulary and language forms being presented through dialogues, which are learned through imitation and repetition. Fourthly, interaction in the classroom takes the form of teacher-to-student, and student-to-student. Fifthly, grammar and pronunciation are key areas of language tuition in this method. Finally, error treatment is approached considering the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Accordingly, the teacher tries to predict them before they occur (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 44; Larsen-Freeman, *op.cit.*: 45; Celce-Murcia, 2001: 7; Lightbown and Spada, 2013: 68).

A few teaching techniques are peculiar to the ALM. For example, dialogue memorisation, repetition drill, backward build-up, chain drill, single-slot substitution drill, multiple-slot substitution drill, grammar game etc. (Larsen-Freeman, *passim*).

Though this method gives emphasis to grammar teaching, perhaps this attention is not the required one for a simple reason: it is difficult to assume that the old assumption that languages are learned following a stimulus-response-reinforcement sequence could form a sound basis for tailoring the teaching and learning process. Clearly repetition can be of some help in learning a new language, but it is not the whole story.

A.4. The silent way

The principles of the SW can be summarised as follows. First, the teaching and learning activities are oriented towards helping learners' self-expression by taking into account their thoughts, perceptions and feelings. Here, students are expected to become autonomous learners by departing from the teacher dependence state. Second, the teacher is seen as technician who works with students' feelings and language awareness as he/she recognises that learners must do the learning. What is more, learners exploit their knowledge to get rid of the barrier that would interfere with the learning process. Third, the teaching and learning process is characterised by an initial attention to sounds, which are presented using colour-sound charts of particular languages. Fourth, despite the teacher-to-student interaction pattern, most of the time the teacher is silent. Fifth, the SW emphasises language areas, such as pronunciation, language structures, and all the four skills are worked on from the beginning. However, vocabulary is somewhat restricted at the beginning (Richards and Rogers, *op.cit.*: 99).

The SW is important in respect of the facts that students' feelings are taken into consideration (which results in increased motivation levels), and emphasis is given on learner autonomy. However, the SW seems to be more appropriate for students with a relatively high level of competence because lower level learners would not have the linguistic power needed to learn from themselves through teacher silence.

The aforementioned methods carry with them the mark of the grammar pedagogy of the past, which was rooted on the behaviourist view that language learning is a question of habit formation. Grammar had a strong influence in language teaching either implicitly or explicitly. Thus, immediate grammatical correctness was a clear sign of language learning achievement. For this to happen mechanical drilling was a key technique in most of them and students' errors were dealt with almost immediately.

Obviously, those ideas had brought some serious drawbacks on the learners. To begin with, a strong focus-on-form where a total exclusion of *use* occurs is hardly working towards helping learners become competent in a second language. Second, imitation and repetition are hardly effective unless meaning is implied. Last and foremost, the acquisition of linguistic competence is a complex process in which errors abound. It is important to mention here that most students would feel discouraged and totally embarrassed if when trying to say something the teacher said: 'that's wrong!' 'repeat after me...' 'see? that's how you *must* say' 'got it?'. It is therefore, crucial to reflect on how much correction should be done in the classroom, when to correct, why, and how to treat learners' errors.

Having identified the negative aspects of the above and other previous methods, proponents of CLT have discovered what they think would be the focus of ELT practice: language learning for communication through the emphasis on CC.

B. Communicative language teaching

Over the past centuries, the field of ELT has been researched extensively. However, on a par with other scientific areas, some of its main problems, despite the vast amount of investigation, do not seem to meet with definite answers. Teachers and researchers alike have always been concerned with discovering ways in which the learning of the English language could be maximised. Of particular interest and complexity is the modern-day debate on language teaching methodology directed at finding specific teaching ways that would produce the best results in the shortest period of time (Prabhu, 1990: 1). It is widely accepted that CLT has been felicitous in helping learners acquire CC (Littlewood, 1981; Brumfit, 1986, among many others). Thus, the increasing interest in CLT has heightened the need for the training of teachers in its use.

This section aims at providing an in-depth discussion of CLT. This is based on the fact that in the present investigation, we propose a communicative-based training course for a specific group of non-trained teachers. To reach our purpose, CLT will be depicted with regard to its basic grounds (e.g. definition, principles, origin, development, theoretical grounds, syllabi, activities, etc.), some of its offspring, and communicative-based language teaching.

Prior to proceeding, it is worth clarifying that we subscribe to the view of CLT as resulting from cumulative knowledge. Consequently, we do not assume that this or any other method is absolutely superior to others. Nevertheless, the relative merits of CLT over other methods, with respect to particular learning aims and needs, plus the legal force examined in the introduction, constitute the drive for the focus on CLT.

B.1. Definition of CLT

CLT can be understood as a set of principles about the aims of language teaching. These comprise the way we can learn a language, the types of classroom tasks that best help language learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom (Richards, 2006: 2). The fundamental nature of CLT 'is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence' (Savignon, 2002: 22).

CLT is not exclusively concerned with face-to-face oral communication. Instead, the principles in CLT also encompass reading, writing, and listening. Here, readers and writers are involved in the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning. Secondly, CLT does not totally reject familiar materials. In other words, materials designed to promote CC can come from different teaching methods. What matters is that learners should engage with texts and meaning in a process of use and discovery. Finally, CLT does not leave aside the metalinguistic knowledge of syntax, discourse, and social appropriateness (Savignon, *ibid.*).

B.2. Principles of CLT

Larsen-Freeman (*op.cit.*: 128- 132) summarises the principles of CLT in ten basic premises. First, in CLT the instructional goal is to get students communicate in the target language. Second, the teacher is seen as a facilitator of communication, and students as communicators. Third, the teaching and learning process is characterised by the fact that most of learning activities have a communicative purpose. Fourth, interaction patterns in the classroom occur with the teacher adopting essentially the roles of facilitator, and co-communicator. Fifth, students' feelings are dealt with through considering that motivation can come as a result of students learning how to communicate, and by paying attention to their opinions and ideas. Sixth, language is viewed for communication. Seventh, language functions are given more attention. Eighth, well thought-out use of students' L1 is allowed in the classroom. Ninth, teachers' evaluation focuses on both accuracy and fluency. To finish, errors are viewed as an essential part of learners' language development.

B.3. Origin of CLT

The starting points of CLT are to be traced back to the British language teaching tradition dating from the 1960s (Richards, *op.cit.*: 6; Richards and Rogers, 1986: 64; Savignon, *op.cit.*: 1; among others). Back to those years, the Situational Language Teaching Approach (after this SLTA) constituted the British language teaching tradition. Traditional approaches to language teaching focused mainly on the teaching of grammatical competence, which was taken as the basis of language proficiency. Language teaching was founded on the belief that grammar could be learned through direct instruction and

through repetitive practice and drilling. Nonetheless, in the mid-1960s the British applied linguists began to doubt the theoretical underpinnings of the SLTA. As a result, by the end of the sixties, the SLTA had run its course.

The aforementioned methodological change was made possible thanks to the British applied linguists' realisation that predicting language based on situational events had no longer future in language teaching. Thus, it was needed a more circumspect study of language itself as to embrace a reappearance of the traditional notion that sentences are meaningful in themselves and express intentions of the speakers and writers who create them (Howatt, 1984: 280).

This state of affairs was in part a response to the criticism levelled at structural linguistic theory by Noam Chomsky in his book *Syntactic Structures* (1957 in Richards and Rogers, *op.cit.*: 64). According to Chomsky, structural theories of language were not able of justifying the primary characteristics of language (viz. creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences).

British applied linguists laid emphasis on another important dimension of language that was not addressed adequately in the approaches to language teaching of that time. This fundamental aspect was the functional and communicative potential of language. Accordingly, the focus of language teaching needed to be shifted from the mastery of structures to communicative proficiency. Following the wave of shift in the language teaching focus, Wilkins (1976) proposed a functional definition of language that could be used to develop communicative syllabuses for language teaching. His contribution resides in the analysis of the communicative meanings the learner needs to understand and express. He classifies meaning into notional and functional categories. His book, *Notional Syllabuses*, had a great impact on the development of CLT. In fact, his semantic/communicative analysis was incorporated by the Council of Europe into a set of specifications for a first-level communicative language syllabus (Richards and Rogers, *op.cit.*: 65).

In brief,

The work of the Council of Europe; the writings of Wilkins, Widdowson, Candlin, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson, and other British applied linguists on the theoretical basis for a communicative or functional approach to language teaching; the rapid application of these ideas by textbook writers; and the equally rapid acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centres, and even governments gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be referred to as the Communicative Approach, or simply Communicative Language Teaching. (Richards and Rogers, *loc.cit.*)

B.4. Development of CLT

Although CLT began largely as a British innovation, concentrated on alternative views of a syllabus, since the mid-1970s its scope has expanded. British and American proponents now consider CLT as an

approach that has as its goals (1) the teaching of Communicative Competence, and (2) the teaching of the four language skills. As a consequence, CLT becomes an approach with no single model universally accepted as authoritative (Savignon, 1983). For some, it means an integration of grammatical and functional teaching (Littlewood, 1981). For others, it is seen as the use of pair and group work activities in problem-solving tasks (Richards and Rogers, *passim*).

There is also a distinction between a strong and a weak version of CLT. The former puts forward claims that language is acquired through communication. Thus, language teaching should stimulate the development of the language system itself. The later, more standardised practice, accentuates the need of providing learners with opportunities of using their English for communicative purposes. In brief, while the weak version is concerned with the description of learning to use the language, the strong version entails using the language to learn it (Howatt, *op.cit.*: 279).

Despite the existence of different versions of CLT, they all have the same theoretical ground: a theory of language teaching that anchors on a communicative paradigm of language and language use. Here, we pursue the design of teaching systems, materials, classroom activities and techniques, and the establishment of roles and behaviours for teachers and learners (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 69).

B.5. Theoretical grounds of CLT

Two main theoretical bases underpin CLT: a theory of language, and a theory of learning.

B.5.1. Theory of language

CLT starts with a theory of language as communication and has as its goal the development of CC (Hymes, 1972). CC is a Hymes' coinage as a contrast to the Chomsky's theory of competence (Brown, 2000: 245). According to Chomsky, linguistic theory is mainly concerned with 'an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community' (Chomsky, 1965: 3 in Richards and Rogers, *op.cit.*: 70). Furthermore, in his point of view, the emphasis of linguistic theory should be on the characterisation of speakers' abstract abilities that help them in the production of grammatically correct sentences. Hymes considered such a view a limited one. It is Hymes' standpoint that linguistic theory should be taken as part of a broader theory entailing communication and culture. In Hymes' theory of CC, it is encompassed a speaker's knowledge of what he/she needs to be communicatively competent in a speech community. Hymes' theory of CC entails the following aspects:

1. Degree of formality of something.
2. The feasibility of something in respect to its implementation availability.

3. The appropriateness of something in relation to its context of use and evaluation.
4. The degree to which something can be done, and performed (Hymes, 1972: 281 in Richards and Rogers, *op.cit.*: 70).

Another theory of communication underpinning CLT is the one proposed by Halliday. According to this theory, 'linguistics... is concerned...with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus' (Halliday, 1970: 145). Halliday (*ibid.*: 11-17) describes seven primary functions that language performs:

1. The instrumental function.
2. The regulatory function.
3. The interactional function.
4. The personal function.
5. The heuristic function.
6. The imaginative function.
7. The representational function.

Based on the above, proponents of CLT viewed SLL as acquiring linguistic means to perform various types of functions (Richards and Rogers, *passim*).

Widdowson (1978) proved to be another prominent theorist for CLT when he presented a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. His focus was on the communicative acts underpinning the capacity of language use for distinct purposes.

A more recent view on CC was proposed by Canale and Swain (1983). In their view, it possesses four leading strands: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence includes the mastery of the language code. As Canale (1983 quoted in Maley, 1986: 87) illustrates, 'such competence focuses directly on the knowledge and skill required for understanding and expressing accurately the literal meaning of utterances'.

The basic assumption underscoring this type of competence is related to knowing how the language system works, i.e. knowing grammatical rules. Thus, this type of competence is confined to grammatical knowledge without deliberating on the real-life applicability of grammatical items.

Sociolinguistic competence is meant to be the ability to comprehend and produce contextually appropriate utterances (Maley, *ibid.*).

It is clear, therefore, that sociolinguistic competence is of importance when producing utterances which are not likely to offend the people to whom we might be talking to, and recognising which topics, intonation patterns, choice of words etc. are suitable for addressing different people.

When people are able to produce acceptable unified spoken or written texts in different genres, they are normally believed to have discourse competence (Maley, *loc.cit.*).

To compensate for breakdowns in communication or for achieving effectiveness in interactive actions, most speakers use verbal and non-verbal techniques, such as hesitation fillers (e.g.: um, you know etc.) or paraphrases (Faerch and Kasper, 1983). This is what is meant by strategic competence.

The theoretical ground of CLT in respect to language theory can therefore be taken to entail an eclectic base comprising four main aspects. First, language is a system of expression of meaning. Second, the basic functions of language are interaction and communication. Third, the structure of language mirrors its functional and communicative uses. At last, the essential units of language are the categories of functional and communicative meaning (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 71).

B.5.2. Theory of learning

Richards and Rogers (*ibid.*) identify three primary elements sustaining an underlying learning theory discerned in CLT. The first element is said to be the communication principle. According to this tenet, activities containing real communication promote learning. The second aspect is the task principle. Here, it is believed that activities where language is used for undertaking meaningful tasks help language learning (cf. Johnson, 1982). Finally, in CLT, activities should be selected according to the degree in which they help learners to embark on meaningful and authentic language use.

Other accounts of language learning processes pertinent to CLT are presented by Savignon (1983); Littlewood (1981), among others. Savignon has researched SLA and identified the role of linguistic, social, cognitive, and individual variables as key aspects in language acquisition. Littlewood considers the skill-learning model as compatible with CLT. This theory maintains that skill development means acquisition of CC. The skill-learning model encompasses two elements: the cognitive and the behavioural. The former, entails the learning of the plans for creating appropriate behaviour. These derive mainly from the language system as including grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The latter, has to do with the automation of these plans in order that they can be transformed into fluent performance in real time.

The theoretical ground of CLT with respect to learning gives emphasis to ideas that real communication, meaningful tasks, meaningful and authentic language use promote learning. Furthermore, practice is seen as a way of developing communicative skills.

B.6. Communicative syllabi

Proponents of CLT have proposed several new syllabi. These comprise the skills-based, the functional, the notional, the threshold level, and others. The skills-based syllabus is organised around the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). The approach behind this organisation is an integrated one. That is to say, as skills often occur together in real life, they should be put together in teaching too. The functional syllabus focuses on the kind of functions learners should be able to perform with the language. The notional syllabus is based around content and notions. And the threshold level syllabus is organised around all the important elements of a language, such as topics, functions, notions, situations, grammar, vocabulary, etc. (Richards, 2006: 11).

B.7. Communicative activities

Considering that one of the goals of CLT is to enable learners to acquire fluency in language use, it is axiomatic that a vast number of activities ascribed to it are fluency-based. Fluency in language use has been defined as the ability to use language as naturally as possible despite linguistic gaps in one's CC (Richards, *ibid.*: 14). This is said to be developed using classroom tasks where students engage in negotiation of meaning, use communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and struggle to avoid communication breakdowns.

Despite the above, CLT also entails specific accuracy-based activities. Richards (*loc.cit.*) has distinguished between the two in the following way:

Activities focussing on fluency

- Mirror natural use of language.
- Focus on reaching communication.
- Involve meaningful use of language.
- Call for the use of communication strategies.
- Produce language that may not be predictable.
- Look for linkage between language use and the context.

Activities focussing on accuracy

- Mirror classroom use of language.

- Focus on the formation of correct examples of language.
- Practice language out of context.
- Practice small samples of language.
- Do not require meaningful communication.
- Control choice of language.

Another classification of communicative activities is presented by Littlewood (1981). He provides three major types of communicative activities. The first type, known as quasi-communicative activities, aims to attire students with the skills needed for communication. For example, relating structures to communicative functions. The second category, called functional communication activities, emphasises the functional aspect of communication. For instance, problem solving tasks where learners attempt at solving problems using whatever language they have at their disposal. Finally, social communication activities add extra scope to functional exercises by requiring students to pay attention to the social as well as the functional meanings that language conveys.

B.8. Information-gap activities

Considering that a crucial aspect of real communication is that it is done to obtain information, in CLT students are expected to go beyond classroom practice and use their communicative resources in order to get information. In so doing, they will draw on their vocabulary logistics, linguistic competence and communication strategies to achieve their aims (Richards, *op.cit.*: 18).

Other communicative activities proposed by Richards (*ibid.*) are of the following type:

- Task-completion (puzzles, games, map-reading, etc.).
- Information- gathering (student-conducted surveys, interviews, and searches)
- Opinion- sharing (comparing values, opinions, beliefs, etc.).
- Information– transfer (taking information in one form and representing it in another).
- Reasoning- gap- (deriving new information from given data through the process of inference, practical reasoning, etc.).

B.9. Communicative materials

The high-water-mark for communicative materials is the extent to which they can enable learners to acquire the four components of CC. To attain that Cunningsworth (1995:116) has suggested that communicative materials should (a) contain real life communication interchanges, (b) role plays should be set up considering real life language situations, (c) activities should be grounded on information gaps, and finally, materials should take into account the transferability to the real world of the activities.

Therefore, materials compatible with CLT are thought to be authentic. Their use is expected to afford learners opportunities to engage in genuine communicative acts in realistic contexts in order that they are able to understand language use as done by native speakers.

B.10. The role of the teacher in CLT

Following communicative ideas and acknowledging facts that language learning occurs at its best when students interact in task accomplishment where their focus is not on the language itself but on attaining communicative goals (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 179), attempts have been made to identify the way teachers' roles have changed recently. Harmer (1983: 200-205 in Medgyes, 1986: 109) expresses the following understanding regarding the roles of communicative teachers:

Communicative teachers are judicious enough to realize that they are not the sole repositories of truth, wisdom, and authority, but merely instruments to see that learning takes place. Therefore, they keep a low profile in all their functions: as controllers they relax their grip on the class; as assessors they resort to gentle correction; as organizers they set activities in motion and then stand aside; as prompters they perform with discretion; as participants, they play second fiddle; as resources, they offer help, but only when requested.

In short, the teacher is perceived as a facilitator, i.e. an enabler as opposed to the traditional upfront teacher.

The facilitator will organise a lesson open in structure having students working in groups without much teacher control (O'Neil, 1991: 298). This is an advantage if we believe that learners acquire how to communicate in an additional language by using this same language. Moreover, willing to lead students towards discovering facts about language, as facilitators we can reach this aim. First of all, assuming not to be the only source of knowledge in the classroom leaves an open window for students' ideas to emerge in the direction of exploring language facts. Finally, learning tasks are more challenging but also enjoyable as there is less teacher control as he/she stands aside (monitoring, co-participating, serving as a resource, etc.).

B.11. Learner role

The main role of the learner in CLT is of a negotiator. Negotiations will occur between the self and the learning process. The role of a negotiator emerges as a result of the need to interact with members of a group during classroom activities. Therefore, the learner must supply as much information as he/she gains, becoming an independent student as a result (Breen and Candlin, 1980: 110 in Richards and Rogers, 1986: 77).

B.12. Communicative language teaching today

As seen in the previous section, since CLT explores a set of guiding principles based on the notion of CC as its goal through the use of specific communicative syllabi, it did not stop evolving. Current CLT theoretical perspectives and practical insights, however, draw on different paradigms and traditions. For this reason, there seems to be no agreed set of practice that faithfully characterise today's CLT. Instead, current CLT seems to be simply a set of commonly accepted principles used in ways depending on the teaching context, the learners' age, their level, objectives, and so on.

In this stream of thought, Richards (2006: 22) suggests the following as being what he calls ten fundamental tenets of present Communicative Language Teaching:

1. Second language learning is facilitated when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication.
2. Effective classroom learning tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange.
3. Meaningful communication results from students processing content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting, and engaging.
4. Communication is a holistic process that often calls upon the use of several language skills or modalities.
5. Language learning is facilitated both by activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language use and organization, as well as by those involving language analysis and reflection.
6. Language learning is a gradual process that involves use of language, and trial and error. Although errors a normal product of learning, the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.
7. Learners develop their own routes to language learning, progress at different rates, and have different needs and motivation for language learning.
8. Successful language learning involves the use of effective learning and communication strategies.
9. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator, who creates a classroom climate conducive to language learning and provides opportunities for students to practice the language and reflect on language use and language learning.
10. The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing.

Based on the above principles and drawing on traditional CLT, Richards (*ibid.*: 23-24) characterises typical classroom activities as:

- Seeking to increase learners' CC by linking grammatical development to communicative ability. Thus, the need to teach grammar arises from a communicative task where it is needed to accomplish it.
- Creating the need for communication, interaction, and negotiation of meaning by using activities like problem solving, information sharing, and role play.
- Affording chances for both inductive and deductive grammar learning.
- Exploiting content that takes into account learners' lives and interests.
- Permitting students to personalise learning by using what they have learnt to their own lives.

- Using authentic texts to create interest and provide valid models of language.

On today's approach to language teaching assumed by a communicative view of language, Jacob and Farrell (2003: 4) identify key elements of shift in our current ideas about language teachers, learning, and teaching. The components embrace the following:

- Move from teacher-centred to learner-centred instruction.
- Move from product-oriented to process-oriented.
- More attention to the social nature of learning.
- Study of individual differences.
- Using qualitative research insights.
- Connection of the school with the world beyond.
- Students must have their own learning purpose.
- Whole-to-part orientation instead of part-to-whole.
- Meaning is given more importance as opposed to drilling and rote learning.
- Learning is seen as a lifelong process.

According to Jacob and Farrell (*ibid.*), the above shifts led to eight main changes in approaches to language teaching.

1. Learner autonomy – learners are given choices over their own learning. Learners' preferences will be in respect of both the content of learning and the processes they might use.
2. The social nature of learning – learning is seen as depending on interaction with others.
3. Curricular integration – English should be linked to other subjects in the curriculum.
4. Focus on meaning – meaning is the driving force of learning.
5. Diversity – there is a recognition that students learn in different ways and at different strengths.
6. Thinking skills – language is seen as a means to develop critical and creative thinking.
7. Alternative assessment – other forms of assessment come into play. These include observation, interviews, portfolios, etc.
8. Teachers as co-learners – teachers are now facilitators of the learning process.

As a summary, we can say that CLT is best seen as an approach to language teaching whose aim is to enable learners to acquire CC through communication. It originated back in 1960s as a result of dissatisfaction with traditional approaches to language teaching focussing mainly on the teaching of grammatical competence. CLT is grounded on two main theoretical perspectives: a theory of language (language as communication), and a theory of learning (communication principle, task principle, and meaningful and authentic language use). CLT is conveyed through mainly the functional, the notional, and the threshold level syllabi. Teaching and learning activities in CLT are mainly categorised in terms

of quasi-communicative, functional communication, and social communication. Communicative teachers are mainly facilitators of learning, and communicative learners are essentially negotiators of information. Today CLT is still guided by the same basic tenets. However, an increasing need of a rapid acquisition of an acceptable English proficiency level, for a number of reasons, has placed an extra weight on CC as the goal for language instruction.

B.13. Approaches falling within the CLT framework

As said above, today's local needs of learners and teaching contexts sometimes demand from CLT practitioners a reconstruction of practice. This reconstruction falls within two main categories. One whose focus is on the learning process, and the other that emphasises the product of learning. We portray them below.

B.13.1. Process-oriented CLT approaches

These refer to the ones whose starting point is the creation of classroom processes that facilitate learning (Richards, 2006: 27). Examples of CLT approaches based on the learning process are Content-Based Instruction (hereafter CBI), and Task based Approach (henceforth TBA).

The first one (CBI) describes a situation in which language instruction is embedded in the content of other scientific areas. Thus, CBI is usually referred to as programmes centralised at imparting the skills students will need for learning the content areas of other disciplines, such as Biology, Mathematics, etc. (Gaffield-Vile, 1996; Stryker and Leaver, 1997; Schleppegrell, *et al.*, 2004, and others).

The main features of CBI are highlighted by a number of authors, some of them are Brinton *et al.* (1989: 2-5); Wesche (1993); and Crandall and Tucker (1990: 187). From them, we understand that any CBI will put together given contents with language teaching aims, i.e. a simultaneous teaching of academic disciplines and language skills. What is more, in their standpoint, in CBI the target language is a means through which the content of a particular subject matter is learned. Finally, CBI is oriented at the development of use-oriented SLL skills.

Types of CBI entail Sheltered, Adjunct (Snow and Briton, 1988), and Theme-based. The first occurs frequently in L1 contexts where the teacher's aim is to enable ESL learners to deal with the same material as their English language native speaker colleagues. In the second, the instruction is undertaken by ESL teachers with the goal of preparing learners for normal classes where they will find English L1 learners. Finally, the Theme-based model is normally exploited in EFL situations where teachers design courses to unlock and build on students' interests (Snow, 2001: 306-309).

The second type of process-oriented CLT comprises TBA. This refers to those using communicative and interactive activities as the core components of language instruction (Willis, 1996; Nunan, 2004). The tasks encompassed are expected to embrace (a) meaningful interaction, (b) negotiation, and (c) help students acquire grammatical competence via authentic language use (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 540).

TBA also entails affording learners with tasks to transact as opposed to items to learn in an atmosphere that best supports a natural learning process. Activities, like problem-solving, discussions, and narratives are believed to enhance the learner's interlanguage system, because such tasks are beneficial to students, owing to the fact that in carrying them out their information-gap feature will enable learners to transfer information. Successful transference of information will show that learners' attention is on the understandability of the language they are using; therefore, the possibility that the learners' interlanguage will be elevated to the norms of the target language will be increased (Pica *et al.*, 1993).

However, concern is shown as TBA might place too much emphasis on meaning at the expense of form. As a result, it may lead to the use of unchallenging and inaccurate language (Foster, 1999: 69). In order to batter this, various authors have suggested ways on how to improve TBA performance. Skehan (1996 in Foster *op.cit.*) has built up a theoretical framework for TBA in which he maintains a balanced development of fluency with accuracy plus the restructuring of learners' interlanguage. Willis (1996 in Foster, *op.cit.*) suggests a way of improving TBA by leading learners through cycles of task planning, performance, repetition, and comparison with the rules of the native speakers. In fact, Foster (*passim*) has provided evidence lending support to the fact that if learners are given time for planning prior to doing tasks it increases the intricacy, accuracy, and fluency of the language they use. Therefore, for a successful exploration of TBA, we need to select, structure, and put into practice tasks that focus on both meaning and form.

A pertinent point reached so far refers to the conclusion making reference to CBI and TBA as being part of process-based methodologies since they create classroom procedures that are believed to encourage language learning. Nevertheless, within the CLT offspring there are also approaches which are valued as being product-oriented.

B.13.2. Product-based CLT approaches

The focus in this section will be on two approaches whose main emphasis is on the product of learning as the primary aspect for language tuition: Text-Based Instruction (hereafter TBI) and Competency-Based Approach (henceforth CBA).

In TBI, CC is seen as embracing the mastery of different types of texts. A text denotes organised sequences of language used in given contexts in specific ways. These may include casual conversations, telephone calls, accounts of experiences, discussions of problems, etc. Here, the uses of language are taken to mean texts because they are unified wholes as they possess beginning, middle, and end. Moreover, they conform to the rules of structuring content, and use appropriate grammar and vocabulary (Richards, 2006: 36).

Feez and Joyce (1998, in Richards, *op.cit.*) have suggested that TBI involves (a) the explicit teaching of structures and grammatical features entailed in spoken and written texts, (b) put together spoken and written texts to their cultural context of use, (c) the use of tasks giving emphasis to individual skills within whole texts, (d) and the use of guided practice in relation to the learners' development of language skills for communication through whole texts.

Since in TBI the main planning units for instruction are texts, they should be chosen as a result of learners' needs analysis, and language analysis as used in different contexts. Apart from texts, TBI also specifies other items, such as grammar, vocabulary, topics, and functions; therefore, it is mainly a mixed syllabus (Richards, *op.cit.*: 37).

As TBI emphasises the product of learning at the expense of the learning process, critics have pinpointed that it lacks emphasis on individual creativity and personal expression. And those two aspects are linked to a methodology grounded on model texts and creation of texts based on models. Furthermore, there is a danger that TBI might be boring over time due to lack of variety in the teaching of the four language skills (Richards, *passim*).

With regard to CBA, it is worth mentioning that it emerged in the United States of America in the 1970s and it was perceived as an educational movement that defined educational aims in terms of measurable description of knowledge, skills, and behaviours learners should acquire at the end of the course of study (Richards and Rogers, 2001 in Nkwetisama, 2012: 519). Thus, this approach is based on outcomes of language instruction and is flexible to the changing needs of students, teachers, and the community. In addition to that, in the CBA competencies describe the learners' ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly found in everyday life (Schenck, 1978 in Nkwetisama, *op.cit.*).

As applied to language teaching, the CBA is known as Competency-Based Language Teaching (hereafter CBLT). This approach has been employed as a ground floor for the design of work-related and survival-oriented language teaching programmes for adults (Richards, 2006: 41-42).

According to Auerbach (1986 in Richards, *op.cit.*) the implementation of CBLT follows eight features:

1. Focus on successful functioning in society. The goal is to enable students to become autonomous individuals capable of coping with the demands of the world.
2. Focus on life skills. Rather than teaching language in isolation, CBLT teaches language as a function of communication about concrete tasks. Students are taught just those language forms/skills required by the situation in which they will function. These forms are normally determined by needs analysis.
3. Task- or performance-orientated instruction. What counts is what students can do as a result of instruction. The emphasis is on overt behaviours rather than on knowledge or the ability about language and skills.
4. Modularized instruction. Language learning is broken down into meaningful chunks. Objectives are broken down into narrowly focused subobjectives so that both teachers and students can get a clear sense of progress.
5. Outcomes are made explicit. Outcomes are public knowledge, known and agreed upon by both learner and teacher. They are specified in terms of behavioural objectives so that students know what behaviours are expected of them.
6. Continuous and ongoing assessment. Students are pre-tested to determine what skills they lack and post-tested after instruction on that skill. If they do not achieve the desired level of mastery, they continue to work on the objective and are retested.
7. Demonstrated mastery of performance objectives. Rather than on the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, assessment is based on ability to demonstrate prespecified behaviours.
8. Individual, student-centred instruction. In content, level, and pace, objectives are defined in terms of individual needs, prior learning and achievement are taken into account in developing curricula. Instruction is not time based; students' progress at their own rates and concentrate on just those areas in which they lack competence.

To end with our discussion on the basis of CLT and some of its offspring, it is worth mentioning the changes CLT underwent since its inception as embracing a number of phases as from early conceptions of CC, organisation of syllabi, needs analysis, and task analysis. In the present day, CLT can be understood as a set of principles about language learning and teaching which are applicable to a variety of ways of addressing different aspects of the teaching and learning processes. Furthermore, it still seems to represent what many teachers consider helpful in EFL.

A direct link to our research problem takes us to tackle a more practical stance towards CLT in EFL teaching contexts. Thus, in the coming section, we will approach language teaching from communicative grounds.

1.4. Communicative-based language teaching

Following on the insights gained so far, we will present CLT from a more practical perspective. As seen in the previous section, CLT encompasses many aspects all aligned towards helping learners achieve high degrees of CC. Considering the focus and scope of the current thesis, we do not intend to tackle

them all. We will, however, direct our attention to those we believe can offer a sound base of knowledge for the participants of the present study. As such, what follows lays the ground for specific facets of the research tools we employed.

Thus, this section has the following purposes:

- To discuss effective ways of teaching vocabulary within a communicative framework.
- To discuss communicative-based grammar teaching.
- To offer a model lesson plan for vocabulary and grammar teaching.
- To elaborate on some aspects of classroom management.

The aforementioned goals are expected to be attained through the attention on theory and practice of teaching vocabulary, grammar instruction, lesson planning, and classroom management.

a. Teaching vocabulary

The increasing interest in understanding vocabulary learning has heightened the need for the use of effective teaching procedures. Although in the past vocabulary in language teaching had been neglected, there has been growing interest in it because of poor learning outcomes.

This part of our thesis is intended to discuss techniques of teaching vocabulary within a communicative framework, and to offer a theoretical support for some questions in our research instrument, namely group three of the questionnaire (involving questions seven, eight, and nine), question two of the pre-test and the post-test, and the content of the training course regarding teaching vocabulary.

To attain our goals, we will explore three main areas. First, we will explain the concept of vocabulary and its types. The second focus will be on some aspects of the history of vocabulary in language learning. The third emphasis will be on techniques for teaching vocabulary. Finally, we will explore learning strategies.

a.1. What is vocabulary?

The discussion on the praxis of vocabulary teaching would not be ample enough for the scope of the current thesis if we did not rest the arguments on logical grounds. As such, this premise underscores the decision to start the current section by defining vocabulary.

Generally speaking, vocabulary has been presented as the number of words known and used by an individual language user (Linse and Nunan, 2005: 121).

For Richards and Schmidt (2002: 629) vocabulary includes lexemes, where single words, compound words and idioms can be identified.

The definitions described above place the concept of vocabulary in a linguistic standpoint. Although we agree with them, the nature of our thesis takes us to addressing vocabulary beyond linguistic views.

From a teaching viewpoint, vocabulary is mainly understood as the words that we present in language classes, comprising both single words and more complex vocabulary items. This point is maintained by Ur (1996: 60).

The discussion of the concept of vocabulary goes beyond a simple explanation of the existence of single and complex words, to analyse two other categories, namely content and function words.

a.1.1. Content words

In the view of Akar (2010: 15), content words are those that have meaning. To this effect, they encompass nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Details of these could be found in most grammar books. For example, the Cobuild English Grammar describes these terms in the following way: a noun refers to people, things, and abstract ideas, including feelings and qualities; a verb is a word used with a subject to say what someone or something does, or what happens to them; adjectives a word used to tell you more about a thing, such as its appearance, colour, size, or other qualities; adverb is a word that gives more information about when, how, where, or in what circumstances something happens.

It is then clear that content words are essentially free morphemes for the reason that they can stand on their own and express meaning.

a.1.2. Function words

All other orthographic words expressing grammatical functions, whose meaning cannot be well understood unless they are used with other words, are defined as function words. For example, articles, prepositions, pronouns, modal verbs, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs are all function words. Their lack of independent meaning makes them more suitable to be taught as grammatical items (Akar, *ibid.*: 15).

In language teaching, instructors have to make decisions regarding the importance of the words they present to their students. The choices they make usually result in the separation between active and passive vocabulary.

a.1.3. Active versus passive vocabulary

Gairns and Redman (1996: 64-5) distinguish active from passive vocabulary by maintaining that the former refers to 'vocabulary ... items which the learner can recall and use appropriately in speech and writing'. The latter, represents 'language items which can only be recognised and comprehended in the

context of reading and listening material'. Many other writers have expressed the same points (for example, Haycraft, 1978: 51; Doff, 1988: 19; among others).

In reality, both the native speaker and the second language learner are aware of the fact that some words are used more frequently than others. Depending on the context of the students, some words will be more natural to them than others. For instance, in the context of our research (Angola) many weather-related words are passive to the students. This happens owing to the duality of the climate in Angola - it is either dry or rainy season. Thus, words like autumn, spring, winter, etc. may never happen in real conversation in or outside the classroom.

Thereafter, when teaching vocabulary, we must decide which words to teach as passive or for active use. Moreover, Gairns and Redman (*op.cit.*: 65) defend that the choice between active and passive vocabulary will determine the methodological procedures to employ when presenting words to students.

However, this polarisation (active versus passive vocabulary) may be seen as artificial since sometimes there is no clear-cut distinction between them. Nevertheless, the separation brings to light the need to select vocabulary considering students' needs and learning environment (Gairns and Redman, *ibid.*).

In short, this section has produced the definition of vocabulary as encompassing words and their meanings as we teach them in the language classroom. It was also pertinent the view of lexis as including both single and multi-word items. Additionally, it was stressed that we can have content and function words. Finally, for language teaching, when we impart lexical knowledge, a distinction must be made between active and passive vocabulary.

The knowledge of the concept of vocabulary and its types leads us to focus our attention on the history of vocabulary learning and teaching within the field of ELT.

a.2. History of vocabulary in language learning

The teaching of vocabulary has always been related to language instruction methodology in general. In fact, Schmitt (2000: 10) places the history of vocabulary teaching in two perspectives:

1. What methodologies have been used to teach second languages through the ages? And what has been the role of vocabulary in these methodologies?
2. What was the "Vocabulary Control Movement"?

As seen previously, the following methods have all included the teaching of vocabulary. In the GTM, vocabulary is taught and learned by asking students to translate and memorise lists of vocabulary items. The DM places emphasis on learning vocabulary through realia. In the ALM, the teaching

and learning process is characterised by vocabulary and language forms being presented through dialogues, which are learned through imitation and repetition. In the SW, however, vocabulary is somewhat restricted at the beginning. Nevertheless, it exploits teaching techniques, such as sound-colour chart, teacher's silence, peer correction, word chart, rods, etc. to present and practice vocabulary. To finish, CLT gives teaching and learning of vocabulary a chief role in helping students acquire Communicative Competence.

Vocabulary Control Movement (VCM)

Schmitt (*ibid.*) characterises the VCM as the attempts to systematise work on vocabulary by means of research in patterning of vocabulary in discourse, and selection of vocabulary to teach; thus, making it easier to learn and teach. This movement gained prominence in the beginning of the 1980s following the birth of computer analysis techniques.

Schmitt (*loc.cit.*) discusses two opposing approaches to VCM. The first one was developed by Ogden and Richards. Known as Basic English (hereafter BE), the proponents of this approach, in early 1930s, selected 850 words as basic vocabulary that students should master to be able to express any meaning in common English. BE contained 150 words for qualities, 600 nouns, and 100 operations (a combination of word classes) (Carter, 1998: 25 in Schmitt, 2000: 15).

The BE approach faced major challenges for a number of reasons. First of all, its advocates presented it as a replacement for English. More importantly, despite the seemingly reduced number of words to control, it was not easy to handle Basic English due to the fact that students had to learn many world concepts entailed in a relatively small number of words. In fact, Nation (1983: 11 in Schmitt, *op.cit.*) clarifies that the 850 words of BE have 12,425 meanings. Another drawback was that teachers would have to be confined to the teaching of BE, leaving aside all the other vocabulary items and grammatical forms of the English language. Finally, since BE did not comprise very common words and expressions, it was deemed unsuitable for social interaction. This happened because the language produced through BE seemed unnatural English (Howatt, 1984: 254 in Schmitt, *op.cit.*: 16).

The second approach, known as General Service List of English Words (henceforth GSL), emerged from the need to employ systematic criteria in the selection of the most useful vocabulary items for language learning. The GSL was given prominence by the Carnegie Report, which was worked on by Palmer, West, and Faucett in 1936 and suggested the development of a vocabulary list embracing useful items critical for the creation of simple reading materials. They believed that frequency of occurrence was a crucial indicator in the choice of words to teach. However, a major flaw

with the GSL is that frequency is contextual (cf. active vs. passive vocabulary). To minimise this shortcoming, criteria for word selection based on GSL should entail the following:

1. Word frequency;
2. Structural value;
3. Universality;
4. Subject range;
5. Definition words;
6. Word-building capacity;
7. Style.

(Howatt, 1984: 256 in Schmitt, *op.cit.*)

GLS entails about 2000 words and its major advantage is that it lists parts of speech and meaning senses, instead of mere frequency count (West, 1953: 54 in Schmitt, *loc.cit.*).

Heretofore, we discussed the historical role of vocabulary in language teaching and how it gained its current importance. Nevertheless, vocabulary teaching had been neglected in teacher education programmes in the past. To account for this, Allen (1983: 1-3) puts forward three main reasons. First of all, surprisingly, too much emphasis on vocabulary teaching from 1940-1970 compelled people to give more focus on grammar teaching. Secondly, it was believed that since word meaning could not be fully taught, teachers had to avoid teaching lexis because it would lead students to commit mistakes when writing sentences. Thus, this understanding made teachers accept as true that vocabulary instruction was pernicious. Finally, the thought that understanding word meaning was only possible through experience resulted in little attention been given to vocabulary teaching techniques. Nonetheless, the fact that in many EFL and ESL classes the results of teaching and learning vocabulary had been disappointing (for example, despite long exposure to vocabulary teaching techniques and materials, a considerable number of EFL students fail in learning and using new words) renewed the scholars' interest in the study of word meanings by focusing on lexical problems that frequently affected communication and suggested appropriate teaching techniques (Allen, *ibid.*).

Our discussion will be expanded below to entail the way vocabulary should be taught.

a.3. Vocabulary instruction

The previous sections dealt with aspects related to general background knowledge leading to vocabulary teaching procedures. The present one will focus on the way teachers should approach vocabulary instruction in the classroom. To attain this aim, we will start by analysing the reasons why vocabulary should be taught, followed by a focus on vocabulary choice criteria, vocabulary knowledge, teaching

techniques, and learning activities.

a.3.1. Why teach vocabulary

As already mentioned, disappointing results in the teaching and learning of lexis, mainly in SL/FL contexts, have driven researchers and teachers alike to reflect on more effective ways of teaching vocabulary to students. In the context of our investigation, we can notice students struggling to communicate due to lack of vocabulary. Indeed, it is common to encounter learners who face difficulties to start a simple communicative act or cannot remember words because of their teachers' poor teaching techniques.

More importantly, teachers often encourage students to learn vocabulary because it is a critical tool for successful communicative interchanges. What is more, lexical knowledge is a fundamental part of CC (Schmitt, 2000). In fact, many researchers have highlighted the role of vocabulary knowledge in language learning and enhancing language use (Laufer and Nation, 1999; Maximo and Sadoski, 2000; Read, 2000; Nation, 2001; Gu, 2003, among others).

Bearing in mind the fact that language in general is composed by vocabulary, it does not surprise that lexis has a central place in language teaching. Furthermore, it is a common belief that the study of vocabulary may lead to language learning improvement.

In brief, since vocabulary rests in the foundations of any language, its study may lead to overall language development.

a.3.2. Selecting words to teach

Choosing words to teach can be fairly easy, provided one is following a coursebook's content faithfully. However, any reflective teacher will have to think beyond the constraints of the learning material to address students' real learning needs. Here, we will explore a number of factors teachers should consider when planning the words deemed important for successful learning for the students. We will discuss the following aspects: frequency, cultural factors, need and level, classroom management, useful words, learners' wants, learnability, and how many words per lesson.

a.3.2.1. Frequency

Apart from the obvious choice between active and passive vocabulary, frequency comprises other peculiar nuances and can hardly be equated to usefulness. In fact, it has usually been associated with word count. Gairns and Redman (1986: 57-8) describe four main word counts. The first one is the already mentioned GSL. The second is the Kucera and Francis' list (1967). With the aid of computers, they were able to enlist 2000 frequent words; this list was later expanded to 5000 words. Another count

is the so-called Threshold Level. Compiled for the Council of Europe in 1975 by J. van Ek, it comprised almost 1500 vocabulary items. And, it was intended to establish a basic general ability level. Finally, with the aim of establishing receptive vocabulary items essential to succeed in the Cambridge First Certificate Examination, Roland Hindmarch created the Cambridge English Lexicon in 1980. The list entailed 4500 words with 8000 semantic values. To help include the vocabulary items in appropriate units, they were categorised in an incidence scale from 1-5.

While word counts could be important for lexical grading in the classroom, Gairns and Redman (*ibid.*) warn that their uncritical use may not satisfy students' needs. In their perspective, the value of a word count criteria should be judged according to their source, and word inclusion principles in relation to students' learning demands. As such, teachers must measure frequency against usefulness. That means, while some words are taken as highly frequent, they might not be useful for certain contexts.

The issue of reliance on frequency word counts in Foreign Language teaching situations is sometimes problematic. Taking for example the Angolan context, where most students only use English for production in the classroom, a teacher might have difficulties in deciding which frequent words students would need the most for real future communication outside the teaching environment. Due to these constraints, teachers can only imagine futuristic situations students may engage in language use and decide upon the type of vocabulary appropriate for such occasions. Therefore, in EFL contexts frequency-based choice of vocabulary might not be meaningful to students' present language use needs.

a.3.2.2. Cultural factors

Gairns and Redman (*loc.cit.*) call attention to the fact that frequency word counts might not give due consideration to the non-native student's cultural aspects because they are a reflection of native speakers' social interests. Consequently, the non-native teacher should mitigate this issue by adapting the teaching materials they use to present new words to their students as to entail vocabulary culturally appropriate for them. For example, considering that Angolan students are more likely to interact with people coming from its neighbouring English-speaking countries(Namibia, South Africa, and Zimbabwe), whom they share similar cultural traits, it would be important that the lexis taught included the region's main cultural aspects.

a.3.2.3. Need and level

For most of us, it is fairly obvious that the choice of words to teach our students should be based on their needs. Decisions must be taken, however, to the kind of needs one is trying to cater for. Even in a homogeneous classroom, teachers might be confronted with a potentially challenging number of

vocabulary learning needs. Gairns and Redman (*passim*) expose the potential incongruence of need versus level by mentioning the example of ESP students' needs and their level, in which low level learners might be required to handle complex technical language. The authors believe motivation could minimise such problem as it can help students recognise the usefulness of the vocabulary input and this results in engaging in their interests, which could improve general effective learning. This suggestion goes against the view of supremacy of level over need in vocabulary choice (cf. Ooi and Kim-Seoh, 1996).

Despite this, in the classroom, teachers tend to be more favourable toward the last view. As mentioned in the opening statement of the current section, need is crucial when selecting words to teach. But, in general, students' level can dictate their basic learning needs. In other words, each different English language learning level (beginner, elementary, pre-intermediate, etc.) has its challenges. These may represent what learners need to succeed and pass to another level. Notwithstanding this view, considering the communicative purpose of the language teaching process, exceptionally, some vocabulary items might be taught irrespective of the students' learning level. For example, when teaching students how to write informal and formal letters, regardless of their communicative competence, one exposes them to lexis which may be above their capacities but are essential to achieve both learning and teaching aims.

An equally crucial concern of teachers is how to predict what learners will need and how to create the need for a word. Addressing these concerns, McCarthy (1990: 88) starts by exposing the potential conflict between learners' and teachers' understanding of need and suggests three major ways of selecting vocabulary: '(1) teachers/coursebook writers' predictions, (2) a sense of need in the learner fostered by the teacher, (3) the learners' own sense of their needs, which may conflict with the teachers' perceptions'.

Based on the above criteria, Allen (1983: 108) derives four critical questions that should be considered in the vocabulary prediction process:

- 1 Which words must students know in order to talk about people, things, and events in the place where they study and live? (When such words are learnt, the new language can immediately be put to use.)
- 2 Which words must the student know in order to respond to routine directions and commands? (The vocabulary for 'open your books' and 'write these sentences' and other routine instructions should be learnt early, so that such frequently repeated directions can always be given in English.)
- 3 Which words are required for certain classroom experiences (describing, comparing, and classifying various animals, for example, or having imaginary conversations with speakers of English, or writing letters to pen pals)?
- 4 Which words are needed in connection with the students' particular academic interests? (Those who will specialize in science need vocabulary that is different from those who plan business careers.)

We believe that Allen's suggestion is important for a number of reasons. To begin with, since the starting point of vocabulary choice is the students' own living context, this can cater for their immediate communicative needs. Thus, they can show and measure their own progress at an early stage of the learning process because they will try to use the new language as they learn it. Secondly, as it will be seen in a.3.2.6 below, classroom management language should be taught as soon as possible to reduce the use of students' mother tongue and facilitate the teaching process. Finally, provided that one has an ESP class, teaching the jargon of the profession is essential.

As a summary, we can say that while students' needs are imperative in selecting vocabulary, their level could be used to determine them. Moreover, some words should be taught irrespective of the level because they are essential to achieve a communicative purpose. In addition to that, teachers are advised not only to predict students' vocabulary learning needs, but also create the need for specific words.

a.3.2.4. Useful words

It will be stated the obvious that teachers will always consider the usefulness of the lexis they convey to their learners to boost their linguistic repertoire. The issue, however, resides on the criteria available for teachers in the decision process of word selection. Beck *et al.* (2005: 210) suggest the use of so-called tiers. These consist of three main levels. The first one encompasses basic words, such as baby, clock, happy which seldom require overt teaching. The second level comprises high-frequency words for older language users (e.g., coincidence, absurd, industrious, etc.). Thus, this type of words should be given more attention when presenting them to students, for they can be crucial in improving the learners' productivity. To finish, tier three entails low frequency words confined to particular areas (for instance, words like isotope, lathe, peninsula should be taught within a specific content field).

In addition to usefulness, Beck *et al.* (*ibid.*: 221) propose two more criteria teachers could use when evaluating the type of vocabulary items they want their learners to master:

[1] How does the word relate to other words, to ideas that students know or have been learning? Does it directly relate to some topic of study in the classroom? Or might it add a dimension to ideas that have been developed? For example, what might knowing the word hubris bring to a middle school student's understanding of the battles at Lexington and Concord, which set the Revolutionary War in motion?

[2]. What does the word bring to a text or situation? What role does the word play in communicating the meaning of the context in which it is used? A word's meaning might be necessary for understanding a text. Or understanding its meaning might allow an enriched insight about the situation being presented, such as in the case of Hatshepsut's seizing power and riding in sleek ships.

The idea of dividing words to teach in levels of importance is appealing to us owing to the fact that it gives a sense of organisation in the teaching process. Nevertheless, the tiers proposed by Beck *et al.*

(2005) do not seem feasible or clear enough for classroom exploitation. First of all, in view of first tier dealing with words that do not call for immediate teaching attention, it becomes difficult to comprehend their worth for the overall teaching and learning process. Moreover, the authors do not offer a pedagogical model that teachers could use to handle tier one words. Secondly, since the second level is directed at catering for the needs of mature students, younger learners cannot benefit from such approach. Lastly, taking into account that the third level aims at ESP, its importance for General English (GE) students is rendered questionable. Nonetheless, the last two sets of questions advanced by the authors seem more useful since they could work as a simple and practical checklist upon which teachers could make informed decisions for vocabulary choice in the classroom. Therefore, despite the apparent impracticality of the three-tiers model, the range of questions teachers can ask to assess the usefulness of words for classroom exploitation projected by Beck *et al. (passim)* appears to be pertinent when selecting new vocabulary for students.

a.3.2.5. Learners' wants

Following on the learner-centred movement, Schmitt (2000: 144-5) defends the inclusion of students in the process of word selection. He believes that motivation may come as a result of taking students' vocabulary learning interests into consideration. In fact, with most self-motivated learners, being able to actively engage in the selection of the learning content might present an opportunity to embrace lexis they feel immediately in need of. Besides, for teachers who agree with the learner-centred movement, giving students power to choose some of the words to be taught could represent an instance of individualisation of the teaching action. What is more, for less motivated students, being asked to contribute to the vocabulary content to be learned could increase their motivation level for the reason that they will be included in the process, instead of being forced to learn content that may not be appealing to them. Hence, considering learners wishes and wants could boost their drive to learn and facilitate the acquisition of lexis as they will see themselves as co-deciders of what should be taught in the classroom.

a.3.2.6. Classroom management

Foreign language teachers working with beginner and elementary learners might have noticed the degree of difficulty displayed by them when trying to use the new language even for basic classroom vocabulary. For this reason, teachers usually introduce classroom language to lessen the use of the students' mother tongue and teacher translation. Schmitt (*ibid.*) stresses the need to teach vocabulary for classroom management as soon as possible so that basic commands are learned and the teaching process occurs more effectively.

a.3.2.7. Learnability

It is claimed that a word frequency can affect its learnability. The most occurring ones may be absorbed more easily because of their regularity (McCarthy, 1990: 86). Nevertheless, frequency is but one of the several factors accounting for ease or difficulty in learning new words. Other aspects comprise spelling problems (for example, single or double consonants in words, such as 'quarrel', 'occurrence', 'parallel', etc. may be challenging even to native speakers), phonological difficulties (e.g. words particularly difficult to pronounce, especially by non-native speakers, like 'thrive'), syntactic properties of some words (i.e. words that follow or precede certain vocabulary items), problems created by words with similar meaning (e.g. 'make' versus 'do'), and words whose meanings can be misleading to students due to spelling similarities (e.g. 'false friends') (McCarthy. *Ibid.*).

a.3.2.8. How many words

One last criterion of word selection has to do with quantity. Irrespective of our choice of ways to pick words for teaching, instructors must decide on the number of words to be taught. Common sense among teachers is that 10 new words per class period would suffice. However, Gairns and Redman (1986: 66) cautions about being dogmatic when establishing a fix number of items per lesson. Notwithstanding this, they believe that for elementary learners eight new productive vocabulary items for each lesson would be ideal because after 125 hours of tuition they will have learned 1000 words, which is compatible with the lexicon needed to reach the level of 'General Ability' as defined in the Threshold Level. They also propose a total of 12 new active words for more advanced students. In reality, however, the authors recognise the impossibility of all learners subjected to 125-hour courses being able to learn, remember, and use 1000 new words; they maintain that while the number suggested is ideal, other factors play a role in vocabulary development. These include motivation, and the learning context (native vs. non-students).

As a summary of the criteria that may govern the choice of words to teach our students, it is crucial to remind us that although frequency plays a big role in selecting vocabulary, usefulness of the items should not be left unthought about. Moreover, as meaningful teaching should be based on the students' reality, cultural factors should be seen as important considerations when planning words to teach. More importantly, teachers must give primary attention to words that students need, presently or for future interaction. To end, to boost learners' motivation, their wants should not be neglected when selecting vocabulary. Moreover, addressing the teaching process, to make it smoother, words that facilitate the management of the classroom and those that are easy to learn must be highly regarded.

The knowledge acquired so far leads us to ponder on the extent to which one can claim that they know a vocabulary item.

a.3.3. Knowing a word

Knowing the definition of a word and its spelling and pronunciation does not ensure a learner's ability to fully exploit it in real communication. Thus, a number of aspects must be mastered for us to claim knowledge of a given word. These entail denotation and possible connotation of a word, its collocation, appropriateness of use, its possible several meaning relationships, and its form (oral and written plus its grammar).

a.3.3.1. Meaning

While people may be inclined to view meaning of words as simply dictionary definitions, it is usually more intricate than that. Schmitt (2000: 22-24) approaches the issue by resorting to the basic concept of meaning as comprising a word and its referent. However, Drum and Konopak (1987: 73 mentioned in Schmitt, *op.cit.*) point out that the purported relationship is not intrinsic. Rather, it has to be formalised by language users. Also, sometimes the connection between a word and its referent may not be a straight forward one (e.g. the word animal refers to a number of creatures). Therefore, a more compelling definition of meaning should be within the parameters of the relationship of a word and its concept (i.e. its mental idea).

From this perspective, Schmitt (*loc.cit.*) maintains that the description of a word meaning must entail the explanation of the concept it represents. Following this view, traditionally, words have been defined through the isolation of their attributes, which are crucial for the understanding of the ideas expressed. This has been referred to as 'fixed meaning view' (Aitchison, 1987 in Schmitt, *passim*). However, considering that this perspective tends to be more relevant with unique referents only, such as proper nouns, it is not seen as an acceptable approach. Nevertheless, for technical vocabulary, requiring precise definitions, the 'fixed meaning view' may be a suitable tactic for the description of word meaning (Schmitt, 2000: 23; cf. Philip, 2011: 2).

In brief, the meaning of a vocabulary item can be understood as the mental picture we have of it as a reference to something in the real world.

a) Denotation versus Connotation

As seen above, a word meaning refers to a concept (i.e., a mental representation of a real-world entity or phenomena). This portrayal of word meaning is consistent with the concept of denotation (Rao, 2017). Richards and Schmidt (2002: 148) exemplify this in the following way: 'the denotation of the

English word bird is a two-legged, winged, egg-laying, warm-blooded creature with a beak'. Thus, denotative meaning is taken as the main sense of a vocabulary item.

Nevertheless, there are cases in which people extend the meaning of a word or phrase to express positive or negative feelings towards people or things. In such instances, we call these additional meanings connotation (Garza-Cuarón, 1991; Ur, 1996: 61; Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 148).

b) Collocation

On a par with other languages, some English words and expressions are frequently used together as if there were a binding force between them. The concept of collocation makes reference to the limits that govern how words can be used together. This includes, for example, prepositions that follow verbs, verbs and nouns that collocate, etc. (Gairns and Redman, 1986: 37; McCarthy, 1990: 12; Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 87; Kennedy, 2003: 468; Deveci, 2004: 17).

The study of collocation is crucial in language teaching. Starting from the fact that languages abound with collocational pairs, association has had a key place in the study of vocabulary teaching because of strong links that exist between words. Collocation is also important from the point of view that it is an organising principle of the lexis to be imparted owing to the fact collocational appropriacy reflects the native speaker's CC, and the goal of language teaching is to get the foreign language learner to be as close as possible to their level of ability (McCarthy, 1990: 12). Thus, when presenting new vocabulary, provided appropriate, teachers must pay a close attention to naturally occurring items as a way of offering students an opportunity to understand language use from the perspective of the native speaker. Furthermore, by being aware of what collocates with what, students can develop an understanding that language learning should not be done by acquiring bits and pieces of language, but all the linguistic items are interrelated and form a unit of meaning.

c) Appropriateness

When presenting new words to students, it is critical to explain the domain of its use (i.e. addressee, setting, and topic in which the item is likely to occur). So, it is not enough to teach meaning and form, students need to know whether the item is for formal or informal use. Appropriateness is important for developing the students' sociolinguistic competence, which is a crucial element of CC (Fetzer, 2004: 19; Holmes, 2008).

d) Meaning relationships

It is generally agreed that for a good grasp of the meaning of a word, it should be taught considering its relationship with other items. Apart from collocation, it is pertinent that students are made aware of the fact that they have a choice in the use of certain words because they hold similar or opposite meaning. This type of association that exists between words is called meaning relationships and it entails the distinction of 'the meaning of individual items in terms of what they mean in the real world (their denotation) from their meaning in relation to other words within the vocabulary system of the language (their sense)' (McCarthy, 1990: 15; Murphy, 2003).

We acknowledge the existence of several word associations. While they are all important, we will focus only on those that we consider more common for the foreign language teacher. These will comprise synonymy, antonymy, and hyponymy.

Synonymy

Words with similar meaning are said to be synonyms (Murphy, 2003: 133; Glynn, 2014: 9). However, the issue here revolves around the extent to which two items could be seen as true synonyms, i.e. those that can always replace each other. Collinson (1939 in McCarthy, *op.cit.*: 17) believes that most evidence points to the realisation that fully interchangeable words are very rare. He provides five main word distinguishing factors:

- 1 Two words may be close in meaning and yet not collocate with the same items
- 2 Words may have different syntactic behaviour.
- 3 Words may belong to different contexts and situations. We are here concerned with distinctions such as technical/non-technical, speech/ writing, formal/informal, etc.
- 4 Words may be separated by geographical distribution. British people use 'lifts', Americans use 'elevators'.
- 5 Some words may be more archaic than others.

Although one's interest may not be in helping learners use true synonyms, providing students with choices of vocabulary to use in communicative acts seems to be a crucial aspect of the teaching process. It follows on logically that when students are aware of different ways of expressing the same meaning is a clear sign of language development, for only students who have understood language well enough will be able to manipulate its structures and lexis to achieve maximum communicative efficiency. Accordingly, on an equal footing with other meaning relationships, the study of synonymy should be seen as critical for teaching word meaning.

Antonymy

It is axiomatic that helping students grasp opposites of taught items can increase their vocabulary power not only for sheer quantity but also for quality of communication (Jones, 2002; Murphy, *op.cit.*: 169). However, teaching antonyms should not be done without appropriate strategies. One of the ways

of approaching antonyms in the classroom is to divide them in categories. Gairns and Redman (1986: 24); Gao and Zheng (2014: 235) suggest four types of antonymy. The first one is the so-called complementary. This has to do with true opposites, i.e. antonyms that are mutually exclusive; thus, they cannot be graded (e.g. male/female, dead/alive, on/off etc.). The second type, converses, involves words that can paraphrase each other, whose relationship is reciprocal. Examples of this type can be drawn from family, social, and space and time relations (e.g., Pedro is Marta's husband; Marta is Pedro's wife). The study of converseness is helpful in stressing the importance of the use of context in identifying correct opposites. As a result, it helps teachers avoid general questions, such as *what is the opposite of...?* The third kind of contraries proposed by Gairns and Redman (*ibid.*: 26) is gradable antonyms. These embrace items that are at the end of a scale (e.g., big and small). It means that between them we can fit many other progressive expressions. Multiple incompatibles represent another way of categorizing antonyms. According to Gairns and Redman (*loc.cit.*) this notion encompasses small semantic systems which are easily memorable. Examples of this could be days of the week, seasons, etc. In these cases, the choice of a word excludes all other items in the system. In other words, the use of the word Monday, for example, in a sentence, makes it impossible to choose another day of the week. Thus, a teacher cannot ask *what is the opposite of Monday?*

Hyponymy

Apart from sameness, and oppositeness, words can have other relationships. One of these other connections is hyponymy, in which a word includes the meaning of another (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 243). For example, words like dog, cat, lion refer to the superordinate animal, and they are co-hyponyms.

The study of hyponymy is important because it essentially offers an alternative way of organising vocabulary for language teaching and learning. In fact, according to McCarthy (1990: 19), in the grouping of vocabulary items, most course writers, implicitly or explicitly, use hyponymy.

To recapitulate, we could say that knowing the meaning of a vocabulary item is to have a mental picture of what it represents. Additionally, we must know that sometimes people can associate words to positive or negative feelings toward others or things. Equally important is to know that the elements of language are all interconnected (i.e., words often collocate). This is helpful in understanding the limits that govern how words can be used together. Apart from the aforementioned aspects, knowing the degree of formality of a vocabulary item is a crucial ability a language user must have. Moreover, as our lexical competence grows, we should be familiar with a number of meaning relationships, including synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, etc.

Having discussed the meaning of a vocabulary item, we will now focus on its form.

a.3.3.2. Form

Usually, it is not enough just to know the meaning of a word. It is similarly vital to be familiar with its physical part. Richards and Schmidt (*op.cit.*: 207) define form as 'the means by which an element of language is expressed in speech or writing'. Thus, it encompasses spelling (displayed by the standard writing system of a language) and pronunciation (shown by phonetic or phonemic symbols).

a) Written form

In the view of Schmitt (2000:45), despite the lower-level knowledge order often ascribed to word form, there is a growing interest in the awareness of orthographic cognizance. This is based on the realisation that both vocabulary acquaintance and language processing depend to a great deal on written-form cognition. Schmitt's view point is grounded on research that has proven that (1) when reading, we tend to fixate on most of the vocabulary items rather than skipping over them, and (2) orthographic decoding is a complex process.

From this perspective, Schmitt (*ibid.*) discusses several applications to teaching. He starts by alluding the importance of knowing the written form of a word in reading because the possession of a large vocabulary is a clear advantage in word recognition. However, he admits that word identification should be complemented by speed in order to foster fluent reading.

Another application of word form knowledge, as discussed by Schmitt (*loc.cit.*), refers to spelling. He defends that it is crucial for students to be familiar with the sound symbol correspondent of the language they are trying to learn. Moreover, in his view, for phonologically ambiguous words, students should be helped to create a mental picture of them. Here, students should be directed towards a mental visualisation of the spelling of the words they are learning so as to develop a feeling of when the word looks right or wrong.

b) The spoken form of a word

Only when we are able to distinguish an acoustic representation of a word from an uninterrupted string of speech, and we can pronounce it intelligibly could we say that we know the spoken form of a word (cf. Schmitt, 2000: 53). Consequently, Schmitt, (*ibid.*) identifies the following aspects as involved in knowing the spoken form:

1. Knowledge of the discrete phonemes of the word.
2. Knowledge of what the phonemes sound like together in the word.
3. Knowledge of the syllabic division of the word in order to identify its stressed syllables.

Therefore, the knowledge of the spoken form encompasses correct pronunciation of a word plus a speaker's ability to enumerate its composing sounds, and relevant sonorities in it.

c) Grammar of the word

Another important aspect of word form constitutes its grammar. Although all words have inherent grammatical features, such as word classes, some possess 'unpredictable change of form in certain grammatical contexts or may have some idiosyncratic way of connecting with other words in sentences' (Ur, 1996: 60) and require a special attention from the teacher. In such cases Ur (*ibid.*) advises teachers to inform learners of these particularities (e.g., when teaching verbs, especially irregular ones, it is usually a good idea to show students their past forms; other extra, but important, information would include irregular plural forms, no plural, whether a verb is transitive or intransitive, whether a verb is followed 'to' or 'ing' form, verb + preposition, adjective + preposition, etc.).

In a few words, knowledge of the form of a vocabulary item has to do with the extent to which a speaker is able to write and pronounce it, plus how far he/she can recognise and enumerate its composing sounds and pertinent sonorities.

To end our discussion on the aspects involved in the mastery of a word, we provide below a figure that summarises them.

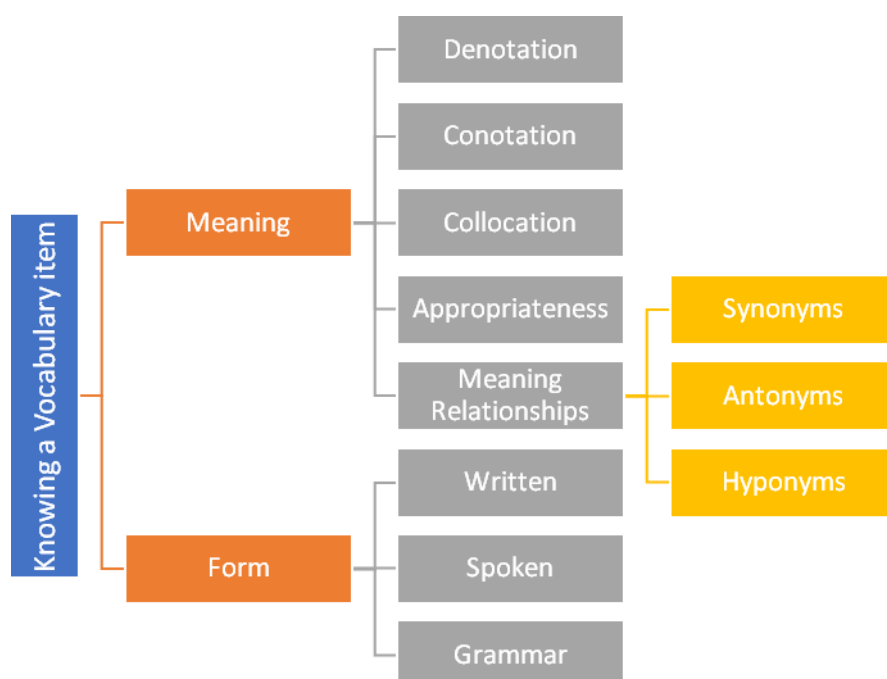


Figure 2. Knowing a vocabulary item.

With the concept of what is meant by knowing a word, in the next section we will explore and discuss how this information could be passed on to students.

a.3.4. Teaching techniques

It is our understanding that teachers may have at their disposal a potentially expressive number of vocabulary teaching techniques. However, we will only focus on a few deemed most useful for EFL teaching. We will approach them in terms of those meant for meaning first, and later deal with ways of presenting word form. Finally, we will discuss ways of combining different techniques.

a.3.4.1. Teaching meaning

Our choice of starting with techniques for teaching meaning is based on literature maintaining sense as preceding form (Harmer, 1984; Doff, 1988; Jullian, 2000; Nation, 2002, among others). We will first discuss visual techniques, and then verbal procedures.

a.3.4.1.1. Visual techniques

The use of visual techniques, such as pointing at an object could be the simplest way of presenting small objects already in the classroom or that can be brought from home (Doff, 1988: 13). These items would comprise furniture, clothes, food, small objects from the home (soap, cups, keys, etc.), parts of the human body, etc. In the classroom, it would look like this example:

T: Look – this is a watch (*pointing to his or her watch*). A watch. A watch.

Ss: A watch.

T: (*gesture*) What is it?

Ss: A watch.

It is clear that this technique is easy to employ and can have a long-lasting impression on the learners because they can see the real object.

For larger objects that cannot be brought to the classroom, or are not practical enough for the use of realia, the following techniques might be more suitable: use of flashcards, photographs, board drawings, wall charts, etc. (Allen, 1983: 24-7; Gains and Redman, 1986: 73; Doff, *op. cit.*; McCarthy, 1990:110; Akar, 2010: 27). However attractive these procedures might be, they tend to be more appropriate for beginner learners. For a more mature audience, other techniques could be more suitable. These will be discussed later in the section.

a) Action verbs and some adjectives

Arguably, one of the most effective techniques for teaching action verbs is the use of mime and

gestures (Gairns and Redman, *op.cit.*). Verbs in this category may include the following: sit, stand, open, write, run, jump, etc. Actions and facial expressions can also be used to teach the following types of adjectives: happy, sad, worried, and so on (Doff, *op.cit.*). Logically, by engaging students in interesting physical activities that illustrate the meaning of new vocabulary items, we can increase their motivation owing to the fact that they liven up language lessons. A word of caution should be for teachers not to overuse such procedure because too much of it can be tiring and the technique may be inappropriate for adult learners. Moreover, Doff (*passim*) thinks vocabulary should only be introduced visually if that it can be done '*quickly, easily, and clearly*'.

a.3.4.1.2. Verbal techniques

Needless to say, a considerable number of vocabulary items cannot be demonstrated through the use of visual practices. In such cases teachers will have to resort to an array of verbal techniques, such as illustrative situations, use of synonymy, definition, use of antonyms, hyponymy, translation, among others (Gairns and Redman, 1986; Schmitt, 2000; Nation, 2001; Murphy 2003; and others). Although these procedures are categorised under verbal actions, they refer to both written and oral explanations.

a) Illustrative situations

The use of situations and examples can be helpful in showing the meaning of abstract words. Gairns and Redman (*op.cit.*) sustain the use of more than one situation to enable learners to fully grasp the concept of new words. To avoid exposing students to other new words while trying to teach the meaning of an item, Doff (*passim*) proposes teachers not to use complicated explanations. In fact, the meaning should be disclosed through simple sentences and examples. Furthermore, Gairns and Redman (*passim*) believe that the procedure must be followed by concept questions drawn from different contexts.

b) Use of synonymy, antonymy, and hyponymy

For suitable vocabulary, teachers can resort to synonyms to reduce the amount of unnecessary and confusing explanations. However, considering the limitations that low-level learners can have in terms of quantity of words that they can master, it is advisable that this technique is used with more proficient students (Gairns and Redman, 1986: 75; Murphy, *op.cit.*: 133).

Similar to synonymy the use of opposites can be beneficial to more advanced learners. In fact, in most cases this is a student initiative procedure through the question: what is the opposite of? (Jones, 2002). However, as seen above, teachers must direct students towards the importance of context in the selection of appropriate antonyms, for opposites in one situation may not be in a different

one.

Contrary to the two preceding sense relationships, the use of hyponyms can be exploited with beginner learners through the statement *x is a type...* (McCarthy, 1990: 19; Murphy, *op.cit.*: 216). In fact, this can be a good way of expanding lower-level students' vocabulary repertoire for the reason that teachers can add a considerable number of new words without the need of a thorough treatment of the new items because learners have already a general idea of their meaning.

c) Contextual Guesswork

The use of contextual clues, such as sentences or words around new vocabulary items, or even parts of the word is usually a good idea to help intermediate and above learners to understand meaning. By giving a chance to students to look for clues to word meaning in a text, their reading skills can be improved since they do not have to pause constantly to check the meaning of unknown vocabulary in a dictionary nor ask the teacher for help. Furthermore, contextual guesswork is the most natural way of vocabulary learning and development owing to the fact that in real life people exploit more this technique than any other as they rarely carry dictionaries around when reading books, magazines, etc. From this perspective, this becomes one of the most important vocabulary learning technique since it is what learners will do most of the time for reading outside the classroom domain (cf. Gairns and Redman, *passim*, Philip, 2011).

d) Translation

When presenting words with clear mother tongue equivalents and low frequency items having a passive value, translation may help teachers save time, which would otherwise be spent on long explanations (Gairns and Redman, 1986: 75; Liu, 2008; Latsanyphone, 2009).

Nevertheless, translation should be used judiciously because of the drawbacks often associated with it. One of these may occur in contexts where the teacher does not speak the students' L1. In such cases, although the students will still make comparisons of the L2 with the L1, the teacher cannot be sure that students' translations are faithful enough as to maintain the original meaning of a vocabulary item. Another issue is that the more a teacher uses students' L1 in the classroom, the less contact with the L2 learners will have. This is particularly damaging in contexts where the students' only chance to hear the target language is in the classroom and from the teacher. Furthermore, it is common for teachers to overuse L1. This happens especially with non-native educators who are not very comfortable with the L2. So, their lessons are taught mostly in the L1. Translation is particularly pernicious during communicative activities. When we set to help our students to interact from quasi-communicative to social interaction activities, through functional communication tasks, translation should be denied

because our goal is to facilitate the use of the target language. Finally, excessive use of translation may lead to laziness both from the teacher and the students. That is to say, teachers may go for direct translations even though they may have an array of good techniques at their disposal. What is more, students will not feel they have understood an item, unless they can translate it (cf. Harmer, 2007: 134). Therefore, although translation should not be ruled out completely from classroom use, it should be done cautiously as to avoid the above negative aspects.

In summary, when teaching the meaning of a new word, we must first identify the type of vocabulary item and then employ an appropriate technique. Thus, for small objects that can be brought to the classroom, we can simply show them to the students; for bigger ones, we can use visual aids such as, photographs, board drawing, etc. abstract words can be taught through examples.

These insights bring us to sift the other aspect related to knowing a vocabulary item – form.

a.3.4.2 Teaching form

As previously discussed, the form of a vocabulary item consists of its physical oral and written manifestation plus its grammar. Arguably, to show what a word sounds like and how it is written is a quick and easy process of simply pronouncing it, getting students to repeat it, and copying the item to their notebooks. Obviously, showing the form of words involves a lot more than this.

Schmitt (2000: 57-8) reports on phonological studies as supporting the focus on word stress to enable students to parse natural connected speech. In other words, when teaching form, we need to highlight the item's stress so that learners can practice natural native-like pronunciation. Although stress can be practiced in isolation, teachers should make students aware of the fact that when words appear together in sentences, they can sound a bit different. For this reason, students should be given chances to hear new words within usual occurring contexts. In Schmitt's point of view, this is important for three main explanations. First of all, a word's context of use can afford students opportunities to come in touch with the real pronunciation of the lexis in connected speech. Secondly, 'this gives students practice in parsing out the word from connected speech in a situation where they have the advantage of knowing that it will occur'. Finally, apart from an item's form, its context could be used to further illustrate the meaning of the word; thus, it can have a double duty. Therefore, when teaching pronunciation of a word, the use of context after an initial focus on its isolated stress is critical to help students understand and produce words with contextually appropriate pronunciation.

With regard to the teaching of the grammar of the word, it is usually centred to word class and morphology. According to Schmitt (*loc.cit.*), where the context of a word does not provide sufficient information as for the learner to have a clear picture of its class, teachers should give it explicitly. With reference to morphology, Schmitt (*passim*), mentioning a number of studies (Schmitt, 1998b, 1999;

Schmitt and Meara, 1997), expresses the concern that since to be familiar with an item's base form does not imply ability to use it in derivative ways, teachers ought to give more attention to derivation.

So, to teach the form of a vocabulary item, we can say the word clearly and get the class to repeat; then write the word on the board explain possible grammatical nuances and ask students to write the word. All this should be within a contextualised framework.

In the coming section we explore ways of putting together techniques for teaching meaning and those for showing the form.

a.3.4.3. Organisation of techniques

Heretofore, we have discussed vocabulary teaching techniques in isolation. However, in reality, people seldom use them separately. The combination of practices to attain the most desirable teaching and learning effect is very common. The issue is how to order the procedures for teaching vocabulary items. We agree with Doff (1988: 14-15) when he maintains that we should first show the meaning of new words prior to form. Thus, when teaching vocabulary to lower-level learners, the following order of techniques could be invaluable in helping them acquire new lexis:

1. Draw a picture to show what the word means.
2. Give an English example to show how the word is used.
3. Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
4. Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
5. Ask questions using the new word.
6. Ask students to translate the new word.
7. Translate the word into students' own language.

Although Doff (*ibid.*) does not discuss some of the techniques debated in the previous section (e.g. contextual guesswork), we can derive a general pattern of organisation: (1) meaning (through visual and verbal techniques, or a combination of them), (2) form (using oral drills, and work on spelling), (3) use (by questioning using the new word, and other techniques where the new item is produced within a realistic situation), and (4) reinforcement of meaning (via translation, vocabulary expansion (entailing meaning relationships, such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc.), among others).

We now turn to the kind of activities teachers can explore the use of the techniques discussed so far.

a.3.4.4. Learning activities

With the knowledge acquired so far, we can make basic assumptions as to what teachers would expect from effective vocabulary learning activities. We have seen that when approaching lexis instruction, it is critical that we take into consideration the type of word so that the most effective technique is selected

to attain the most desirable learning outcome. Moreover, since teaching procedures may reinforce each other, teachers are advised to adopt a logical organisation of ideas. Therefore, in the selection of effective vocabulary learning activities, teachers should look for those that focus on both meaning and form. In addition, the tasks must offer opportunities for vocabulary development.

On similar grounds, Folse (2008: 15-16) proposes three important goals in choosing vocabulary learning activities. First of all, the tasks must concentrate on vocabulary. In other words, students have to notice new words so that input is transformed to intake (Schmidt, 1990 in Folse, *ibid.*). To help learners notice new vocabulary items, the teacher could write the words on a specific section of the board prepared for them, use a large paper sheet on the wall, use new words already provided in the coursebook, etc. Secondly, activities must afford learners experience on multiple retrievals of words. This gives importance to frequency in grasping the meaning and form of new words since one encounter may not be enough for a student to be able to master all the nuances of the use of a new word for real communication. Therefore, in addition to repetition, teachers must expose their students to other types of interaction with a new item, such as 'matching words with definitions, asking themselves the meaning of a word, pronouncing a word, naming a word that is connected in some way, or even simply spelling the word' (Atkins and Bad - Deley 1998 in Folse, *op.cit.*:16). These activities help create connections and increase chances for learning success. Finally, teachers must consider vocabulary learning strategies. This topic will be discussed in the next section.

a.4. Vocabulary learning strategies

In this section we will focus on the following vocabulary learning strategies: discovery, and consolidation strategies.

a.4.1. Discovery strategies

Most language learners often face situations in which they have to guess the meaning of a certain word using their linguistic knowledge, the context, an L1 cognate, or reference materials such a dictionary. This type of tactics is called the use of discovery strategies (hereafter DS) (Schmitt, 2000: 135). Examples of DS include the following:

- Analyse part of speech.
- Analyse affixes and roots.
- Check for L1 cognate.
- Analyse any available pictures or gestures.
- Guess meaning from textual context.
- Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual).

However, not all DS are individual tactics; in some cases, the learner may resort to another person's

expertise (e.g., the teacher or a colleague) to discover the meaning of a word (Schmitt, *ibid.*).

a.4.2. Consolidation strategies

They refer to those tactics used for remembering a word once it has been learned. Moreover, consolidation strategies shed light on the processes of how learners work out the meaning of new words and how these are consolidated in memory for future use (Shmitt, *loc.cit.*).

a.4.2.1. Social strategies

Social strategies (henceforth SOC) are those used by learners when they engage with other language users for either discover the meaning of a word, or consolidate the knowledge of the lexis acquired. Typically, SOC encompass learner-teacher, learner-learner, and learner-native speaker interaction to cement the sense previously learned either incidentally, or explicitly taught by the teacher (Oxford, 1990: 21).

a.4.2.2. Memory strategies

Learners use these to stock and retrieve newly acquired information (Oxford, *ibid.*: 18). Memory strategies are important because they can aid students to relate vocabulary items to each other. Shmitt (*op.cit.*) provides the following examples of memory strategies:

- Connect a word to a previous personal experience;
- Associate the word with its coordinates;
- Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms;
- Use semantic maps;
- Use Keyword Method;
- Group words together to study them;
- Study the spelling of a word;
- Say new words aloud when studying;
- Use physical action when learning a word.

a.4.2.3. Cognitive strategies

This type of techniques can be used by students to comprehend and produce new language directly (e.g. by means of outlining, note taking, practicing in real contexts, etc.) (Oxford, 2001: 363). The following are examples of cognitive strategies (Shmitt, *op.cit.*):

- Verbal repetition;
- Written repetition;
- Word lists;

- Put English labels on physical objects;
- Keep a vocabulary notebook.

As we can see from the above, cognitive strategies are important for language learners for the reason that they involve the manipulation of information through mental processing and mechanical means.

a.4.2.4. Metacognitive strategies

As Oxford (*op.cit.*) puts it, this type of strategies is involved in the overall organisation of the learning process. As such, it entails the design of personal timetable for outclass studies, self-teaching, measuring own pace of learning, among other aspects. As a result, metacognitive tactics could be used for prediction of L2 proficiency.

Shmitt (*passim*) offers the following as involved in metacognitive knowledge:

1. Improve access to input;
2. Decisions on the most efficient methods of study/review;
3. Testing oneself to gauge improvement;
4. Deciding which words are worth studying and which are not.

Therefore, metacognitive strategies entail reflecting on the learning process and actively think of and put into practice ways to improve it.

To end our discussion on teaching vocabulary, it is crucial to remind us of the most important discoveries we made. As a logical starting point, we explored the concept of vocabulary in language teaching and realised that it refers to words and their meanings taught in the language classroom. Another aspect was the classification of vocabulary items as embracing single and multi-word entries, content or function words, and active versus passive vocabulary. An important understanding was that historically vocabulary teaching had not been given due importance in teacher education programmes. However, poor results in vocabulary learning reversed the tendency. When addressing the teaching of words, we found out that first we must decide on the criteria for selection of vocabulary, then put in mind what is meant to know a vocabulary item, followed by the techniques deemed appropriate for teaching meaning, form, and both. Finally, it was understood that teachers must also give due attention to vocabulary learning activities and strategies that make the students' learning experience easier and more effective.

Thus far, this paper has focused on teaching vocabulary. The following section will discuss communicative-based grammar teaching.

b. Communicative-based grammar teaching

One of the most important debates in language teaching revolves around the role of grammar instruction for successful language learning. Traditionally, people have subscribed to the belief that language learning could not happen without explicit grammar teaching. However, recent trends in language teaching have led to a proliferation of studies that have reshaped the way grammar teaching is approached in modern day classrooms. This section aims to examine the importance of grammar in current practice of communicative based language teaching. Furthermore, it will serve as the grammar theoretical ground of our research tools.

To attain our goal, the remainder of the section will include the following topics: definition of grammar, the importance of teaching grammar, approaches of grammar instruction, communicative grammar teaching, presenting, and practicing grammar.

b.1. What is grammar?

Richards and Schmidt (2002: 230) define grammar as ‘a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language’. Harmer (1987: 1) illustrates the concept of grammar as encompassing, for example, ‘what happens to words when they become plural or negative, or what word order is used when we make questions or join two clauses to make one sentence’. Therefore, in language teaching, we would expect grammar as involving the study and practice of sentence formation and language use rules.

Having defined grammar our attention is directed below to the debate on the importance of teaching grammar.

b.2. Why should we teach grammar?

From the premise that teaching grammar entails the focus on prescriptive and descriptive grammar, i.e. instructing students about ‘sentence elements and structure, usage, sentence revision, and punctuation via a grammar book or workbook, or ... a computer program’ (Weaver (1996: 7), Weaver (*ibid.*) discusses the following as the main reasons for teaching grammar over the past centuries:

1. The study of grammar is important simply because language is a supreme human achievement that deserves to be studied as such.
2. The study of grammar can be an important vehicle for learning to study something the way a scientist does.
3. The study of grammar will help form the mind by promoting “mental discipline”
4. The study of grammar will help students score better on standardized tests that include grammar, usage, and punctuation.
5. The study of grammar will help people master another language more readily.
6. The study of grammar will help people master the socially prestigious conventions of spoken and/or written usage.
7. The study of grammar will help people become better users of the language, that is, more effective

as listeners and speakers, and especially, as readers and writers.

While Weaver (*loc.cit.*) displays some support towards one and two above, she describes research summaries that provide evidence against the other points. These studies include those carried by Greene (1950); Searles and Carlson (1960); Braddock *et al.* (1963); Deboer (1959); among others.

The findings of the investigations were all against the teaching of grammar as a system and subject in a number of ways. First of all, research did not prove that mental discipline can be attributed to the study of grammar. Secondly, no relation was found between knowing grammar and students' ability to apply this knowledge to real functional language use situations. Thirdly, through the application of the experimental method, it was not possible to prove that learning grammar is beneficial to Foreign Language Learning. Finally, there was no evidence to support the claim that the study of grammar contributed to the improvement of the students' reading and writing skills, and the formation of sentences in speech. Therefore, for the above investigators, the traditional ways of teaching grammar do a disservice to language learning.

From a different standpoint, Kolln (1981 mentioned in Weaver, *op.cit.*: 15) criticises the aforementioned studies. She identifies design flaws and weaknesses of application in the investigations of Braddock *et al.* (1963); and Deboer (1959). Surprisingly, Kolln (*op.cit.*) claimed that the researchers were aware of the pitfalls of their inquiries yet proceeded to the publication of the results. In fact, Deboer (1959: 417 quoted in Weaver, *op.cit.*) states that 'a close examination of some of the reports of investigations of the effectiveness of grammar instruction might reveal flaws in research design or conclusions not fully warranted by the evidence'. Therefore, we can infer that the authors were eager to rule out the teaching of grammar even in the absence of unquestionable conclusive facts.

Furthermore, in a direct comparison to the previous studies on the importance of grammar teaching, Meckel (1963 mentioned in Weaver, *passim*) presents the following as his main conclusions regarding the matter:

1. There is no research evidence that grammar as traditionally taught in the schools has any appreciable effect on the improvement of writing skill.
2. The training periods involved in transfer studies have been comparatively short, and the amount of grammar instruction has frequently been small.
3. There is no conclusive research evidence that grammar has no transfer value in developing composition skill.
4. More research is needed on the kind of grammatical knowledge that may reasonably be expected to transfer to writing.
5. Research does not justify the conclusion that grammar should not be taught systematically.
6. There are more efficient methods of securing immediate improvement in the writing of pupils, both in sentence and usage, than systematic grammatical instruction.

Our analysis of the above conclusions points to the direction that it is premature to assert that traditional grammar teaching has no effect whatsoever on students' learning of reading and writing

skills. Not disregarding what had been discovered in the previously discussed research findings, to assume that old-style grammar teaching had no contribution to the mastering of writing skills seems to defy basic logic. If we look at what is defined as writing (the process of not only forming graphic symbols but also their arrangement to produce words, sentences, paragraphs, etc. (Byrne, 1989: 1)), and the purpose for teaching it (it enables teachers to give for students' different styles and needs, it increases the quantity of language contact, and finally writing is needed for formal and informal testing (Tribble, 1996: 3; Byrne, *op.cit.*: 6; Ur, 1996:162)), we can avow that even if at the word and sentence levels, traditional grammar teaching will have a positive effect, for we could ask ourselves how did people become good writers before today's sophisticated teaching methods? Furthermore, writing should be as much fluent as accurate; from this perspective, even in today's communicative methodology, attention is given to grammatical correctness, which is best enhanced through explicit focus on form, which was the centre of traditional grammar teaching methods.

Another aspect that we are in disaccord with, to a great extent, refers to the claim that knowing grammar does not equate to one's ability to use it for real functional language use. It follows on logically that for a person to be able to use grammar for communicative purposes, one needs to get hold of grammatical knowledge at first place, for it does not seem possible to use knowledge that we do not possess. Thus, in our understanding, although exclusive focus on the language system without considering its application may be pernicious to a student's ability to employ the information acquired to communitive interchanges, to a certain extent it is a starting point. Moreover, arguably, it would take longer for a learner to achieve Communicative Competence through traditional grammar teaching, but they can achieve it nonetheless. In fact, as mentioned earlier, prior to modern-day teaching views, people were also able to learn languages.

A more recent stream of thought on the importance of teaching grammar is provided by Thornbury (1999: 14- 17). He discusses seven arguments in favour of teaching grammar. The first one is the so-called sentence-machine argument. According to this, although an important aspect of language learning entails retention and retrieval of specific items, such as words and phrases, which lead to the design of, for example, travellers' phrase books, at some point there will be need to produce new sentences. This can be made possible through grammar since it comprises language rules. By knowing these regularities, a student can generate many sentences; hence the name sentence-making machine.

The second stance refers to fine-tuning. While some may claim that lexical systems can help language users get messages across, there are occasions in which the sentences can be so ambiguous (e.g., 'last Monday night I was boring in my house. After speaking a lot time with him I thought that him

attracted me. We took a wrong plane and when I saw it was very later because the plane took up' (Thornbury, *ibid.*: 14)) that they require corrections. In such instances, teaching grammar can serve as corrective for such ambiguities.

The third view encompasses the fossilisation dispute. While language acquisition can happen to both young and older people, it can be observed that at a certain point both groups seem to reach a language plateau after which progress becomes difficult. It has been proven that without former instruction one can fossilise sooner than those who were taught in formal settings.

The fourth understanding is the claim that formal grammar learning can help students in future interaction with native speakers because they will be able to notice grammatical items that are crucial for communication but could go unnoticed without grammar instruction. In fact, this is what happened to Richard Schmidt when he learned Portuguese before going to a Portuguese speaking country. This argument falls under the category of advance-organiser.

The discrete item argument comes in number five. Proponents of this perspective defend that as grammar is composed of a finite number of rules, teaching it to students can facilitate the learning process, otherwise seen as 'a gigantic, shapeless mass, presenting an insuperable challenge for the learner' (Thornbury, *loc.cit.*).

Teachers working with large classes, where discipline is a frequent problem, could benefit from the view of grammar as a rule-of-law. Based on the transmission principle (education seen as the transfer of a body of knowledge from teachers to students), the teaching of grammar inspires rules, order and discipline owing to the structured system upon which its methodical steps are based. Therefore, by teaching grammar following methodological precepts, teachers can create discipline and enhance the language learning process.

The last argument refers to students' expectations. Irrespective of a teacher's beliefs in terms of language teaching, students may come to classroom expecting systematic treatment of grammar. This could be based on previous learning experience of having picked up bits and pieces of language in a native country, self-study practice, or immersion programmes. Thus, since an important aspect of the teaching process is to cater for students' needs and meet their expectations, teachers should not overlook this perspective because they may frustrate their students.

The debate on the need for teaching grammar is permeated with many more views both in favour and against it. For the scope of the present thesis, the advantages and disadvantages of teaching grammar seem to be of an appropriate proportion. For us, although we part from the way grammatical knowledge was traditionally conveyed, we endorse the formal teaching of grammar as one of the four pillars of Communicative Competence.

The discussion on the reasons for teaching grammar brings us to the examination of two main grammar teaching approaches.

b.3. Approaches to grammar teaching

Theoretical perspectives on how grammar should be taught generally point to how explicit or implicit this could be done (Shaffer, 1989; Celce-Murcia, 1991; Terrell, 1991; Fortune, 1992; Keck and Kim, 2014; Shrum & Glisan, 2016). In effect, the literature on grammar is permeated with the debate around deductive or inductive grammar teaching. In this section we intend to describe and discuss these two approaches.

b.3.1. Deductive approach

Built on deductive reasoning (knowledge acquired from general to specific), proponents of deductive approach (hereafter DA) sustain that grammar teaching should be undertaken by presenting grammatical rules explicitly to the students followed by examples and practical application (Shrum and Glisan, *op.cit.*: 18). In the same view, for Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985: 28 in Terrell, *op.cit.*: 59) the DA gives emphasis to overt exposition of the learners to the target language in the hope that frequency of contact with it will enhance students' focus on formal language rules.

As with most teaching approaches, the DA has its own merits. Thornbury (*passim*) describes a few of those. To begin with, as in a typical DA lesson the teacher goes straight to the point this may result in timesaving for practice activities. The DA is particularly relevant when presenting rules of form that would take long to elicit from the students. For teachers working with an adult mature audience, which requires to be engaged at different acquisition cognitive levels, the DA may give proper respect to students' intelligence. Another highpoint of the DA is that it may meet the expectation of analytical learners. Finally, this approach can help teachers deal with language points as they appear during the lesson.

Nevertheless, the DA has been criticised in a number of ways. First of all, as teachers may start lessons by presenting grammar, lack of metalanguage in younger learners may turn the teachings off-putting. Moreover, some students may not understand the concepts taught. Another problem with the DA concerns the transmission-style and up-front teacher way of giving explanations. This may result in less involvement of students. Thus, the teacher can hinder precious Students-Talking-Time. Furthermore, the DA is seen as pernicious to learning because lengthy and complex explanations may not be retained by students. What is more, there are other simple and more effective ways of presenting grammar, such as

the use of demonstrations. Finally, the over emphasis on rule learning may create a sense that language learning is all about knowing rules (Thornbury, 1999: 30).

b.3.2. Inductive approach

The inductive approach (hereafter IA) capitalises on the use of examples to help learners discover grammatical rules. Supporters of the IA believe that since language acquisition occurs through exposure to linguistic input, learners can pick up grammar rules in the same way in the classroom without explicit instruction. Moreover, they maintain that induction is the most natural way of learning a new language (Benitez-Correa *et al.*, 2019: 227; Shrum and Glisan, *op.cit.*: 47).

The IA is seen as advantageous in many ways. First, considering that students have pre-existing mental frames, by enabling them to discover rules for themselves, the acquired rules go straight to these structures. Thus, the rule learning process becomes more meaningful and ready to use in communicative interactions. Second, since students work mentally hard to understand grammar rules, the cognitive depth involved turns memorability of the items greater. Third, due to the involvement students are exposed to in the process of rule mastering, as opposed to passive recipients, motivation levels may rise as a result. The IA is particularly interesting for students who like pattern-recognition and problem-solving activities owing to its discovery nature. Moreover, the problem-solving nature of the tasks may encourage collaboration and afford students extra language practice. Finally, the IA facilitates learner autonomy (Thornbury, *op.cit.*: 54).

However, on a par with the DA, the IA faces criticism of several types. Starting from the fact that it demands from students considerable mental energy in discovering rules, it may distract them as to think that rule learning is the most important facet of the language learning process. In fact, students may fail to realise that understanding rules is a means not the end-result of language learning. Moreover, since learners spend most of the time unearthing rules, the practice and application time is reduced. Another drawback is that the lack of explicit instruction may lead students to infer wrongly the rule, which may result in a too broad or too narrow application of it. Teachers can also suffer with the IA because it is demanding in terms of planning, where they have to undertake a careful selection and organisation of data while trying to keep it intelligible enough for classroom use. On top of that, even after the data has been carefully organised, some language areas, such as aspect and modality will prove difficult for students to discover rule formulation. To end, the IA may not be suitable for all the students, especially those who would rather be told the rule other than guessing it (Thornbury, *loc.cit.*; Shaffer, 1989).

Our discussion of the two prominent approaches to the teaching of grammar has produced a clearer picture of the reasons underscoring overt and covert grammar teaching. Our *teacher's sense of plausibility* (subjective understanding of teaching, i.e. personal conceptualisation of how teaching may lead to desired learning aims arising from teachers' past experience as learners, teachers' previous teaching experience, earlier contact with various methods, etc. (Prabhu, 1990: 172)) should refrain us from following either approach uncritically. As seen in the discussion above, both have positive aspects and premises that may damage the teaching process. So, a seasoned teacher has to maximise the benefits of both while trying to batter their drawbacks. With this insight in mind, teachers should know that both the DA and IA are important theoretical grounds for classroom practice. The issue, however, resides on when to employ each or both approaches. Harmer (1987: 9) offers a methodological time-based platform for the place of grammar in the classroom. In his view, for beginner learners, based on language acquisition principles, structure work should have an inductive touch. As students progress, to fine-tune communication, more overt grammar teaching should come into play.

As seen above, both the DA and IA give more emphasis on rules internalisation. However, today's grammar teaching is but one of many other aspects intended to augment students' communicative power. Thus, in the coming section we will discuss how grammar is taught to help learners acquire an acceptable CC level.

b.3.3. Communicative approach

An imposing addition to the way grammar teaching is undertaken today comes from CLT. In a clear change of perspective, grammar teaching is no longer the most important aspect of language tuition, but one of many aimed at enabling learners acquire CC. In this section, we will discuss the role of grammar in CLT and how grammar teaching is done within communicative methodologies.

b.3.3.1. The place of grammar in CLT

It would seem that while people were in a rush to sanitise grammar study from the language classroom, there was lack of coordination as to what could fulfil the enormous whole traditional grammar teaching left on language learning, having been a major part of it. In our search for a clearly stated role of grammar within communicative methodologies, we found that theorists only recently have realised that a grammar-less approach to language teaching can be as pernicious to achieving CC as an all-grammar language study. As a result, we find scattered explanations on how to focus on form without damaging students' L2 acquisition. The issue starts from a backtrack of approach based on studies that have shown students failing considerably with regard to basic grammatical accuracy, thus rendering

their ungrammatical communicative success less desirable. People now have begun to understand that grammar is fundamental for providing some order on an otherwise chaotic language teaching.

Based on Krashen's Input hypothesis, Terrel (1991: 52) argues that 'the role of EGI [Explicit Grammar Instruction] ... has changed drastically in the last forty years - as the favoured methodology changed from grammar-translation to audio-lingual, then from audio-lingual to cognitive, and finally from cognitive to communicative approaches'. Accordingly, there was an evolution from a strongly-based grammar teaching (Grammar Translation Method) to an almost grammar-less teaching (CLT), in which 'grammar instruction is seen as an aid to the learner in the acquisition process by making certain grammatical forms more salient and thereby aiding the learner to establish correct meaning-form connections' (Terrel, *ibid.*:62).

In the same stream of thought, Fotos and Ellis (1991: 608) stress the role of grammar within communicative methodologies as a monitor of communicative language use. This hypothesis theorised by Krashen has at its centre the premise that focus on form has the function of monitoring and editing the utterances produced through the acquisition process (Krashen, 1982:15). However, Fotos and Ellis (*op.cit.*: 609) warn that although formal instruction can be helpful for the acquisition of a target structure and students can use it to monitor the language output, it may not aid learners during free communication.

In the view of Swan (2002: 151), the role of grammar within a Communicative Approach is (1) to enable students to know how to build and exploit structures that are needed for successfully conveying meaning, and (2) to prevent students from serious deviation from the norm.

Another important way to understand the role of grammar within communicative methodologies is to examine the views underscoring the TBA and Consciousness Raising (CR).

In addition to what was described in B.13.1, seen as both a refinement of CLT and a reaction to the use of form-focused models (such as the Presentation, Practice, Production), TBA appears as a teaching style in which language learning is organized around meaningful tasks. Here, teachers give language learners purposeful, problem-oriented, or outcome-driven tasks, which are comparable to real world activities for the sake of encouraging meaningful communication and providing a context in which to study language. These tasks are organized in (a) pre-task language activities (such as brainstorming, classifying, comparing, glossing a short text or video, ranking, sequencing, etc.), (b) planning and presenting a report on the task outcome, and (3) post-task focus-on-form activities based on discrete grammar items that emerged as new or difficult for learners during task and report completion (Nunan,

2004). Therefore, the role of grammar in TBA is to help teachers provide students with corrective feedback on task performance

Proponents of CR tasks, having realised the inefficacy of communicative activities alone in accounting for learners' linguistic competence, have suggested the use of tasks that encourage students to think about language. Since students are made aware of grammatical forms of language, this is closely linked to focus on form. Thus, CR facilitates the integration of communicative activities with formal instruction (Ellis, 2002). Consequently, the role of grammar instruction in CR is to redirect students' attention to grammatical forms to improve accuracy during communicative activities.

Other roles of grammar teaching within communicative frameworks are suggested by Odlin (1994: 10- 14) in his discussion about pedagogical grammar. Acknowledging the existence of a less favoured approach to grammar teaching in EFL contexts, where a total exclusion of grammar teaching can be more damaging, he suggests the following pillars that may support a more focus on form based CLT. First of all, considering that in most EFL situations students do not have enough time to develop high levels of CC (e.g. in our research context (Angola), students only have three hours a week of English lessons), grammar teaching can offer some sort of short cut for the teaching process. Secondly, based on the above, as classroom instruction might not suffice, grammar teaching may give students a basis for independent analysis outside the classroom to compensate for the teacher's lack of time to deal with all important language aspects during the lesson. Thirdly, following on the above, as students become analysts, their learning may not fossilise. Finally, citing Coppier and Ellis's (1990) revision of research on formal grammar instruction, Odlin (*op.cit.*) maintains that 'formal study (including grammar study) can increase a learner's chances of success'. Therefore, according to the aforementioned, grammar study can save teaching time, might help students become independent learners, may prevent fossilisation, and could work as guide for language learning.

In a few words, while today's view of grammar teaching does not support an all-grammar stance to language teaching, it is widely recognised that grammar is still important in helping students learn languages. However, grammar does not hold the centre of attention anymore, its role has been reduced to essentially monitor and corrective feedback. Moreover, grammar is mainly taught in so far as it helps students acquire linguistic competence, one of the four abilities needed to attain CC.

b.4. Grammar instruction in communicative methodologies

Based on the view that in language teaching grammatical knowledge should no longer be the end result but a means to boost one of the strands of CC, namely linguistic competence, Celce-Murcia (1991:

466-8) proposes three ways of approaching grammar in communicative lessons when accuracy is vital for conveying messages. These include teaching grammar as meaning (i.e., providing students with a number of clear examples illustrating the different nuances of meaning a grammatical aspect might have), as social function (when teachers focus on different degrees of formality language structures might have in various language domains), and as discourse (when teachers highlight coherence and cohesion as fundamental aspects of discourse).

In the same stream of thought, Fotos and Ellis (*op.cit.*: 610-11) propose that for successful integration of grammar and CLT, grammar tasks should be aimed at promoting communication about grammar. To reach this desire, language activities should be directed at developing explicit knowledge of grammar, and give students chances for interaction based on negotiation of meaning. Apart from this, grammar tasks should be of the CR nature. For this to happen, teachers must ensure that learning activities are there to provide opportunities for incidental production of the target grammatical feature and not at acquiring it.

With the above insights, we can now approach grammar instruction as it happens in the classroom.

b.5. Presenting grammar

In this section we will describe and discuss classroom procedures for presenting meaning and form of grammatical items, as well as some models for the introduction of structures.

b.5.1 What is presentation?

This refers to the stage where teachers show students the meaning, use, and form of new structures (Harmer, 1987: 17; Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 506). At this phase, students get acquainted with the way syntax, words and sounds can fit together, and they learn how to use grammar for their personal needs (Harmer, *op.cit.*). Thus, at the presentation stage, the teacher provides students with information about the grammatical aspects they are learning so that they are able to use them in communicative activities (Harmer, 1983: 31). In other words, teachers can use this stage to afford students the chance to:

- realise the usefulness and relevance of new the language and their need to learn it;
- concentrate on the meaning of the new language and, where appropriate, its degree of formality;
- pay attention to the pronunciation, stress, intonation and spelling of the new language;
- focus on the grammar (morphology and syntax) of the new language. (Spratt, 1985: 5).

In brief, the presentation is usually the first stage of a lesson. Here, teachers introduce the new language and prepare students for its meaningful production.

b.5.2. Need and place for presentation

In our previous discussions on the need of grammar instruction, we saw the existence of views against EGI arguing that language learning should be addressed with reference to acquisition. However, in the view of Ur (1991: 11), it is fundamental that students perceive and understand an item if they are to learn it successfully. For this to be put in effect, teachers ought to mediate the new material to make initial learning accessible to students. Ur's argument is built on the fact that although acquisition (learning a second language without conscious presentation of language, i.e. 'by exposing learners to the language phenomena without instructional intervention and letting them [students] absorb it intuitively' (Ur, *loc.cit.*) is ideal, raw and unmediated input may be incomprehensible to students. Thus, the input is not turned to intake and learning does not take place. Nevertheless, this is mainly true in EFL contexts where time constraints exist. In immersion programmes, provided students have repeated exposure to the same input, intake may take place in this way.

Ur (*passim*) also defends an effective presentation as being crucial 'to activate and harness learners' attention, effort, intelligence and conscious ('metacognitive') learning strategies in order to enhance learning'. For this to happen, presentations must meet required standards. According to Harmer (1987: 18) a good presentation must be clear (students do not struggle to grasp the meaning of the new language), efficient (learners should be able to link the use of the new structure to their personal needs as soon as possible), lively and interesting (pupils are involved in the presentation, not just the teacher), appropriate (the teacher should use interesting, and funny situations to demonstrate the meaning and use of the new language), and productive (the stage should be used to empower students to create many new examples of the target language). Apart from these aspects, Ur (1996: 12) stresses that during presentations, teachers should call students' attention, make sure they perceive the new material clearly and can relate it to what they already know, and learners should be able to take the new language into the short-term memory.

As a summary, presentation should be placed at the very beginning of the lesson and its relevance is revealed when teachers mediate raw input to make it comprehensible to students.

b.5.3. Presentation techniques

The first emphasis will be on the description and discussion of ways of presenting meaning. After that, we will focus on techniques for introducing form.

b.5.3.1. Presenting meaning

Meaning, the abstract idea that structures represent (Allison, 1983), can be introduced visually, or through situations and examples.

a) Showing meaning visually

Teachers can resort to the students, classroom objects, pictures, etc. to illustrate the meaning of new structures (Doff, 1988: 33). For example, according to Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988: 73-74) the following list demonstrates how pictures can be useful resources for showing the meaning of structures:

1. They can be used in all phases of a grammar lesson (i.e., in presentation, form focused, communicative practice, and for feedback and correction).
2. Interesting or entertaining pictures motivate students to respond in ways that more routine aids cannot.
3. Pictures can be used in various configurations to enhance learning and practice. They introduce a great deal of variety into the classroom. A picture may focus on one specific object, such as a house or an event, such as a boy jumping a fence; alternatively, a picture may evoke an entire story.
4. Pictures can be presented in pairs: the same object or person on two different occasions. Pictures can be grouped into semantically related sets that contain from ten to twenty items representing animals, vehicles, flowers, fruits, etc. Finally, a picture can become part of a sequence of pictures that tells a story, much as comic strips or photo novels do. Using pictures of this type allows the teacher to focus on temporal forms and sequences in the target language.
5. In addition to eliciting verbal responses, pictures can form the basis for pair and group activities.

Therefore, the use of visual aids to teach grammar can help catch and hold students' attention and interest for the new language, may facilitate the comprehension of rules, may enable retention of the items taught, etc. Furthermore, the use of visuals can suit different types of learners. For instance, with a younger audience, teachers can use drawings, pictures, photographs, cartoons, and the like. Whereas, older students may benefit from the use of images, diagrams, charts, texts, etc. In both cases, learners are driven to understand meaning and use of new structures through active involvement in classroom activities either through deductive or inductive learning or both, within a communicative-based language teaching (cf. Celce-Murcia and Hilles, 1988).

In the classroom, most of the choice of visuals for presenting the meaning of structures will depend on the teacher's skills and students' needs. Doff (1988: *op. cit.*) provides the following as an example of how teachers could demonstrate the meaning of new structures visually (in this case the structure is *too...to*):

T: (point to the ceiling) what's that?

Ss: the ceiling.

T: (reach up and try to touch it) Look – I'm trying to touch it. Can I touch it?

Ss: No.

T: No, I can't. because it's too high. It's too high to touch. Too high. The ceiling's too high to touch.

In the above example, the teacher draws students' attention by leading them to the new topic through questions about it. Thus, the procedure becomes simple and clear, and students are fully involved in the discovery of meaning.

b) Showing meaning through context

Despite the fact that visual aids can be used to establish a context to introduce the meaning of a grammatical structure, we have decided to use a different section owing to the fact context for language teaching could also be established by verbal procedures.

In the view of Nunan (1998: 102), the use of grammatical structures in context is crucial in assisting students develop procedural skills since they can establish systematic relationships between meaning, use, and form. In fact, Thornbury (1999: 69-70) sheds light on the fact that grammar, on a par with vocabulary, must be taught using appropriate contextual aspects. This same view is shared by Petrovitz (1997).

In the same stream of reasoning, considering that real language happens in real-life situations, Harmer (1983: 51-3) stresses the importance of the use of context and situations in helping students understand meaning and use of the new language. However, not all contexts can be useful for the introduction of meaning. For this reason, Hamer (*ibid.*) suggests that they should meet certain standards. A good context must show clearly the meaning of a new structure and how it used. This could be made possible through the use of a written text or a dialogue. Another important feature of an appropriate situation is that it is interesting for the students. Although teachers are not expected to frequently bring in very funny or extremely inventive scenarios, the situations should at least spark students' attention. Finally, the context used to demonstrate the meaning and use of the new language should function as a model for students to create their own sentences in communicative interchanges.

Teachers can exploit an array of situations that illustrate the meaning and use of structures. These could include the classroom, circumstances, and formulated information. Teachers could make use of classroom objects and the students to show the meaning of structures. As seen in the example about the teaching of the structure '*too...to*', the teacher uses the classroom ceiling to show the meaning of the new language. For comparatives, size, colours, etc. teachers could use the students, although one should be careful not to offend learners. Situations entail participants, setting, among others. Teachers can use two distinct types of it: simulated real-life, and invented story. The former could be especially useful when introducing functional language (e.g., when teaching invitations, teachers must show the participants, the place in which the interaction is happening, degree of formality, etc.). The latter is widely used by teachers and material writers to illustrate meaning and use, but they

have the downfall of being less believable. Finally, instructors can exploit formulated information. This is seen as the type of data presented through charts, graphs, maps, etc. and can be either simulated real-life or real-life. The first may encompass information from non-real countries, statistics, or timetables. This is relevant in that teachers can provide only the kind of information students need to understand the meaning of the new language in clear and simple ways. However, the language produced following such procedure is simply not true. The second, although the language created is authentic, uses information that may not be ideal for classroom use (Harmer, *loc.cit.*).

c) Discovery techniques

They are those in which students are given examples of language instead of being presented with a target grammatical structure or rule (Harmer, 1987: 29-40). Accordingly, the teacher exposes the students to raw new language input prior to any formal presentation. Here, the learners' job is to puzzle through input by solving language problems in the hope of picking up how the new structure works. Thus, students discover the grammatical rule or figure out the pattern for themselves. The teacher's role is to guide them to their own discovery, rather than giving learners information on the grammar rule.

Discovery techniques can be beneficial in the following ways: they can help for greater memorability of rules, active student engagement, development of problem-solving and critical thinking skills, and increased motivation (Ellis *et al.*, 2002: 164). Harmer (*op.cit.*) defends the use of discovery techniques as relevant because it involves students' reasoning processes in grammar acquisition. Moreover, in his view, this is essentially a student-centred approach.

However, discovery procedures may not be suitable for all students. This is particularly true with beginner learners. For this reason, Harmer (*loc.cit.*) warns teachers to ponder on the type of structure and the characteristics of students prior to the use of these techniques.

Harmer (*passim*) describes the types of activities that favour discovery as follows: preview, matching techniques, and problem solving. However, considering the focus of our thesis, we will not discuss any of them presently.

d) Contrasting structures

For suitable structures, it could be important to show the difference between them through contrast. This is mostly imperative when teaching language that contrasts in English but does not in the students' own language (e.g., *He has been to London vs. He has gone to London*, how much/how many', etc.) (Doff, 1988: 41).

Contrasting structures can be done by giving examples, and by using simple explanations. Teachers should take in mind that good examples may be the clearest way of demonstrating how a new structure is used. Although explanations can be valuable in providing a short cut for the learners, they should be taken as an extra help in learning (Doff, *ibid.*).

d) Use of concept questions

Concept questions (also known as concept checking questions or CCQs) are those designed to check learners' understanding of a language item (Matthews *et al.* 1985: 210; Workman, 2005: 6).

Workman (*op.cit.*) contends that the use CCQs can be an effective and efficient way to find out whether students have understood the meaning of a new structure, and it can prevent teachers from asking the question '*Do you understand?*', which usually gets the answers '*Yes*', even when the learners have not grasped the meaning of the new grammar concept. Moreover, in his view, CCQs always work. Accordingly, since the essential meaning of a language item does not change, CCQs for the item will always be the same. Finally, for the writer, CCQs are also crucial because they help develop teachers' language awareness skills. This happens as a consequence of the routine practice of designing CCQs, a process that forces teachers to reflect closely about the meaning of the new language in a systematic and thorough fashion.

Workman (*passim*) suggests the use of CCQs in two occasions. The first may occur after the introduction of a new structure to check if students have understood its meaning. Here, they can be used for checking understanding of particularly complex items, aspects that are used differently in the students' L1, or with false friends. Finally, CCQs can be employed as a correction technique when learners have forgotten something about the new language, or to get them reflect on the language being used.

Workman (*passim*) puts forward the following as basic rules for the design and use of CCQs:

1. Break down the concept of the item into a series of statements of meaning.
2. Make sure the statements of meaning are expressed in simple language.
3. Turn the statements into questions.
4. The questions should be concise and simple.
5. The language you use must be simpler than the language you are checking.
6. The questions should not normally use the language you are checking.
7. Sort the questions into a logical order.
8. Write down the correct answers you expect the learners to give.
9. The answers should be short and simple.
10. If they answer incorrectly, state the correct answer and provide clarification.

It could be taken for granted that the use of CCQs is a vital last stage for most presentations of structures. However, the list above shows the importance of being methodical when designing and

using CCQs. In fact, poor design and misuse of CCQs could have less than desirable effects. For example, if a teacher uses language that students are not familiar with, concept checking could be confusing as learners will have to struggle to understand the new language in the questions. Therefore, teachers must be fully acquainted with the procedures of CCQs design and use to exploit them to their full advantage.

A crucial summary remark of the techniques for presenting structures is that teachers can have at their disposal an array of procedures to introduce the meaning of new language. It could be done using visual aids or by resorting to a number of procedures, such as showing meaning through situations and examples, use of discovery techniques, contrasting structures, etc. After the presentation has been done, we can use CCQs to make sure the meaning of the new language has been fully grasped.

Having discussed some techniques for teaching the meaning of new structures, what follows is an account of procedures to teach the form of grammatical items.

b.5.3.2. Presenting form

Following the presentation of the meaning of a structure, there is usually the need to give attention to its form ('the means by which an element of language is expressed in speech or writing' (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 207)). Doff (1988: 37) stresses two main ways of teaching the form. The first one entails giving a model and asking students to listen and repeat. The second one is simply to write the structure on the board and explain to students how it is formed. According to Harmer (1983: 53), showing the form orally is more effective and less frightening to students as they can hear and/see it and the teacher draws their attention to its composing grammatical elements. Nevertheless, he calls attention to two main problems with giving grammatical explanations to present form. To begin with, students may find grammatical concepts difficult to grasp. Secondly, unless the teacher is familiar with the students' L1, the technique may be useless as grammatical explanations tend to be more effective if done in the learners' L1. Therefore, Harmer (*ibid.*) hints that the introduction of form can happen without the need to resort to complicated grammatical explanations. Thus, the use of a clear oral model supported by a written one (if necessary) that draws attention to main grammatical points should suffice in most cases.

In summary, there are two moments in introducing the form of a grammatical item: orally and through writing.

So far, this section has focused on the treatment of meaning and form separately. However, the techniques discussed above are usually combined in the pursue of the most desirable learning outcomes. Thus, the following section will discuss ways of organising the presentation of grammar.

b.5.3.3. Models for presenting new structures

As seen from the previous sections, grammar teaching has been studied extensively. It is of no surprise that many writers have proposed ways of organising grammar teaching practices for the maximum benefit of the students. Obviously, it is not feasible to discuss them all. Nevertheless, we will describe two prominent ways of ordering procedures as a direct support for our research tools.

Harmer (1983: 55- 64) proposes a general model for introducing new language by following the pattern *lead-in, elicitation, explanation, accurate reproduction, and immediate creativity*. Accordingly, when presenting grammar, we could start by establishing a context that could be used to demonstrate the meaning and use of the new language. At this stage, students are made aware of the main concepts within the context crucial for the comprehension of the meaning and use of the new structure. At the elicitation phase, the teacher checks how well students understood the meaning and use of the new language and to what extent they are able to produce it. Based on this, one can make decisions as to what procedure will be followed. For example, if students can already produce the new language without major problems, there will be no need for a lengthy practice stage. If students are unable to produce the new structure, the teacher moves to the explanation step. If students make minor mistakes, the teacher can go to the accurate reproduction to correct them. If the students know the new structure but lack confidence in its use, the teacher can move to the immediate creativity stage. At the explanation stage, the teacher focuses on form by dealing with pronunciation, and how the new structure is constructed (this can be done using the board). During the accurate reproduction phase, students do repetition practice of models provided by the teacher. Thus, at this stage the teacher's concern will be to get students practice the new language as correctly as possible without much regard to meaning and use. The last stage should happen after students' confidence has been boosted. Thus, immediate creativity occurs with learners producing their own sentences using the new language. Consequently, teachers and students can see the extent to which the meaning, use and form of the new language has been understood.

In Doff's (1988: 39) perspective, techniques for introducing new language should follow this order:

1. Draw pictures and give examples;

2. Give a model and get the class to repeat;
3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence;
4. Write the sentence on the board;
5. Explain how the structure is formed;
6. Ask the class to copy the sentence;
7. Give other situations and examples.

The rationale underpinning the above models is that teachers should demonstrate the meaning and use of the new structure first. They should then provide learners with oral and written models of the new language and ending with reinforcement of meaning, use, and form. We endorse this premise owing to the fact that it is in accordance with the main theoretical backdrops underscoring the current practice of grammar teaching. Thus, the models fit present day communicative practice of presentation of structures.

After the presentation stage, it is common to involve students in the practice of the new language. In the next section, we will address ways of getting learners to produce newly learned grammatical items.

b.6. Practicing grammar

Before embarking on a discussion of techniques for practicing structures, it is important to establish what is involved in language practice. In a broad spectrum, the concept of practice entails 'the building up of a skill through repetition or repeated exposure' (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 410). Furthermore, practice can be 'any kind of engaging with the language on the part of the learner, usually under teacher supervision, whose primary objective is to consolidate learning' (Ur, 1988: 11). As applied to teaching and learning grammar, Ur (*ibid.*: 7) views the grammar practice stage as a number of activities intended to help learners grasp the meaning and form of the new structure thoroughly.

Ellis (2002: 168) characterises grammar practice exercises as involving five main elements:

1. Isolation (a grammar structure is singled out for focused attention).
2. Production (learners create sentences using the new structure).
3. Repetition (students repeat the target structure in a series of exercises).
4. Correction (teachers focus on the students' abilities to produce correct sentences).
5. Feedback (teachers provide students with comments to let them know whether they succeeded or not in attaining the practice aims).

As mentioned earlier, our main objective for this section is to examine practice procedures. To reach this goal, we will discuss some characteristics and types of effective practice.

b.6.1. Features of effective practice activities

Although there is probably no universally acclaimed answer to the question *what makes a grammar practice technique effective?* Ur (*op.cit.* 11-15) believes that such factors as pre-learning, volume and repetition, success orientation, heterogeneity, interest, and teacher assistance could be clear indicators of successful practice procedures.

Pre-learning stems from the premise that practice should not precede presentation, in that students should not be asked to practice what they are yet learn. The danger of disregarding pre-learning and going straight into practice is the resulting incomprehension and unacceptable responses on the part of the students. Ergo, much time will be spent on corrections and explanations, shortening the available time for real practice.

For fluency practice, volume means providing students with sufficient amount of chances to produce the language orally or in written form. The principle here is that the more the learners produce, the better chances they have to learn the structure. For this to happen, practice sessions should be allocated plenty of time, which should be efficiently spent. When practicing involves accuracy, students should be led to the repetition of the grammatical item they are learning. In other words, learners engage with the new structure as many times as possible. However, to avoid boredom due to excessive repeated exposure to the same type of practice, teachers are advised to make tasks interesting.

The rationale behind success orientation is that practice should be centred on enabling learners to produce acceptable language and capitalising on successful performance to create a positive and friendly learning atmosphere that emphasises relaxation, self-assurance, and motivation.

In order to address the different levels of ability a class might have, teachers should design tasks that can be done by mixed ability groups. These tasks can be interpreted and performed at whichever level the students feel more comfortable. Thus, some learners will do more than the others. The advantage of the use of heterogeneity is reflected on the fact that almost all students in the class will benefit from the practice activity. Thus, it is a factor that can improve students' attitudes and increase their motivation.

It is the teacher's job to monitor the execution of the practice task and to guide students towards successful performance. Teacher assistance should be focused on: giving extra time, simplifying exercises, encouraging production, suggesting, hinting and prompting, and the like.

Interest in practice activities is pivotal because it prevents students from being bored. When designing or selecting practice tasks, teachers should take into account their intrinsic interest value as to entail topics that spark students' attention.

The above insights can be decisive for successful practice for the reason that they highlight main stream thinking regarding language practice activities (get students ready for practice, give enough practice, success is more important than failure, acknowledge and cater for the needs of all the students, use interesting tasks, and offer assistance when needed).

b.6.2. Types of practice

Similar to the presentation stage, practice may focus on either meaning or form, or both. We will examine three main ways of giving students training in language use: mechanical, meaningful, and communicative practice.

b.6.2.1. Mechanical practice

This type of exercise entails controlled activities whose focus is on pronunciation and formal rules that may pose problems to students. Thus, mechanical practice is tailored around the manipulation of written and spoken form of discrete items without considering their meaning (Spratt, 1985: 9; Ur, *op.cit.*: 8; Ellis, *op.cit.*;). Doff (1988: 70-1) puts forward the following as typical mechanical practice activities:

1. Repetition – (students repeat the new structure after the teacher. This can be done as choral or individual drill).
2. Substitution – (a varied drill of an item where students substitute one word/phrase for another, as determined by a cue).
3. Single word prompts – (a word is used to stimulate a response from students).
4. Picture prompts – (the teacher uses a picture to inspire an answer from learners).
5. Free substitution- (students have to invent a sentence).

Ur (*op.cit.*: 8-9) adds to the above list two other common mechanical exercises: slot-fillers and transformation.

Mechanical practice is significant as it can help students get their tongues around the new structure, and it can give them quick practice in using the structure and the teacher can correct any mistakes that students make (Harmer, 1987: 41). Nevertheless, this kind of practice is limited in that (1) students may do it without thinking, i.e. completely oblivious of the learning value of the activity, (2) teachers cannot guarantee that students understand what they are repeating, and (3) pupils get practice in saying the structure with exclusion of meaning (Doff, *op.cit.*).

b.6.2.2. Meaningful practice

In this type of practice, students have to understand the prompts they hear so that their replays are meaning-based (Spratt, *op.cit.*; Doff, *passim*). Although meaningful practice cannot be undertaken without comprehension, the production and discernment of correct forms is still very important. Moreover, at this stage students still work on discrete grammatical items. Nevertheless, meaningful practice is important to do because it is interesting and may have more learning value (Ur, *passim*).

b.6.2.3. Communicative practice

This is in essence an extension to meaningful procedures because attention is also given to the production and comprehension of meaningful sentences. The added value is that communicative practice goes beyond the production of examples of language to entail the encouragement of students to create genuine contextualised pieces of language based on information gap and negotiation of meaning. Therefore, tasks for communicative practice must have clear objectives followed by the need to activate language use (Ur, 1988).

As a summary of the current section, it is worth reminding us that practice involves the use of a variety of activities aimed at enabling learners exploit the new structure in meaningful ways. Additionally, effective practice activities should encompass preparation, appropriate quantity, should be success oriented and suitable for mixed ability classes, and should be interesting. Finally, practice procedures are divided in terms of those that focus on (1) form, (2) meaning, and (3) communication.

To close our discussion on teaching grammar, a number of remarks should be recalled. Beginning from the fact that grammar is seen as the study and practice of rules that enable us change and combine words to form sentences, views on language teaching were heavily based on explicit grammar teaching. Reasons for EGI in the past ranged from grammar study being a vehicle for promoting mental discipline, effective aid for successful test performance, and tool for EFL learning to making people better users of the language. Present-day language teaching, however, downplays the role of grammar as being the only way to fruitful language learning and use. In fact, within communicative methodologies, grammar is but one of the four components in the structure sustaining CC. As a result, grammar instruction is centred on assisting students acquire linguistic competence. In the classroom, teachers can have a collection of techniques, such as showing meaning visually, showing meaning through contexts and situations, use of discovery procedures, contrasting structures, etc. to present the meaning of new grammatical items. Finally, to help learners use the new language, practice activities should have the following features: pre-learning, volume and repetition, success

orientation, heterogeneity, interest, and teacher assistance. Moreover, practice procedures could be classified as mechanical, meaningful, and communicative.

Heretofore, we have explored and discussed grammar teaching. In following section, we will distend our thesis as to include a description of vocabulary and grammar lesson planning.

c. Lesson planning

It will be stated the obvious that lesson preparation is a paramount prerequisite for effective language teaching. Following on our previous discussions on how to teach grammar and vocabulary, in this section, we intend to describe the ways teachers can put all that knowledge to the full advantage of the students in order to offer a model lesson plan for vocabulary and grammar teaching. Moreover, this will support our research tools with reference to lesson planning. To reach our goal, we will examine the concept and importance of lesson planning, planning principles, what happens at the pre-plan and plan stages, and, finally, we will describe a language lesson plan model.

c.1. What is a lesson plan?

Most professionals would devote some time to thinking about how to best approach their daily practice. Teachers are not the exception to this. Although preparation is self-evident, what is exactly involved in doing it requires meticulous thinking. This first section aims at defining lesson planning. The concept derived thereof will be the foundation of the subsequent discussions regarding lesson development.

Lesson planning can be described in a number of ways (Maclennan, 1987: 193). To begin with, 'planning is the stage at which a teacher interprets the syllabus for his or her students and makes decisions about what activities would be suitable for them' (Harmer, 1984: 91). Here, the teacher creates an identity that will guide the teaching and learning process through the combination of several elements into a coherent whole (Harmer, 2001: 308). Secondly, it can be any written document detailing how students will be guided in the achievement of pre-established learning outcomes (Farrell, 2002: 30). Thirdly, for Woodward (2001: 1), lesson planning is the process of 'considering the students, thinking of the content, materials and activities that could go into a course or lesson'. She makes it clear that her concept of lesson planning does not entail 'the writing of pages of notes with headings such as 'aims' and 'anticipated problems' to be given in to an observer before they watch you teach' (Woodward, *ibid.*). For her, lesson planning includes all informal (but teaching related) things teachers do before they go the classroom (e.g. 'listening to students, remembering, visualising, noting things down, flicking through magazines, rehearsing, or drinking tea while staring into space and

deciding' (Woodward, *ibid.*: 180)). Finally, Jensen (2001: 403) views lesson plan as 'an extremely useful tool that serves as a combination guide, resource, and historical document reflecting our teaching philosophy, student population, textbooks, and most importantly, our goals for our students'. Therefore, lesson planning incorporates detailing all the steps leading to the achievement of teaching and learning objectives.

Having clarified what is meant by lesson planning, we will now move on to discuss its importance.

c.2. Importance of planning

As with all serious professions, for the sake of improving performance, and for the scientific growth of the teaching activity, preparation before action is crucial. Despite the existence of views such as the 'jungle path lesson approach' (according to this, English teachers should not follow curriculum guidelines neither worry about what to teach (Scrivener, 2005: 132)) going to the classroom without a clear idea of what we intend to do to help our students learn a new language could result in improvised action, a characteristic of unscientific occupations. The importance of lesson planning is recognised by most teachers and methodologists. Jensen (*op.cit.*: 403) acknowledges the relevance of a lesson plan as a guide that helps us through the way to achieve our teaching goals. By making prior decisions as to what steps we could follow during the lesson, teachers, especially beginner ones, can avoid getting lost in the lesson. For more experienced instructors, spending some time thinking about what they will teach can activate all the needed background information they have regarding the topic, and the most effective ways of tackling the teaching endeavour based on their *sense of plausibility*. More importantly, seasoned teachers can benefit from planning to update their methodological knowledge based on new research findings. Thus, other than simply relying on years of service, through planning, teachers can gain more experience. Moreover, written lesson plans could be used for reflection on action, a primary tool for Action Research aimed at improving one's teaching practice.

Furthermore, Woodward (*op.cit.*: 181) lists a number of advantages of lesson planning:

- Thinking things through before you teach helps to reduce feelings of uncertainty or panic and inspires you instead with a sense of confidence and clarity.
- It can inspire confidence in students who pick up a feeling of purpose, progression and coherence.
- It helps you to understand what research you need to do.
- It reminds you to marshal materials beforehand, and makes it easier for you to organize the time and activity flow in classes.
- If at least some of the planning is shared with students, they too will be able to gather their thoughts before class.
- Plans can be used in lessons to get things started, and prompt memory, and can help us to answer student questions.

- Working on planning after lessons, as well as before, ensures that the class you are teaching gets a balanced mixture of different kinds of materials, content and interaction types throughout the course.
- Course and lesson planning help you to develop a personal style since they involve sifting through all your information, resources and beliefs, and boiling them all down to a distillation for one particular group, time and place.

Agreeing with the above, we could make the most of the fact that having a good lesson plan is a pre-requisite for a good lesson ahead. Starting from the fact that the lesson embodies a big body of knowledge mirroring the main theoretical premises underpinning all teaching action of today's thinking, planning it means harvesting all this knowledge to be fed to students in the most effective ways. Moreover, for teachers working with intellectual students (e.g., an ESP course for lawyers), who may understand the need of logical thinking in the transmission of knowledge, going to the classroom without a clear sense of purpose and aim could frustrate them. What is more, even for those teaching for many years, lesson timing and pacing, appropriate variety of materials, content, and tasks require thinking beforehand other than just gut feeling due to the need of attaining a balanced approach in the use of the bulk of activities we prepare for teaching. Finally, lesson preparation is critical for teachers to be ready to cope with unpredictable students' needs. This happens because a prepared teacher can fit in the unforeseen need within the lesson structure or can easily open a space where this could be catered for without much disruption of the planned objectives. Whereas, for an unprepared teacher this situation could distort their already improvised lesson, resulting in complete failure of knowledge delivery.

This section has sifted some arguments lending support to the significance of lesson planning. The next part of this paper will examine principles of lesson planning.

c.3. Planning principles

It would be of no surprise that since language teaching is a highly specialised endeavour, its professionals are expected to rely on guiding tenets when preparing their daily work. Our main objective in this section is to examine two overriding planning principles: variety and flexibility.

c.3.1 Variety

On an equal footing with other professions that involve dynamic routine procedures, variety in language teaching is crucial. With few exceptions, most of us (in EFL contexts) handle large and heterogeneous classes. In such environments, providing effective and interesting learning for all students is a must. To prevent students from succumbing to boredom, the teacher must resort to different types of activities to

cater for their ever-changing needs. Additionally, since students have different learning styles and strategies, variety can accommodate them all.

Variety has been defined as 'involving students in a number of different types of activity and where possible introducing them to a wide selection of materials' (Harmer, 1983: 220). Its importance is almost undeniable in preventing routine and monotony, which usually result in lack of concentration, boredom, fatigue, and discipline problems (Ur, 1996: 216).

To make lessons more interesting and enjoyable to the teacher and the students, Ur (*ibid.*: 217) proposes the following aspects that could be varied in a lesson:

1. Tempo

Activities may be brisk and fast-moving (such as guessing games) or slow and reflective (such as reading literature and responding in writing).

2. Organization

The learners may work on their own at individualized tasks; or in pairs or groups; or as a full class in interaction with the teacher.

3. Mode and skill

Activities may be based on the written or the spoken language; and within these, they may vary as to whether the learners are asked to produce (speak, write) or receive (listen, read).

4. Difficulty

Activities may be seen as easy and non-demanding; or difficult, requiring concentration and effort.

5. Topic

Both the language teaching point and the (non-linguistic) topic may change from one activity to another.

6. Mood

Activities vary also in mood: light and fun-based versus serious and profound; happy versus sad; tense versus relaxed.

7. Stir-settle

Some activities enliven and excite learners (such as controversial discussions, or activities that involve physical movement); others, like dictations, have the effect of calming them down (see Maclennan, 1987).

8. Active-passive

Learners may be activated in a way that encourages their own initiative; or they may only be required to do as they are told.

We are in accordance with Ur (*loc.cit.*) for a number of reasons. First of all, in a situation where all activities are fast-moving, slower learners may not keep up. On the other hand, if tasks are all reflective, some students (especially impulsive ones) may get frustrated. Thus, a balanced approach is clearly ideal. Secondly, to achieve the most desirable learning effect, activities should be organised in terms of those that require all students to pay attention to the teacher (e.g., during presentation), individual work (e.g. when preparing for class debate), pair work (dialogue practice), group work (discussions), etc. Thirdly, if the teacher uses only one mode of instruction and one or two language skills, students will only be exposed to them. Consequently, other components of CC will be overlooked. Fourthly, in mixed ability classes, we will find stronger and weaker students. The teacher's job here is to help the weaker ones without slowing down the progress of the stronger; that is where a careful balance of easy versus demanding activities is most needed. Fifthly, needless to say, an interesting topic can spark students'

attention. However, insisting on that topic without addressing potentially contrasting interests of different groups (such as male versus female learners, and younger versus older students) may result in frustration and classroom discipline problems. Sixthly, teachers must know that different activities, topics, etc. require appropriate moods. For example, a role play about a funeral should not be done in fun-based mood. Last but not one, it is critical for teachers to be able to understand when to stir or settle the students. For instance, in the last period, students are usually tired and hungry, if we use an activity like dictation, it would potentially be catastrophic: students may fall asleep, may disrupt the lesson, etc. Finally, teachers must know when how to entice students' appropriate roles. For example, during the introduction stage they act as path followers, sponges, and the like. Whereas, in communicative activities, they may play the role of negotiators. Therefore, we end by saying that variety can happen at different levels of the lesson and involve many aspects (but they are all aimed at improving learning opportunities).

c.3.2. Flexibility

Harmer (*op.cit.*) defines flexibility as the ability to use different techniques and not be bound to one methodology. For Jensen (*op.cit.*: 406-7), it means to be able to steer the lesson in any direction regardless of our preordained plan. Both definitions are in accord with the general methodological thinking that a lesson plan is just a plan; thus, it can be changed during the lesson and it is a guide rather than a permanent contract, it should not dictate what we teach but simply orient teachers in the achievement of the teaching and learning goals, which can be reached following different ways, not just one.

Although teachers have the liberty to change their lesson plans to suit the dynamic demands of a communicative classroom, there should be a sense of coherence and flow Jensen (*ibid.*). In other words, flexibility should not be translated into chaos in the classroom. Teachers must know how to adapt techniques that complement or improve the ones that we had previously planned to use with our students. For Jensen (*loc.cit.*) this insight should be regarded as another planning principle.

To summarise, while variety involves activities, flexibility affects mainly methods and techniques. However, the two principles are not mutually exclusive. In fact, they work together since to be flexible the teacher must be able to vary activities, and the use of different activities to improve learning requires teacher flexibility.

The consideration of principles brings us to describe the body of knowledge needed for effective design of lesson plans.

c.4. Pre-plan

Bearing in mind that the lesson plan embodies the most relevant theoretical views regarding language teaching, prior to its design teachers must activate all their background knowledge making reference to effective and efficient language teaching. Thus, the teacher will draw on his/her acquaintance with the profession, the institution they are going to teach, and the students involved.

c.4.1. The profession

Language teaching is a big scientific area comprising a huge number of proven concepts supporting language acquisition and learning, and language teaching. A well-trained practitioner will have amassed most of those concepts and is able to translate them into effective teaching for the language learner. Some of the most prominent aspects involved in the teaching profession that teachers must carefully ponder on refer to the language for the level, the skills he/she is about to teach, the aids available, lesson stages and the corresponding techniques, extras activities, and management skills (Harmer, 1983: 222-23; Harmer, 1984: 92).

Preparation to the appropriate grammar for the level of the students involves teachers in thorough revision of teaching methods, techniques, materials, language grading procedures, etc. all directed at providing pupils with suitable and digestible linguistic input that can turn into intake. Furthermore, the teacher must ensure he/she is able to use the language set for students' learning. This is of significant value for it is almost impossible to teach what one has no idea about. Thus, an in-depth revision of the grammatical item to be taught is crucial to prevent the teacher from failing to provide clear explanations to students during the presentation stage or if they ask about any unplanned aspect that is related to what is being taught.

Teaching language skills seems to be the main goal in current ELT practice. The peculiar nature of each type of ability demands from teachers a careful analysis of the approaches they would want to use to teach them. More important than that is the teacher's knowledge of the skill. For example, someone with serious listening problems in the foreign language will mostly do a disservice trying to teach listening skills to students. Therefore, similar to the above, it is imperative that teachers are capable of using the language skills that they want their students to master.

Teachers can have a range of classroom aids at their disposal. However, it is crucial that we are familiar with the purpose of each material, the advantages and disadvantages of their use, how appropriate they are for the learners, their practicality, etc. If teachers ignore these factors, instead of aiding the teaching process, they may actually impair it.

Needlessly to say, the teacher must know the distinct stages of the lesson as well as the techniques and activities appropriate for each of them. Failure to know so may result in total confusion as there may not be distinction between (for example) presentation and practice techniques.

Acknowledging the unpredictable nature of some classes, having a repertoire of activities may help teachers cope with unforeseen students' needs. Moreover, extra activities could be used for a variety purposes (for example, when a planned task has an undesirable effect on students learning).

Classroom management refers to the creation of conditions for successful language learning. Thus, it follows on logically that a teacher who lacks classroom administration skills is set for disastrous teaching.

In short, without knowledge of the profession one cannot be called a teacher. So, they will not be able to plan something for which they have no knowledge about.

c.4.2. The institution

In addition to knowing about the profession, teachers are expected to be familiar with the place in which they going impart knowledge. Regarding the institution, Harmer (*op.cit.*: 223) presents the following as pertinent aspects to be born in mind when planning lessons:

- Time, length, frequency – teachers should be informed about the time, for how long, and how often lessons take place.
- Physical conditions – everything related to aspects that may influence in the normal running of the lesson, such as electricity, chairs, board, etc.
- Syllabus – lesson plans should be based on the general curriculum of the school (cf. Brown, 2001: 152; Hynes, 2010).
- Restrictions – teachers should be familiar with all restrictions that the school imposes.

Therefore, knowledge about the institution is important when considering all tangible factors that may help or hinder the learning process.

c.4.3. The students

A teacher who has no idea about the target audience should not plan because all language teaching action is directed at certain learning group. We agree with Hamer (*op.cit.*: 224-26) when he proposes the following as crucial learner characteristics that may influence the lesson plan: students' age, sex, social background, occupation, motivation and attitude, interests, and needs.

Students' age is a major factor in SLL. In fact, the topic has been researched by a considerable number of investigators including Fathman, 1975; Neufeld, 1980; Diller, 1981; Harley, 1986;

Bialystok, 1997; Singleton and Lengyel, 2004, and many others. When planning lessons teachers will have to ponder on whether they are going to teach children, adolescents, or adults. For each group the type of activities, the topics, the materials, the teaching techniques etc. will have to be different. For example, when teaching children, the use of the Total Physical Response, singing, games, and the like may be appropriate to engage them (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990).

With respect to gender in the classroom, Sunderland (1992: 81-9) identifies four areas gender manifests itself in the EFL classroom: the English language, materials, processes, and proficiency. The first relates to the use of gender specific pronouns (he, him, etc.) to refer to an unknown person. For materials, teachers need to pay attention to neutral nouns (e.g., chairperson, firefighter). As far as process is concerned, teachers need to look out for what happens in the classroom ascribed to gender, such as learning processes (learning styles and strategies attributed to specific genders), teacher-learner interaction (paying more attention to either male or female learners), learner-learner interaction (some studies have shown male students speaking more frequently and take longer turns than female counterparts (Holmes, 1989; Edelsky, 1981 in Sunderland, *op.cit.*)), and proficiency (are female students better language learners than male ones or is it the opposite?).

Shehadeh (1999: 256) gives further support to gender influence in the classroom in his study about cross-gender conversations. In point of fact, he discovered that men exploit conversations to promote performance ability, whereas women use conversation to encourage comprehension ability.

It is, therefore, clear that when planning lessons teachers have to consider how the activities, the content, topics, etc. will be influenced by students' gender.

With regard to social background, Harmer (*op.cit.*) suggests knowing whether students are poor or rich before planning. In fact, Odeunmi (2008: 8-9) reports on a study where the financial status of parents affected their children's performance. As such, poorer children had been found to struggle more to learn the new language. In our context of research, in some areas, poverty can be found to limit a teacher's capacity to plan for effective teaching due to lack of electricity, coursebooks, etc. Although, we do not agree that being poor or rich can give us an immediate advantage in learning a new language, having access to the best learning materials can certainly have an impact on the teaching and learning process.

With reference to students' occupations, unless one is teaching, for example, Secondary School classes, knowing one's learners' professions should be one of the things to take into account when planning lessons. If we are teaching engineers, lawyers, physicians, etc. we need to bring in topics,

vocabulary, learning activities, and the like that suit our students' professions to cater for their immediate learning needs.

The effect of students' motivation in SLL has been studied extensively (Lasagabaster, *et al.* 2004). It is generally agreed that having highly motivated learners can make a teacher's job easier. However, in some cases, teachers must devote a great deal of planning to motivate students who simply attend language classes because they are compulsory. This is common in EFL teaching contexts where English is taken as simply another subject in the curriculum. In such situations, a considerable number of students sees no future use of English. Thus, teachers have to plan lessons aimed at changing students' attitudes and motivation. Additionally, motivation can be improved if teachers bear in mind students' interests when planning lessons.

Last but not least, all planning is ultimately based on students' needs. In point of fact, a lesson's aims are spelt in terms of what students need to learn in the new language. For example, if we have the following aim: *by the end of the lesson, students will have acquired five new words related to occupations* we imply that students need to learn those words for a particular present or future purpose. Therefore, planning should be aimed at catering for learners' needs and wants.

To recapitulate, the pre-plan is the phase at which the teacher prepares all the necessary conditions relevant for an effective plan, including thinking about the profession, the place where the teaching will take place, and the characteristics of the learners.

With the above insights about the pre-plan, we will now address the actual planning process.

c.5. The plan

After thorough analysis of all the factors intervening in the design of the lesson, teachers embark on the craft and science of planning an effective lesson. In the words of Hamer (1983: 221) 'good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class'. To put this into practice, Dangerfield (1985: 18) suggests that the first thing to do in designing a lesson plan is a clear and explicit statement of the goals of the lesson and the procedures conducive to the achievement of these. Here, teachers should ask themselves three fundamental questions:

- Are the aims of the lesson relevant for the learners' needs?
- Considering the students and the time allocated, are the aims achievable?
- Can the goals be reached using the proposed activities and procedures?

c.5.1. Content of a lesson plan

This section has been included for the purpose of establishing what should go in a lesson plan.

c.5.1.1. Aims and objectives

As seen above, the first aspects to start with in a lesson plan are the aims. These are the primary reasons for or purposes of a course of instruction. Aims are materialised through objectives, which can be taken to mean descriptions of learning outcomes (Farrell, 2002: 32). Brown (2000: 150) advocates the distinction between terminal and enabling objectives. The former refers to final learning results that could be used for evaluation purposes. The latter are the steps leading up to the terminal objectives. In other words, we have a clear distinction between aims and objectives.

Apart from the obvious distinction between aims and objectives directed at the teaching action, Harmer (2007: 372) proposes personal goals as important for a teacher's professional development. This type of goals refers to 'those where we seek to try something out that we have never done before, or decide to try to do better at something which has eluded us before' (Harmer, *ibid.*).

Stating clearly the objectives of a lesson is important in so far as they can assist teachers in the selection of suitable activities. Moreover, objectives provide focus and direction to the lesson, and offer an evaluation platform upon which to judge the merits and demerits of the teaching action (Farrell, *op.cit.*).

Considering the above insights, it becomes clear that objectives must be stated explicitly. In the view of Brown (*op.cit.*: 149), stating the objectives overtly is relevant for four main reasons. First of all, teachers can be sure that they really know what they intend to achieve. Secondly, we can maintain lesson unity. Thirdly, teachers can be aware of the amount of teaching and learning load of the lesson. Finally, evaluation of success or failure of the lesson is easier.

According to Harmer (1983: 231) objectives should be described in 'general terms... in terms of skills... and in terms of language'. Dangerfield (*op.cit.*: 19) proposes a clear statement of aims and objectives as answering the following questions:

- Does the lesson involve revision, presentation, practice, production or a combination of these?
- Which form of structure is to be practiced – the negative, the question, the short answer. Etc.?
- Which function of the structure is being taught?
- Which exponents of the structure are being taught and will these involve making students aware of level of formality/informality or of firmness/tentativeness of the different exponents?
- Will it be necessary to teach co-functions?
- Will the lesson focus on lexis, pronunciation, stress and intonation too?

Furthermore, in stating the objectives of a lesson, Farrell (*op.cit.*) suggests the use of action verbs in order to identify the intended student behaviour. Thus, verbs like describe, explain, demonstrate, etc. would give a clearer picture of the objectives. In fact, Brown (*passim*) warns against the use of vague and unverifiable statements (e.g., students will learn about the passive voice).

c.5.1.2. Other important content

Obviously, lesson planning entails more than setting teaching and learning aims and objectives. We will examine below other crucial components of effective lesson plans.

Materials

It would seem clear that teachers think about aids needed for an effective lesson. Indeed, making a list of books, handouts, realia, etc. that one will use in the lesson may prevent educators from forgetting crucial materials needed for a smooth running of the lesson (Dangerfield, 1985: 19; Brown, *op.cit.*: 151).

Description of the class

This is pertinent because it tells us who the students are (e.g. age range, predominant sex, language level, etc.), time and duration of the lesson, frequency of classes, and physical conditions and restrictions of the school (Harmer, 1983: 230; Harmer, 2007: 371).

Recent work

Although language learning is hardly a linear process, in the course of making informed decisions for future classes, teachers ought to take into account the activities, the subject and content, and the language skills students were exposed to in the previous lessons (Harmer, 1983: 230; Harmer, 2007: 372).

Skills and language focus

A list of structures, functions, vocabulary items, etc. can also be relevant in the lesson plan, especially when the lesson is observed by a trainer or fellow teacher.

Anticipated problems

Lesson planning should essentially be a reflective process where teachers reflect on possible scenarios of student behaviour based on their pre-existing learning gaps. Accordingly, teachers are expected to predict problems that learners are likely to display during the lesson and devise in advance strategies to approach them (Dangerfield, 1985: 19).

Procedures

Procedures are the techniques that will be used to achieve the objectives of each stage of the lesson. They comprise information about the context of an activity, aids and page numbers of books, etc. (Dangerfield, *ibid.*: 20).

Interaction patterns

When designing the plan, it is imperative that teachers give details about who will be interacting with whom. Interaction patterns may include teacher to class (T – C), teacher to student (T – S), student to student (S – S), pair work (PW), groupwork (GW), etc. (Dangerfield, *op.cit.*; Harmer, 2007: 374).

c.5.1.3. Lesson plan model

Based on the understandings gained regarding teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar, and lesson planning, we propose the following language lesson plan model:

Description of the class:

Grade:

Time:

Date:

Frequency of classes:

Physical conditions:

AIMS

1. **Structural:** in terms of what learners should be able to do with the new language.
2. **Functional:** in terms of language use. For example, expressing thanks, requirements, opinions, etc.
3. **Skills:**
 - a. Speaking
 - b. Reading
 - c. Listening
 - d. Writing
4. **Vocabulary:** in terms of a general topic (furniture, means of transportation, food and drink, etc.), plus a limited number of words (e.g., ten new words a lesson)
5. **Topic:** the general theme of the lesson (e.g., famous people, family and friends, football, music, etc.)
6. **Teacher's Aims:** in terms of what the teacher aims to improve regarding the teaching profession

Recent Work:

Materials: The most important teaching aids

Stage	Procedures	Interaction	Objectives	Time
Lead in/Revision				
Presentation				
Controlled Practice (Mechanical and meaningful)				
Communicative Practice				
H/W				

ANTICIPATED PROBLEMS	PROBABLE SOLUTION
BOARD WORK	

As a summary, we can say that lesson planning should start from setting aims and objectives. After that we should describe the class, the materials needed for the lesson, recent work, anticipated problems, we should ponder on the procedures, interaction pattern, among other aspects.

In this segment of our investigation, we have come to understand that lesson planning is the process of putting together all the elements needed for successful teaching and learning. Its importance is revealed when we consider a guide for our teaching action. Lesson planning should be done based on the principles of variety and flexibility. Finally, we saw that before planning we should think about the profession, the students, and the institution. Moreover, when planning, we should first establish the aims and objectives, only then we should address other factors that should be described in the lesson plan.

So far, we have reviewed three key practical aspects of communicative-based language teaching. In the next section, we will explore classroom management.

d. Classroom management

Classroom management (to create the conditions under which learning can take place (Scrivener, 2005: 79)) is an important component in the teacher's profile and plays a key role in successful language teaching. It involves several aspects that are crucial for effective language teaching. However,

we do not intend to discuss them all. We will just focus on those related to our current research. The main purpose of this section is to offer a theoretical background for our research instruments with regard to classroom management. To attain this, the remainder of this part of our thesis will focus on the following points: the use of eye contact, gestures and voice, giving instructions, and classroom discipline.

a.1. Use of eye contact

Eye contact in the classroom is a subtle yet relevant aspect in teaching. To start with, it can be used to establish rapport. In this regard, while talking to students, by looking at them, the teacher shows interest in what they are saying. Secondly, eye contact may mirror teacher's confidence. Thirdly, this can be an effective tool for classroom control owing to the fact that the teacher will be aware of students' behaviour. Finally, eye contact can help teachers have a feeling of the extent to which students have grasped the new lesson (Gower *et al.*, 2005: 8-9).

Gower *et al.* (*ibid.*) have suggested a number of important uses of eye contact in the classroom:

- To ensure that students have understood what they are supposed to do and know what is going on;
- To indicate who is to speak;
- To encourage contributions when they are trying to elicit ideas or specific language from students;
- To show a student who is speaking that you are taking notice;
- To hold the attention of students not being addressed and to encourage them to listen to those doing the talking;
- To keep in touch with other students in the class or group when you are dealing with an individual, perhaps when correcting;
- To signal to a pair or group to start, to stop or to hurry up;
- To indicate that groups are on the right or wrong lines;
- To indicate that something is incorrect;
- To check that everyone is participating;
- To check silently with students whether they have finished an activity.

As a language teacher, it is not difficult to agree with above aspects. While teaching a point, sometimes we do not need to ask questions to notice that students did not understand what has been taught. For instance, a puzzled look may be an indicator of lack of comprehension or confusion on the part of the student. Moreover, to encourage participation during an activity, and to reduce teacher-talking-time (hereafter T-T-T) a suggestive look of the teacher could be used to show a certain student's turn to contribute to the conversation. In addition, to hint that one cares about what the learner is saying, while trying to keep the other students attentive, eye contact is of paramount importance. Thus, eye contact can have a positive impact on students' learning and behaviour.

Nevertheless, there are occasions in which eye contact should be avoided. General understanding suggests that teachers should not stare at students because a fixed glare can result in

undesirable reactions from them. What is more, in less teacher-controlled activities, such as communicative tasks eye contact should be minimised (cf. Gower *et al.*, 1995: 10).

a.2. Gestures

In most communicative acts people use gestures and facial expressions to help get messages across. The reasons for encouraging teachers to develop and use a set of gestures include to increase students' opportunities to talk, avoid repeating instructions, vary the tempo, regulate participation, signal changes, designate who is to respond, signal choral response, mark beginnings and ends of lessons, and show students what to expect (Ward and Raffler-Engel, 1980 in Cao and Chen, 2017: 1072; Scrivener, 2005: 95). Furthermore, according to Gower *et al.* (2005 11- 13), instructors can make use of gestures to accomplish a number of teaching functions:

- To convey the meaning of language;
- To manage the class;
- To add visual interest;
- To increase pace;
- To cut down on the amount of verbal explanation.

In fact, as seen in the discussion about teaching vocabulary, in some cases gestures can replace words when teaching meaning of certain lexis. Additionally, when setting pair or group work, to stop or commence an activity, to send someone out or in, etc. gestures can be of great significance. More importantly, considering that students should be given more opportunities to speak, the use of gestures can reduce T-T-T. Therefore, gestures can contribute to a quieter (less teacher talk) yet more productive classroom environment.

Nonetheless, the use of gestures should be approached carefully because they can be misleading or cause misunderstanding. Consequently, teachers should avoid unclear and ambiguous physical expressions, rude or obscene gestures, and irritating habits (Gower *et al.*, 1995: 13). Accordingly, gestures should be used in accordance with what is culturally acceptable by the students.

a.3. Using the voice

Using one's voice appropriately in the classroom could be a starting point for an effective lesson. Although it can be taken for granted, a teacher should devote some attention to the range, variety and projection of his/her voice during the lesson. Consequently, a teacher's voice should vary according to the activity, the size of the class, students' behaviour, etc. (Gower *et al.*, 2005: 17). Equally significant is the consideration of one's voice in our teaching career since it is the means through which most us exert our profession. Thus, caution in its use is required for a longer professional life.

a.4. Giving instructions

Scrivener (*op.cit.*: 90- 92) proposes five steps to give clear instructions. First, teachers should get in touch with their own instruction giving strategies. This can be done by recording and listening to oneself or asking feedback from other teachers. Second, teachers should pre-plan important instructions. During this process we should include in the instructions simple and essential information only, and clear language. Moreover, instructions should be organized logically, containing short sentences, avoiding visible and obvious things, and including only what students need to know for accomplishing a certain activity, not what they will do afterwards. Third, we should prepare the class before we instruct them. This can be done by establishing a silent environment, making eye contact with the students, using an authoritative tone, and getting students to listen before they start, pacing the instructions, and clarify meaning. Fourth, demonstrate the instructions. Finally, check students' understanding of the instructions.

In short, when giving instructions teachers should instruct, demonstrate, and check understanding.

a.5. Classroom discipline

This section will focus on the causes, how to prevent, and action in case of classroom discipline problems. We will start, however, by clarifying what is involved in classroom discipline.

This has been defined as 'a set of teacher actions that constitute organisational and management processes aimed at establishing classroom order' (Lopes and Oliveira, 2017: 3).

According to Ur (1996: 260) a disciplined classroom has the following characteristics:

1. Learning is taking place.
2. It is quiet.
3. The teacher is in control.
4. Teacher and students are cooperating smoothly.
5. Students are motivated.
6. The lesson is proceeding according to plan.
7. Teacher and students are aiming for the same objective.
8. The teacher has natural charismatic 'authority'.

Harmer (1983: 209-10) believes that classroom discipline should not be seen as a series of punishments aimed at badly-behaved students. Rather, it 'it refers to a code of conduct which binds a teacher and group of students together so that learning can be more effective' (Harmer, *ibid.*).

A simple analysis of the above considerations would suggest that classroom discipline entails all the conditions that can help both teachers and students follow what has been planned. Moreover, it becomes clear that teachers and students should work together to create good rapport through a contract that prevents future disruptive behaviour.

d.5.1. Causes of discipline problems

It is quite common for some teachers to blame the students for almost all unruly conduct in the classroom. However, students cannot always be responsible for causing indiscipline. We are going to sift three main causes of discipline issues.

d.5.1.1. The teacher

The teacher has added responsibility in the teaching process, for his/her behaviour and attitude can have a positive or negative impact on the way students behave. Harmer (1983: 210) identifies six aspects that influence classroom discipline. These include preparation, consistency, the use of threats, raising one's voice, giving boring lessons, having a negative attitude, and breaking the code of conduct.

Teacher preparation can have a substantial impact on students' behaviour. Recalling what was discussed about the importance of lesson planning, going to the classroom unprepared can give rise to bad behaviour from the students. When the teacher shows signs of not being familiar with what he/she is teaching, gets lost in his/her own lesson, lacks confidence, does not have appropriate management skills, etc. students may mock him/her, or express all sorts of unruly behaviour. Thus, teacher preparation is a fundamental facet to take into account to avert classroom indiscipline.

Teachers are expected to show consistency of behaviour in the classroom. A teacher who favours some students and expresses negative bias towards the others is likely to frustrate the less-favoured pupils. Learners and all involved in the educational system expect teachers to behave in the same pattern in similar situations because they are supposed to be fair to the class as a whole and to particular elements.

The use of threats in the classroom can have adverse effects. On one hand, for impressionable learners, they may refrain from misbehaving. Moreover, in teacher-fronted traditional contexts, where physical punishments are common practice, issuing threats can prevent bad actions. On the other hand, in more democratic situations, students may be aware that a teacher can threaten them but cannot carry it out. As a result, unruly conduct can erupt in the classroom.

Most teachers can be tempted to shout at students when they are making a lot of noise. This, however, may have a less than desirable effect since it may lead to a general increase of noise in the

classroom.

The use of interesting and varied activities in language teaching to avoid boredom has already been discussed. Boredom is a significant cause of indiscipline due to the fact it is usually a consequence of teaching routines. Teachers should not take comfort in the use of a few effective techniques. Although what we do enhances students' learning, too much of the same can be boring and bored students are prone to naughtiness.

One of the teacher's job is to motivate and change students' negative attitudes. A teacher who shows lack of interest on the subject, the students, and the teaching process is doing a disservice to the entire educational system.

Having a code of conduct that binds both the teacher and the students' behaviour in the classroom is a major starting point for having a disciplined class. However, some teachers believe that only students need to follow what was agreed in the code of conduct. Bad examples set by the teacher by not following classroom rules can be quickly imitated by the students.

d.5.1.2. The students

Regardless of level of preparation, most teachers have noticed that in some situations, students' misbehaviour cannot be imputed to them. In fact, Harmer (*ibid.*: 211-12) identifies three reasons for students' bad behaviour: time of the day, their attitude, desire to be noticed, and two's company.

It can be fairly easy to observe that last period classes can be challenging to teach because students may be tired and hungry. Likewise, after lunch classes may also be difficult for students since some of them may be drowsy. These are all important factors to take into account when planning our lessons.

Especially in EFL contexts, students may not know the importance of learning a new language. Most of them attend language lessons because they are compulsory. In such scenarios, teachers must first show students the relevance of the English language and make their lessons interesting so that learners' negative attitudes can be changed.

Teaching teenagers can be challenging for some teachers for the reason that at this age some of them may demand attention. Unfortunately, this may be in the form of disruptive behaviour.

Students' mischief is sometimes initiated and fuelled by two troublesome individuals who somehow think that anti-social behaviour is done better in groups. So, it is advised for teachers to reseat this type of students.

Other significant causes of disorderly conduct ascribed to learners entail the family, learning expectations, approval, and success and failure (Harmer, 2007: 154-155). Family may exert a strong

influence on students' attitudes regarding school and authority. Difficult home situations may have a direct impact on what students do at school. Taking the example of poor countries like Angola, in some locations, hunger is a well-documented factor of distraction and demotivation for many students. A hungry student is very unlikely to pay attention to what is going in the classroom or even follow the teacher's instructions.

Much of what happens in the classroom is grounded on previous schooling experiences. These in turn can create learning expectations with regard to the type of behaviour that is permitted in the classroom. If students have had a lenient teacher in the previous grade, for example, they might expect the same from their current one. This may be problematic if he/she adopts a different stance towards the students and the teaching and learning process.

Approval is mostly expected from the teacher by students who are used to getting this. Thus, teacher support forms the basis for good rapport. However, when there is lack of endorsement, students' self-esteem may be impacted negatively. As a result, students will not have any incentive for good behaviour.

Students' motivation may be success or failure driven. Some students have stronger will to study when they have lower grades. Others could be seriously demotivated by failure. The latter case may result in serious students' misconduct, such as missing classes, disrupting lessons, bullying other students, etc.

Succinctly, despite extensive teacher preparation, classroom discipline problems may still occur due to the time of the day for the lesson, negative students' attitude, learners acting out, bad company, family background, influence of previous learning experience, and success or failure.

d.5.1.3. The institution

The institution plays a big role in preventing indiscipline because people expect to find in it a recognised policy for handling unruly behaviour. If school administrators fail to implement this larger code of conduct, teachers may be powerless to handle severe discipline problems.

Harmer (2001: 212) has expressed the point that a lot depend on the attitude of the institution regarding the way students behave. Ideally there will be a recognised system for dealing with problematic classes or individual students. It is to be hoped that the teacher can consult coordinators or heads of departments when in trouble. If the institution does not have such a policy, teachers may face difficulties dealing with severe misconduct. What is more, students who cause serious problems must be handled by the school's authority rather than by the teacher on his/her own.

Schools can have a negative impact on the management of students' mischief for some reasons. As seen above, one of them is lack of policies to deal with discipline problems as it may lead to organisational chaos, turning the school into a place where every kind of bad behaviour is permissible. Another reason refers to poor learning/teaching materials (textbooks, syllabus, the board, etc.). In case of lack or poor conditions of these, teachers may be obliged to deal with problems they are not responsible for (for example, how can a teacher afford textbooks for the students?). Finally, the location of the institution can be a nuisance if it is located, for example, near a bar, disco or market students can be easily distracted by what goes on in those places.

Having identified the chief causes of classroom misbehaviour, we will embark on a discussion about some teacher actions aimed at the preclusion, rather than remedy, of classroom disruptive comportment.

d.5.2. Preventing classroom indiscipline

Common sense favours prevention over remedy for the reason that when unpleasant behaviour erupts, precious teaching and learning time is wasted on trying to re-establish conditions for learning to take place. For this reason, teachers should spend some time reflecting on all the factors that may affect their students' conduct and direct deterrent actions.

d.5.2.1. Code of conduct

It is generally agreed that establishing a code of conduct and following it may be one of the most important actions in the inhibition of classroom disorderly comportment. This code should contain rules outlining responsibilities and proper students' conduct. Harmer (2007: 155) identifies three types of code of conduct. First, it is common to find school regulations of expected learners' behaviour, entailing the use of uniforms, tolerance for late comers, etc. Second, in most cases, however, apart from the school rules, teachers and students write agreed behaviour norms for the classroom. This type of classrooms rules is more binding since it emerges as an agreement of all the parts involved, rather than an imposition. Finally, years of adherence to rules by previous groups may lead students to simply follow suit.

Based on the second type of set of rules described above, Harmer (*ibid.*: 156) proposes three ways of establishing comportment norms. In order to establish classroom rules that students agree with and adhere to, these should be explicitly discussed. Instead of reading rules to students, teachers should explain what they mean and why they are important. Moreover, it is important to get learners

discuss and suggest the type of appropriate actions for the classroom. Finally, rules need to be reviewed and revisited whenever students deviate from them.

In short, a teacher's effort to be in control of the ways his/her students behave will be greatly rewarded if at the very beginning of the teaching period a code of conduct is created in collaboration with the students and all parts involved commit themselves to following it.

d.5.2.2. Teacher preparation

Since the teacher is responsible for everything that happens in the classroom, he/she has a bigger role in preventing classroom disruptive behaviour. To avert problems caused by boredom and demotivation, teachers are expected to plan their lessons as to entail varied and interesting activities, effective students' engagement, success-oriented tasks, and goals (Hamer, 2007: 157).

A well-prepared teacher must know about the profession (the language and skills he/she is going to teach, the aids available, stages and techniques, classroom management skills, etc.), the institution (physical conditions, syllabus, time, length and frequency of English lessons, etc.), and the students (sex, social background, occupation, motivation and attitude, needs, among others (Harmer, 1983: 222-26)). Ergo, teacher preparation can help us prevent many classroom discipline issues.

In addition to the above, Brown (2000: 199) advises teachers to learn how to be comfortable with their position of power and authority and gain students' respect by treating them fairly in order to discourage disorderly conduct.

Ur (1996: 263) lists a number of important points that could be helpful to prevent indiscipline:

- Start by being firm with students: you can relax later.
- Get silence before you start speaking to the class.
- Know and use the students' names.
- Prepare lessons thoroughly and structure them firmly.
- Be mobile: walk around the class.
- Start the lesson with a 'bang' and sustain interest and curiosity.
- Speak clearly. Make sure your instructions are clear.
- Have extra material prepared (e.g. to cope with slower/faster-working students).
- Look at the class when speaking, and learn how to 'scan'.
- Make work appropriate (to pupils' age, ability, cultural background).
- Develop an effective questioning technique.
- Develop the art of timing your lesson to fit the available period.
- Vary your teaching techniques.
- Anticipate discipline problems and act quickly.
- Avoid confrontations.
- Clarify fixed rules and standards, and be consistent in applying them.
- Show yourself as supporter and helper to the students.
- Don't patronise students, treat them with respect.
- Use humour constructively.
- Choose topics and tasks that will activate students.
- Be warm and friendly to the students.

Thus, based on the above insights, we can say that a well thought out code of conduct may have little effect if the teacher goes to the classroom unprepared.

Notwithstanding what was examined above, irrespective of one's preparation and use of a fine-tuned code of conduct, unruly behaviour may still happen in the classroom. Below we will describe some ways of dealing with discipline problems.

d.5.3. How to deal with classroom indiscipline

Harmer (2007: 158- 60) discusses a number of measures that a teacher could take to solve classroom indiscipline. The first one has to do with immediate action after a problem has been noticed. Accordingly, unchecked unruly conduct, even a simple one, may quickly escalate to the point of the teacher losing control of the class. So, teacher action is critical to defuse situations that have a great impact on the teaching and learning process. Secondly, when dealing with discipline issues, we should keep calm, not flustered, and using a measured tone. These actions can show that the teacher is in control of the situation. Another relevant approach is to focus on the behaviour not the student. This is important because teachers should be careful enough not to damage students' self-esteem. In some cases, teachers can deal with misbehaviour by changing the activity. This can be done when teachers are losing control due to excessive noise, too hard or too easy tasks, boring activities, etc. Another relevant fact is that teachers can manage disobedience created by two's company by reseating them. When teachers have no choice but to punish students, it is advisable that they use clearly agreed sanctions. Thus, the teacher ensures that students do not engage in hostile behaviour or resent him/her because they participated in the creation of the code of conduct that condemns their actions. Finally, when the teacher cannot handle serious classroom disruption, they should use the institution.

As a summary of our approach to some topics pertinent to classroom management, a number of aspects are worth recollecting. We started by acknowledging that classroom administration revolves around establishing all the conditions that lead to successful language learning and teaching. Although it encompasses many aspects, for the present work intents, we focused on the importance of the use of eye contact, gestures and voice, giving instructions, and classroom discipline. With regard to eye contact, we understood that its use is beneficial in controlling the class, establishing rapport, showing that one cares about what students are saying, etc. As for gestures, we realised that they could be used to show meaning, reduce T-T-T, making lessons more interesting, among other aspects. With respect to instructions, following the order instruct-demonstrate-check understanding teachers can avoid misunderstandings and repeating instructions. Our final section looked at classroom discipline. It was established that it deals with managing students' behaviour. Here, we identified three causes of unruly

demeanour (the teacher, the students, and the institution). To prevent disorderly conduct, teachers should create a collaborative code of conduct and go to the classroom well-prepared. Finally, to deal with indiscipline, teachers should act immediately, keep calm, and focus on the behaviour (not the student), reseat troublesome students, among other aspects.

Closing remarks of the knowledge base of the in-service training course proposed to solve our research problem give prominence to the disclosure of appropriate PCK comprised of CLT as the foundation of a communicative-based vocabulary and grammar teaching, lesson planning, and classroom management. This knowledge constitutes the *what* of the training programme. Ergo, an obvious next stage is to address the *how*. This will be done by elaborating on how to train teachers to gain professional competence.

1.5. Teacher preparation procedures

Our discussion on LTE has come from a general understanding of the issues embedded in SLTE plus the knowledge base for our proposed in-service education programme. Having established the content, we turn now to the exploration of training procedures. In other words, we will direct our attention to methodological precepts related to how the training content could be imparted. Adopting a general-to-specific approach, we will sift SLTE models first. The section will end with the examination of teaching modes and training activities derived from them.

1.5.1. Teacher education models

Definitions of teaching usually fall under the views of a science, a technology, a craft, or an art. Thus, whichever our choice might be, it should consist of ideas regarding what teaching is, what skills are involved, and what teachers must know. This knowledge establishes the different approaches to teacher training (Freeman and Richards, 1993: 193). Arguably, there are many training models. However, recent developments in the field of ELT have led to a renewed interest in reflective teaching. Therefore, in the current section, we will approach models of SLTE from craft to reflection. Accordingly, we will describe and discuss three main SLTE models: the craft, the applied science, and the reflective one. Nevertheless, owing to recent debate on social justice and language teaching, we will start by examining the relevance of the social justice model for language teacher training programmes.

1.5.1.1. Social justice model

The underlying premise of the social justice model (hereafter SJM) can be understood within the venue of teaching being essentially interwoven with general socio-political policies. As a result, teacher education should be tailored around giving student-teachers the possibility of understanding and relating teaching within global views of hierarchy and power. Thus, in the SJM, teacher education should create democratic agents of change, whose main purposes are to battle social inequalities, monitor ethically sound behaviour and actions, and create or promote the establishment of appropriate schooling conditions for disregarded groups in society (Whitcomb, 2010: 598-599).

The value of the SJM for teacher has been rendered questionable due to difficulties of conception and implementation. In fact, McDonald (2005 in Whitcomb, *ibid.*) discovered that SJM does not provide student-teachers with needed teaching practical tools. Moreover, Montano *et al.* (2002 in Whitcomb, *loc.cit.*) call attention to the fact that normal TE programmes do not prepare trainees to be agents of change. For this, candidates would need to be involved with community-based activist organisations. Finally, for the preparation of language teachers, the SJM would in essence divert the training focus from language and language teaching methodology to politics. This is, however, compatible with the Macro-Strategic-Framework proposed for post-method pedagogy (cf. Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

1.5.1.2. The craft model

In the craft model (hereafter CM) an experienced practitioner, having the knowledge of the profession, transmits it to the apprentice. Training in this model takes place by imitation of the expert's techniques, and following his/her guidance and advice (Crandall, 1993: 506-508). Wallace (1991:6) represents the CM in the following way:

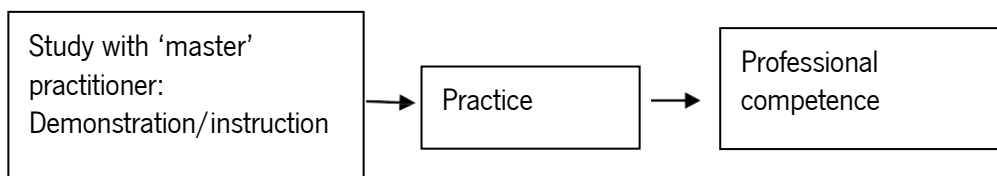


Figure 3. The craft model.

We can see from the above that in the CM in order for the apprentice to acquire professional competence, he/she needs simply to follow the master. This is important if we consider the fact that experience is critical in the process of becoming a professional. However, looking at its one-way nature, from the master to the apprentice, it is essentially a static and limited procedure. To begin with, there is

no feedback channel or space for reflection. Secondly, assuming the existence of a flaw in the knowledge or in the means of conveying it to the learner, this will be perpetuated for generations. Finally, the ever-changing nature of most of the modern-day professions, makes this model unsuitable for them. For example, as a result of reflection on the teaching profession, many language teaching methods have been developed and a great number of them are considered obsolete, as new ones appear in the field of language teaching. Consequently, to train teachers to cope with such changes, trainees need to be provided with scientific tools for reflection.

In brief, while experience is an important aspect in training professionals, it is not enough to form a sound basis for the apprentice to acquire professional competence. For this reason, some researchers have proposed a more scientific approach to teacher education: the applied science model.

1.5.1.3. The applied science model

Originally called *Technical Rationality* by Schön (1983), this model is seen as the underlying training procedure for most educational programmes. The applied science model (henceforth ASM) comes from the achievements of empirical science of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Here, for trainees to acquire practical knowledge, the trainer decides on some specific objectives and relates them to the most appropriate means. In this way, the practice of the profession is essentially instrumental. An example of the application of the ASM to solve teaching problems would be the use of scientific knowledge to achieve a defined objective. That means, in a case where, for example, a trainee has problems in maintaining discipline in the classroom, the trainer could draw on research about classroom management and use the body of theoretical and practical knowledge to address such difficulty (Wallace, *op.cit.*: 8-9; Crandall, *op.cit.*). The ASM can be represented in the following way:

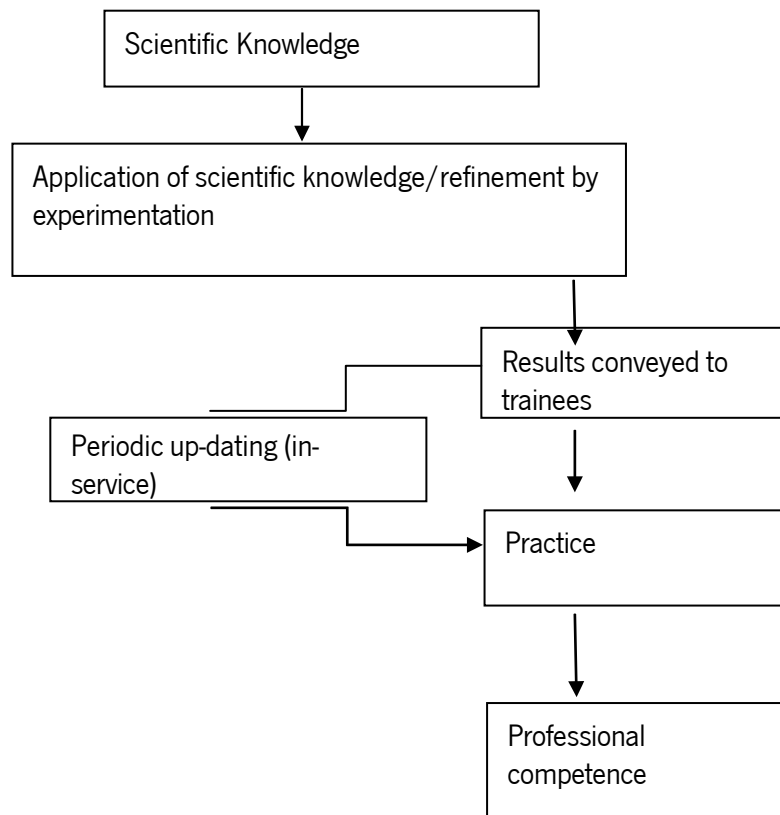


Figure 4. The applied science model (Wallace, 1991: 9).

From the above representation, we can perceive that scientific knowledge is taken uppermost in mind when considering ways to impart professional competence. It is also clear that, as opposed to the craft model, the trainer's experience is of little importance in the ASM. What is more, the ASM is also a one-way directed procedure.

Comparing the last two models, we can realise two different sides of the same process. While the CM gives more emphasis on the experimental factor, the ASM concentrates more on the theoretical venue. To bridge the gap, proponents of the reflective model put together both experience and theory.

1.5.1.4. The Reflective model

One of the great concerns of modern TE is to train reflective teachers. The reflective model (hereafter RM) aims at establishing conditions to create effective reflective practitioners by showing how student-teachers can use reflection to gain professional competence. Although used mostly for teacher development, the RM is also used for training situations. Here, the educator promotes and supports the development of effective teachers (Swan, 1993: 193) based on the concept that educational theory should come from educational practice (Kennedy, 1993: 157).

We will approach the RM from an analysis of what happens before and during the training process of acquiring professional competence.

Stage 1: pre-training

Proponents of the RM believe that 'people seldom enter into professional training situations with blank minds and/or neutral attitudes' (Wallace, *op.cit.*: 50). Since trainees come to the training situation with ideas, beliefs, and attitudes (i.e. conceptual schemata or constructs derived from personality factors, social factors, cultural factors, and the like (Wallace, *loc.cit.*), at the pre-training stage, the educator explores what they bring to the training/development course.

It is of no surprise that trainers ought to be familiar with the student-teachers' background if they want them to have a successful training experience. This is important since any well-designed teacher training course (see section 1.6.) begins with an analysis of the audience's wishes and wants, and their needs, as well as their constructs. For instance, in the current study, in order to plan our training course for the unqualified English teachers in our context of research, we administered a pre-test and a questionnaire designed to uncover what they knew in terms of ELT, and what areas they needed more attention on. This was done at the pre-training stage so that the course would be fulfilling with respect to needs, confirming or changing beliefs, wishes and wants, among other aspects.

Stage 2: professional education/development

This stage occurs by focusing on the development of two aspects: received knowledge and experiential knowledge. The former refers to the theoretical basis of the training action. Thus, the apprentice becomes familiar with the main concepts of the profession, research discoveries, theories and skills taken to be crucial for his/her intellectual professional development (Stern, 1983: 24; Ramani, 1987: 3; Wallace, 1991: 14; Johnson, 1996: 766). This part of the training process is critical because, as Stern (*op.cit.*: 27) puts it, 'no language teacher ... can teach a language without a theory of language teaching, even if it is only implicit in value judgements, decisions, and actions, or in the organisational pattern within which he operates'. The latter has to do with practice, which is aimed to provide the trainee with an opportunity to try out techniques (Wallace, *passim*).

Although theory and practice have been depicted individually, they work concurrently to create reflective teachers. Theory underscores the practice of language teaching. In fact, 'it reveals itself in the assumptions underlying practice, in the planning of a course of study, in the routines of the classroom, in value judgements about language teaching, and in the decisions that the language teacher has to make day by day' (Stern, *op.cit.*: 23). Furthermore, Widdowson (1984:86) emphasises that theory is crucial for the process of experimentation in language teaching. Thus, teachers should perceive the

relationship between theoretical principle and practical technique (Ramani, *op.cit.*). Additionally, TE should be grounded on 'the development of 'theory of action' - a thoughtful, systematic, and principled rationale underlying practice - by means of continual interaction between the theoretical and practical components of a course' (Ur, 1992: 56).

The knowledge derived from theory and practice is subject to reflection and further practice. In this way, trainees acquire professional knowledge through reflective practice. Here, trainees are led to acquire professional ability through the processes of reflection-in-action (this is made possible through knowing-in-action, which can be seen as the ability to piece together specific aspects in the presence of overwhelming information, 'the knowledge we reveal in our intelligent action publicly observable, but we are unable to make it verbally explicit' (Farrell, 2003: 16, mentioning Schon, 1983, 1987), and the knowledge related to thinking about what we are doing in the classroom while we are doing it (Farrell, *op.cit.*)), reflection-on-action (to think back on our past actions to see the extent to which what we have done caused or contributed to an unanticipated result (Schon 1987; Hatton and Smith 1995 in Farrell, *passim*), and reflection-for-action (this results from the two previous types and is intended to guide future action (Killon and Todnem, 1991:15). All these time-based reflections are set within other different types of reflection (Glasswell and Ryan, 2017: 4) including technical (examination of teaching behaviours and skills after a class by directing reflection to the application of abilities and specialised knowledge in the classroom, plus a focus on cognitive aspects of teaching (Van Manen, 1977; Schulman 1987), and critical reflection ('the processing of information gained through innovation in relation to the teacher's existing schema for teaching' (Pennington, 1995: 706)).

It becomes clear that stage two of the RM deals with the learning of the theoretical foundations of the profession and putting this knowledge into practice. The teaching profession, on a par with other areas, places great emphasis on establishing a healthy balance between theory and practice. Trainers want their apprentices to know the concepts related to their area of expertise, what has recently been discovered, etc., and how this could be exploited by the classroom teacher in their daily practice of the teaching profession.

So far, we have discussed the RM in respect of what happens at its two main stages leading to the acquisition of professional competence. And we saw that teacher training should start by an analysis of what the trainees bring in for the training course, and how received knowledge and experiential knowledge are developed so that apprentices acquire professional competence. The RM is represented by Wallace (1991: 49) in the following way:

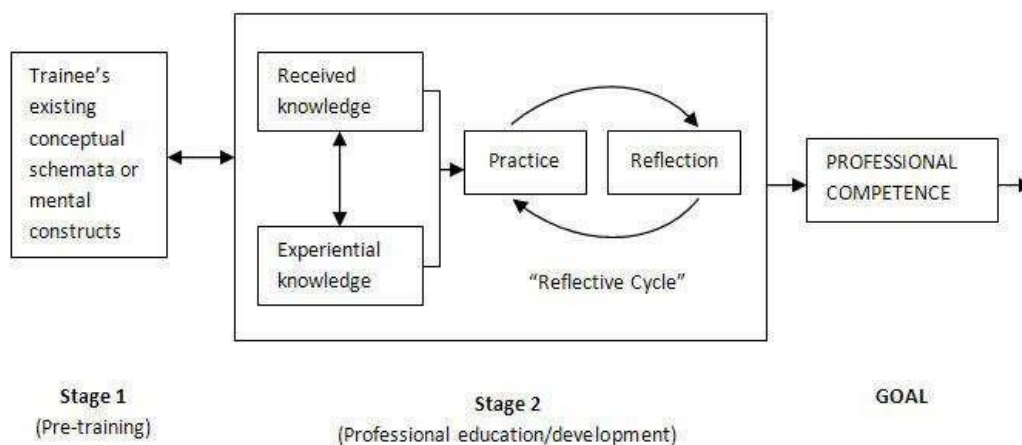


Figure 5. The reflect model.

As reflective practitioners, our main concern should be on behaviours that enable student-teachers to acquire knowledge in a reflective way, and for them to have the ability to utilise the new knowledge in the solution of practical problems, to evaluate and reflect on performance as effective professionals after the training course. This can be put into effect through the use specific methods or modes of teaching in SLTE.

1.5.2. Teacher training modes

If our purpose is to teach within a reflective framework and trainees may have different purposes and expectations, how can a trainer address the various reasons and expectations trainees bring in the session? The obvious answer is to engage student-teachers in various teaching modes. This section will describe and discuss two well-known modes of training language teachers – the lecture mode and the group mode.

1.5.2.1. The lecture mode

The lecture mode is one of the most used ways of communicating professional knowledge. It has been defined as 'a continuing oral presentation of information and ideas by the professor; it is presumably a synthesis of his own reading, research, and experiences interpreted in light of his own insights' (Sutherland, 1976: 30).

A lecture may have the following stages: linkage, briefing, overview, signposting and summary. In the first phase, the lecture shows the topic to be dealt with, which is linked with a previous one. In the second, the teacher explains his/her aims for the lesson, and the type of learning activities the audience will be expected to undertake. In the third, the lecturer displays the structure of the work. In

the fourth, the educator guides the audience towards the teaching aims. Finally, we have a summary stage (Wallace, *op.cit.*: 1991:36).

Vavoulis (1964 in Sutherland, *op.cit.*:31) provides the following as advantages of the lecture mode:

- It vitalises ideas which too often appear cold and impersonal on the printed page.
- It serves to channel the thinking of all students in a given direction, and at the same time allows for clarification of and increased emphasis upon important points.
- It is readily adaptable to the needs, interests, and background knowledge of each particular group of students.
- It can serve as a model of good English expression.
- It is excellent for introducing a new topic, for giving perspective to the class, and for summarising what should have been learned.
- It is economical of time and materials.
- It does give the professor an opportunity to profess!

However, the lecture mode has met with criticism too. Cannon and Knapper (2012: 16) maintain that lectures ‘are ineffective in promoting the kinds of learning that university academics say they value most: understanding, problem-solving, analysis, and creativity’. Wallace (*op.cit.*) identifies two major problems with the lecture mode. For him, as lectures involve long talks, it becomes difficult to maintain the audience’s attention. The second issue pertains to the usual non-existence of feedback during talks. Thus, orators are rarely aware of the effects of their lecture on the listeners. And, Scrivener (1994:2) claims that lectures can be problematic in the sense that it is usually unclear how much or whether learning is taking place.

We have described hitherto what the lecture mode is with respect to its definition, stages, characteristics advantages and disadvantages. From the insights gained, we can rationalise that lectures are essentially long talks where the teacher-educator passes on knowledge to the student-teachers in a one-way interaction pattern, i.e. one speaks the others listen. This implies that the addressees may not participate actively in the session. This could be translated into little learning taking place, or at least few chances for the development of experiential knowledge.

Having said so, we now move to the other well-established mode of teaching in teacher education.

1.5.2.2. The group mode

Sometimes referred to as experiential teaching or learning, the group mode rests upon 2 basic assumptions: (1) ‘people learn more by doing things themselves’, (2) learners are intelligent, fully-functioning humans (Scrivener, *op.cit.*).

The group mode is interactive in nature, affording learners opportunities for experiencing the ‘thing’ themselves, and it involves many smaller modes. Table 2 below summarises a few of them.

Table 2. Common teaching and learning activities in the group mode

Activity	Description
Brainstorming	A group activity in which participants are encouraged to generate many ideas.
Buzz groups	Groups of students have a brief discussion, generate ideas, answer questions, etc.
Case study	A group of activities that uses data generated by a real case or professional situation.

Cross-over groups	A form of group activity in which the class is divided into groups which have a discussion. After sometime, one or more members of each group move over and join one of the other groups. So, two students from group A might join group B, two from group B might join group C, and so on. In this way ideas from different groups are shared without the need for a feedback session.
Distance learning	Students can have access to learning materials even when they are remote from where they are.
Feedback session	A class activity in which various students or groups report back to the class on what they have been researching or discussing. Or the teacher does the same.
Field study	A task-based activity where phenomena are studied at first hand.
Game	A simulation which involves elaborate rules and decisions about who has been successful and who has not.
Gapped lecture	A lecture that is interspersed with other types of activities.
Guided reading	Students read specific articles or sections of books with a particular purpose in mind.
Informal lecture	A type of lecture delivered informally. Thus, the audience can interact with the lecturer.
Lecturette	A shorter than usual lecture given by individual students to the other members of the class, to share information and demonstrate presentational skills.
Open learning	Students have access to learning material at times convenient to themselves, in order to complete a programme of study.
Project	A task-based activity involving an extended amount of independent work, either by an individual student or by a group of students.
Pyramid group	A group activity in which the class is divided into groups. After some time, pairs of groups are joined together and continue the discussion. This procedure is repeated

	until there is only one group, comprising the whole class.
Self-help group	Students work together in groups to help one another.
Seminar	Here participants have to contribute something to the discussion, usually in the form of prepared paper talk.
Socratic technique	A form of teaching by question and answer gradually leading to the elicitation of certain truths.
workshop	A group activity that involves the completion of a certain task. All the members of the group must contribute with something for the completion of the task.
Jigsaw learning	A form of teaching or learning in which different students cover different areas of a topic; they later pool their knowledge (e.g. by means of seminar papers)

(Adapted from Wallace, 1991: 45)

It can be seen from table 2 that the group mode entails a wide range of activities which can be understood in terms of four types of organisation. The first concerns *seminars and tutorials*, in which the main concern is to get trainees discuss presentations, topics from previous lessons. The second, *cross-group activities*, pertains the division of the class in small groups which after sharing ideas, individual members move to other group, compare and discuss answers then return to their previous group. Clearly, in this activity students will have to actively take part in the session by collecting points of view and making suggestions. The third, *workshops and practical sessions*, the focus is on the accomplishment of very practical tasks which have immediate feasible outcomes. Here, the student-teacher is led to the so-called (a) 'heuristic of discovery' (Bruner, 1965: 618 in Wallace, *ibid.*) by gaining insights on how to solve practical problems, then (b) to the expository approach, where the trainees apply the acquired know-how to the analysis of given problems. In the fourth, the primary aim is to make activities more real through the use of *simulations, case studies, and games* (Wallace, *passim*)

In table 2, we summarised but a few of the many teaching and learning activities available for both the trainer and the trainees in interactive teaching. It is fairly obvious to claim that there exists an array of many more activities. What we described are some of the most commonly used activities in the preparation of teachers.

The group mode has several good aspects categorised under variety and flexibility, feedback, and reflection (Wallace, 1991: 37).

Variety and flexibility

Considering the number of activities in table 2, variety becomes a major asset of the group mode. The activities could be used flexibly to address a number of teaching and learning purposes, different learning styles, many learning needs, among other aspects.

Feedback

The group mode can offer two kinds of feedback. First to the tutor, he/she will be aware of the extent to which the material taught is fine-tuned to the required level. Finally, to the trainees, who may benefit from the less formal contexts of acquiring information and have a clearer understanding and stronger grasp of the knowledge imparted by the educator.

Reflection

Variety, flexibility, and feedback allow for a greater deal of reflection in terms of a) deep processing, comprising the development of comprehensive ideas about the underpinning propositions of the new knowledge, and b) active processing, appertaining the relation of recently acquired knowledge with previous ones.

Notwithstanding these positive aspects, Wallace (*ibid.*: 41) sustains that the group mode has two main problems. First of all, considering the nature of the interactive activities, the group mode may be time consuming. Another concern is that for the audience the session may not have any feasible aim. As a result, some trainees may develop doubts as to whether learning is really taking place.

Heretofore, we have discussed the lecture and the group mode. Having done that, our attention is directed to the activities and procedures comprised in teacher training methods.

1.5.3. Teacher training activities and procedures

It is worth reminding us that our approach to teacher training procedures has been following the approach-method-technique rationale. Thus, we have placed teacher training models at the level of approach and training modes as compared to methods. The current section will focus on the technique level by describing training activities and procedures.

1.5.3.1. Overview of teacher training practices

Following on the RM, training practices are divided into experiential and received knowledge grounds. This second focus has sometimes been described as awareness-raising component of SLTE. As previously discussed, experiential practice involves teaching practice, which can be real teaching, or simulated one. Awareness-raising practices, on the other hand, focus on the development of trainees' understanding of teaching principles, methods, and classroom techniques. In practice, this may happen through training activities and training procedures. The former entails ELT materials exploited by trainers in the training sessions. Training activities comprise specific tasks student-teachers are expected to perform. These tasks are based on data, constituting the raw material of the activities. Thus, training activities are viewed in relation to the different ways data are made available and the

various types of tasks trainees are required to perform using those data. The latter has to do with teacher training modes encompassing the training activities. Here, the trainer needs to ponder on suitable procedures for the effective exploitation of different training activities (Ellis, 1986: 92). Figure two outlines teacher training practices.

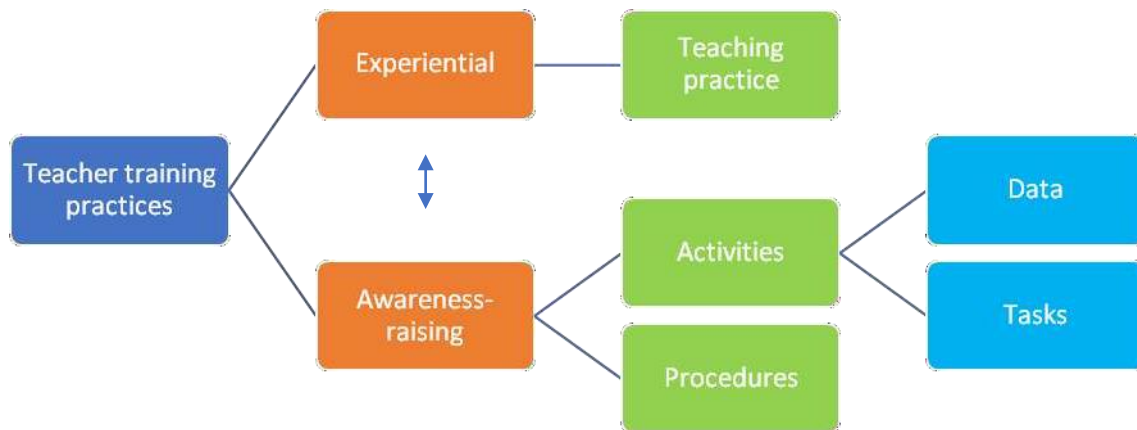


Figure 6. Outline of teacher training practices (adapted from Ellis, *ibid.*: 93).

1.5.3.2. Teacher training activities

Grounded on the above, an approach to the description of training activities would include two strands: how to provide data, and training tasks.

Data can be afforded through the use of an array of sources. First of all, as samples of real teaching, video or audio recordings can be interesting sources of data. The relevance of the use of video in teacher training can be captured by the following rhetorical questions: ‘what better way to orient novices to the richness and complexity of good teaching than to capture it on tape and analyse it in detail? What better way for experienced teachers to improve their teaching than to analyse videotapes of themselves in action?’ (Brophy, 2003: ix). Data can also come from lesson transcripts, classroom teaching, peer teaching, micro-teaching, readings, ELT textbook materials, lesson plans and outlines, etc. (Ellis, *op.cit.*).

With reference to training tasks, a substantial number could be listed. However, considering the reflective training model, the list offered by Ellis (*passim*) would suffice to illustrate the kinds of reflective tasks student-teachers can be asked to perform:

1. Comparing e.g. ‘Look at the two lessons plans provided and decide which one you prefer and why’.
2. Preparing e.g. ‘Prepare a marking scheme that you could use to correct the attached sample of students’ written work’.
3. Evaluating e.g. ‘After watching the video extract, evaluate the effectiveness of the teacher’s treatment of oral errors, using the criteria supplied’.
4. Improving e.g. ‘Read the case study of a reading programme, paying particular attention to the author’s own evaluation. What suggestions can you make for improving the programme?’

5. Adapting e.g. 'Adapt the following language exercise in order to introduce an information gap'.
6. Listing e.g. 'Look through the transcript of the lesson provided and make a list of all the different kinds of errors the students make'.
7. Selecting e.g. 'Now that you have listed all the different kinds of errors in the transcript, decide which errors you would choose to correct if you were the teacher and say why'.
8. Ranking e.g. 'Look through the language-teaching materials attached and then rank them according to how "communicative" you think they are'.
9. Adding/completing e.g. 'Read through the article, listing the principles for the teaching of reading. Are there any additional principles you would like to add?'
10. Rearranging e.g. 'Look at the video recording of a teacher organizing group work. Make a list of the different steps the teacher follows. What changes to the order of these steps would you recommend?' (Ellis, *passim*).

As mentioned previously, trainers should give primacy to the type of tasks that enable trainees to reflect in, on, and for action. Moreover, training actions should be directed at attaining modern-day training objectives, such as getting teachers-in-training to understand, solve problems, analyse, create, among other aims.

1.5.3.3. Teacher training procedures

Having decided on the training activities (the data and the tasks), it is crucial to select the most appropriate means to carry them out. Apart from the procedures described in the group mode, Ellis (1986: 95) suggests the use of demonstrations, elicitation, plenary discussion, panel discussion, among others as teacher training procedures.

In brief, it is important to mention that teacher training activities for awareness-raising should be composed by data and tasks, and that teacher-trainers can make use of workshops, lectures, discussions, etc. to show trainees how English should be taught. All this should be anchored on the reflective model.

As a summary of teacher preparation procedures, we described and discussed four main training models. It was pertinent the insight that gave prominence to the RM as today's preferred way of teaching the content knowledge base needed to for trainees to become effective language teachers because in it theory and practice are taken into account in a balanced way. We also discussed modes of teacher education. In a few words, we have dealt with two major methods of professional teacher education. The outstanding points uncovered, helped us comprehend that the lecture mode is a way of teaching especially relevant to inform a vast audience. However, the lack of feedback diminishes its importance in helping trainees apply knowledge and reflect upon it. The second mode of teaching, characterised by the application of a number of methods, is more promising with regard to addressing multiple teaching and learning purposes, and fulfilling the aspects of the teacher training process (acquisition, reflection, application, and evaluation). Our last focus was on training activities and procedures compatible with the RM.

With the knowledge of what to include in our training programme (CLT), how to train teachers (through the RM), we will discuss in our last section how we could design and administer a teacher training course.

1.6. SLTE course design

We have been following the premise that *the what* to train precedes the *how to* train, and this is followed by *the how and why* to design and organise a SLTE course. In the current section, we will describe and analyse the following aspects: approaches to course design (hereafter CD), steps of the design process, aims and objectives, principles, course outline, methodology, and evaluation.

1.6.1. Approaches to course design

This section will discuss two main philosophies and principles underlying particular sets of CD practices. This will comprise the product-based approach and the process-oriented style. We will end by establishing our own view on CD.

1.6.1.1. The product-based approach

In the foundation of the product-based approach (hereafter PBA) rests the argument levelled against customary organisation, selection, choice of knowledge content, and pedagogic experience and process often associated with curriculum/syllabus design. Rather, its proponents advocate the focus on more feasible and demonstrable outcomes identified in students' performance. Thus, the PBA could be seen as a technocratic model of education set to accommodate CD ideas fit for an industrial era where emphasis is given on students' needs. As such, in the PBA, course designers list required outcomes for specific subjects (in other words, palpable abilities and behaviours) to conform to the expectations of expert-committees, and professional consultation, all this for accountability purposes of the process. The criticism against the PBA is centred on the view that it presents a narrow view of the curriculum since valuable teaching content, experiential knowledge, learner backgrounds, and pedagogical procedures are excluded (Woods and Weir, 2010: 364).

Furthermore, on a par with the teaching and learning process, most of the operations in CD happen at the competence level. The danger of giving too much emphasis on directly observable behaviours for CD is that important thought processes that underlie performance may be excluded. In fact, as far as the preparation of language teachers is concerned, much of the training process occurs by changing student-teachers' attitudes, and views about language learning and teaching. These are essentially mental processes. Therefore, we believe that for an effective exploitation of the PBA for TE

course design, it should comprise a theoretical basis underscoring the expected visible and demonstrable outcomes envisaged in the approach.

1.6.1.2. The process-oriented approach

The process-oriented approach (hereafter POA) is based on the cognitive development views treating CD from an educational experiences and processes developmental standpoint. Accordingly, emphasis is given to the processes students engage in when they handle particular knowledge areas associated with a specific subject and content. In effect, the POA, contrary to the one described previously, does not concentrate on particular skills and contents curriculum and instruction are expected to foster. Instead, it stresses on the progressive experience of active construction of new knowledge. However, according to PBA supporters, this approach fails to provide convincing description of outcomes assessment criteria. Moreover, claims are made that the POA does not entail cultural traditions, contents, and official texts and knowledge (Woods and Weir, *ibid.*).

Although we are not against the focus on the design process, we believe that effective CD for language student-teachers would be both product and process oriented. In fact, as we see it, the PBA and POA are not necessarily mutually exclusive owing to the fact that they can complement each other. Thus, CD would focus on visible and demonstrable outcomes, and the processes that lead to the desired products.

Our own approach to CD is anchored on the perspective that any activity related to the preparation of language curriculum or teaching and learning materials falls within the continuum of the design of a course (cf. Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 130). In our understanding, grounded on the theoretical aspects discussed up to this point, English TE course design can be taken to be the process of establishing criteria and content for a student-teachers' audience, through the analysis of their lacks, their wishes and wants, and mapping them to available content and required methodology. In other words, when designing a course, we start from the analysis of what the audience knows, and what they need to learn; establish the aims and the content, and the teaching modes that can help achieve the goals.

1.6.2. Steps of the design process

As with most processes, CD involves a number of phases. We will describe design procedures common to most training courses.

1.6.2.1. Fact-finding stage

It is mostly accepted that the planning of professional activities begins with a clear statement of the reasons underscoring it. The rationale, the backbone of the course, entailing aspects ranging from the

type of the course, the resources, target population, admission requirements, need for the course (cf. Dubin and Olshtain, 1986: 5; Nation, 2000: 1), among others constitutes a logical starting point for course designers.

Type of course

As mentioned earlier, within the information gathered at the fact-finding stage, we can find the kind of course. There are many types of courses within the field of teacher training. However, our aim is not to provide a full description of most of them. This decision was taken grounded on the fact that for our current objectives only two are relevant: pre-service and in-service training.

- **Pre-service CD**

Muzaffar (2011: 4 -10) puts forward eight key principles in designing effective pre-service programmes. The first principle relates to the belief that coherence in designing training programmes can be achieved through a shared vision. In his point of view, a coherent pre-service course should entail an alignment of policies with local needs. So, teacher training programme design should be grounded on the course appropriacy to the context of the country. This will influence the training course structure, the length, trainers' qualifications, trainees' prerequisites, and roles and responsibilities of stakeholders.

The second principle stresses the importance of eliminating fragmentation in the teacher education system. This tenet is based on the idea that teacher training courses should not be isolated from the broader educational system. Thus, course designers should seek to align teacher education programmes with the different aspects of the educational system, such as policies and stakeholders.

The third principle appertains to the perspective that effective pre-service teacher training programmes should be tailored to professional standards for teachers. This means that when designing teacher preparation courses, we should state first what trainees are expected to be knowledgeable about before they are certified.

The fourth principle deals with the inclusion of a practicum component in teacher education programmes. It will be stated the obvious that training programmes include opportunities for student teachers to acquire experiential knowledge. Here, they have the chance of applying what has been learned so that trainees have an authentic experience that facilitates deep reflection.

The fifth principle gives emphasis to the need of training programmes maintaining strong linkages with local schools. Considering that both training institutes and neighbouring schools can benefit from teacher training programmes, the training process calls for the existence of meaningful partnerships between them.

The sixth principle stresses the importance of existence of sufficient infrastructure and resources in the implementation of effective pre-service teacher education programmes. It is clear that

without appropriate infrastructure and sufficient resources, training courses may not attain their intended impact on language learning communities, which is to train the most effective teachers for local schools.

The seventh principle focuses on the need to establish a relationship between professional development of teacher educators and programme development and implementation. It is all too clear that teacher educators need to be well-trained in order to be able to implement effective pre-service training programmes.

The last principle highlights the importance of developing professional learning communities. Professional learning communities ('teachers and/or teacher educators from different institutions working collaboratively together to enhance their own learning and that of pre-service teachers' (Muzaffar *et al.*, 2011:1)) can have a positive impact on the training of teachers since it functions as a safe haven for beginner teachers to resort to when they have professional problems and if they require guidance in carrying out specific teaching tasks.

- **In-service CD**

Starting from the idea of in-service training as part of trained teachers' professional development routine, and that this type of training should possess a specific purpose, it becomes logical that the first step in in-service training programme design is to identify the needs of the participants. Here, the needs of the teachers could be identified through needs analysis. This could entail the most problematic areas (for example, the implementation and use of a new language teaching method). An instance of this could be taken from the Angolan context where teachers face problems using CLT. The inability of teachers to use a prescribed teaching method could constitute an in-service training need.

Only on well justified grounds would one expect to find a training programme with no clear objectives. Logically, objectives will be based on the training needs. If we take the example on the previous paragraph, we could say that the objectives of the course could be to afford teachers opportunities to practice the new teaching method in a controlled and supervised teaching context with guidance and feedback from more experienced teachers.

Having defined the objectives, we need to focus on the content. The content should be tailored around the two previous stages (needs, and objectives) since to cater for the teachers' needs and to attain the objectives of the course, we use content, i.e. answering the question *what could be taught to deal with the needs of the teachers and to achieve the objectives of the course?*

Having decided on the *what* to teach, we need to focus on the *how* to teach (see 1.5.3.3.).

The next stage is to implement the course. This phase should be carried out taking into account the previous one. That is say, once the designer has identified the participants' needs, he/she determines

the objectives, plans the content to be imparted, chooses the method of presentation, and puts the course into operation.

After the application of a training course, we need to evaluate it. Weir and Robert (1994:4 quoting Brown, 1989) apply the concept of programme evaluation to the 'systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitude within a context of particular institutions involved'. In other words, designers need to find out the extent to which the course was relevant to both the context and participants' needs.

The final stage, as proposed by Richards and Schmidt (*op.cit.*) deals with the provision of follow-up assistance. The results of the evaluation process could be used to identify areas for further training and change or modify somehow the course to fit similar future audiences.

Resources

There should be a relation between the course type and resources required for it. Thus, designers should decide on the entitlement of resources by considering the ratio of trainees per tutor, the number of sessions a tutor normally teaches and relating it to the demands of the course and the number of hours available (cf. Dubin and Olshtain, *op.cit.*: 32; Wallace, 1991: 142),

Target population

Only on grounds that a general course is justified should a designer consider a broad audience for a course. In most cases, however, course designers will have to make decisions regarding the kind of people the course is intended for. The course may be designed to capture pre-service trainees, to attract in-service teachers, a refresher course for teachers, etc. (cf. Wallace, *ibid.*).

Admission requirements

The course designer must specify the minimum academic professional qualifications expected from those being enrolled for the course. This is important because we have to make sure that those enrolled in the course are able to handle the demands of the training programme (cf. Wallace, *loc.cit.*).

Need for the course

In order to cater for the trainees' needs, the trainer has to ponder on the evidence that those needs really exist. These can range from the existence of public policy statements, to relation to some major programme of innovation or reform (Wallace, *passim*). At this stage, it might also be pertinent to consider Hutchinson and Waters' (1987: 55) practical division of learners' needs into necessities (what the learner has to know to function effectively), lacks (what the learner knows and does not know already), and wants (what the learners think they need).

1.6.2.2. Stage two: aims and objectives

Having established the rationale of the course, the next step is to determine its aims and objectives. Thus, this stage 'requires translating societal needs and expectations into operational and attainable goals' (Dubin and Olshtain, *op.cit.*: 24).

1.6.2.3. Stage three: principles

The designer must also reflect on the guiding principles of the course. These should be broad in scope and bear relation to the general nature of the qualities that the course should possess. The principles should be complementary to the course aims and objectives (Wallace, *op.cit.*: 146; cf. Nation, *op.cit.*: 6).

1.6.2.4. Stage four: course outline

The next phase of the design process is to establish the major strands of the course in terms of the number of sessions, their sequence, main focus, among other aspects (Waters, 1988: 14). The course outline represents the syllabus of the training programme – 'the framework for a course of study listing the contents of the course' (Harmer, 1984: 19).

1.6.2.5. Stage five: methodology

At this stage decisions regarding the training model and modes must be taken. According to Wallace (*passim*), the stage serves two functions. The first entails conveying both received and experiential knowledge. The second concerns providing student-teachers with examples of good teaching practice. To achieve these functions, the educator must engage in different teaching modes.

1.6.2.6. Stage six: evaluation

The quality of the course could be assessed by the trainees, the trainers, or other sources. What should be considered is the extent to which the goals and objectives of the course were achieved (cf. Nation, *op.cit.*: 10).

To end our section 1.6, we can say that in designing a teacher training course we should start by (1) establishing its rationale, (2) ponder on aims and objectives, (3) think about the main principles that will underlie the programme, (4) decide on the teaching content, (5) choose appropriate training model and modes of teaching, and (6) establish evaluation criteria.

We have come to the end of our first chapter. Here, we discussed what we believe are the most relevant aspects relating to our theoretical basis. Our first concern was to clarify the conceptual

background encircling LTE. We came to uncover the definition of LTE as encompassing the holistic process of professional initiation and development of skilled teachers. Applied to ESL and EFL contexts, LTE is refined to SLTE, which began in 1960s with the integration of SLL with TE. After that, we discussed what is involved in SLTE. We came to a close of the scope of SLTE as entailing three main dimensions (content, process, and evaluation) embodied in language teacher training, and language teacher development. The former describes a context in which student-teachers acquire entry-level teaching skills, such as lesson planning, classroom management, teaching the four language skills, etc. through a pre-service teacher education programme. The latter is usually a teacher-initiated process resulting from introspective reflection on practice directed at teachers' general growth. In our review of literature, we also explored in-service teacher education as a way of teacher development. The third focus of the chapter was on the knowledge needed for trainees to become effective language teachers. Grounded on Shulman's categories of teacher knowledge base, we established that SL teachers ought to be acquainted with five types of knowledge: content knowledge, general pedagogic knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, complementary SLL theoretical knowledge, and curriculum knowledge. This was based on the assumptions that, first of all, anyone set to teach a language must be a competent user of that language. Secondly, it is imperative to know about pedagogical principles of teaching in general. Thirdly, language teachers should know methodological precepts of language teaching. Fourthly, it is critical that SL teachers are familiar with SLL theories. Finally, teachers should be acquainted with legal matters involving language teaching. The SLTE knowledge base discussed was fine-tuned as to embrace the content of the proposed in-service training programme aimed at the solution of our research problem. As such, we embarked on exhaustive discussion of CLT as the PCK required to function as effective teachers in our context of research. In our debate, it was pertinent the conclusion that CLT is fundamentally an arrangement of language learning and teaching principles addressing different aspects of the teaching and learning process aimed at the teaching of CC by utilising specific syllabi, activities, and materials. With this knowledge in mind, we went deeper as to explore communicative-based vocabulary and grammar teaching, lesson planning, and classroom management. This constituted the content for the in-service training course. The next emphasis of our work was on the methodology to teach the *what*. It comprised SLTE models, modes, and activities and procedures. It should be recalled that we favoured the reflective model owing to the view that our main concern has been on enabling trainees to acquire knowledge in a reflective way, and for them to be able to utilise the new insights in the solution of practical issues, and to evaluate and reflect on their actions as effective practitioners after the training course. The last section dealt with the how and why to design a SLTE course. We discovered that we should start by describing the type of course, the resources available for the course, the target

population, the admission requirements, and the need for the course. This should be followed by the statement of the aims and objectives, the principles, the teaching content, the training model and modes of teaching, and finally the evaluation criteria. This theoretical base supported our primary research, which is described in the methodology chapter.

CHAPTER TWO: METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, we explored and discussed issues related to the theoretical base of the thesis, namely definition and genesis of SLTE, what is entailed in SLTE, what teachers should be familiar with to function as effective professionals, teacher preparation procedures, and SLTE course design. These aspects have offered us back up floor for approaching our research problem. In the current chapter, we will describe how we undertook the study by focussing on two aspects: description of the study (including research design, research method, population and sampling method, data collection instruments (questionnaire, pre-test, training, post-test, and observation, and ethical considerations), and the results.

It should be recalled that our investigation was built around ten interrelated objectives set within the context of Huambo – Angola:

1. To discover the main theoretical framework with respect to language learning and teaching in Angola.
2. To explore SLTE in respect of its conceptual background.
3. To describe the scope of SLTE.
4. To discuss models of the knowledge base of SLTE.
5. To explore Communicative Language Teaching as the pedagogical content knowledge for the in-service training course aimed at the solution of our research problem.
6. To discuss SLTE models, modes, and activities.
7. To identify aspects of in-service SLTE course design.
8. To examine the teaching practice of Secondary School English teachers in Huambo.
9. To design and administer an in-service training course for the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo.
10. To evaluate progress after the training project through post-test and observation of lessons.

Objective one was accomplished in the introduction. It was found out that in Angola the aim of ELT is to help learners acquire CC through CLT (which is a holistic approach to language teaching focusing on the teaching of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), and the three language systems (grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary). Having established the official methodological ground, objectives two, three, four, five, six, and seven were addressed in the literature review.

An important aspect of this investigation relates to objectives eight, nine, and ten: the chance to analyse how non-trained teachers in Huambo teach English with a view of helping them improve their practice.

The above objectives were meant to take our research a step further through the collection and analysis of empirical data obtained from unqualified teachers in Huambo's Secondary School level. Importantly, although the focus of the empirical work was to gather data to direct the centrality of the training programme, data was also collected and analysed to inspect the success or failure of the in-service course.

It should be remembered that the problem under investigation was that *most Secondary School English language teachers in Huambo were not trained (i.e., were not qualified) to teach English.*

To approach such problem, we sought answers to the research question of *what type of training course and content can we use to equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills within a communicative methodology?*

And for which we proposed the following hypotheses:

- *H1. The in-service teacher-training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills. Thus, their knowledge of English language teaching methodology will be upgraded, and their teaching practice quality will improve.*
- *H0. The in-service teacher-training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will not cause significant changes in the teaching quality of the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo.*

2.1. Description of the study

The study took place from January to August 2018. It involved first designing and submitting a questionnaire (see section 2.1.4.1.). This was followed by the design and administration of a pre-test (see section 2.1.4.2.). After that, we administered the training programme (see section 2.1.4.3.). Having done that, we administered a post-test (see section 2.1.4.4.), which was followed by lesson observation (see section 2.1.4.5.).

2.1.1. Research method

Our research method was essentially Action Research (AR). Burns (1999: 24) depicts AR as directed to practical and immediate issues affecting particular communities. In her view, AR is undertaken in natural settings using qualitative research methods, such as participant observation. Similarly, Stringer (2007: 1) maintains that AR entails an organised investigation allowing professionals to arrive at solutions of basic concerns of their work. Moreover, Ferrance (2000: 1) understands AR as a process of reflection on one's own teaching practice with the intent of improving it. In a few words, AR can be

viewed as a teacher-initiated procedure resulting from reflection-on-action, which aims to tackle daily practical teaching problems.

According to Nunan (1992: 17), AR has three defining characteristics. It has practitioners (e.g., teachers), it is a collaborative process, and aims at changing things. In fact, AR is usually a group activity in which a teacher investigates problems in his/her classroom involving others. This is aimed at enlarging one's perceptions and changing the phenomenon under investigation.

Nevertheless, there are exceptions to the above features. AR must not necessarily be collaborative nor compulsorily concerned with change. In fact, Nunan (*ibid.*: 18) mentions the fact that not all teachers, for example, are willing to work with others when exploring processes of teaching and learning in their classrooms. Moreover, according to him a descriptive case study of a given classroom, a group of learners, or even a single learner could be seen as AR if it begins with a question, is supported by data and interpretation, is undertaken by a practitioner researching factors of his or her teaching context.

Other characteristics of AR include the following discussed by Winter's (1996: 13–14 in Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 299). First of all, it is a reflexive critique because the researcher becomes aware of biases in his/her performance as a professional. Secondly, AR should be a dialectical critique allowing the practitioner to perceive the links that exist between the various elements of a phenomenon. Thirdly, investigators come to understand the effects of what they take for granted and submit it to critique through a process of risk disturbance. Finally, AR involves the creation of multiple structures of accounts and critiques, as opposed to one authoritative interpretation of phenomena.

Stages of AR

AR tends to follow specific steps highlighting the logic of the process. On table 3, we describe Nunan's (*op.cit.*: 19) AR cycle.

Table 3. Stages of the AR process in ELT

Stages	Description
1. Initiation	A teacher identifies a learning or teaching problem
2. Preliminary investigation	Baseline data is collected through observation
3. Hypotheses	Hypotheses are formed after reviewing the initial data
4. Intervention	Strategies are devised to solve the problem
5. Evaluation	Review of the intervention
6. Dissemination	The results of the investigation are made public through conferences, workshops, etc.
7. Follow-up	Investigation of alternative ways of dealing with the problem researched

Types of AR

Ferrance (2000: 3-6) identifies four types of AR. The first, individual teacher AR, normally concentrates on a single issue in the classroom. Teachers may be seeking for solutions to classrooms problems, such as management, instructional strategies, use of materials, students' learning, etc. In such cases, teachers may require support from supervisors, instructors, or the principal. However, even needing assistance, the problem under investigation is usually evident and can be tackled on an individual basis. This kind of AR has the pitfall of its results not being shared with others unless the researcher decides to in a meeting or organise a formal presentation at a conference, or submit written material to a newsletter. It is also possible that several teachers work concurrently on the same problem without knowing.

Collaborative AR comes next. Here, two or more teachers work together to solve a classroom problem or department issue. The problem under study could involve just one classroom or many. In this type of AR, researchers may look for support from individuals outside the school.

School-wide AR concentrates on a school widespread issue(s). The problems investigated using school-wide AR are therefore general. These could be, for example, looking for a way to involve more parents in school activities, addressing organisational and decision-making structures of a school. In so doing, teams are put together to narrow the question, obtain information, analyse data, and decide on a plan of action.

Finally, district-wide AR is more complex and uses more resources, but it is more rewarding. Issues that can be studied using district-wide AR are organisational, community-based, performance-based, processes for decision-making, etc. affecting several schools. Nonetheless, district-wide AR may require documentation to carry it out, and it may be difficult to keep the process in motion.

Benefits of AR

Ferrance (*ibid.*: 13-15) presents six positives aspects of AR. First of all, AR focuses on a school issue, problem or area of collective interest. As it can be done with students, in a familiar setting, AR confers validity to an organised investigation. Moreover, AR links academic research to the daily life of educators. With AR teachers can show that they are not blindly following what the latest studies suggest, but transforming knowledge into something that makes sense. Secondly, AR is a form of teachers' professional development. By researching and reflecting, teachers grow and gain confidence in their work. AR boosts teachers' thinking skills, and their sense of plausibility; it influences their willingness to share and communicate, and their attitudes towards the process of change. Furthermore, through AR, teachers learn more about themselves, their students, their colleagues, and can determine

ways to continually improve. Thirdly, collegial interactions are also pertinent to AR, as it allows teachers to talk with others about teaching and teaching strategies. Fourthly, AR represents a potential to impact school change. In carrying out AR, teachers look at questions that address school and district interest rather than issues that affect a single teacher. This process creates new forms of collegiality, communication, and sharing. Thereafter, there will be contributions to the body of knowledge about teaching and learning. Fifthly, AR is a good chance for teachers to reflect on practice. Finally, AR may result in improved communications as teamwork can bring individuals together for a shared purpose. Similar benefits of AR are described by Wallace (1998: 4-20).

As the problem we intended to solve affected a number of schools in Huambo, we carried out a districted-wide AR. We began by undertaking a preliminary investigation, where we collected basic data, such as age range, gender, academic qualifications, reasons for teaching English, lesson preparation and delivery, knowledge about CLT, main teaching assumptions, etc. through a questionnaire and pre-test. The main aim of the questionnaire and the pre-test was to determine the subjects' current English Language Teaching knowledge level. With the data in hand, we took a course of action in the form of an in-service training programme. To evaluate this proposed solution, we administered a post-test and observed lessons of the subjects after the training course.

2.1.2. Research design

In order to conduct our AR, we used an essentially qualitative design. This type of research uses non-numerical data from interviews, case studies, and participant observation to approach social phenomena in naturalistic complex settings (Strauss and Corbin, 1990: 17; Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 435). As such, in qualitative research (QR), investigators engage in a process of data organisation through induction in order to identify patterns among the organised data categories (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993: 479). Moreover, in QR, it is assumed that the phenomena to be investigated should be approached in its entirety, reality is taken to be what is seen by the participants, and a priori conclusions tend to be avoided (Wiersma, 1995: 211-212). In essence, QR is conducted in natural settings, where the researcher becomes an instrument of data collection, using inductive analysis to make sense of the data collected and writes a descriptive report on the discovery of the meaning of phenomena experienced directly in the field (cf. Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990; Eisner, 1991, among others).

Qualitative research comprises many methods of investigation (e.g. Case Study, Ethnography, Phenomenology, Grounded Theory, Focus Groups, Historical Research, among many others (Denzin

and Lincoln, 2005; Given, 2008)). Although QR may be valid, it tends to have issues related to reliability (Nunan, 1992:4).

Our research design was qualitative on the grounds that we studied a phenomenon in its natural context, we used research tools that yielded qualitative data, which was subjected to interpretive analysis and discussion.

2.1.3. Population and sampling method

The overall population for our study was composed of as many as 100 Secondary School teachers coming from 10 schools in Huambo.

Considering that the research design was qualitative, we used sampling criteria pertinent to the design and the aim of our work. Thus, given the purpose of the investigation, and the characteristics of the population we intended to work with, a purposive or convenience sampling method was more appropriate. This type of sampling technique has been defined as the one in which the researcher's goal is to 'find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximise what we can learn' (Dörnyei, 2007: 126).

In the present study, considering the limits to the number of respondents we could contact, and the schools we could visit, the procedures of the choice of participants were as follow. First, although the population was rather a big one, it was homogenous (they were all people who had no qualifications to teach English). Therefore, we selected only 15 teachers. Second, taking into account that time was critical for the success of the programme, we chose individuals who committed themselves to working fast and hard. Finally, we designated participants according to their availability. As a result, the sample size was 15 non-trained teachers from different public schools. It should be mentioned that our goal was to involve teachers coming from both private and public institutions. However, we could not convince teachers from the private sector.

2.1.4. Data collection instruments

In order to collect data prior to and after the training, we used a questionnaire, a pre-test, a post-test, and classroom observation sequentially.

2.1.4.1. The questionnaire

In view of the research question aiming at finding out about ways of training unqualified English teachers in Huambo, prior to the training, however, it was required to determine the English Language

Teaching knowledge level of the subjects. This was important because we assumed that despite not being trained, they had some ideas about teaching English. Therefore, knowing those ideas helped us identify key training needs and expectations.

A questionnaire was used because, as stated by Nunan (1992: 143), it facilitates the collection of data in field settings and the information gathered is more amenable to quantification than data coming from, say, interviews. Moreover, considering the number of participants in our study, it would have been difficult to code and interpret the data if we had chosen the use of other research instruments, such as an interview. More importantly, as the data collected were used to compare the teachers' knowledge and teaching practice before the training, and the data from the post-test and lesson observations after the training, the questionnaire became more suitable for the study.

2.1.4.1.1. Description of the questionnaire

The questionnaire comprised 22 questions. Questions one, two, and three were of multiple-choice type and were used to collect socio-demographic data. To obtain ideas of the subjects' experience in teaching, in number four, we utilised a specific open question. We employed the same type of question in five to uncover the reasons why the respondents had been teaching English. We used Likert scales to understand the participants' attitudes toward prominent English as a Foreign Language teaching principles in question six. Question seven, numerical rating scale, was applied to know the extent to which the participants ascribed importance to common techniques used for teaching vocabulary. To find out whether the subjects knew the methodologically advisable logical order in which vocabulary items should be taught, we employed, in question eight, rank order items. In question nine we wanted to discover if the investigated teachers were familiar with other techniques of teaching vocabulary. So, we administered a specific open question. To discover the partakers' underlying ideas about teaching grammar, we used, in question 10, Likert scales. In question 11, to discover if the subjects were aware of the methodologically accepted rational order in which language structures ought to be presented to students, we chose a rank order items type of question. Question 12 was used to find out if the participants gave any importance to lesson planning. We employed a frequency type of question, in 13, to know the frequency with which the respondents planned their lessons. In 14 and 14.1, we used clarification questions to discover whether the participants knew and used lesson planning principles. We used a specific open question to obtain a description of the subjects' lesson plan formats, in question 15. We invested multiple-choice questions to explore the subjects' beliefs regarding subtle techniques used in classroom management that may affect the learning process, to explore the

respondents' views about the importance of paying attention to all students during classes, to unearth the participants' perceptions of logic when giving instructions in class, and to get ideas of whether the members of the studied group were aware of causes of indiscipline, in questions 16, 17, 18, and 19 respectively. Question 20 was of choice and justification type to uncover whether the respondents were familiar with ELT methods. We employed Likert scales to understand the participants' attitudes toward the main principles of CLT, in question 21. Finally, we used an open question to unearth from the participants' feelings of professional self-awareness and evaluation, plus an urge to improve ELT practice (see appendix 1 for the actual questionnaire).

As a summary, the questionnaire was used (1) to obtain a description of the subjects, (2) to know how long they had been teaching English, (3) to understand the way they conducted their lessons (teaching vocabulary and grammar, lesson planning, and classroom management), (4) to uncover their main beliefs about language learning and teaching, (5) to know if they had had any ELT training, (6) to identify areas they needed more training at, among other aspects. In other words, the data from the questionnaire were measured in terms of facts, behaviours, and attitudes (see section 2.2 for the results of the questionnaire).

2.1.4.2. The pre-test

As seen previously, our design was essentially qualitative research. Nevertheless, we used a chiefly quantitative research tool – pre-test. In this section, we are going to justify our choice. Before doing that, however, we shall define the concept behind pre-test.

A pre-test is an assessment administered before learning has occurred (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 409). This is the first of two test administrations intended to measure change overtime (Davies *et al.*, 2002: 151).

Bearing in mind that we aimed at improving non-qualified teachers' knowledge and practice of ELT, the obvious starting point was to establish their knowledge base of it. Furthermore, the pre-test was crucial in battling a problem of qualitative research designs, namely reliability of results. This procedure was also undertaken to ensure that the outcomes of the pre-test could be compared to the ones coming from the other research instruments.

The pre-test contained six questions. The first one was intended to assess the testees' general knowledge about ELT and to analyse the extent to which they knew about general positive qualities ascribed to effective English language teachers. The second was used to know the level of knowledge the participants had regarding procedures on how to teach different types of vocabulary items. The third

aimed at discovering the degree to which the teachers knew about how to teach grammar. The fourth explored the testees' knowledge about lesson planning. The fifth looked at the testees' knowledge about classroom management. The last one was employed to know if the teachers were aware of the Communicative Language Teaching approach (see appendix 2 for the pre-test).

2.1.4.3. The training programme

Following on the other research tools (questionnaire and pre-test) of the investigation, the training course was placed as the independent variable expected to change the participants' teaching practice. The description of the programme will focus on the following aspects: rationale of the course, aims and objectives, principles, outline, methodology, and evaluation. The full description of the modules of the programme can be found in appendix 3.

2.1.4.3.1. Rationale

As seen in chapter one, teacher-training courses can begin with a clear statement of the reasons underscoring them. The rationale, the backbone of the course, entailing aspects ranging from its type, resources, target population, admission requirements, need for the course, among others, constitutes a logical starting point for course designers. This is the primary reason why we start here by presenting the *raison d'être* underpinning the training programme.

2.1.4.3.1.1. Type of course

There are many types of courses within the field of teacher training. However, each type of course is tailored around a given audience, objectives, and other relevant factors. For our objectives and audience, an in-service programme was more appropriate since it took the form of 'experiences which are provided for teachers who are already teaching...' (Richards and Schmidt, *op.cit.*: 416). This applied to our audience of people who, though not being formally trained in teaching English, had been undertaking this highly specialised professional activity.

2.1.4.3.1.2. Resources

The training had only one trainer and 15 trainees. We used the school where the researcher works (ISCED-Huambo). It has appropriate physical training conditions and materials (books, internet, visual aids, etc.).

2.1.4.3.1.3. Target population

The course was designed to attract in-service teachers who wanted to improve their professional competence by participating in our investigation.

2.1.4.3.1.4. Admission requirements

No special requirement was needed to take part in the course, other than being a Secondary School non-qualified English teacher.

2.1.4.3.1.5. Need for the course

The main need of the course was to test our main hypothesis, answer the research question, and in the process improve the ELT practice of the population of the study.

2.1.4.3.2. Aims and objectives

The training course pursued the following aims:

- To develop in the trainees an understanding of the principles of language teaching based on current theories on English language teaching.
- To impart knowledge of Communicative Language Teaching to the trainees.

Objectives

- To make trainees knowledgeable with the characteristics of effective language teachers.
- To train them on how to teach vocabulary and grammar, how to design language lesson plans, and how to manage language classrooms based on CLT.
- To introduce some traditional language teaching methods to the trainees.
- To introduce CLT to the trainees.
-

2.1.4.3.3. Principles

The basic principles relating to the overall design of the course were based on Wallace (1991: 147).

They entailed the following:

- The course design was grounded on its importance to the educational and professional needs and wants of the target population, and to the community for which they work.
- The course was intended to be generally educative with respect to the participants' personal and intellectual development.

- The course was intended to create a sense of autonomy by allowing more independence of action during and after it.

2.1.4.3.4. Course outline

Week	Unit	Aims	Contents	Number of Lessons	Teaching Mode
1	Introduction	To introduce the course. To establish ground rules for classroom behaviour.	Presentation of the training programme General considerations	1 double	Informal interaction
2	Good language teachers	To introduce general positive qualities ascribed to effective English Language teachers.	The Teacher as a Person The Teacher as the Organiser and Guide of the Instruction.	1 double	Cross-over groups; Full class discussion
3	Presenting Vocabulary	To familiarise trainees with techniques to present and practise new vocabulary items successfully.	Showing the meaning of words. Giving examples. Using a new word. Active and passive vocabulary.	1 double	Informal lecture; Trainer demonstration
4	Presenting New Structures	To make sure that teachers what structures are, and how they can be used to make a number of different sentences. To show teachers ways of showing the meaning of new structures and their form.	Structures and examples. What needs to be presented: form, meaning pronunciation. Ways of showing meaning Stages of presenting a structure	1 double	Lecture mode Group discussions Guided reading Trainer demonstrations
5	Practising New Structures	To show teachers how to move presenting structures to practicing them. To make teachers aware of the difference between mechanical and m practice. To show teachers ways of organising controlled oral practice in class. To show teachers how to use real and imaginary situations for practice.	Substitution drills Mechanical and meaning practice, Controlled Practise Freer Practise; Checking	1 double	Seminar
6	Lesson Planning	To raise trainees' awareness on the reasons and principles of planning, and help them	Reasons for Planning Principles of Planning What Teachers Should Know Before Planning Contents of a Language	1 double	Lecture mode Guided reading Group discussions

		understand the importance of producing a workable and clear lesson plan;	Lesson Plan Some Formats of a Language Lesson Plan		
7	Classroom Management	To consider different aspects of management to ensure the success of the teaching and of the tasks/activities which are used in class	Roles of the teacher and role of the learner Use of eye contact, gesture voice Classroom arrangement Attention spread Giving instructions and setting activities; Maintaining discipline	1 double	Informal lecture Gapped lecture Group work activities
8	Traditional EFL Teaching methods	To impart knowledge about some traditional language teaching methods	Principles and techniques of: The Grammar Translation Method The Direct Method The Audio-Lingual Method The Silent Way	1 double	Formal lecture Guided reading Video session
9	CLT	To impart knowledge about CLT	Definition of CLT Origin Principles Communicative activities	1 double	Formal lecture Jigsaw learning Guided reading Video session Full class discussion

It should be clarified that the outline above was our initial plan. However, contextual factors such as time constraints, the ELT knowledge level of trainees, their availability, among others compelled us to tailor the training programme thereof. Thus, the course was reduced to six intensive training weeks. Nevertheless, we managed to impart all the initially planned contents.

2.1.4.3.5. Methodology

The methodology proposed for the course was based on the dual function nature of teacher education suggested by Wallace (1991: 156). Thus, trainees were informed and taught in terms of received knowledge and experiential knowledge, and were provided with exemplification of good teaching practice. For this to happen, as can be seen in the course outline above, we planned and used a variety of teaching modes. These included: lectures, jigsaw learning, guided reading, video sessions, seminars, workshops, practical work, etc.

2.1.4.3.6. Evaluation

The success or failure of the course was measured against the results it fostered: a positive change in the trainees teaching practice or not. That is to say, through the post-test results, and the observed lessons taught after the course we were able to draw valid and reliable conclusions.

2.1.4.4. Post-test

A post-test is an assessment administered after learning has occurred (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:409). This is the second of two test administrations intended to measure change overtime (Davies *et al.*, 2002: 151).

In order to measure the extent to which the trainees grasped what was imparted during the training course we designed and administered a post-test. It was used:

1. To analyse the extent to which the testees grasped the knowledge about general positive qualities ascribed to effective English Language teachers presented and discussed in the training.
2. To assess the degree to which the participants learned about how to teach different types of vocabulary items.
3. To know the level to which the teachers internalised the techniques for teaching grammar presented and discussed in the training.
4. To know if the teachers learned how to move from presenting structures to practicing them.
5. To discover the extent to which the testees' learned about lesson planning.
6. To know if learners understood basic classroom management techniques.
7. To discover how much the trainees grasped about CLT.

The post-test is provided in appendix 4.

2.1.4.5. Lesson observation

For the purpose of comparing the subjects' previous teaching knowledge with the one acquired during the training, due to time constraints, we observed one lesson of every participant in the study. This aimed at finding out the extent to which the course was successful.

The observation focused on the following aspects:

1. Teacher preparation

- Lesson plan

2. Presentation of vocabulary

- Use of visual aids
- Use of examples to teach meaning
- Order and sequence of techniques
- Use of Gestures and miming
- Use of realia

3. Presentation of Grammar

- Order and sequence of techniques
- Use of visual techniques
- Use of examples
- Use of meaningful practice techniques

4. Classroom management

- Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language
- Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity
- Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time
- Teacher encouragement of full student interaction
- How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas
- Dealing with discipline

5. Communicative language teaching

- Balance and variety of activities
- Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)
- Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)
- The teacher's roles

Each category had a ranking system of not satisfactory, average, and above average. Appendix 5 provides the lesson observation chart and assessment criteria for each rank.

2.1.5. Ethical considerations

As stated by Miles and Huberman (1994: 288) 'any qualitative researcher who is not asleep ponders on moral and ethical questions'. As social investigation encompasses people's lives, ethical considerations are of primary concern (Dörnyei, 2007: 63; Hofstee, 2006: 118). In this section, we will address the kind of ethical issues that could have damaged the impact of our study, namely researcher integrity,

protection from harm and achieving an equitable cost-benefit balance, privacy and data storage, and consent.

Researcher integrity

Researcher integrity embodies the investigator's commitment to intellectual honesty and personal responsibility. In other words, the researcher's reliability and accountability to the field of research form the moral backbone of the investigation (Dörnyei, *ibid.*: 66). Therefore, we ascertained that our study was honest, reliable, and legal.

Protection from harm and achieving an equitable cost-benefit balance

Dörnyei (*loc.cit.*) states that researchers must make conscious efforts to avoid harming the participants both physically and mentally. According to him, investigations should not only prevent harm the participants, but they should benefit from it in some way. Our study did not cause any physical injury to its participants because they were not asked to perform physical tasks. Moreover, to prevent any psychological damage, we explained to them that their jobs were not at risk, and that the research was intended to help them become better ELT practitioners.

Privacy and data storage

When conducting qualitative research, it is highly advised that the respondents' privacy is respected. Thus, the participants may decide whether to answer questions or not, and even to withdraw from the study entirely. Moreover, they have the right to remain anonymous (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005: 102; Dörnyei, *passim*). The data collected and used in the study followed strictly what was established in the consent form.

Informed consent

It is generally agreed that it is important to inform the participants about the goals of the study, as well as what the data collected will be used for. Secondly, they must know the tasks and activities they will be performing during the study. Thirdly, the subjects should be made aware of any risks and consequences of taking part in the study. Fourthly, they should know the degree of confidentiality their answers will receive. Finally, they need to know that they have the right of withdrawing from the study at any point of it (Leedy and Ormrod, *op.cit.*). See appendix 6 for the consent form used in the present study.

In summary, as the main aim of the research was to train unqualified English teachers, we used a qualitative action research, whereby we carried out a training programme based on trainees' needs uncovered through the use of a questionnaire and a pre-test. Its success or failure was measured

through a post-test and lesson observation. Figure 7 provides a clearer picture of the research methodology.

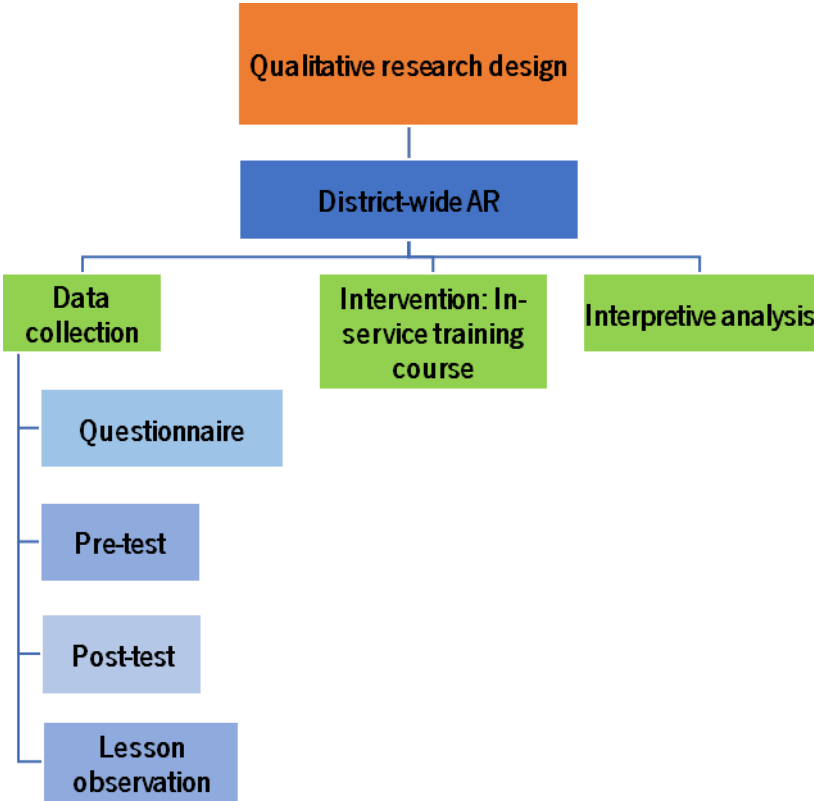


Figure 7. Research methodology.

Having described the methodology used to conduct the investigation, below we present the results obtained through the application of the research instruments.

2.2. Results

In the current section, our goal is to present the results obtained through the application of the research tools, namely the questionnaire, the pre-test, the post-test, and the direct observation of lessons.

2.2.1. The questionnaire

As seen in the previous section, in order to establish the ELT knowledge level of the participants to the study, we used a questionnaire. It was composed of 22 questions. The data collected are summarised below through tables, graphs, and charts.

2.2.1.1. Description of the subjects

The first group of the questionnaire contained questions aimed at discovering the trainees' age range, gender, academic qualification, specialisation (i.e., area of previous training), years of service, and the reason why they taught English.

With the exception to the last item, all the other variables are displayed on table 4. Thus, it entails questions one, two, three, 3.1, and four.

Table 4. Description of the subjects

Subjects	Age Range	Gender	Academic Qualification	Specialisation	Years of Service
S1	41-50	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Psychology	10
S2	51 and older	Male	Licentiate	Agronomy	10
S3	31-40	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Geography	14
S4	41-50	Male	Bachelor	Teaching Psychology	10
S5	31-40	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Psychology	10
S6	41-50	Male	Bachelor	Philosophy	9
S7	31-40	Female	Bachelor	Teaching Psychology	6
S8	31-40	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Psychology	2
S9	31-40	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Psychology	14
S10	41-50	Male	Bachelor	Teaching Mathematics	15
S11	20-30	Female	Licentiate	Teaching Psychology	5
S12	41-50	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Biology	13
S13	41-50	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Biology	10
S14	31-40	Male	Licentiate	Teaching Psychology	15
S15	31-40	Male	Bachelor	Geology	3
Summary					
		Percentage			
Subjects		15	100%		
Age Range	20-30	1	6.667%		
	31-40	7	46.667%		
	41-50	6	40%		
	51 and older	1	6.667%		
Gender	Female	2	13.33%		
	Male	13	86.667%		
Academic	Bachelor	5	33.33%		

Qualification	Licentiate	10	66.667%
Specialisation	Teaching Psychology	8	53.33%
	Geology	1	6.667%
	Teaching Mathematics	1	6.667%
	Teaching Geography	1	6.667%
	Philosophy	1	6.667%
	Teaching Biology	2	13.33%
	Agronomy	1	6.667%

Table 4 shows that the vast majority of the participants fell under the age range of 31-40. In fact, this amounts to 46.667%. Another interesting fact, regarding age, is that one of the partakers was over 50 years old. This is curious because at such age, it would not be long before he retires. Nevertheless, the teacher showed willingness to be included in our study to improve his teaching practice.

With regard to gender, unfortunately, only two female teachers came to aid us in the search for the solution to our research problem. This could be ascribed to the phenomenon of scarce female English teachers in the context of the investigation. That was the reason underscoring the overwhelming number of male teachers in the sample size. In point fact, we had 86.667% male respondents.

As far as academic qualification is concerned, more than half of the respondents had a degree of some sort. This number accounts for 66.667% of the subjects. The remainder possessed only Bachelor level of education. However, this is acceptable in the Angolan educational system.

As for the areas of previous training, we found out that the great majority of the teachers under study had had a Teaching Psychology training course. The evidence portrayed on table 4 shows that the mentioned course was undertaken by 53.33% of the subjects. The other significant course done by the teachers was Teaching Biology. In fact, this accounts for 13.33% of the respondents.

Table 4 is also critical in showing the amount of teaching time each of the investigated teachers had devoted his/her time imparting knowledge of the English language. We can see that two respondents had been teaching English for 15 years, and another for 14 years. These represent the people with the highest number of years of service.

We can also grasp from table 4 that one of the subjects had just started teaching English. The fact is that he had taught English only for two years. This was the least experienced teacher in our investigation.

Surprisingly, we should point out here that our oldest respondent was not one of the most experienced teachers in the study.

In brief, the bigger number of our sample size was within the age range of 31-40, male teachers constituted 86.667% of the participants, and most of them had a degree in Teaching Psychology (53.33%).

With the above insights in mind, below we present the participants' main drive for teaching English.

2.2.1.1.1. Motivation for teaching English

As mentioned previously, to unearth the drive for teaching English, we asked the members of the study a specific open question of '*Why do you teach English?*' The answers are quoted below on table 5.

Table 5. Reasons for teaching English

Subject	Reason
S1	'I teach English because I like English language'
S2	'I want to know more about English.'
S3	'I love it'.
S4	'I teach English because I can'.
S5	'I like it'.
S6	'I like it'.
S7	'I like this language'.
S8	'My school's direction proposed me the option, and I accepted because English is like a second language for me'.
S9	'It is my favourite subject'.
S10	'Because of few teachers in the province, and I love this language'.
S11	'I like it'.
S12	'I like English'.
S13	'Due to my background in English language'.
S14	'Because English is important to communicate facially with a big company in world, and I like to teach English'.
S15	'I love English and I like teaching'.

Despite the strong qualitative nature of the data above, table 5 sets forth a clear tendency of '*I like English*' as the subjects' most frequent answer. As a matter of fact, five teachers answered so. This number corresponds to 33.33%.

Question five marks the end of the first group of the questionnaire. We continue with the presentation of the results of the questionnaire by focusing on the subjects' general ELT knowledge.

2.2.1.2. General ELT knowledge

As stated in the description of the questionnaire, for the purpose of obtaining an enlightened idea about the participants' attitudes and opinions regarding defining EFL teaching principles, a Likert scale was employed. The results are revealed below on table 6. These findings constitute the answers to the sixth

question of the questionnaire (*How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately*)

Table 6. Attitudes and opinions regarding defining Foreign Language teaching principles

Principle	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.	2	13.33%	0	0%	2	13.33%	7	46.667%	4	26.667%
It is important to always reward students.	0	0%	1	6.667%	5	33.33%	5	33.33%	4	26.667%
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.	0	0%	3	20%	0	0%	8	53.33%	4	26.667%
Risk-taking promotes language learning.	0	0%	10	66.667%	3	20%	2	13.33%	0	0%
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.	1	6.667%	3	20%	0	0%	9	60%	1	6.667%
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.	0	0%	1	6.667%	1	6.667%	9	60%	4	26.667%
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.	2	13.33%	1	6.667%	0	0%	10	66.667%	2	13.33%

S- Subjects

In the design process of the above Likert scale table, we considered a range of numerical values from 1-5. Here, we have 1 – strongly disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 – neither agree nor disagree, 4 – agree, and 5 – strongly agree. These values were multiplied by the number of respondents and divided by the total number of subjects (cf. Dörnyei, 2007: 105). Thus, the results are as follows:

Principle 1 – 3.73. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 2 – 3.8. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 3 – 3.86. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 4 – 2.46. Disagree.

Principle 5 – 3.2. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 6 – 3.06. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 7 – 3.6. Neither agree nor disagree.

However, considering the strong qualitative nature of the investigation, it becomes crucial to provide a description that best suits our design.

Table 6 portrays seven leading ELT principles which the investigated teachers had to express their opinions about by agreeing or disagreeing to some level, or select a neutral stance. From it, we can understand that more than half of the participants agreed with the last principle (language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence). The fact is that this number aggregates 66.667% of the sample size. An equal number of respondents disagreed with the fourth principle (risk-taking promotes language learning). Other bigger figures on the table include the 60% of the subjects who agreed with the fifth and sixth principles (whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting. Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language).

From table 6, we can also identify some extreme opinions. For example, while 26.667% of the respondents strongly agreed with the first three principles and the sixth (1. the younger the better to learn a foreign language; 2. it is important to always reward students; 3. intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning; and 6. students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language), 13.33% strongly disagreed with the first and last tenets.

Having described the subjects' general ELT knowledge base, our focus is aimed at the way they approached the teaching of vocabulary.

2.2.1.3. Teaching vocabulary

As stated earlier in the description of the questionnaire, we used a numerical rating scale question to understand the extent to which the participants viewed as important common techniques for teaching vocabulary. The answers to question seven are presented below on figure 8.

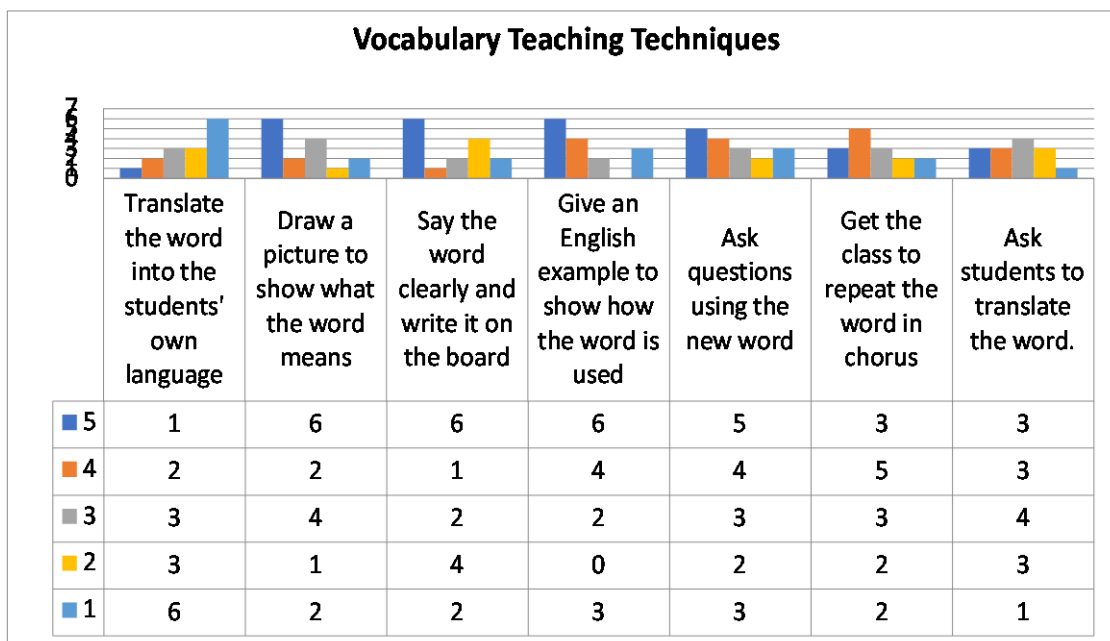


Figure 8. Importance of vocabulary teaching techniques.

Figure 8 shows how important some vocabulary teaching techniques are for the audience. As we can perceive in the instruction to the question (*how important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)*), we had a rating system of 5-1. These values were multiplied by the number of respondents and divided by the total number of subjects (cf. Dörnyei, *ibid.*). The result is the following sequence in order of importance:

- 1- Translate the word into the students' own language.
- 2- Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
- 3- Draw a picture to show what the word means.
- 4- Ask students to translate the word.
- 5- Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
- 6- Ask questions using the new word.
- 7- Give an English example to show how the word is used.

2.2.1.3.1. Logical order in teaching vocabulary

It should be recalled that for the sake of finding out the extent to which the subjects were aware of the methodologically advisable logic order to present vocabulary, we used a rank order items question. The results are summarised below.

Table 7. Common sequence for teaching vocabulary

Technique	Order													
	1st		2nd		3rd		4th		5th		6th		7th	
	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%
Translate the word into the students' own language	5	33.33%	3	20%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	6.667%	6	40%
Draw a picture to show what the word means	4	26.667%	4	26.667%	1	6.667%	0	0%	0	0%	2	13.333%	4	26.667%
Say the word clearly and write it on the board	4	26.667%	1	6.667%	1	66.667%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus	1	6.667%	5	33.333%	1	6.667%	6	40%	1	6.667%	1	6.667%	0	0%
Ask students to translate the word	0	0%	0	0%	1	6.667%	1	6.667%	1	66.667%	2	13.333%	1	6.667%
Give an English example to show how the word is used	1	6.667%	0	0%	2	13.333%	6	40%	1	6.667%	5	33.333%	0	0%
Ask questions using the new word	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	2	13.333%	3	20%	4	26.667%	6	40%

Table 7 depicts seven interconnected techniques for presenting vocabulary items. From it, it can be understood that for most of the respondents, when teaching vocabulary, the first technique to use was to translate the word into the students' own language. In fact, this amounts to 33.33% of the total number of the participants. An equal percentage of the subjects put the technique of getting the class to repeat the word in chorus in the second place. Table 7 also shows that a big number of the teachers under investigation favoured saying the word clearly and writing it on the board as the third technique when presenting vocabulary items. This number was as high as ten participants, and it corresponds to 66.667% of the total number of the teachers. In the fourth place, the table displays two techniques with the same value. We can see that both getting the class to repeat the word in chorus, and giving an

English example to show how the word is used had the same number of respondents. In fact, 40% of the subjects placed them as the fourth techniques to consider when teaching vocabulary. Asking students to translate the word is displayed on table 7 as the fifth procedure for teaching vocabulary. The fact is that 66.667% of the total number of respondents believed so. In the sixth position, we have on the table under description the technique of giving an English example to show how the word is used. The number of teachers who selected the technique for the sixth place was of five, and it represents 33.33% of the partakers. For the last techniques to be used when presenting vocabulary, table 7 demonstrates that 40% of the subjects would have both asking questions using the new word, and translating the word into the students' own language.

As a summary, we can say that the following was the most communal order displayed on table 7:

- 1st - Translate the word into the students' own language.
- 2nd - Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
- 3rd - Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
- 4th - Give an English example to show how the word is used/ Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
- 5th - Ask students to translate the word.
- 6th - Give an English example to show how the word is used.
- 7th - Ask questions using the new word /Translate the word into the students' own language

2.2.1.3.2. Other techniques for teaching vocabulary

We administered a specific open question to learn if the investigated teachers were acquainted with other techniques for teaching vocabulary. The results to the ninth question are exhibited below on table 8.

Table 8. Alternative techniques for teaching vocabulary

Subject	Other techniques
S1	'Ask students to write lists of words'
S2	'Students to read texts in English'
S3	'Showing real objects, using audio, using dictionary'.
S4	'Using the same techniques and words for all school, use pictures, plan together all school, etc.'
S5	'Mime, pictures, etc.'
S6	'Ask individual students to repeat the sentence, ask the class to copy the sentence, give other situations and examples.'
S7	'To get students in parks, shops, school, in tourist place and speaking only English'
S8	'create pair groups for train the new words use, search the internet and in voice computer programs the spelling and the accent of different English's countries, etc.'
S9	'Audio and video in the classroom to improve the listening and good comprehension'
S10	'To send a homework to solve in the classroom, to draw and write words, to listen to the music and some film (watching film) at home.'
S11	'English songs'
S12	'Pictures and photographs '
S13	'Watch the news on BBC'
S14	'mix techniques'
S15	'ask students to get used on reading books, magazines, newspapers, listening to music, watching movies, etc.'

As expected, the rich nature of qualitative data makes it challenging to establish common patterns in the subjects' responses. Nevertheless, as far as teaching vocabulary is concerned, we can observe that the use of visual aids and gestures could be a natural tendency for most of the participants.

Heretofore, we have described the way the subjects approached the teaching of vocabulary items. In the next section, we are going to look at the teaching of grammar.

2.2.1.4. Teaching grammar

One of the objectives of the questionnaire was to discover the participants' underlying opinions about teaching grammar. To that effect, we used question 10. We exhibit on figure 9 the results.

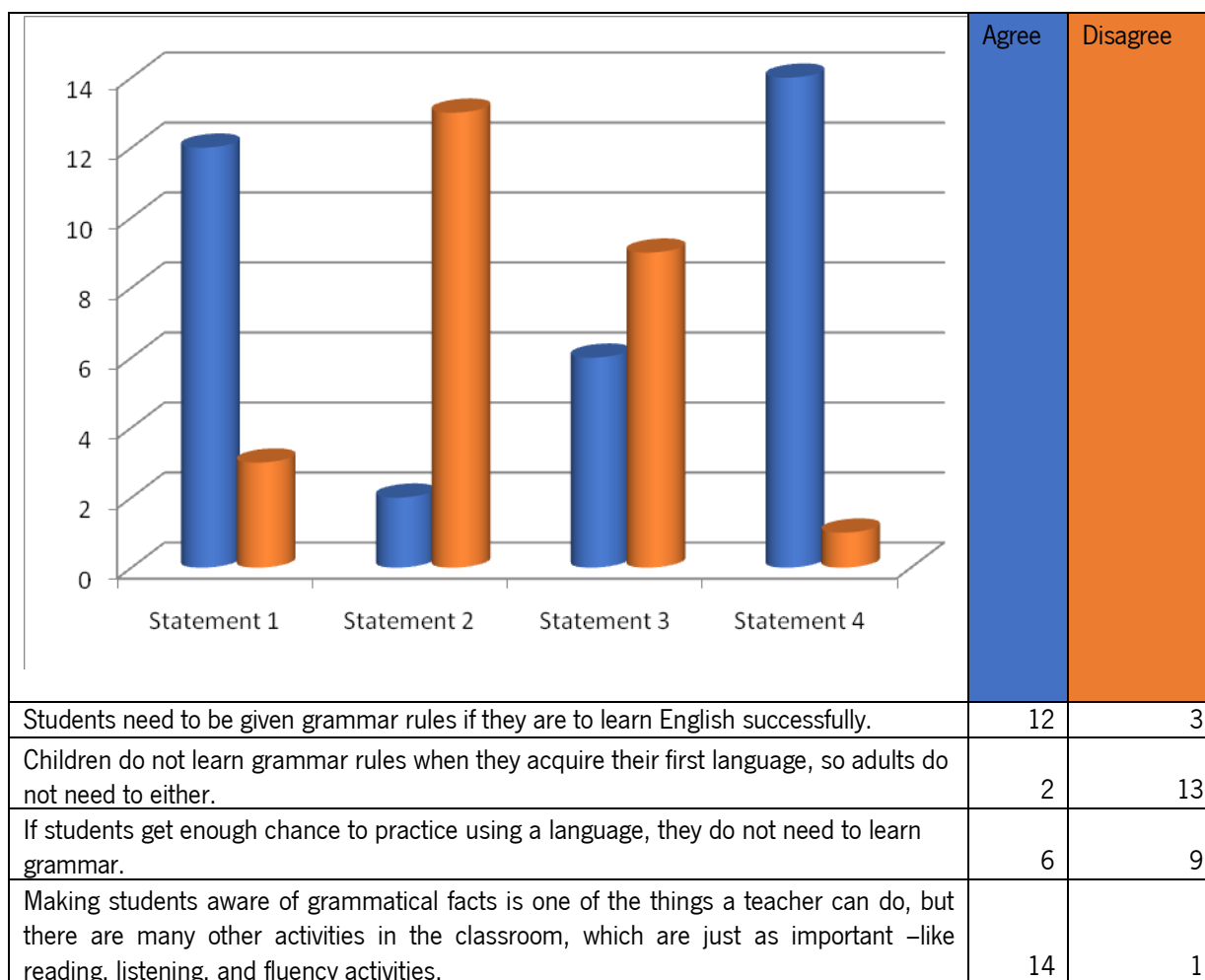


Figure 9. Opinions about teaching grammar.

The graph provides highly polarised views as to the place of grammar in language teaching. While 12 subjects thought that overt grammar teaching was important for successful language learning, only three disagreed. In contrast, only two respondents agreed with covert grammar teaching for adults. Another relevant fact depicted on figure 9 was that almost all respondents (14 subjects) accepted that grammar should not be taught in isolation but it should encompass the four language skills.

2.2.1.4.1. Logical order in teaching grammar

Through a rank order items question, we aimed at the discovery of the extent to which the subjects were aware of the methodologically recognised rational order in which language structures should be introduced to the students. We show below the data collected through the application of question 11.

Table 9. Common sequence for introducing language structures

Techniques	Order													
	1st		2nd		3 rd		4th		5th		6th		7 th	
	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%
Write the sentence on the board.	6	40%	2	13.33%	2	13.33%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	5	33.33%
Draw pictures and give examples.	5	33.33%	5	33.33%	0	0%	1	6.667%	1	6.667%	3	20%	0	0%
Give a model and get the class to repeat.	1	6.667%	5	33.33%	3	20%	2	13.33%	2	13.33%	2	13.33%	0	0%
Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.	0	0%	0	0%	8	53.33%	3	20%	2	13.33%	2	13.33%	0	0%
Give other situations and examples.	1	6.667%	0	0%	0	0%	4	26.667%	5	33.33%	2	13.33%	3	20%
Explain how the structure is formed.	1	6.667%	3	20%	0	0%	4	26.667%	4	26.667%	3	20%	0	0%
Ask the class to copy the sentence.	1	6.667%	0	0%	1	6.667%	0	0%	1	6.667%	4	26.667%	8	53.33%

On table 9, we have portrayed seven methodologically valid sequential techniques for teaching grammar. It shows that for most of the inquired teachers, when teaching a new language structure, we should begin by writing the sentence on the board. The number of respondents who shared this viewpoint was up to 40% of the total figure of the subjects. An equal number of participants to the study (five teachers, which corresponds to 33.33%) selected both drawing pictures and giving examples, and giving a model and getting the class to repeat as possible second steps when introducing new grammatical aspects. More than half of the teachers investigated opted asking individual students to repeat the sentence as the third phase in teaching grammatical items. Giving other situations and

examples, and explaining how the structure is formed should come in the fourth place, according to 26.667% of the sample size. Thirty-three percent of the teachers studied felt that giving other situations and examples should be the fifth technique in introducing new structures. For the sixth procedure (ask the class to copy the sentence), the bigger number of the respondents was four, and it amounts to 26.667%. Interestingly enough, this same procedure was chosen as the last one by 53.33% of the subjects.

In brief, table 9 displays the following as the most communal order of organising the teaching of language structures:

1. Write the sentence on the board.
2. Draw pictures and give examples/give a model and get the class to repeat.
3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
4. Give other situations and examples/explain how the structure is formed.
5. Give other situations and examples.
6. Ask the class to copy the sentence.
7. Ask the class to copy the sentence.

2.2.1.5. Lesson planning

As stated in the description of the questionnaire, in order to understand the importance ascribed to lesson planning by the subjects of the study, we used an open question. The answers to question 12 are quoted on the impending table.

Table 10. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Subject	Answer
S1	'Teacher plan lessons because the lesson plan is a way for successfully teaching'
S2	'We make this because we have to organise our lessons and be ready for any situation in the classroom as we know that we should be flexible during a lesson. That's why we should plan our lessons'
S3	'Because lesson plan is a guide of the lesson; give us general information about the students, time and place, level, aims, different activities in the class, methods, materials, in short facilitates the teacher's work'
S4	'To plan lessons is very important in education. Teacher without plan can't give good lessons'
S5	'They should plan their lessons to feel more safe and be aware with all the methods'
S6	'Teachers should plan their lesson in order to teach well. When we don't plan, we plan our death'.
S7	'Because help me how to teach and avoid mistakes in the classroom'.
S8	'It is important'

S9	'teachers should plan their lessons because without plan it is not possible to teach any subject, the plan is the key of teaching'
----	--

S10	'to follow in a good ways the teaching process'
S11	'planning is a key piece to achieve any professional goals, therefore, if a teacher want to achieve his goals must plan'
S12	'everything you do must be planned first so that you can't make mistakes that's why a teacher or those who call them teacher must plan the lesson to have good result in the process of teaching'
S13	'to better give lesson'
S14	'Because one of the most important reasons to plan the teacher needs to identify his or her aims for the lesson. Teachers need to know what it is they want their students to be able to do at the end'
S15	'teachers must plan their lessons to teach correctly and to give the students what is needed, on the other hand to avoid getting lost during the class'

Despite the diversity of the answers above, table 10 proves that all the participants acknowledged the importance of planning lessons. For some, planning represented designing a guide to follow; for others, teaching without planning was not advisable.

2.2.1.5.1. Frequency of lesson planning

We asked the teachers under study the frequency of their planning activities. The results to question 13 are displayed in the coming chart.

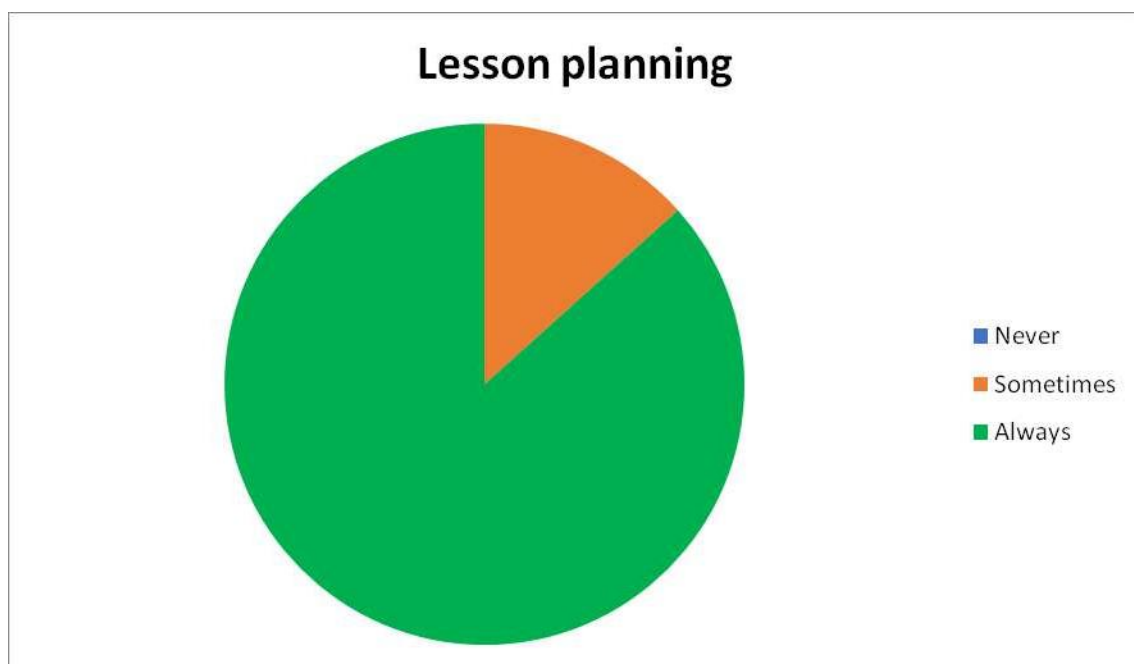


Figure 10. Frequency of lesson planning.

From the above pie chart, we can realise that the great majority of the respondents assumed to always planning their lessons. In fact, 13 teachers, which corresponds to 86.667% of the total sample size, said so. None of them admitted to never planning their lessons.

2.2.1.5.2. Knowledge of planning principles

Question 14, of a clarification nature, was used to discover if the participants used lesson planning principles.

Table 11. Teachers' use of planning principles

Yes		No		No answer	
Subjects	Percentage	Subjects	Percentage	Subjects	Percentage
13	86.667%	1	6.667%	1	6.667%

Table 11 portrays the number of teachers who claimed to use planning principles. It shows that most of the inquired (86.667%) claimed to use lesson plan principles.

2.2.1.5.2.1. Planning principles

As a follow up question, we asked the participants to list the principles they knew. The answers to question 14.1 are presented on the forthcoming table.

Table 12. Lesson planning principles

Subject	Answer
S1	Did not answer the question
S2	'Yes I have to consider their ages in class'
S3	'aims, coherence, variety and flexibility'
S4	'introduce the subject, objective, and reason of the subject'
S5	'I must have the PPP'
S6	Did not answer the question
S7	Did not answer the question
S8	'warm up, presentation, practice, production, homework'
S9	Did not answer the question
S10	'conclusion and generalization'
S11	'direct method, audiolingual method, communicative approach'
S12	'warm up, presentation, practice, production, homework'
S13	Did not answer the question
S14	'grade, time, date, recent work, previous related lesson, material'
S15	Did not answer the question

As seen in the answers to the previous question, almost all respondents assumed that they knew and used planning principles. Surprisingly, 40% of them did not answer question 14.1 about listing principles of lesson planning, and the remainder provided rather peculiar answers.

2.2.1.5.3. Plan structure

The requirement for answering question 15 was to have provided positive replays to question 14 and 14.1. The answers are provided below on table 13.

Table 13. Lesson plan structures

Subject	Answer
S1	Did not answer the question
S2	'1. Lead in 2. Presentation 3. Controlled Practice 4. Freer Practice 5. Homework, and I should do have always a board work'
S3	'Normally I follow the WIPPEA format (warm up, introduction, presentation, practice, evaluation, and application) developed by Hunter (2002)'
S4	'1-Introduction 2- Development 3- Conclusion'
S5	'PPP'
S6	Did not answer the question
S7	'Call a student, organize the classroom, summary, homework'
S8	'Topic, structure, vocabulary, school, date, time, materials aim'
S9	Did not answer the question
S10	Did not answer the question
S11	'learning, vocabulary, speaking'
S12	Subject, lesson ner, topic, grade, time, date, outcomes, materials, structure, vocabulary, warm up, presentation, practice, production and homework'
S13	Subject, topic, aim, structure, vocabulary, material, date, school, grade, time, period, classroom.
S14	'Topic: Teacher's aims →personal aims, aims to improve Materials: Lead in to show students what the lesson will be Presentation: vocabulary, form – word Structure – meaning and form Product Freer practice'
S15	1 lesson ner, 2 Subject, 3 Unity, 4 summary, 5 general aim, 6 specific aim, 7 period, 8 grad, 9 date, 10 duration (time), 11 school name. This last point usually is the first one'

Table 13 demonstrates how qualitative data can be diverging. It displays uneven answers about the respondents' ideas of how a language lesson should be conducted. While some had clear knowledge of a language lesson format, others seemed not to have any clue.

Our description of results is extended below to address the subjects' ideas regarding classroom management.

2.2.1.6. Classroom management

It should be recalled that a multiple-choice question was employed to explore the subjects' beliefs regarding subtle techniques used in classroom management that may affect the learning process. The results to question 16 (*do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process?*) are presented on table 14.

Table 14. Classroom management techniques

Techniques	Yes		No		No answer	
	Subjects	Percentage	Subjects	Percentage	Subjects	Percentage
The use of eye contact.	7	46.667%	8	53.33%	0	0%
The use of gestures.	12	80%	3	20%	0	0%
The use of the voice.	14	93.33%	0	0%	1	6.667%

More than 50% of the respondents did not believe that the use of eye contact could exert an influence on the learning process. However, almost all the participants (93.33%) thought the use of the voice was important in the learning process.

2.2.1.6.1. Is it important to pay attention to all the students?

To explore the subjects' beliefs about the importance of paying attention to all the students during classes, we asked them the above question. We display next the outcomes.

Table 15. Attitudes about paying attention to all the students

Yes		No	
Subjects	Percentage	Subjects	Percentage
14	93.33%	1	6.667%

The overwhelming majority of the respondents believed that teachers should pay attention to all the students. This number accounts for 93.33% of the participants.

2.2.1.6.1.1.

Justification

As a follow up question, we asked the partakers to justify their choices. Table 16 exhibits the answers.

Table 16. Reasons for paying attention to all the students in class

Subject	Answer
S1	Did not justify
S2	Did not justify
S3	'Because the teacher is the facilitator between knowledge and students, also because of individual difference the teacher is obliged to know all the students. They have the same right.'
S4	'The teacher should always pay attention to students'.
S5	'It's important to see what the students are doing'.
S6	'The teacher takes responsibility of the class'.
S7	'To know well the students if they are learning well English'.
S8	'All the students in the classroom have a different capacity of learning. Some learn faster, other learn slow'.
S9	Did not justify
S10	'To pay attention is the way to all students learn very well'
S11	Did not justify
S12	'Because all of them want to learn and each and every one is special and at the end will get good result'.
S13	'Because classes are too full'.
S14	Did not justify
S15	'It is important because it motivates others to be interested in the learning process as well'.

As expected, the teachers had individual but converging views about why we should focus on all the students in class. Apart from the five teachers who did not answer the question, all the others, in their own perspectives, acknowledged the significance of paying attention to all the students in class.

2.2.1.6.2. Giving instructions

To uncover the respondents' understanding of logic when giving instructions in class, we used a multiple-choice question whose results are provided below.

Table 17. How should teachers give instructions in class?

Options	Subjects	Percentage
a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding	9	60%
b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct	0	0%
c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate	0	0%
d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding	6	40%

The table shows that more than half of the respondents believed that we should first demonstrate, then instruct, and finally check students' understanding. In point of fact, 60% of the participants selected option a. The remaining 40% chose option d.

2.2.1.6.3. Causes of discipline problems

We used a specific open question to obtain ideas of whether the respondents knew the causes of indiscipline in the classroom. We present below the results on table 18.

Table 18. Main causes of indiscipline in the classroom

Causes	Subjects	Percentage
1. The teacher		
a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering	7	46.667%
b. Unprepared	2	13.33%
c. Inconsistent	2	13.33%
d. Unfair	1	6.667%
e. Breaks the code	1	6.667%
2. The Students		
a. Too many to control	4	26.667%
b. Time of the day	1	6.667%
c. Attitude	6	40%
d. Two's company		
3. The institution		
a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)	4	26.667%
b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems	4	26.667%
4. All the above	5	33.33%

Table 18 shows three major causes of discipline problems in the classroom. We can see that a number close to half of the respondents understood that the teacher being too lenient / tolerant, and letting the students behave badly without interfering were the chief reasons for misbehaviour in the classroom. In fact, seven subjects, corresponding to 46.667% of the total number of the respondents, selected such option. Another significant figure refers to the 40% of the teachers who qualified students' attitude as a central source of indiscipline in the classroom.

With the above insights, we have reached the last section of the results of the questionnaire.

2.2.1.7. Awareness of English language teaching methods

As described in the preceding section, a multiple-choice question was employed to find out about whether the teachers were familiar with English language teaching methods. Table 19 presents the data collected through the application of question 20.

Table 19. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods?

Yes		No		No answer	
Subjects	Percentage	Subjects	Percentage	Subjects	Percentage
9	60%	5	33.33%	1	6.667%

From the table we can see that more than half of the respondents (60%) claimed to have known about ELT methods. The remainder did not know about them or did not answer the question.

2.2.1.7.1. ELT methods

To confirm the answers the subjects gave for question 20, we asked them to list the methods they knew.

Table 20. Methods that the teachers knew

Subject	Answer
S1	Did not answer the question
S2	'1. Lead in 2. Presentation 3. Control practice 4. Freer practice 5. Homework 6. To have a board work'.
S3	'Methods, and culture, bargains, post method and context – sensitivity and making choice'.
S4	Did not answer the question
S5	'All of them'
S6	Did not answer the question
S7	Did not answer the question
S8	'Method of explanation, method of partial search, exploration'
S9	Did not answer the question
S10	'Listen, writing, oral form'
S11	'Grammar translation method, audio-lingual method'
S12	'Explain,'
S13	Did not answer the question
S14	Did not answer the question
S15	'1- Reading 2- Listening 3- Audio – Visual 4 – Images'

On a par with other qualitative data, table 20 displays peculiar replays to question 20.1. However, two subjects provided interesting answers. One mentioned the Grammar Translation Method, and the Audio-Lingual one, and the other listed explanation, partial search, and exploration.

2.2.1.7.2. Communicative language teaching

As stated in the description of the questionnaire, to understand the partakers' attitudes toward the main principles of CLT, we used Likert scales. So, the answers to the question '*how far do you agree with the following teaching principles?*' are provided below on table 21.

Table 21. Attitudes and opinions regarding main CLT principles

Principles	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.	2	13.33%	7	46.667%	1	6.667%	4	26.667%	1	6.667%
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.	1	6.667%	1	6.667%	0	0%	10	66.667%	3	20%
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.	0	0%	1	6.667%	4	26.667%	7	46.667%	3	20%
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.	1	6.667%	0	0%	3	20%	8	53.33%	3	20%
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.	1	6.667%	5	33.33%	4	26.667%	2	13.33%	3	20%
The teacher should be a facilitator.	2	13.33%	0	0%	4	26.667%	3	20%	6	40%
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.	1	6.667%	1	6.667%	2	13.33%	8	53.33%	3	20%
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.	2	13.33%	0	0%	6	40%	4	26.667%	3	20%
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps	1	6.667%	1	6.667%	3	20%	7	46.667%	3	20%

language learning.										
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.	3	20%	7	46.667%	3	20%	1	6.667%	1	6.667%

Similar to the other Likert scale tables, we designed a range of numerical values from 1-5. Thus, we have 1 – strongly disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 – neither agree nor disagree, 4 – agree, and 5 – strongly agree. These values were multiplied by the number of respondents and divided by the total number of subjects. The results are as follows:

Principle 1 – 2.667. Disagree

Principle 2 – 3.8. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 3 – 3.8. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 4 – 3.8. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 5 – 3.73. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 6 – 3.73. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 7- 3.73. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 8 – 3.4. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 9 – 3.667. Neither agree nor disagree.

Principle 10 – 2.33. Disagree.

Table 21 portrays key CLT principles contrasted with two well-known Grammar Translation teaching views. From it, we can see that the highest percentage of the participants (66.667%) agreed with the second principle (learning activities should have a communicative purpose). Eight teachers, which accounts for 53.33% of the respondents, agreed with the fourth tenet (purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning). The principle of *'students' feelings should be taken into consideration'* was agreed by an equal number of respondents. Seven subjects (46.667% of the respondents) disagreed with the first principle (the teacher should be the only authority in the classroom). In contrast, the table under description, shows no extreme values, i.e. it does not portray high values regarding the categories of strongly disagree, and strongly agree.

2.2.1.7.3.

Self-evaluation

The last question of the questionnaire was an open one and was used to understand the extent to which the participants had professional self-awareness and willing to improve their ELT practice. The coming table displays the answers to question 22.

Table 22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

Subject	Answer
S1	Did not answer the question
S2	'How to motivate students'
S3	'Using more techniques, audio-visual class, materials, classroom with normal conditions for the majority of lesson types'
S4	'I need ... to study more English, I need to study at ISCED to know more about English because I like it very much, but I have not how to enter, I need you to help me'
S5	'I need to practice more all the techniques'
S6	'I need to improve my teaching methods'
S7	'The grammar and audio visual'
S8	'I need to improve my methods and means of teaching English in order to give the best teaching to my students'
S9	'I need to improve the listening in my teaching'
S10	'To get more vocabulary, to get some stories, talking in English to motivate them. I've some difficulty to motivate them. Some briefing how to teach a simple and clear planning. And few plans, but good ways for teaching'
S11	'Listening'
S12	Did not answer the question
S13	'I would have more methods'
S14	Did not answer the question
S15	'interaction with students, more materials, more effort by the students'

Table 22 is a revealing one in respect of showing how concerned the investigated teachers were to ameliorate the way they taught English. Although the answers vary from subject to subject, the use of visual aids, the knowledge of teaching language skills, and knowing language teaching methods outstood from their answers.

As a summary of the results from the application of the questionnaire, a number of critical aspects should be recalled. First of all, with respect to the subjects' description, we discovered that most of them were male teachers who fell within the age range of 31-40, and had had a degree in Teaching Psychology. Secondly, the findings showed that a significant number of the participants taught English simply because they liked it. Thirdly, regarding the respondents' attitudes and opinions concerning defining Foreign Language teaching principles, we found out that the audience neither agreed nor disagreed with them. Fourthly, as far as teaching vocabulary is concerned, the outcomes of the instrument disclosed that the investigated teachers would prefer approaching it by first translating the word into the students' own language, then saying the word clearly and writing it on the board, followed by drawing a picture to show what the word means, asking students to translate the word, getting the class to repeat the word in chorus, asking questions using the new word, and giving an English example to show how the word is used. Fifthly, about teaching grammar, the vast majority of the subjects thought that it should be done overtly. Sixthly, with regard to lesson planning, almost all the

participants knew its importance and claimed that it should always be done. Moreover, we unearthed that a significant percentage of the teachers used planning principles. However, they were not able to list them, neither describe the structures or models they used to plan their lessons. Seventhly, as for classroom management techniques, a great number of subjects believed that the use of the voice and paying attention to all the students was important in the learning process. Finally, concerning CLT principles, the results showed that most of the participants neither agreed nor disagreed with them.

Our next focus will be on the presentation of the outcomes of the pre and post-tests.

2.2.2. Results of the pre-test and the post-test

It should be recollected that in the current investigation, we aimed at testing the extent to which our independent variable, the training programme for unqualified English teachers in Huambo, would help to improve the methodological base of the studied population. As mentioned in the description of the tools of the investigation, we carried out a pre-test (i.e., a test administered before the in-service training course) aimed at establishing the knowledge ground of the audience. As seen in the data collection instruments section, the pre-test comprised six questions. In the data collection instruments section, we also described having used a post-test (i.e., a test administered after learning has occurred) in our investigation. This was intended to measure change overtime. That is to say, to determine the extent to which the trainees grasped what was imparted during the training course.

It should be stressed that considering the strong qualitative nature of the research, the use of a pre-test and a post-test was directed at increasing the overall reliability of the study.

The results of both tests are summarised below through tables, graphs, and charts designed with the help of MOONSTATS statistical software.

2.2.2.1. Question one: good and bad language teachers

Question one was open in nature and was used to measure the testees' general knowledge of ELT, and to study the degree to which the investigated teachers knew about general positive qualities ascribed to effective English language teachers, before and after the training course. We will present first the pre-test results and then the post-test findings.

2.2.2.1.1. Pre-test results of question one

The scores obtained by the participants to the question making reference to the qualities of a good language teacher, in the pre-test, are presented in the figure below.

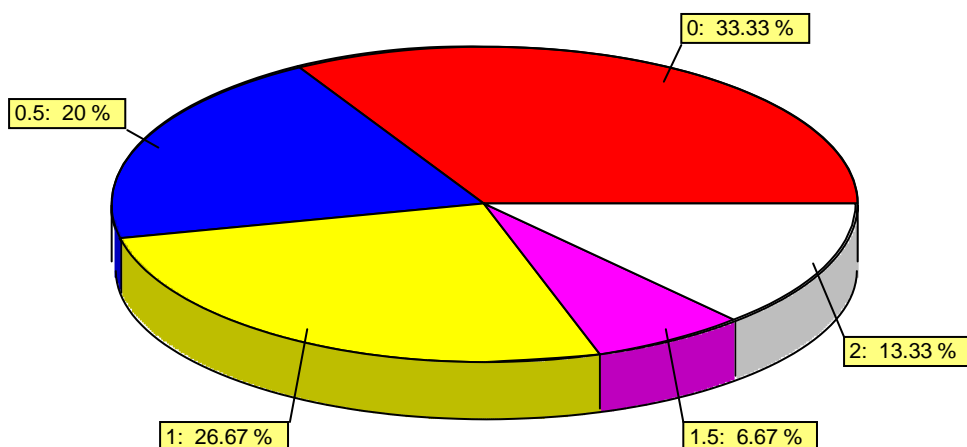


Figure 11. Results for question one (pre-test).

The chart above portrays the marks the subjects scored in the first question. The highest mark was 2, and it was obtained by 13.33% of the test takers, and the lowest mark was 0, taken by 33.33% of the teachers.

In order to provide a better picture of the frequency of occurrence of scores, we have the impeding table.

Table 23. Frequency for question one (pre-test)

Value	N	%	Cum. %
0	5	33.33	33.33
0.5	3	20.00	53.33
1	4	26.67	80.00
1.5	1	6.67	86.67
2	2	13.33	100.00
Total	15	100.00	
Missing cases	0		

The table above represents a frequency tabulation, which is a listing of the values or scores and how frequently they occur (Nunan, 1992: 230). The values are in the 'Value' column and the number of cases obtained by each value are in the 'N' column. The '%' column shows the number of cases as a percentage.

On the table above, the most frequent values were 0 (it was obtained by 33.33% of the subjects) and 1 (it was achieved by 26.67% of the participants). And, the 'Cum. %' (Cumulative Percentage) column shows what percentage of cases obtained a value equal to or less than the value.

For further understanding of the statistical significance of the results, we have table 24.

Table 24. Descriptive statistics for question one (Pre-test)

Variable	N	Mean	StdDev	Minimum	Maximum
Pre-test	15	0.73	0.70	0.00	2.00

Variable	N	Median
Pre-test	15	0.50

Descriptive statistics are a way of summarising the variables in a dataset (Nunan, *ibid.*: 28). An explanation of each of the columns in the table above could be done in the following way:

Variable: The name of each variable for which descriptive statistics have been calculated. As it can be seen, the involved variable here was the pre-test.

N: The number of cases for each variable. Since we worked with 15 teachers, this corresponds also to the number of cases.

Mean: the average value for the variable. For our case, it was 0.73.

StdDev: The standard deviation - an indication of how closely values are clustered around the mean. Approximately 68% of cases lie between one standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean (Nunan, *loc.cit.*). In the results displayed above, 53% of cases lie between one standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean.

Minimum: The smallest value obtained for the variable. In our case, the minimum mark was 0.

Maximum: The largest value obtained for the variable. For us, it was 2.

Median: The middle value when the values are arranged from smallest to largest. If the median is smaller than the mean, that is an indication that most values are smaller than the mean while a few values are much larger than the mean. If the median is larger than the mean, that is an indication that most values are larger than the mean while a few values are much smaller (Nunan, *passim*;Welman, 2005: 229; Dörnyei, 2007: 214). From the above figure, we can perceive that for our case the former applies. That is, the median is smaller than the mean. Thus, most values are smaller than the mean.

2.2.2.1.2. Post-test results of question one

The marks took by the partakers in the study referring to the question of qualities of a good language teacher in the post-test are presented in the incoming bar chart.

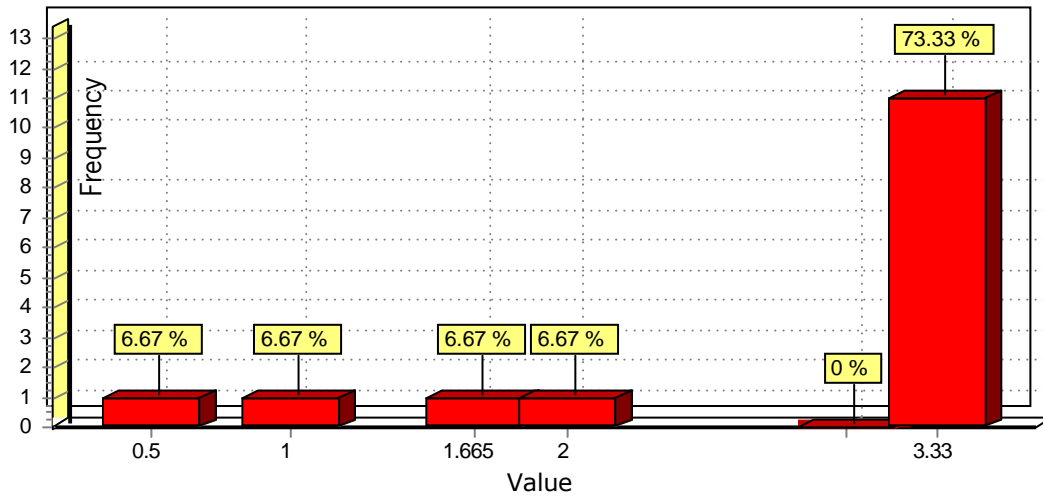


Figure 12. Results for question one (post-test).

The bar chart above shows that the highest mark was 3.33. This was obtained by 73.33% of the subjects. The lowest mark was 0.5, and was attained by 6.67% of the respondents.

The coming table portrays the incidence of values.

Table 25. Frequency for question one (Post-test)

Value	N	%	Cum. %
0.5	1	6.67	6.67
1	1	6.67	13.33
1.665	1	6.67	20.00
2	1	6.67	26.67
3.33	11	73.33	100.00
Total	15	100.00	
Missing cases	0		

From table 25, the frequency of scores shows that the value 3.33 was obtained by 11 cases, which is 73.33% of them. Interestingly, all the remainder was attributed to one respondent separately.

For a more comprehensive grasp of the statistical importance of the results, we provide the forthcoming table.

Table 26. Descriptive statistics for question one (post-test)

Variable	N	Mean	StdDev	Minimum	Maximum
Post-test	15	2.79	0.98	0.50	3.33

Variable	N	Median
Post-test	15	3.33

The table above shows that the most critical value of the descriptive statistics of question one, with reference to the post-test, was 0.98 as the standard deviation.

Having described the findings of the tests, it is crucial to establish a correlation between them. This will be done in following figure.

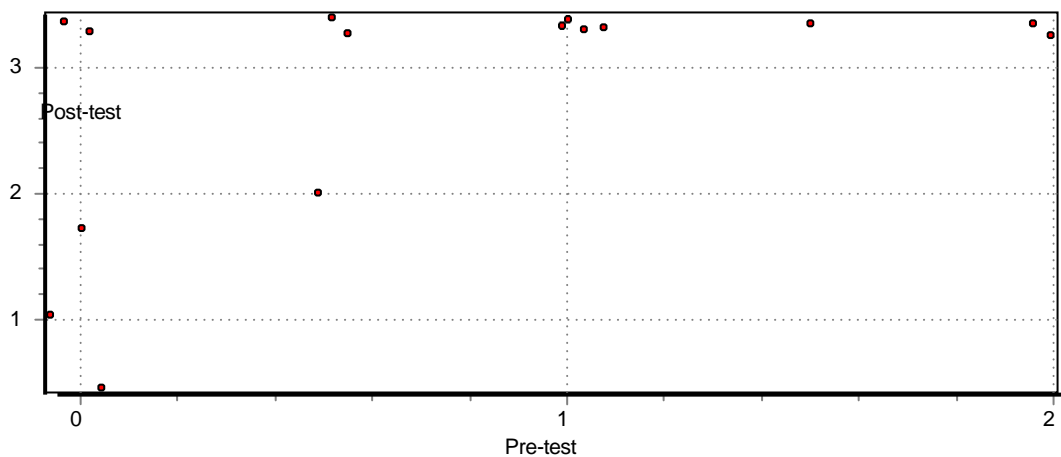


Figure 13. Moment correlation for pre-test and post-test.

A Pearson product-moment correlation shows the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables. It is suitable for use if it can be assumed that the variables are approximately normally distributed. The r value indicates the strength of the correlation. An r of -1 is a perfect negative correlation, an r of 1 is a perfect positive correlation, and an r of 0 means there is no correlation. The p value indicates if the correlation is statistically significant. Given a large enough sample size (n), even a very weak correlation can be statistically significant, and given a small enough sample size, even a very strong correlation may not be statistically significant (Welman, *ibid.*: 230).

Figure 13 presents the Pearson product moment correlation for the pre-test and the post-test:

$$r(x, y) = 0.55$$

$$n = 15$$

$$p = 0.034$$

As the value of r is 0.55, this can be considered a strong correlation. The p value is 0.034, which means that the correlation is statistically significant. Therefore, the pre-test and post-test are statistically significantly correlated at the 5% level ($r=0.55$; $p=0.034$).

Next, we present further relevant statistical tabulation.

Table 27. Crosstabulation of pre-test by post-test

	Pre-test					Total
	0	0.5	1	1.5	2	
Post-Test						
0.5	1	0	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	0	0	0	1
1.665	1	0	0	0	0	1
2	0	1	0	0	0	1
3.33	2	2	4	1	2	11
Total	5	3	4	1	2	15
Missing	0					

A crosstabulation shows how many cases with particular values on one variable have particular values on another variable (Welman, *loc.cit.*). Here, the possible values for the pre-test are listed across the top of the table; while the possible values for the post-test are listed along the left side of the table. The numbers inside the table are the frequencies, i.e. the number of cases that have a particular value for the pre-test and the post-test. In the table above, one case obtained a value of 0 for the pre-test and a value of 0.5 for the post-test. Other significant results are that one case had 0 for the pre-test and a score of 3.33 for the post-test.

As a summary of the results obtained through the open question about the qualities of a good language teacher, we can resort to the following table.

Table 28. Summary of question one

Subjects	Pre-test	Post-test
S1	0.5	3.33
S2	0.5	3.33
S3	1	3.33
S4	0	1.665
S5	1	3.33
S6	0	3.33
S7	0	0.5
S8	2	3.33
S9	1.5	3.33
S10	1	3.33
S11	0	1
S12	0	3.33
S13	2	3.33
S14	1	3.33
S15	0.5	2

From a straightforward standpoint, table 28 shows direct progress from the pre-test to the post-test. It is clearly observed that we have 100% improvement of marks. However, the most significant figures are the subjects that progressed from 0 in the pre-test to 3.33 in the post-test. It can also be seen that two subjects improved from 0.5 to 3.33 marks.

Thus far, we have provided mathematical descriptions of the results from question one. Since our concern is to increase reliability in our qualitative research, we will continue with the same approach throughout the presentation of the scores of the coming questions.

2.2.2.2. Question two: teaching vocabulary

We used an open question to know the amount of knowledge the participants had regarding teaching different types of vocabulary items. The scores of question two will be displayed through the following figures. We will present first the pre-test results and then the post-test findings.

2.2.2.2.1. Pre-test results of question two

The marks of the second question from the pre-test will be depicted in the two coming figures.

Table 29. Frequency for question two (pre-test)

Value	N	%	Cum. %
0	5	33.33	33.33
0.5	1	6.67	40.00
1	1	6.67	46.67
1.11	2	13.33	60.00
1.665	1	6.67	66.67
2	1	6.67	73.33
2.22	3	20.00	93.33
3	1	6.67	100.00
Total	15	100.00	
Missing cases	0		

Table 29 displays the frequency of the occurrence of the obtained values. It portrays 0 as the most frequent mark. In point of fact, this number was scored by 33.33% of the subjects. The least common mark was 0.5, with a single occurrence.

Further statistical information about the pre-test is provided in the table below.

Table 30. Descriptive statistics for question two (pre-test)

Variable	N	Mean	StdDev	Minimum	Maximum
Pre-test	15	1.14	1.03	0.00	3.00

Variable	N	Median
Pre-test	15	1.11

This table shows the measure of the dispersion of the scores from the mean. As it is presented, among other data, the standard deviation was 1.03.

So far, we have described the results of the pre-test. Having done that, our focus is directed at the scores of the post-test with respect to question two.

2.2.2.2.2. Post-test results of question two

The impending tables will be used to display the scores of the second question from the post-test.

Table 31. Frequency for question two (post-test)

Value	N	%	Cum. %
0	1	6.67	6.67
0.1	1	6.67	13.33
2.22	5	33.33	46.67
2.8	1	6.67	53.33
3	2	13.33	66.67
3.33	5	33.33	100.00
Total	15	100.00	
Missing cases	0		

Table 31 exhibits the regularity of the occurrence of values. It reveals that the scores 3.33 and 2.22 were the most frequent ones. In fact, these figures were attained by 33.33% of the subjects. The least common marks were 0, and 0.1 with a single manifestation each.

Other important numerical data about the post-test are provided in the table below.

Table 32. Descriptive statistics for question two (Post-test)

Variable	N	Mean	StdDev	Minimum	Maximum
----------	---	------	--------	---------	---------

Post-test	15	2.44	1.08	0.00	3.33
-----------	----	------	------	------	------

Variable	N	Median
----------	---	--------

Post-test	15	2.80
-----------	----	------

Table 32 shows that all the 15 subjects answered question two of the post-test. The scores mean was 2.44, with a standard deviation of 1.08. The minimum mark was 0.00 and maximum was 3.33. Moreover, the table presents 2.80 as the median.

In summarising the results above, we use figure 14 to establish a visual relationship of the data collected through the pre-test and the post-tests.

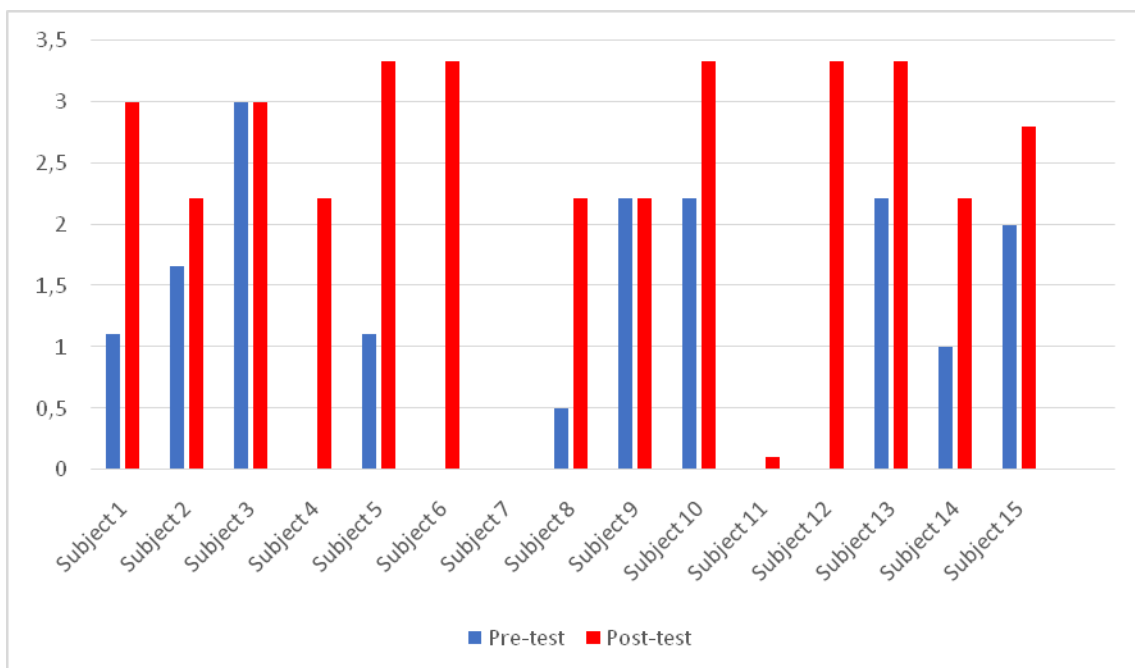


Figure 14. Results of question two (pre-test and post-test).

The illustration above shows graphically that for almost all cases there was an improvement in the performance of the subjects from the pre-test to the post-test. Outstandingly, we had two participants who progressed from 0 in the pre-test to 3.33 marks in the post-test. However, one of the teachers had 0 in both tests.

2.2.2.3. Question three: teaching grammar

To discover the knowledge level of the participants, with regard to teaching grammar, we administered an open question to them. The grades obtained will be presented through the coming figures. For clarity, we will first deal with the pre-test data. The post-test results will be described afterwards.

2.2.2.3.1. Pre-test results of question three

The marks achieved by the partakers to the current study in the pre-test, with respect to the knowledge of how to teach grammar, will be exhibited in the figure below.

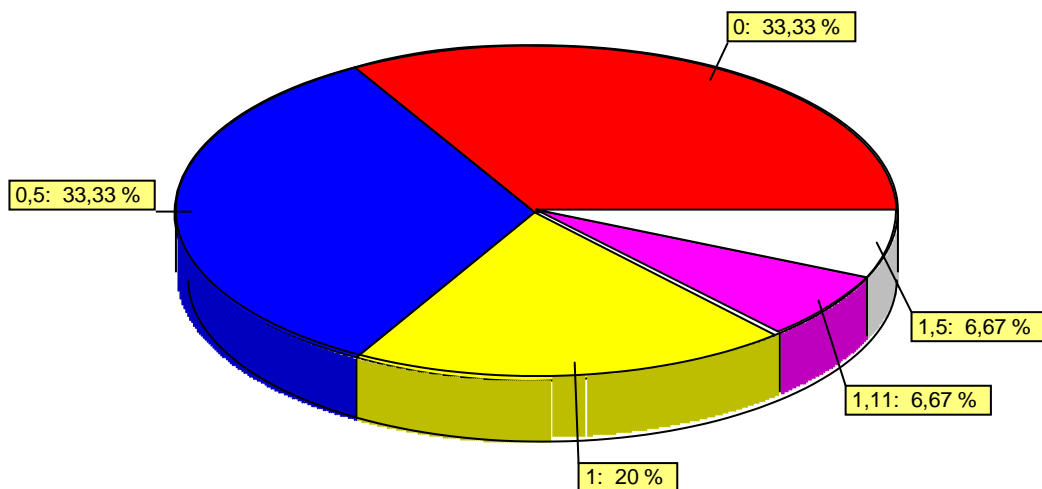


Figure 15. Results for question three (pre-test).

The chart above portrays the marks the subjects had in the third question. We can understand that 0 was the lowest value, and 1.5 marks was the highest. The former was obtained by 33.33% of the subjects, and latter was achieved by 6.67% of the respondents.

In the approaching table, we are given a chance to study the frequency with which the scores occur.

Table 33. Frequency table for pre-test

Value	N	%	Cum. %
0	5	33.33	33.33
0.5	5	33.33	66.67
1	3	20.00	86.67
1.11	1	6.67	93.33
1.5	1	6.67	100.00
Total	15	100.00	
Missing cases	0		

The frequency tabulation shows that the values 0 and 0.5 were the most recurrent, and the scores 1.11 and 1.5 were the least common. These figures accounted for 33.33% and 6.67% of the sample size.

Table 34 below is included to add extra but crucial descriptive statistic value to the results collected in the third question.

Table 34. Descriptive statistics for question three (Pre-test)

Variable	N	Mean	StdDev	Minimum	Maximum
Pre-test	15	0.54	0.49	0.00	1.50

Variable	N	Median
Pre-test	15	0.50

Among other data, table 34 depicts 0.49 as the standard deviation of the dispersion of the scores from mean.

With this information, we have finished the description of the results from the pre-test. Now, our attention is directed at the findings from the post-test.

2.2.2.3.2. Post-test results of question three

The coming figures will be employed to present the scores of the third question from the post-test.

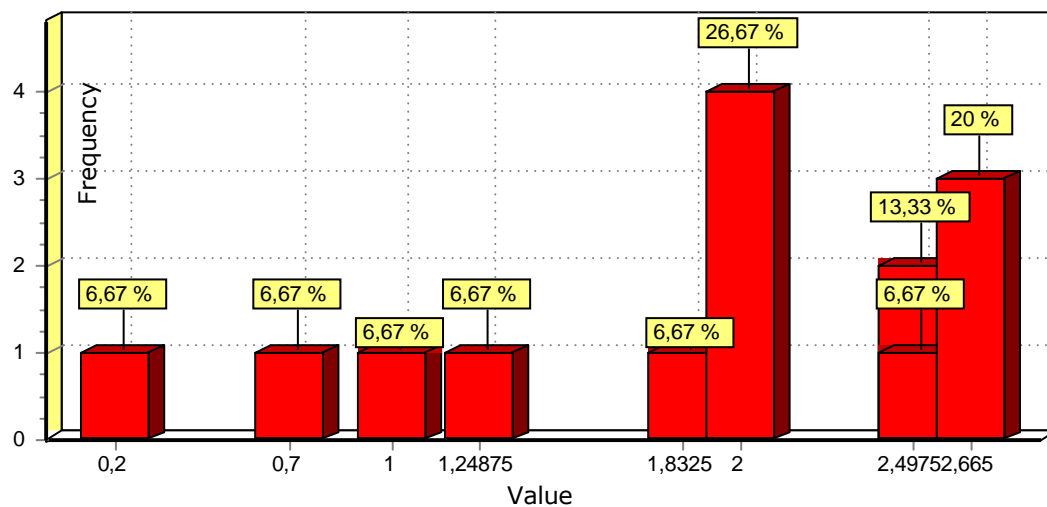


Figure 16. Results for question three (post-test).

From the graph above, it can be observed that the highest mark obtained was 2.665. The lowest was 0.2. It is also clear that the most frequent score was 2. This was attained by 26.67% of the subjects. The frequency of all the other values ranged from 6.67% to 20.00%.

Table 35. Descriptive statistics for question three (Post-test)

Variable	N	Mean	StdDev	Minimum	Maximum
Post-test	15	1.90	0.78	0.20	2.67

Variable	N	Median
Post-test	15	2.00

Table 35 depicts 0.78 as the standard deviation of the dispersion of the scores from the mean.

Having described both tests separately, it renders pertinent to provide a comparative table where the results could be paralleled more directly.

Table 36. Summary of question three

Subjects	Pre-test	Post-test
S1	0.5	1.8325
S2	1	2.4975
S3	1.5	2.4975
S4	0	1.24875
S5	1.11	2.665
S6	0	2
S7	0	0.7
S8	0.5	2
S9	0.5	2.665
S10	0.5	2
S11	0	0.2
S12	0	2.5
S13	1	2.665
S14	1	2
S15	0.5	1

Table 36 represents a summary of the results the subjects gained in the pre-test and post-test. It displays that there was 100% improvement of marks from one test to the other. Significant figures include subject six, who progressed from 0 to 2 marks, as the biggest development, and subject seven with the lowest improvement, developing from 0 to 0.2 marks only.

With the summary above, we have completed the description of the results of question three. We continue next by looking at the data from question four.

2.2.2.4. Question four: lesson planning

As described in the research tools section, to explore the testees' knowledge about lesson planning, we employed a true or false statement question. The scores acquired will be displayed in the coming figures. We will first refer to the pre-test data, and later the post-test results.

2.2.2.4.1. Pre-test results of question four

The results attained by the participants in the investigation in the pre-test, concerning the knowledge of lesson planning, will be unveiled in the figure below.

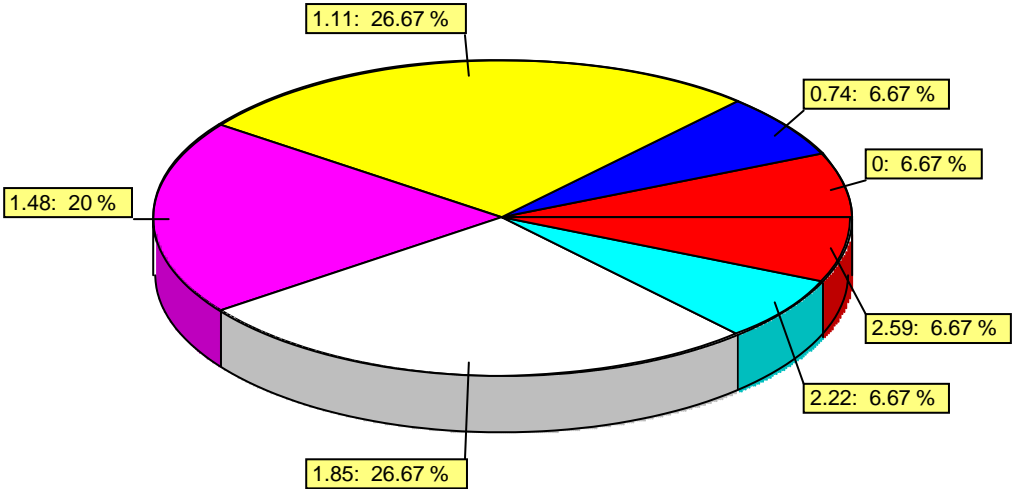


Figure 17. Results for question four (pre-test).

The chart presents the results of the pre-test with regard to question four. From it, it is clear that the highest mark obtained was 2.59, and the lowest was 0. These scores were achieved by 1% each.

Following, we have table 37 which portrays the frequency of the results.

Table 37. Frequency for the pre-test

Value	N	%	Cum. %
0	1	6.67	6.67
0.74	1	6.67	13.33
1.11	4	26.67	40.00
1.48	3	20.00	60.00
1.85	4	26.67	86.67
2.22	1	6.67	93.33
2.59	1	6.67	100.00
TOTAL	15	100.00	

The table illustrates that the most frequent marks were 1.11 and 1.85. In fact, they were both achieved by 26.67% of the participants.

2.2.2.4.2. Post-test results of question four

We use a histogram and frequency tabulation to present the outcomes of the post-test.

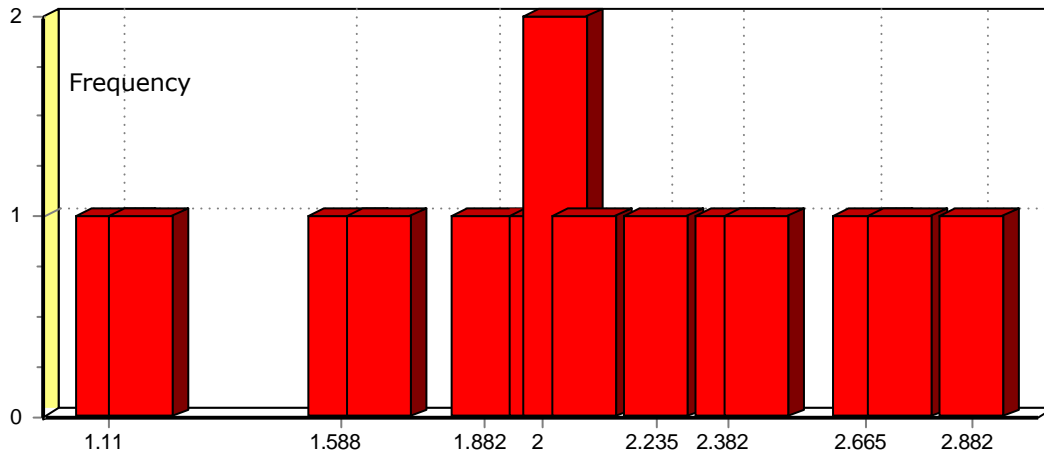


Figure 18. Results for question four (post-test). Value

We can understand from the histogram that the highest value was 2.882, and the lowest was 1.11. They were all obtained by 6.67% of the teachers under investigation.

Table 38. frequency table for the post-test

Value	N	%	Cum. %
1.11	1	6.67	6.67
1.176	1	6.67	13.33
1.588	1	6.67	20.00
1.665	1	6.67	26.67
1.882	1	6.67	33.33
2	1	6.67	40.00
2.029	2	13.33	53.33
2.088	1	6.67	60.00
2.235	1	6.67	66.67
2.382	1	6.67	73.33
2.441	1	6.67	80.00
2.665	1	6.67	86.67
2.735	1	6.67	93.33
2.882	1	6.67	100.00
Total	15	100.00	
Missing cases	0		

The frequency tabulation shows that the value 2.029 was the most frequent. This was scored by 13.33% of the subjects. All the remaining scores had the same percentage: 6.67%.

A direct comparison of the values of both tests resulted in the figure below.

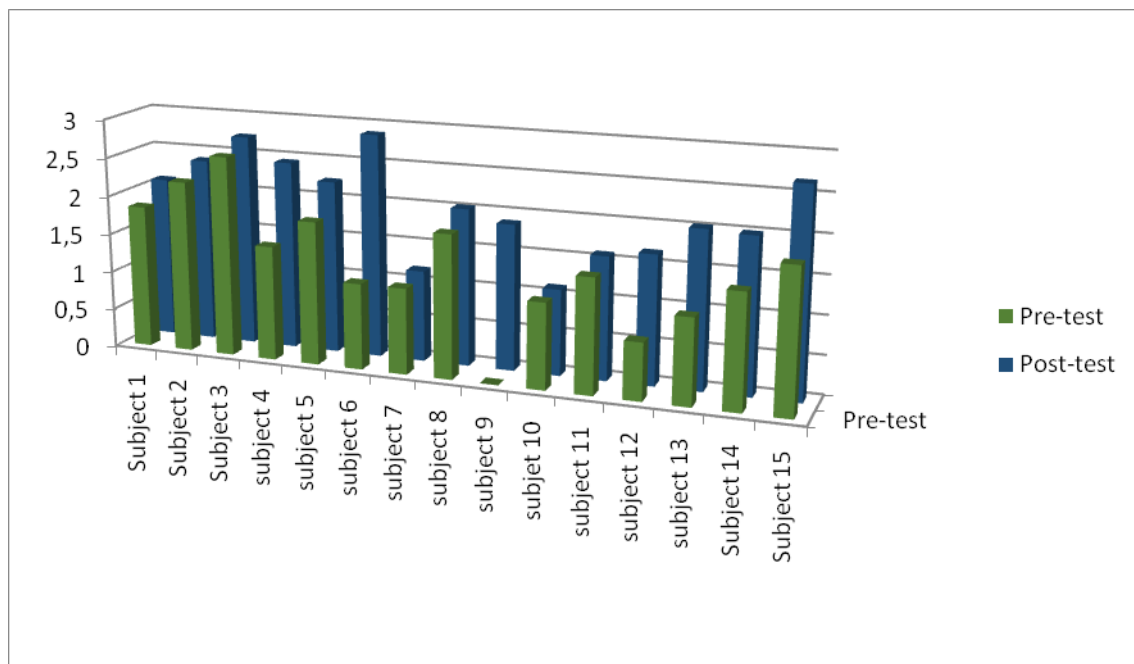


Figure 19. Pre-test vs. post results.

On a par with the other summary illustrations, figure 19 depicts 100% improvement from one test to the other. The most significant evolution was from 0 in the pre-test to 1.882 marks in the post-test.

2.2.2.5. Question five: classroom management

Question five was a multiple-choice one and was used to explore the testees' knowledge about classroom management before and after the training course. Similar to the above procedures, we will present first the pre-test results, then the post-test findings.

2.2.2.5.1. Pre-test results of question five

The outcomes attained by the partakers to the inquiry in the pre-test, regarding classroom management, will be disclosed in the figure below.

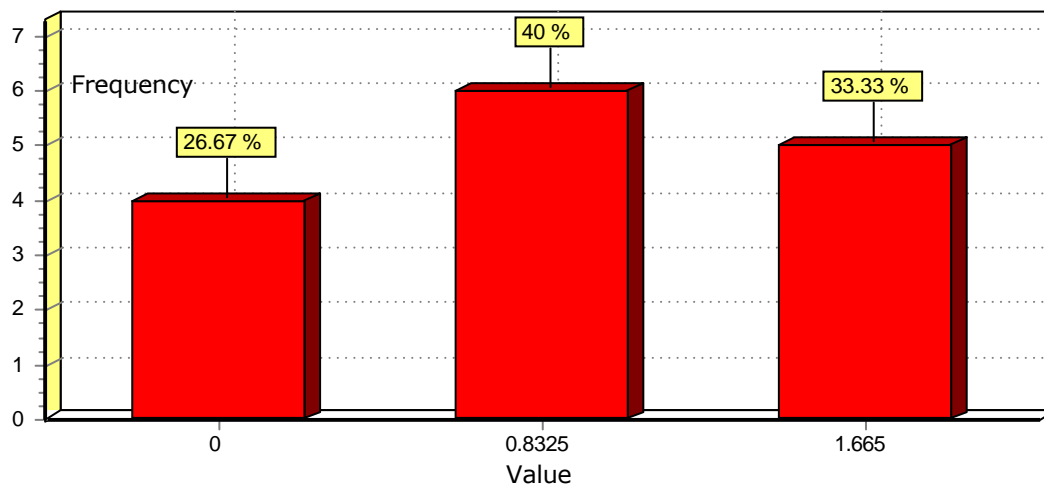


Figure 20. Results for question five (pre-test).

The chart exhibits the results of the pre-test with regard to question five. It shows the highest value as 1.665 marks, and the lowest 0. They were obtained by 33.33% and 26.67%, respectively.

In order to offer an understanding of the frequency of occurrence of scores, we provide the table 39.

Table 39. Frequency table for Pre-test

Value	N	%	Cum. %
0	4	26.67	26.67
0.8325	6	40.00	66.67
1.665	5	33.33	100.00
Total	15	100.00	
Missing cases	0		

The frequency tabulation displays the value 0.8325 as the most frequent one. This was scored by 40.00% of the subjects. The least common score was 0, accounting for 26.67% of the teachers.

2.2.2.5.2. Post-test results of question five

The results of the post-test to the fifth question will be displayed in the coming chart and table.

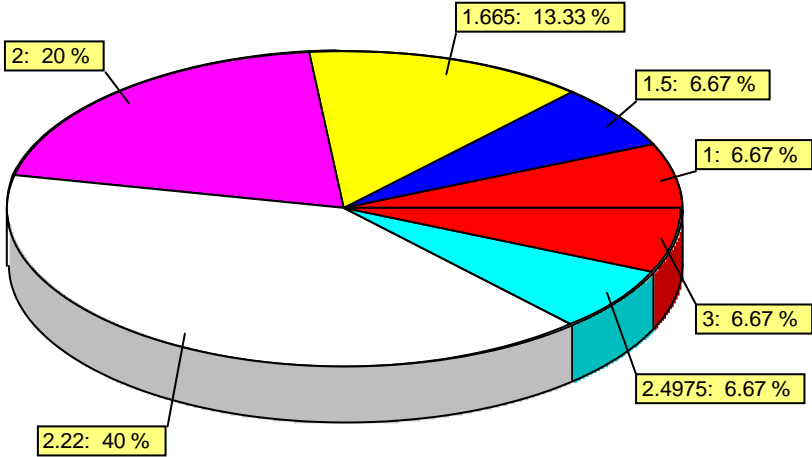


Figure 21. Results for question five (post-test).

According to what is disclosed above, the maximum value obtained by the participants was 3 marks. This score was acquired by 6.67% of the sample size. The minimum figure was 1, and it was achieved by an equal percentage as with the previously mentioned mark.

Table 40. Frequency for question five (Post-test)

Value	N	%	% Cum.
1	1	6.67	6.67
1.5	1	6.67	13.33
1.665	2	13.33	26.67
2	3	20.00	46.67
2.22	6	40.00	86.67
2.4975	1	6.67	93.33
3	1	6.67	100
Total	15	100	
Missing cases	0		

The most frequent value described on table 40 is 2.22. This was achieved by 40% of the respondents. Other significant datum was the 20.00% that obtained 3 marks.

With the separate description of the results of both tests, we can now offer a direct comparative table.

Table 41. Summary of question five

Subjects	Pre-test	Post-test
S1	0	2.22
S2	0.8325	2.22
S3	1.665	3
S4	0.8325	1.665
S5	0	1.5
S6	1.665	2
S7	0	1
S8	0.8325	2.22
S9	0.8325	2
S10	0.8325	2.22
S11	0	1.665
S12	1.665	2
S13	1.665	2.22
S14	1.665	2.4975
S15	0.8325	2.22

In brief, table 41 portrays 100% improvement from the pre-test to the post-test. The Most significant development can be reported by looking at the progress made by subject one, who progressed from 0 to 2.22 marks. However, the least accomplishment was verified in subjects six and 12, who demonstrated progress of less than 0.4 marks.

We have accomplished the depiction of the marks of question five. We continue next by looking at the data from question six.

2.2.2.6. Question six: communicative language teaching

To know if the teachers were aware of the Communicative Language Teaching approach, we used an open question. The results of this will be presented using the coming figures.

2.2.2.6.1. Pre-test results of question six

As for the knowledge of CLT, the results achieved by the participants in the pre-test, will be revealed in the figure below.

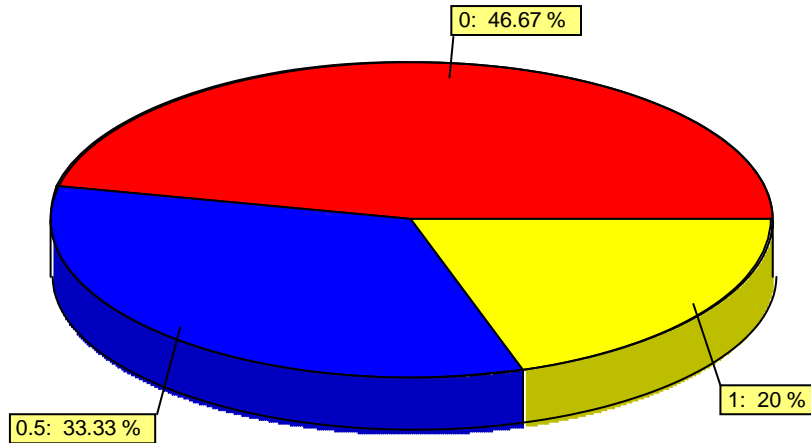


Figure 22. Results for question six (pre-test).

This illustration reveals 1 as the highest and least frequent value (only 20% of the teachers scored it). Whereas, 0 was the lowest and the most frequent mark. This accounts for 46.67% of the subjects.

2.2.2.6.2. Post-test results of question six

The data referent to the post-test, regarding question six, will be displayed on figure 23.

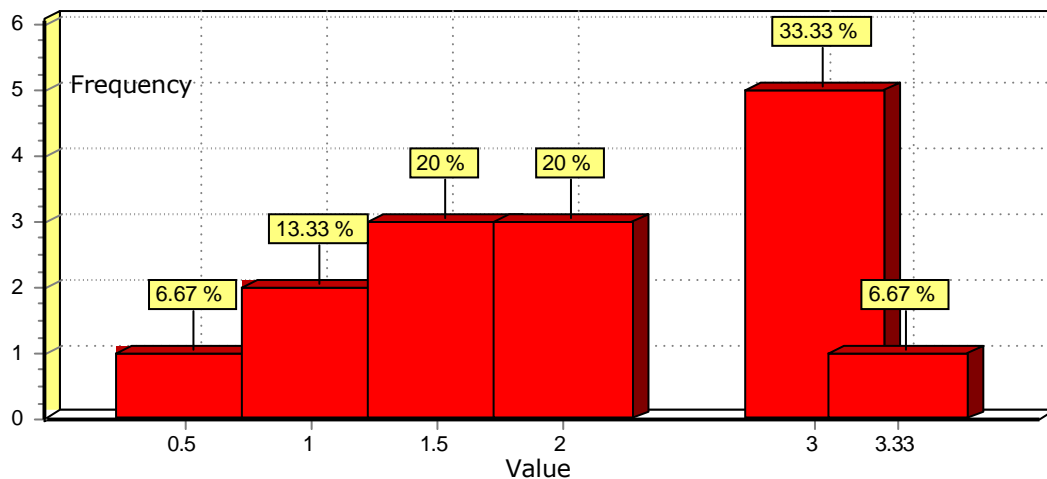


Figure 23. Results for question six (post-test).

The histogram depicts the results of the post-test. The highest mark observable is 3.33 and was obtained by 6.67% of the subjects (as with 0.5, this was also one of the least frequent marks). This figure also shows that the most frequent mark was 3, and it was attained by 33.33% of the participants.

The summary table below shows side by side the results of the pre-test and the post-test, with respect to the question sixth.

Table 42. Summary of question six

Subjects	Pre-test	Post-test
S1	0	2
S2	1	3
S3	0.5	3
S4	0	1.5
S5	1	3
S6	0	1
S7	0.5	1
S8	0.5	1.5
S9	0	1.5
S10	0.5	2
S11	0	0.5
S12	0	3
S13	1	3.33
S14	0.5	3
S15	0	2

Table 42 provides a direct contrast of the results of both tests. One hundred percent of the participants improved from the pre-test to the post-test. We can observe subjects evolving from 0 to 3 and 0 to 2 marks, as the most important change of behaviour.

We have finally reached the end part of our section. Here, we intend to deliver a contrast of the results of the entire pre-test and post-test.

2.2.2.7. Pre-test versus post-test

In the current section, we have described the results of the pre-test and the post-test. We found out that for all the questions comprising both tests, we had almost 100% improvement of scores. Through the description of standard deviation and frequency tables of all the questions, we discovered promising statistically significant correlations. In this final subsection, through the following scatterplot graph and

table 43, we will compare and contrast, and summarise the overall results of the pre-test and the post-test.

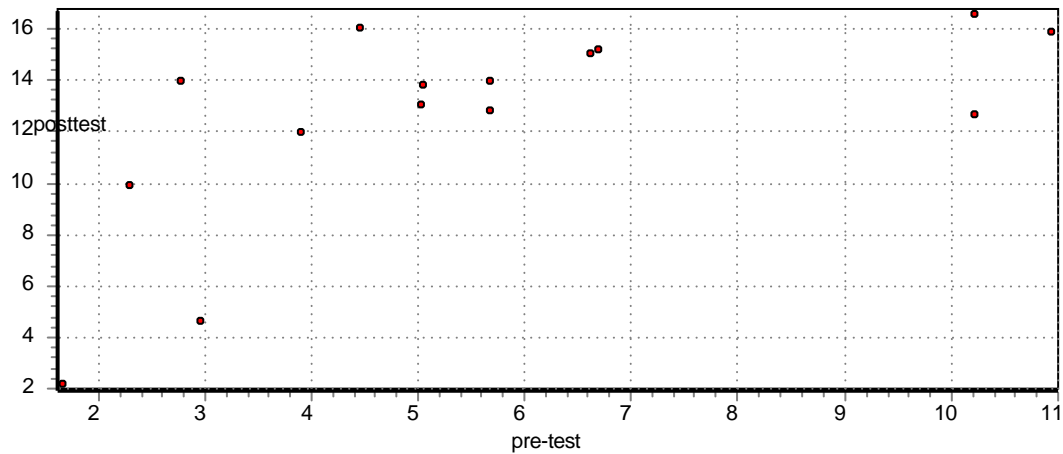


Figure 24. Moment correlation for pre-test and post-test.

As seen above, Pearson product-moment correlation shows how strong the relationship between two continuous variables might be. Figure 24 presents the Pearson product moment correlation for pre-test and post-test:

$$r(x,y) = 0.62$$

$$n = 15$$

$$p = 0.013$$

As we can realise, the value of r is 0.62, which can be considered a strong correlation. The p value is 0.013, which means that the correlation is statistically significant. Therefore, the pre-test and post-test are statistically significantly correlated at the 5% level ($r=0.62$; $p=0.013$).

Finally, for a broader picture of the progress the subjects made from one test to the other, we provide the following table.

Table 43. Summary of the results of the pre and post-tests

Subjects	Pre-test	Post-test
S1	3.96	11.9705
S2	6.7175	15.1495
S3	10.255	16.5625
S4	2.3125	9.90475
S5	5	13.06
S6	2.775	14.042
S7	1.61	2.176
S8	5.6825	12.799
S9	5.0525	13.817
S10	5.6625	13.909
S11	2.98	4.553
S12	4.405	16.045
S13	10.995	15.904
S14	6.645	15.0475
S15	5.682	12.685

Table 43 displays the marks the subjects had in the pre-test and the post-test. As they are depicted, we can establish direct comparisons. For example, 12 cases had positive marks in the post-test. However, the pre-test results show only two positive values. Table 43 also shows that all the subjects' marks improved from one test to the other. Furthermore, it portrays 10.255 as the highest score in the pre-test, and 1.61 as the lowest. As for the post-test, the highest value was 16.5625, and the lowest was 2.176.

2.2.3. Results from lesson observation

Our methodology chapter provided an in-depth description of what we did during the investigation. It should be remembered that we tried to prove the extent to which our proposed programme would help improve the teaching practice of unqualified Secondary School teachers in Huambo-Angola. As it was presented in the research instrument section, the study encompassed complementary research tools. After the administration of the pre-test and the post-test, it was pertinent to have an idea *in loco* of the degree to which the in-service course was successful. To attain this goal, we decided to observe a few lessons of the investigated teachers. However, due to time constraints, it was only possible to observe

one lesson per candidate. In the current section, our aim is to present the results obtained through the direct observation we undertook.

Table 44. Results of the observation charts

	Not satisfactory		Average		Above average	
1. Teacher preparation						
	S	%	S	%	S	%
Lesson plan	1	6.67%	13	86.667%	1	6.67%
2. Presentation of vocabulary						
	S	%	S	%	S	%
Use of visual aids	5	33.33%	10	66.667%		
Use of examples to teach meaning	4	26.667%	11	73.33 %		
Order and sequence of techniques	5	33.33%	10	66.667%		
Use of Gestures and miming	3	20.00%	12	80.00%		
Use of realia	4	26.667%	11	73.33 %		
3. Presentation of Grammar						
	S	%	S	%	S	%
Order and sequence of techniques	8	53.33%	7	46.667%		
Use of visual techniques	3	20.00%	12	80.00%		
Use of examples	3	20.00%	12	80.00%		
Use of meaningful practice techniques	7	46.667%	8	53.33%		
4. Classroom management						
	S	%	S	%	S	%
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	7	46.667%	8	53.33%		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity						

	8	53.33%	7	46.667%		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	S	%	S	%	S	%
	11	73.33%	4	26.667%		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	S	%	S	%	S	%
	9	60.00%	6	40.02%		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas	S	%	S	%	S	%
			15	100%		
Dealing with discipline	S	%	S	%	S	%
			15	100%		
5. Communicative language teaching						
Balance and variety of activities	S	%	S	%	S	%
	3	20.00%	12	80.00%		
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)	S	%	S	%	S	%
	3	20.00%	12	80.00%		
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	S	%	S	%	S	%
	6	40.00%	9	60.00%		
The teacher's roles	S	%	S	%	S	%
	2	13.33%	13	86.667%		

COMMENTS

Subject	
S1	The teacher clearly prepared the lesson. Thus, there was good control of students' behaviour, and satisfactory command of the language. However, there was too much use of students' L1, and unnecessary translations. Moreover, the lesson should have had more visual aids.
S2	The lesson was lively despite the limited teacher's fluency in English. However, too much Portuguese was used, and the teacher's voice could have been projected to match the size of the class.
S3	Although the teacher had a good command of English, and kept trying to motivate the students, plus a good use of pictures, the amount of L1 use during the lesson was a bit detrimental to students' opportunities for listening of the target language.
S4	The teacher tried to avoid the use of L1 as much as possible. Moreover, the visual aids to teach meaning were handled to a satisfactory point. However, the stages of the lesson were not easily distinguishable.
S5	The lesson was well prepared and delivered, and the teacher showed good grasp of CLT.
S6	The teacher displayed good use of some techniques and was very creative.
S7	There was an excessive use of L1 from the teacher and students.
S8	The teacher displayed good command of English, was creative, and the students seemed

	to enjoy the lesson
S9	The teacher managed to establish good rapport, and the instructions for the activities were clear. Nevertheless, the voice should have been more projected.
S10	There was good rapport, and variety in the use of activities.
S11	There was an excessive use of the L1.
S12	The teacher displayed good command of the English language. However, the teaching of grammar needed clear improvement.
S13	The highest point of this lesson was the teacher's confidence.
S14	The lesson was well paced and logical. However, the techniques for teaching grammar and vocabulary were not effective because of the focus on students' L1.
S15	The teaching of grammar and vocabulary was ineffective because it done mainly by translating.

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor		Average		Above average	
S	%	S	%		S
4	26.667%	11	73.33 %		

S – Subject.

Table 44 summarises the main results we collected by applying our direct observation chart. It depicts several categories of relevance to the study taught or discussed during the training sessions. The first of which deals with lesson planning. We see from the table that only one participant had a not satisfactory result. The great majority, however, could reach the average mark. In fact, 13 subjects attained it. This number involves a total of 86.67% of the observed teachers. Also interesting was the fact that one of the subjects managed to get an above average result regarding lesson planning.

One of the major focuses of the course was on training teachers to teach vocabulary. As such, it was a must to observe the degree of change that occurred in the teachers' way of practice. Table 44 displays a predominantly average outcome with reference to the use of visual aids when presenting the meaning of new words. This score accounts for 66.667% of the sample size. With reference to the use of examples to teach meaning of new vocabulary items, we can perceive that 11 partakers had a normal outcome. This number represents 73.33% of the trainees. The figure also shows that more than half of the subjects had a fair understanding of the order in which vocabulary items are supposed to be presented. In point of fact, 10 teachers (66.667%) recorded average in the category. Almost all (80%) participants obtained a normal score with regard to the use of gestures and mime. Concerning the use of realia, only four subjects underperformed in the group. This figure entailed 26.667% of the investigated teachers.

Another crucial skill that was given prominence in the training programme was how to present and get students to practice structures. The observation chart places the order and sequence of

techniques as the first category of observation. The results, as shown on the table, unfortunately reveal that half of the subjects had a not satisfactory score. The figure was as high as 53.33% of the trainees. Nevertheless, 80% of the audience managed to attain an average result in the use of visual techniques when presenting structures. The same number can be unveiled when we look at the scores of the category of the use of examples when teaching grammar. Finally, the use of meaningful practice techniques had an average result for eight subjects. This accounts for 53.33% of their total number.

The next group of observing items pertains to the area of classroom management. This entailed six categories. The first one dealt with the teacher's use of language with respect pronunciation, fluency, accuracy, and appropriacy. The results that can be seen from the table show that a little more than half of the participants had normal score. This number represents 53.33% of the total number of the participants. The outcomes of the second group, making reference to teachers' initiative and creativity, highlight the fact that half of the teachers (53.33%) had a negative performance. From the table, the group of teacher and student talk reveals that 11 participants (73.33%) did not perform to a positive degree. With regard to the teacher's ability to encourage full student interaction, we also have that the majority of the partakers did not have a desirable mark. The score of the last but one category, which focused on freedom in the classroom, displays 100% of average mark. Finally, the last group had the same value.

On an equal footing with the other research tools used in the current study, the last part of the observation chart aimed at understanding the participants' grasp of CLT. Here, we centred on balance and variety of the activities, communicative activities, errors and mistakes correction, and the roles of the teacher. The results of the first and the second aspects show that the great majority of the trainees had average as the highest score. This accounts for 80% of the observed teachers. The third and the last categories had 60 and 86.667% of the partakers with average scores respectively.

The general comments on the lessons are self-explanatory. Nevertheless, they demonstrate that the use of L1 during lessons was still the biggest concern in the lessons observed.

In brief, it is important to state that the highest rate of success entailed freedom in the classroom and classroom discipline, where both categories had 100% of the participants with average results. In contrast, the lowest achievement was observed in the category of balance in teacher and students talk. In fact, a figure corresponding to 73.33% of the teachers had failed. Notwithstanding this, the overall result shows that the rate of success reached 73.33 % of the teachers under investigation.

Closing remarks to the second chapter of the current work make reference to the fact that we applied a district-wide qualitative action research. The main findings gave prominence to the conclusion

that prior to the training course the participants did not have significant knowledge of defining EFL teaching principles, they taught vocabulary mainly through translation, they adopted a deductive approach to teaching grammar, they knew the importance of lesson planning, even though they were not acquainted with planning principles nor the usual structures of a language lesson, and they were not familiar with the principles of CLT. However, the results of the pre-test and the post-test showed that all the subjects' marks improved from one test to the other. Finally, the overall result of the observed lessons was of 73.33 % rate of success.

The next chapter is devoted to making sense and discussing the results obtained through the district-wide qualitative action research.

CHAPTER THREE: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Thus far, we have discussed the theoretical base of the investigation through an in-depth analysis of the most prominent ideas about English Language Teaching pertinent to the achievement of the thesis aim and objectives. We have seen that CLT has been established as the official teaching method for the English language in Angola. To train teachers to use it, we have opted for the design of an in-service course based on reflective teaching. As described in the previous chapter, we used a questionnaire, two tests (before and after the training programme), and we observed lessons. In the current chapter, our aim is to make sense of the results we obtained through the application of the research tools. We have mentioned earlier that our study was essentially qualitative. To this effect, the findings will undergo interpretive analysis and discussion.

It should be recollected that the current study was designed to test our hypotheses (*H1. The in-service teacher-training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills. Thus, their knowledge of English language teaching methodology will be upgraded, and their teaching practice quality will improve. H0. The in-service teacher-training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will not cause significant changes in the teaching quality of the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo*). As such, the current chapter will address the tenth objective of the investigation: to evaluate progress after the training project by making sense of the findings of the questionnaire and the pre-test, and comparing them to the post-test and the lesson observation. In other words, we are going to establish the base knowledge of the trainees before the training by interpreting and discussing the findings of the questionnaire and the pre-test. This will in turn serve as a reference on which we are going to base our theory of whether the H1 was proved or not, through the analysis and discussion of the results of the post-test and the observation. To attain our goal, we will start by interpreting and discussing the questionnaire results. The pre-test and post-test findings will be compared directly. Finally, we will discuss the results of the observation of lessons.

3.1. The questionnaire

We have presented the above research tool in chapter two as aimed at establishing the subjects' background regarding ELT by focussing on their ELT knowledge, teaching experience, language learning beliefs, and metacognitive awareness about the teaching process. Our approach to the interpretation and discussion will be sequential, following the order of the questions in the questionnaire.

3.1.1. Description of the subjects

The results described on the section 2.2.1. of the questionnaire, with regard to the subjects' age range, gender, academic qualification, specialisation, years of service, and the reason why they taught English showed that most of the participants were between 31 to 40 years old. In fact, this amounted to 46.667% of the teachers. We also saw that only two female teachers took part in the study, and that 86.667% of the subjects were male instructors. Most of the subjects had a degree in Teaching Psychology (53.33%). For years of service, we found out that two of the investigated teachers had been practising for 15 years, and another for 14. These represented the people with the highest number of years of service. The average number of teaching years was 10. In other words, most of the participants had been teaching English for 10 years. Finally, concerning the motive for teaching English, most of the participants (33.33%) said that they had been teaching English because they liked it.

For a clearer organisation of the interpretation and discussion, we will deal with each aspect in turn.

3.1.1.1. Subjects' age range

It is axiomatic that a teacher's age may have a significant impact on their professional life. The choice of approaches, methods, techniques, materials, etc. may be a reflection of our maturity in the teaching profession. When we finish initial training, we are usually at a dependent stage. Thus, it is common for beginner teachers to rely essentially on prescribed methods and techniques learned in the teacher education course. As we get older in the teaching profession, we are expected to acquire expertise in what we do. We may make wiser choices in the approaches we select to impart communicative competence onto the learners. However, the older we get the less open to change we may become. Thus, some mature teachers may reject new perspectives of language teaching. Moreover, our health may become a limiting factor in the exploitation of new classroom techniques, and we may not be willing to work with certain audiences.

What is crucial with regard to a teacher's age is the experience associated with it. A seasoned teacher expected to be more knowledgeable about the classroom behaviours that are conducive to successful language learning. Years of practice and reflection can help us develop our '*sense of plausibility*' (Prabhu, 1990: 172).

Experience is a key aspect in one's professional development. It is acquired in a process of practice and reflection, and trial and error. When a teacher experiments with several methods, techniques, materials, etc., and looks back at the action from a critical standpoint, he/she may create the required conditions for the acquisition of experience (cf. Wallace, 1991).

To become skilled in language teaching, years of practice may not make it perfect. It is not enough to try out a teaching procedure and claim total awareness of the particulars of its operation in all learning situations. We need to keep practicing the event to have confirmation of its feasibility for a particular group of learners.

Experience can be gained when we put into practice our training theoretical backdrop. Most of the theoretical knowledge we acquire with regard to language teaching must be applicable to the reality of the classroom. When we acquire expertise in teaching, we are likely able to establish clear links between theoretical aspects and classroom behaviour. Thus, we may know when a given procedure works best, and when a change of action is needed.

Experience is the end result of hard work and professional maturity. Most language professionals work hard to be seen as experts in language teaching. It is a rewarding feeling to know that one can manage a classroom successfully after years of practice. To be able to create the conditions under which the learning process can occur is one of the goals of most language teachers. Yet, this is usually acquired after experimenting with a significant body of knowledge. In other words, effective classroom management is a quality often ascribed to proficient teachers.

Experience is to know when something works in the classroom, and when it does not and be able to explain why. Experience goes beyond teacher performance; it entails the understanding of the underlying principles of the teacher's professional actions. The teacher must know what method and techniques are suitable for particular situations, as well as the ground that supports them to make informed teaching decisions.

3.1.1.1.1. Advantages

After years of practice, cumulative knowledge of the profession becomes a clear advantage of being experienced in language teaching and other scientific fields of knowledge. Once accumulated experience becomes part of the teacher's regular reflection on practice, it enhances the professional's confidence since it is easier to focus on what works in the classroom and those aspects that may hinder the learning process.

Years of experience may help a regular practitioner become a respected authority in the area of language teaching. As we understand teaching, in time, we may be able to discover gaps in teaching procedures, flaws in teaching methods, methodological problems in teaching materials, incomplete or harmful educational policies, inappropriate learning conditions, etc. Provided the opportunity, we may

decide to tackle those problems and suggest valid solutions to them. In addition, we may write articles, books etc. offering alternative ways of approaching language teaching.

Stronge (2007: 12) summarises some research findings related to teacher experience in the following way:

- Teachers with more experience tend to show better planning skills, including a more hierarchical and organized structure in the presentation of their material (Borko & Livingston, 1989; Covino & Iwanicki, 1996; Jay, 2002; Yildirim, 2001).
- Effective experienced teachers are better able to apply a range of teaching strategies, and they demonstrate more depth and differentiation in learning activities (Covino & Iwanicki, 1996).
- Experienced teachers tend to know and understand their students' learning needs, learning styles, prerequisite skills, and interests better than beginners do (Borko & Livingston, 1989; Covino & Iwanicki, 1996; Jay, 2002).
- The classrooms of more experienced teachers are better organized around routines and plans for handling problems than are those of novices (Covino & Iwanicki, 1996; Cruickshank & Haefele, 2001).
- Teachers with more than three years of experience are more effective than those with three years or fewer (Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004), but these differences seem to level off after five to eight years (DarlingHammond, 2000; Scherer, 2001).
- Teacher expertise as defined by experience (as well as education and scores on licensing exams) accounts for as much as 40 percent of the variation in student achievement, which is more than race and socioeconomic status (Ferguson, 1991; Virshup, 1997).
- Schools with more beginning teachers tend to have lower student achievement (Betts, Rueben, & Danenberg, 2000; Fetler, 1999; Goe, 2002), and schools with student performance in the lowest quartile have more inexperienced teachers than those schools with student performance in the highest quartile (Esch et al., 2005).

Finally, experience can help teachers have a global view of the profession. Apart from knowing one's profession well, through practice and reflection, we may be able to see the main tendency of development of the profession. Thus, an expert in language teaching must be able to foresee the types of approaches, methods, and techniques likely to be the future of the profession.

3.1.1.1.2. Shortcomings

One issue with years of practice may be, in some cases, resistance to change. For teachers who have experimented successfully with some techniques, sometimes it seems to be difficult to try out new ones. In other cases, we can find teachers who do not accept to use other teaching procedures, even when these are obviously more effective than the ones they use. The context of our research provides clear examples of these. The lack of training opportunities for most teachers of English in Huambo-Angola has made teachers impart knowledge through direct translation. What we can observe now is that some teachers refuse to use Communicative Language Teaching despite being the official teaching method for foreign languages in Angola. Most of them see being able to translate as a sign of language learning success. Whenever communicative ideas are introduced, they are met with resistance because of their focus on language use instead of route learning (see section A.1.).

Finally, in our teaching context, we have noticed that the elderly (teachers) have more difficulties with technology. The use of computers and even audio-visual materials seem to be a major challenge for most senior teachers in Huambo. The truth of the fact is that some are not even able to use computers to their full advantage. This is a direct result of the fact that in most teaching situations, in our context of research, the use of computers and other technological learning tools is still a novelty.

3.1.1.1.3. Experience versus years of service

It is tempting to assume that the longer we teach a subject the more experienced we become. However, if we look back at the concept of experience discussed above, we will realise that time is not the only factor in acquiring experience. If we take the example of someone who is not trained in teaching, it will be hard to agree that he/she is an experienced professional. Another instance would be to consider trained teachers who hardly innovate or experiment with other teaching techniques and learning activities.

Experience requires initial training, practice of the profession, reflection before, while, and on practice, and time (Wallace, 1991). To become an expert in language teaching, one must undergo initial education, i.e. pre-service training. At this phase the trainee will be made familiar with the concepts of the profession, will acquire both simple and complex theoretical background of the new profession. This theory is matched to teaching practice in a process of practice-and-reflection before action, in action, and on action. Once they finished their pre-service training and start exerting the teaching profession, practice, reflection and teacher development activities, combined with repeated exposure to various teaching and learning encounters over the years we can gain experience (see chapter one). Therefore, a crucial distinction can be made between having experience, and having years of service. In other words, we can have five years of service and only one of experience.

To summarise, we can say that as mentioned above, our study showed that most of the participants were between 31 to 40 years old. It is our understanding that this age range is a good one since the subjects are neither too young nor too old for the profession. Moreover, most of the participants had been teaching for 10 years. This figure would be significant to the acquisition of experience in language teaching. However, if we consider that a pre-requisite to becoming an expert in language teaching is to have undergone initial training, to put us in the right track with respect to language teaching, and most of the teachers had been trained in teaching Psychology, it will be fair to conclude that our participants had more years of service than years of experience.

3.1.1.2. Motivation for teaching English

It is fairly known that motivation plays a critical role in ensuring effective language teaching. A motivated teacher should be persistent, enthusiastic and committed. Whereas, a demotivated one may hinder the learning process. This process of decision making regarding one's willingness to fully commit to the success of the students may help explain the *raison d'être* of some teachers being more successful than the others.

Motivation could be seen as a complex aspect of human behaviour and it is not surprising that it has been dealt with extensively. The word 'motivation' derives from the Latin word 'movere' and stands for 'to move'. The term encompasses the idea of something that helps us to attain our goals (Schunk *et al.*, 2014: 4). Motivation may trigger the drive to excellence in language teaching. Thus, it directs us to the underlying force of the teaching calling by mingling what we are, and what we desire and estimate for language teaching.

For a clearer interpretation of the results we obtained, it is paramount that we discuss two types of motivation first. First of all, we have extrinsic motivation. It refers to the drive one has to participate in an activity not for the joy of it, but to accomplish an external goal (Ryan and Deci, 2000: 60). This is said of the kind that an individual participates in an activity to be praised, or receive some compensation, or when it is mandatory.

The second deals with internal incentive. This is called intrinsic motivation. Ryan and Deci (*ibid.*: 56) define it 'as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence'. We can say that the best professional is the one with internal impetus, since they do not require external thrust in planning and executing their professional duties. A self-motivated teacher will look for opportunities to develop because they want continuous improvement of their practice. They will reflect and make valid contributions to the teaching field.

Our results regarding teacher motivation for language teaching shows that 33.33% of the respondents taught English because they liked it. This, obviously, sounds like a quick excuse, the first that comes to our minds. Nevertheless, the finding can be interpreted to mean that our audience had been intrinsically motivated to teach English. This is very important considering what was said above about self-motivation. Furthermore, we would expect such kind of teachers to be determined to improve their teaching, those who would search for training opportunities, join teacher related social groups, investigate about language learning and teaching, among other aspects.

As a summary of the first group of the questionnaire, we have concluded that although the subjects had optimum age range for language teaching, the lack of pre-service training turned their

many years of practice mostly into years of service and not of experience. Finally, we came to a close that the great majority of the subjects had intrinsic motivation for teaching English. Thus, they were open to change their practice and learn more about ELT.

Having dealt with the description of the subjects, we proceed below to discuss the participants' general ELT knowledge.

3.1.2. General ELT knowledge

When describing the questionnaire, we mentioned that despite not being trained, our audience possessed some understanding about language teaching. To discover this awareness, we asked for their opinions regarding well-established language learning and teaching principles. In this section, we are going to discuss the teachers' views of the aforementioned tenets. We should clarify that we are not going to follow the order in which the principles are laid in the questionnaire, but we will consider the relevance of the principle by the percentage of the subjects' choice.

3.1.2.1. Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence

This section will focus on the interpretation and discussion of the perceptions of the respondents regarding the above principle in order to reach a valid conclusion. We will essentially discuss Communicative Competence (CC) ('knowledge of not only if something is formally possible in a language, but also the knowledge of whether it is feasible, appropriate, or done in a particular speech community' (Richards and Schmidt, *op.cit.*: 90), comprising four types of competences: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic (see B.5.1)).

As presented in the results section (table 6), 66.667% of the sample size agreed that language teaching should be aimed at enabling students to acquire CC. To approve of such tenet is an important starting point in the process of obtaining a holistic understanding of chief language teaching principles. As seen in the literature review chapter, to help students gain CC, we must start by tailoring the teaching activity toward the instructional goal of assisting students to communicate. Accordingly, the teacher must shift from an upfront stance to become a facilitator. The enabler should provide opportunities for students to be communicators by making all learning activities have a communicative purpose. Moreover, in the communication process, students' feelings are taken into consideration to create motivation for the learning tasks, which entails language functions and focuses on both fluency

and accuracy. Finally, this process allows students' mistakes to be seen as a natural part of the learning process.

The findings are conclusive in respect of unveiling that even untrained teachers, through common sense, understand that to help learners communicate in a foreign language should be the emphasis of the teaching activities. In fact, it is hard to imagine teaching a language without somehow aiming at some form of communication with its users. Unless one is teaching dead languages, we would expect CC as the primary goal for language teaching. The issue here, however, is not simply to acknowledge CC as the focus of language teaching, but to follow principles that enable us to attain such a goal. Therefore, the approaches, the methods, techniques, materials, etc. adopted for conveying the knowledge of a new language will determine whether we really want to help our students to communicate fluently and accurately in the target language. This can be achieved through the implementation of CLT.

As seen in the first chapter, CLT aims at the teaching of CC. This attention is based on a theory of language whose target is the development of CC. Therefore, the theoretical foundation of CLT should give prominence to helping learners develop linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

From the insights gained in the first chapter, we could understand that linguistic competence is the ability to manipulate grammatical aspects with precision. It entails the knowledge of not only the grammatical rules, but also of vocabulary, phonology, and semantics of a language (Richards and Schmidt, *loc.cit.*). Although linguistic competence is mostly related to the ability to understand and produce literal meaning of language, it is a critical aspect in developing CC since it represents the backbone of any successful communicative act. In the academic area, it is almost unconceivable to encounter positive interaction where grammar is undermined. Consequently, teachers should help students use language as precisely as possible because grammatical accuracy is usually associated with a high level of CC.

To facilitate the acquisition of such competence, teachers have a wide range of methodological choices. However, following CLT, at the beginner level, grammatical accuracy plays a second role because at this phase we would want our students to be as fluent as possible. This is based on research on SLA maintaining a natural learning process in the classroom (cf. Brown, 2000). As they become more proficient in language use, a more fine-tuned approach will be required; hence the importance of giving more prominence to overt grammar teaching. Therefore, at this stage, teachers should concentrate more on form rather than on meaning (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 1987).

As expected, grammatical knowledge alone cannot account for successful interaction among people in different domains of language use ('an area of human activity in which one particular speech variety or a combination of several speech varieties is regularly used' (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 168-9)); that is where the sociolinguistic dimension of language use comes into play. Social factors, such as the participants, topic, place, purpose, social distance, status, social roles, etc. exert a great influence on linguistic choices for communication. In fact, as Holmes (2008: 9) clarifies, our choice of grammatical structures, vocabulary, among others often depend on the following:

- Who are the speakers?
- In what context is the language used?
- What are the speakers talking about?
- How well do the speakers know each other?
- What is the social status of the speakers?
- How formal or informal should the language be?
- What is the language being used for?

Our degree of sociolinguistic competence is directly related to the extent to which we can make appropriate linguistic choices for specific domains of language use.

In the classroom, to help students develop sociolinguistic competence, teachers must give special emphasis to appropriacy ('the extent to which a use of language matches the linguistic and sociolinguistic expectations and practices of native speakers of the language' (Richards and Schmidt, *op.cit.*: 30)). This concept entails the use of appropriate register ('variation in the choice of vocabulary, structure, accent, etc. used to express an idea' (Mathews, *et. al.*, 1985: 214)) in a specific context. Teachers should, therefore, make use of functional and social communication activities. In short, whenever we teach a linguistic aspect, we must inform students of its sociolinguistic nuances.

The knowledge of the influence of social factors in variety choice should be complemented by discourse competence. Discourse refers to meaningful pieces of language that are unified and purposive (Cook, 1989: 156). Thus, it goes beyond the production of correct sentences to include paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc.

Discourse analysis is centred on the way written and spoken language combine to make meaningful units. It encompasses how the structure of discourse is affected by the choice of grammatical aspects, the connection of utterances in a discourse, and the way we initiate, maintain and change conversations (McCarthy, 1991: 5; Richards and Schmidt, *passim*).

As seen in the literature review chapter, discourse competence is a language user's ability to produce acceptable unified spoken or written texts in different genres. To convey this skill to the learners, Cook (*op.cit.*: 7) advocates the adoption of the Discourse Analysis Approach (hereafter DAA) to language study. The DAA values language production for the achievement of a communicative goal - language use, for communication. The DAA is characterised by an emphasis on contextually coherent and appropriate sentences. In this approach, language study does not occur without due attention to contextual factors. The aim of the DAA is to reach communicative goals without a rigid need to present grammatically correct sentences (though grammar rules are used as a resource, conformity to them is done when needed; when it is not, a speaker may depart from them).

The DAA is important in respect of placing attention on helping learners to communicate. Furthermore, it entails the essential aspects of dealing with language in the real world, such as knowing how conversations are carried out successfully, how effective pieces of writing are structured, and why students should always contextualise the language structures and the vocabulary items they use in interaction. Thus, the approach searches for discourse coherence and cohesion (Cook, *loc.cit.*).

Nevertheless, we should be cautious, as the sole focus on language use for communication may result in subjectivity in finding a piece of language as discourse. This comes from the realisation that grunts, short conversations, scrawled notes, etc. are also seen as discourse (Cook, *passim.*).

Anyone who has learned a new language at a younger age or recently may have experienced some moments when communicating with others using that language was particularly difficult because of a sudden lack of vocabulary or grammar to continue the conversation. At such moments, we resort to a wide variety of linguistic tools to get the message across. These moment-by-moment ways of solving communication problems related to linguistic output, when expressing meaning to deliver messages, are called communication strategies (Brown, 2000: 122-3). Thus, these have to do with the use of verbal and non-verbal tactics for the communication of information.

Communication strategies include avoidance and compensatory procedures. The former refers to occasions when the speaker evades the use of a difficult word or structure, and decides to employ a simpler one. This type of strategy entails message abandonment (when a user does not finish a message due to language problems), and topic avoidance (occasions of elusion when a topic area is problematic to the speaker) (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 44). The latter entails compensation of missing knowledge. Brown (*op.cit.*: 128) provides examples of compensatory strategies as follows:

1. Circumlocution – describing or exemplifying the target object of action.
2. Approximation – using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible.

3. Use of all-purpose words – extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.
4. Word coinage – creating a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule.
5. Prefabricated patterns – using memorized stock phrases, usually for survival purposes
6. Nonlinguistic signals – mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.
7. Literal translation – translating literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2.
8. Foreignizing – using an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (L2 pronunciation), and/morphology (adding to it an L2 suffix, for example).
9. Code-switching – using an L1 word with L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2.
10. Appeal for help – asking for aid from the interlocutor either directly or indirectly.
11. Stalling or time gaining strategies – using fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think.

Therefore, our ability to avoid and compensate for breakdowns in communication using the above strategies will determine our degree of strategic competence. Nevertheless, it seems obvious that when one has to resort to such strategies, our overall communicative competence is not high since we would not expect an advanced language user to resort to stalling, code-switching, etc. to try to get the message across.

In conclusion, considering that our study began from the realisation that a considerable number of English teachers in Huambo were not trained to teach English, they had to be trained to do so. However, before the training we had to uncover the teachers' beliefs about general language teaching principles. Our finding that 66.667% of the subjects agreed with the communicative principle was crucial, later at the training stage, to helping the trainees grasp the concepts we imparted because they had already a positive attitude towards CLT.

3.1.2.2. Risk-taking promotes language learning

In this section, we will interpret and discuss the results regarding the teachers' attitudes towards risk-taking in the classroom. We will first look at the definition of risk-taking followed by analysis of evidence from other studies about its importance.

The study has helped us discover that over 65% of the inquired teachers disagreed with risk-taking as being beneficial to students' learning. This finding represents an unhappy circumstance because many studies have proven the benefits of calculated risks for successful language learning.

Risk-taking is defined as 'a situation where an individual has to make a decision involving choice between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain; there is a possibility of failure' (Beebe, 1983 in Gass and Selinker, 2008: 433). Moreover, a risk-taker will engage in possibly harmful and embarrassing behaviour; they are simply driven by the expectation of success.

This type of students is ready to try out learning tasks even in cases where they do not have the slightest idea what to say or write; they simply aim for success without worrying about failure (Gass and Selinker, *ibid.*).

Risk-takers are contrasted with inhibited learners. The latter are those who restrain themselves from taking what they think are unnecessary risks in language learning. Humaera (2015: 31) views inhibition as an unpredictable propensity to be wary and fearful in the presence of unfamiliar situations. She claims that the following factors can cause inhibition: lack of motivation, shyness, lack of self-confidence and self-esteem, and language ego.

Considering that a demotivated student may resist to participating in classroom tasks, we agree with Humaera. Moreover, a shy student with self-confidence and self-esteem issues seems to be a logical candidate for reserved behaviour.

Risk-taking is seen by many teachers and researchers as a crucial factor in promoting language learning. For example, the following researchers have all conducted studies where it was positively correlated to successful language learning: Ely (1986); Dehbozorgi (2012); Zúñiga (2013); and Meriem (2015).

Ely (1986) studied the influence of language class uneasiness, risk-taking, and sociability on SLL. The outcomes of the investigation were that risk-taking positively predicted participation as a sign of oral correctness.

In an investigation aimed at unearthing of the effects of risk-taking on learning a language, Dehbozorgi (2012) discovered a significant positive relationship between attitude towards language learning and risk-taking. The study involved 120 female and male college students majoring in English Translation at Marvdasht University. He used an attitude towards language learning scale, venturesome subscale of Eysenck IVE questionnaire, and Oxford quick placement test.

Zúñiga (2013) carried out a study designed to enhance high school students' participation in English classes through pair-work risk-taking activities. She used a qualitative design through observations and interviews. The investigation involved six EFL students of a public school. In order to obtain an in-depth understanding of the problem under study, the investigator compared the data through a constant comparison strategy. She found out that the promotion of risk-taking through pair-work activities had many benefits for the partakers because 'students became the centre of the class, self-monitored their class performance, and enhanced self-esteem to improve their communication skills' (Zúñiga, *ibid.*: 25).

Meriem (2015) trying to find out the effects of risk-taking on the learning of spoken English at University, in a series of classroom tasks, discovered that the research variables were positively correlated. Therefore, she recommends a certain amount of risk-taking in the classroom.

The studies above are important in respect of showing that risk-taking should be regarded as an important affective factor in the prediction of SLL success. Moreover, they offer evidence that risk-taking helps learners to participate in language learning activities by doing more practice, cooperating with peers, learning through correction of mistakes, etc. Thus, risk-taking can help students achieve foreign language proficiency.

Unfortunately, in our study, the teachers under investigation did not perceive the importance of exposing students to controlled risky tasks. Nevertheless, in the training course, this was made clear to them and their attitude changed.

3.1.2.3. Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting

With respect to the tenet above, our study has proven that 60% of the investigated teachers were in full agreement with the relation of language and culture. In other words, they believed that language teaching encompasses teaching culture of a certain people.

In fact, it is accepted that the way we act, respond to things, our vision of the world, the way we dress, what and how we eat, what we value as sacred, our birth place, our language, among other aspects underlie our philosophy of life. People are valued by their culture. Civilised nations are seen as so because they hold moral values, education and health standards, religious beliefs, dress code, etc. that other countries do not possess. We are identified by our customs in so far as we are faithful to our origins. When we think of a typical African man, we have a somewhat stereotyped idea of a black individual. This is in fact a calculated guess based on experience and observation. If we carry out an endeavour to learn more about that person, we would probably aim at understanding their culture and going beyond the limited stereotypes. Cultural traits are distinctive features of different peoples. We would probably see African, Asian, European, American, etc. as essentially different populates due to peculiar cultural aspects.

In the education field in general, learning the culture of a different people usually involves becoming familiar with their language. This happens because languages are seen as to enshrine values, beliefs and ways of thinking (Barrow, 1990: 6). Jiang (2000: 328), for example, believes that culture and language are attached to each other. She maintains that language is part of culture because in the

absence of language, culture cannot be realised. From this perspective, language represents and is moulded by culture. Thus, language is regarded as a 'symbolic representation of a people, since it comprises their historical and cultural backgrounds, as well as their approach to life and their ways of living and thinking' (Jiang, *ibid.*). Therefore, 'a language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of a language; ... [we] ... cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture' (Brown, 1994: 165 in Jiang, *loc.cit.*).

The above views reveal that it may be difficult to teach a language without somehow imparting cultural content. In effect, according to Valdes (1990: 20), all the teaching procedures we use in the classroom are applied to certain content, and it is usually cultural matter, even if we try to disguise it. Thus, acknowledging culture as being at the centre of language education, teachers and students should be made aware of this so that it is used to its full advantage (Valdes, *ibid.*: 29).

In brief, in the light of what literature says about language and culture, to have 60% of the subjects of this investigation agreeing with the principle under discussion is very important for the reason that this is similar to what many researchers have proven to be a crucial principle underlying any teaching activity.

3.1.2.4. Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language

From the results presented previously, it is clear that more than half of the participants believed that students' L1 may help or hinder the learning process.

This assumption is not unfounded since any teacher of EFL may have noticed that certain types of mistakes made by learners can be directly related to their L1. This could entail grammar, pronunciation, etc.

Language transfer, 'the effect of one language on the learning of another' (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 294), may happen in two main ways: positive and negative transfer. According to Richards and Schmidt (*ibid.*), the former helps language learning by making this process easier. They provide the example of the word 'table' as having the same meaning in both English and French; a French speaking student would have a positive transference when learning such word in English. In our context of research, where students' first language is mostly Portuguese (despite being a multi-lingual country, in Angola, younger generations have Portuguese as their first language owing to the fact that it is the language they acquire first, their parents address them in Portuguese, and they are more proficient in it than in the regional languages), English teachers often resort to vocabulary that is similar in both languages. For instance, words like 'fact', 'computer', 'television', etc. exist in English and in

Portuguese. Thus, students rarely have problems grasping their concepts. The latter occurs when learners try to use their L1 linguistic repertoire in the acquisition and use of the target language. An example of this would be to consider English and Portuguese adjective word order. While we can have a construction like 'a beautiful house', in Portuguese we have '*uma casa bonita*'. In such cases, we would expect students to make mistakes like 'a house beautiful'.

In relation to our research problem and research question, this finding is critical in proving what we have assumed when designing the questionnaire that despite not being trained, the subjects were already aware of some basic ideas of the type of language teaching problems they can face when teaching English to their Portuguese speaking students. Therefore, we can conclude that 60% of the participants to our study knew that some of the mistakes and difficulties that SL learners may have could be attributed to negative transfer.

To summarise the conclusions of the discussion of the findings of the second group of the questionnaire, some key aspects should be put forward. First of all, we concluded that despite not being trained, common sense rested on the base of the trainees' recognition that an important part of the teaching activity is to enable students to communicate and this is done by focusing on imparting CC. This fact would open their minds for the training in CLT. Secondly, we determined that since the vast majority of the participants did not know that risk-taking is important for language learning, this should be made clear in the training. Thirdly, it was concluded that most of the investigated teachers were aware of the language culture connection. Consequently, this knowledge would facilitate the acquisition of extra know-how in the training programme. Finally, with respect to language interference, we came to a close in respect of most of the subjects acknowledging the fact that negative transfer is expected in Foreign Language Teaching. This would help the grasp of further ideas easier.

With the above discoveries in mind, we can now move to interpret and discuss the findings of the third group of our questionnaire.

3.1.3. Teaching vocabulary

The ability to teach vocabulary is one of the most important skills for language teachers because a great portion of their teaching is usually spent on showing meaning and form of words and expressions to students. In this regard, we were interested in understanding the underlying cognisance of this crucial teaching skill. In this section, we are going to analyse and interpret the facets related to teaching vocabulary as presented in the questionnaire.

3.1.3.1. Importance of common techniques for teaching vocabulary

From the results accessible on section 2.2., the following is patent as the order of importance chosen by the respondents:

1. Translate the word into the students' own language.
2. Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
3. Draw a picture to show what the word means.
4. Ask students to translate the word.
5. Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
6. Ask questions using the new word.
7. Give an English example to show how the word is used.

For the intent of making valid conclusions, we are going to analyse and discuss the value of each technique in light of what was presented in the literature review.

Translation

It seems obvious that for most non-trained teachers, and for that effect anyone who learns a language, that to translate vocabulary and grammar from one language to another is the most natural way of teaching and learning it. However, the complexity of the learning process usually disappoints those who insist on this practice. Many writers have pondered on the use of translation for language teaching (e.g. Atkinson, 1987; Liu, 2008; Alroe and Reinders, 2015, among many others). In fact, as seen in chapter one, there is even a method devoted to translation (Grammar Translation Method, cf. Freeman, 2000).

As we would expect, most teaching approaches and methods have shown an aversion to direct translation as the main way of helping students learn a foreign or second language. Considering the fact that for most of the teachers in our research translation was the number one technique, it was to some extent disturbing, and to the other understandable. It was certainly alarming because of the issues attached to translation in the classroom. For example, it is acknowledged that the excessive use of translation may deprive students from learning how to communicate effectively and turns them to believe that unless they know the mother tongue equivalent, they will not understand the meaning of the new vocabulary item. However, it is fairly easy to grasp that for the participants in this study, to translate was the main way to teach vocabulary. This happens simply because of our previous argument that for non-trained people translation is an obvious method of language teaching and learning (see chapter one).

With our research problem and research question in mind, this was a confirmation of the imperious need to train the teachers of the study. If we picture an unqualified person teaching English without any instruction on how to do so, the image we get may not be a calming one. In fact, this was the drive underscoring the current thesis. We would see teachers bringing lists of words for memorisation and entire bilingual lessons. That is to say, we would find English and Portuguese with specific roles in the classroom. Informally, we have observed many of such lessons. We would find teachers writing lists of vocabulary items with equivalents for the students to copy. The most serious aspect was the realisation that students progressing could not communicate as a direct consequence of the fact that memorising words that are not contextualised seldom helped them attain communicative goals.

We can conclude that the instance of the greatest majority of our participants choosing translation as the first technique to use when teaching vocabulary meant that they desperately needed training in more communicative friendly techniques.

Say the word clearly and write it on the board

Common practice in teaching vocabulary has shown many practitioners that after successfully presenting the meaning of new vocabulary items, what follows is to show the students the physical part of the word or expression (cf. Doff, 1987). This is usually done by simply saying the word out loud and asking students to repeat after the teacher. This is typically done in chorus, in rows, and individually (cf. Doff, *ibid.*). In the context of present research, having written the word on the board and translated it, and asked the students to copy to their notebooks what is left is to practice the oral model. It is important to maintain here, as seen in the literature review, that this technique is exclusive to the teaching of the form of the word or expression. Thus, it has been argued by methodologists that to ask students to repeat what they do not understand does not seem fair to them. For example, Doff (*loc.cit.*) provides the following example as a way of demonstrating how ineffective repetition can be to the teaching of the meaning of words:

Teacher: you want to muggle a wump.

Students: Let's muggle a wump.

Teacher: you want to figgle a wimp.

Students: Let's figgle a wimp, etc.

Although this refers to a rather complex type of repetition (called substitution) it may serve as an example of the danger of mindless repetition of expressions of which students did not yet grasp the meaning. It clearly reveals that students may be able to repeat what they hear and mimic what they see; but it does not mean they know what they are saying. In the case above they are just repeating non

sense expressions. Therefore, saying a word, repeating it, writing it on the board, and asking students to copy it to their notebooks is usually recommended to help them perceive how it looks like and what it feels like voicing them.

The choice of this procedure as the second central technique by the audience of this study matches what English Language Teaching methodologists maintain as an appropriate and second logical step after the students have been shown what the word means (cf. Doff, *passim*).

Draw a picture to show what the word means

The fact that the participants to the current study had chosen this technique as less imperative than translation and repetition can be interpreted to mean that they did not know the advantages of helping students comprehend the meaning of new words using visual techniques.

As discussed in the literature review, the use of real objects, pictures, and board drawings is good for introducing new vocabulary. First of all, seeing the object is the fastest and most convenient way of grasping its meaning. In actual fact, since there are hundreds of simple objects already in the classroom, and others can probably be seen through the window, or we can bring them from home when presenting vocabulary this is common practice to most trained teachers. Moreover, to teach the meaning of real objects that can be brought to the classroom or are already in the classroom, or parts of the human body, we can simply point at them. For others, we could just draw a picture on the board, or show them to the students. Finally, exposing the meaning visually is an effective technique because it is interesting, and it makes an impression on the class and it is quick, easy, and clear (Gains and Redman, 1986; Doff, 1987).

Ask students to translate the word

As an alternative to teacher translation, asking students to translate themselves seems interesting. However, as the literature review chapter has suggested, this should be one of the last procedures when presenting vocabulary. For our research problem and research question, this means that the subjects did not seem to be aware of the place of students' translation in the steps of introducing a vocabulary item.

Get the class to repeat the word in chorus

As stated earlier, repetition of words usually comes after their meaning has been taught. We also said that this technique is only beneficial to the oral form of the word. The fact that the subjects had placed this in the last ways of teaching words manifests that they did not know the place of repetition in teaching vocabulary.

Ask questions using the new word

Again, a retrospective of the literature review, with the participants' choice in mind, not giving this technique its due weight could be interpreted to mean that they were not aware of the fact that being able to ask questions using a new word is one of the best ways of helping students know how to use new vocabulary item.

Give an English example to show how the word is used

Once we have taught the meaning of new words, to show students how to use them, it is common to give examples. The fact that the participants to this study chose this technique as the least important one may indicate their lack of understanding that it is not enough just to teach the meaning and form of new words; we also need to demonstrate students how the word fits in its different contexts.

In brief, the results making reference to the value ascribed to some vocabulary teaching techniques are conclusive in respect of showing that the audience lacked basic knowledge on how to teach vocabulary.

3.1.3.2. Logical order in teaching vocabulary

As seen in the outcomes section, with reference to logic in teaching vocabulary, we had the following as the main order of organising the presentation of vocabulary, as chosen by the majority of the subjects:

- 1st - Translate the word into the students' own language.
- 2nd - Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
- 3rd - Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
- 4th - Give an English example to show how the word is used/ Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
- 5th - Ask students to translate the word.
- 6th - Give an English example to show how the word is used.
- 7th - Ask questions using the new word /Translate the word into the students' own language

We discussed in the literature review chapter that the teaching of new words is ideally done in the following order:

1. Draw a picture to show what the word means.
2. Give an English example to show how the word is used.
3. Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
4. Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
5. Ask questions using the new word.
6. Ask students to translate the new word

7. Translate the word into students' own language.

If we compare this list with the above one, we can fairly conclude that the subjects of the present study did not appear to know what sequence is most appropriate when combining different techniques for presenting vocabulary items.

3.1.3.3. Other techniques for teaching vocabulary

It has already been mentioned that even though the subjects of the present study were not trained to teach English, we had assumed that they had some ideas on how to teach English. Based on this assumption, we asked them to list any type of vocabulary teaching techniques they were acquainted with. The findings are discussed in the impending paragraphs.

Subject number one has expressed the point that the use of word lists is vital in teaching vocabulary. It is implied in this assertion that the person believed in memorising lists of words as helpful for learning new words. While students may have an idea about the meaning of the vocabulary item, this procedure is usually counterproductive. To begin with, students cannot see the words in context. Moreover, memorising many words a day or week does not help for real retention due to the fact that they are easily forgotten (see chapter one). A convincing list of words for students to take in should entail, apart from mother tongue equivalents, other aspects (such as some examples of its use, collocations, denotations, etc. (see chapter one)). Therefore, subject one had to be made clear about this during the training.

Looking at the comments made by subject number two, he stressed the element of reading as a source of learning new vocabulary. This is true since by encouraging learners to read different types of texts, they can increase their lexis. This proves that the partaker was aware of the advantages of extensive reading in helping students increase their vocabulary power.

Subject number three had all the signs of being aware of the worth of being able to use realia in the teaching of vocabulary. This is significant taking into account what we discussed above regarding the application of visual techniques in teaching new words. We can deduce that the subject under analysis had appropriate insights as for the teaching of objects.

Subject number four gave a rather confusing answer. Thus, it was difficult to interpret what he meant. Still, this revealed his Communicative Competence level and how well he could understand English. In other words, he had serious linguistic problems.

Subject number five suggested the use of mime and pictures. For suitable vocabulary, these are interesting techniques. One must, however, be careful not to overdo them (cf. Doff, 1987).

Nevertheless, in the subject's response we could not perceive whether he knew that for other types of vocabulary items the procedures are not appropriate. For this reason, we can construe that the subject had incomplete knowledge about teaching vocabulary.

Subject number six expressed the point that students' individual repetition and copying is helpful for learning vocabulary. They are indeed effective techniques of teaching the form of new words. Other than that, it is hard to imagine that a teacher would be capable of teaching the meaning of new words by asking students to repeat them over and over again. For this teacher, a useful advice was to explain them the above particular of language teaching.

Subject number seven gave also the impression of being a bit linguistically challenged by claiming the following: 'to get students in parks, shops, school, in tourist place and speaking only English'. While providing students with opportunities to experience the language in its real context is very important, the way the respondent presented it appears to mean that a teacher should be walking around with students to get them speak English. What is more, in the context of present research, it is just impossible to accomplish that considering the fact that Portuguese is the language spoken in those places. So, the teacher's response gives rise to the interpretation that probably they were not aware of what they wrote about.

Despite the many mistakes in the response of subject number eight, to have suggested the use of study groups, the internet, and computer programmes was very significant for a non-trained teacher. We can infer that this teacher was effectively concerned with the students' learning.

For subject number nine, audio and visual lessons are important in helping students' listening skills and comprehension. It is hard to deny such standpoint, and in reality, today's language teaching relies heavily on the use audio and visual materials to help students learn languages and to spark and maintain interest and motivation in the classroom.

Subject number ten was convinced that the use of homework plus drawing and writing words, and the use of music and films are helpful for vocabulary learning. This demonstrates that the subject had some interesting and positive thoughts about language learning. Therefore, this participant was encouraged to continue with such attitude.

Subject number eleven believed that listening to English songs is conducive to vocabulary learning. The merit of understanding lyrics in a foreign language can be very rewarding for most language students. The fact this teacher was aware of this is significant and such view should be nurtured and effectively supported.

Subject number twelve's response about the use of pictures and photographs goes along with what was already discussed regarding these techniques.

Subject number thirteen also stressed the use of visual inputs in the process of learning new words. This is a noteworthy finding and means that despite not being trained the respondent was familiar with common techniques for vocabulary development.

Although subject number fourteen's answer seemed like a cliché, the fact that he was not trained in ELT made it exceptional. Thus, during the training programme, he was made knowledgeable about the advantages of combining different techniques when presenting new words.

The last subject gave indication of having been aware of good ways to help improve the students' vocabulary knowledge. In point of fact, by reading books, listening to music and watching films we can acquire and be able to use a satisfactory number of words.

To recapitulate the conclusions of this section, we could say that concerning the importance of the techniques suggested by the subjects, we could determine that they exhibited lack of basic understanding of teaching vocabulary. Consequently, the order of teaching techniques proposed by them was not convincing. Another significant inference refers to the point that for other teaching techniques, most of the subjects demonstrated also deficiency in elementary procedures for teaching vocabulary.

Up to now, we have been interpreting and discussing the subjects' competence in teaching vocabulary. Having finished that, we turn to seeing how well they could teach grammar.

3.1.4. Teaching grammar

Any successful language teacher must be able to impart grammatical knowledge. Teaching grammar is so important that for centuries language teaching meant grammar teaching. Today, to be able to present grammar is still one of the most critical teaching skills. This is the spirit that led us to discover the extent to which the questioned teachers could introduce and get their students to practice grammar. Sequentially, all the aspects of the questionnaire referring to teaching grammar will be interpreted and discussed in the coming subsections.

3.1.4.1. Opinions about teaching grammar

In the results section, it was made clear that the vast majority of the participants thought that grammar should be taught overtly. Mainstream literature maintains that the place of grammar should be carefully pondered on. For example, it is defended that to teach grammar overtly to children can be detrimental to

their learning of a language (cf. Harmer, 1987). It is sustained that overt grammar teaching should mainly occur when the students have attained a desirable degree of fluency (cf. Harmer, *ibid.*). This outcome could be construed to mean that the subjects were unaware of the place of grammar in ELT.

3.1.4.2. Logical order in teaching grammar

With regard to rationality in the organisation of the techniques a teacher may follow to present grammatical knowledge to their students, the results were conclusive in respect of displaying the following as the main order:

1. Write the sentence on the board.
2. Draw pictures and give examples/give a model and get the class to repeat.
3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
4. Give other situations and examples/explain how the structure is formed.
5. Ask the class to copy the sentence.

In the literature review, we saw that writing a sentence on the board shows essentially the form of the new language. To present structures, depending on each type, the teacher should start by showing their meaning visually or through situations and examples. This should be followed by chorus and individual repetition. The next step is to write the sentence on the board and explain how the structure is formed, and asking students to copy it to their notebooks. To ensure and reinforce what has been presented, teachers could end the introduction by using other situations and examples of the same structure. In conclusion, the subjects did not seem to know how to organise their presentations.

In brief, concerning teaching grammar, we came to a close that the subjects were not familiar with the place of grammar in ELT, and they did not know how to organise the presentation of grammar.

This concludes our discussion on grammar teaching background of the respondents of the questionnaire. In the following section, we extend our analysis to include knowledge of lesson planning.

3.1.5. Lesson planning

It is consensual that for effective teaching, preparation is a chief prerequisite. It does not matter how experienced one is, if you are not prepared it is advisable not to go to classroom. This section will focus on the discussion of the subjects' replies to the questionnaire section making reference to lesson planning.

3.1.5.1. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Table 10 from the results section displays a summary of the answers to the reasons why teachers must plan their lessons. From subject number one's answer, we can deduce that they believed that for the teaching activity to run smoothly planning is of utmost importance. This finding is crucial in showing that the lack of training in ELT did not prevent him from seeing that without planning one cannot hope to have a successful teaching practice.

A closer look at what subject number two has provided as a response to the question concerning the importance of lesson planning, we could conclude that he seemed to have understood that planning is critical since it helps organise our activities for the classroom and makes a teacher ready for unpredictable situations. This discovery goes along the lines laid when we sustained that lack of training in ELT did not mean that the subjects of the investigation did not know anything.

Subject number three brought to light the idea that planning is imperative because it is a teaching guide providing information related to the students, the school, and methodology. This is pertinent if we consider that the respondent had had not formal training in ELT. So, it is safe to say that even before the training, he already knew that lesson planning is important.

For subject number four the importance of planning transcends the classroom to consider education in general. He also acknowledged the impossibility of being able to teach good lessons without planning. This finding can be interpreted to mean that he knew how relevant planning is not just for a teacher's daily activities, but even the entire education system has to be carefully planned.

Although grammatically challenged, subject number five's answer highlighted safety for the teacher in planning. In fact, for beginner teachers, the lesson plan can be a yardstick for checking if the lesson goes as planned. Ergo, we could say that this respondent possessed such knowledge prior to the training programme.

Subject number six maintained that lack of planning is suicidal for a teacher's career. Needless to say, without planning a teacher runs the risk of losing face before the students.

The answer we obtained from subject number seven indicates that she was concerned with the possibility of making mistakes in the classroom, if careful lesson planning was not taken into account. On an equal footing with the others, this teacher appeared to understand the importance of planning in avoiding both language and methodological mistakes. For this partaker, we can say that even without training, she understood the importance of the lesson plan.

Subject number eight's answer was straight but empty because he did not provide any further comments or clarification remarks whatsoever. This could be seen as a lack of understanding of the reason why people should plan their lessons.

From a different perspective, subject number nine asserted that without plan it is impossible to teach well. In his opinion, this is not just for English. In fact, it is applicable to all teaching subjects. This result means that he was aware of the importance of lesson planning even before the training.

The fact that subject number ten claimed that to teach in good ways we need to plan, means that he knew the relevance of a lesson plan for the teaching process.

For subject eleven, planning is not only crucial in language teaching. It helps in the achievement of any professional goals. It is hard to deny that for whatever we do, planning should obviously be the first step. For our research, what matters is that the respondent's knowledge base regarding language teaching encompassed an understanding that planning is crucial for the success of the teaching action.

The analysis of the answer of subject number twelve reveals that he believed that planning must be done for everything. This shows that he was familiar with the importance of planning prior to the training programme.

The remaining subjects all acknowledged the importance of lesson planning for fruitful language teaching. This means that they knew how relevant lesson planning is before the training course.

3.1.5.2. Frequency of lesson planning

From the pie chart on the results section, we could see that almost all subjects (86.667%) assumed to always planning their lessons. This find is crucial considering the discussion we had in 3.1.5.1 above owing to the fact that all the participants acknowledged the importance of planning. In this regard, it is logical to expect from the investigated teachers to follow rigorous daily lesson planning procedures. In addition, as seen in the literature review, irrespective of one's degree of expertise, meticulous planning for our lessons is critical for a successful teaching endeavour.

3.1.5.3. Knowledge of planning principles

In the methodology chapter, we explained that we had used question 14 of the questionnaire to discover if the participants used lesson planning principles. We found out that 86.667% claimed to use planning principles. However, when we asked them to list the principles they used, 40% of the subjects

did not answer the question and the remainder provided rather peculiar answers. This could spell lack of knowledge of lesson planning principles.

3.1.5.4. Plan structure

Following on the previous questions, those participants who gave answers to question 14 were asked to provide a description of the lesson plan structure that they normally used. As can be understood from the results and looking back at the literature review, most of them did not conform to known language lesson plans. This finding was not surprising if we consider that most of the participants were not even aware of planning principles. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that the audience was not familiar with the usual structure of a language lesson plan.

In summary, while the subjects knew the importance of lesson planning, and that it should be done very frequently they did not seem to know how to plan language lessons.

3.1.6. Classroom management

The administration of the teaching and learning process is also a key skill for any language teacher. To know which roles are appropriate for a particular lesson stage, how to group students, giving effective instructions, establishing rapport, etc. is both rewarding and a must. In the current work, the scope did not allow us to centre on all of them. Nevertheless, we paid attention to some aspects we believed our audience needed more focus on.

3.1.6.1. Classroom management techniques

Through a multiple-choice question, we discovered that a number exceeding 50% of the subjects did not have confidence in the use of eye contact as important for language learning. If we retrospect to the literature review, we will see that eye contact is in fact one of the most important tools a teacher can have to control the class. The fact that the audience of this investigation did not recognise this could be interpreted to mean that they were not aware of the advantages of effective use of eye contact in the classroom.

In a clear contrast, we found out that almost all participants thought that the teacher should pay attention to all the students. This is relevant and means that not being trained did stop them from approaching a critical aspect of modern pedagogy. That is, it is widely accepted that teachers should pay attention to all the students irrespective of the class size (cf. Ur, 1996).

3.1.6.2. Giving instructions

To unearth the participants' knowledge regarding logic when giving instructions to the students, we employed a multiple-choice question. We found out that more than half of the respondents thought that we should first demonstrate, then instruct, and finally check students' understanding. As discussed in the literature review, most scholars maintain that a logic order of instructing students to do tasks in the classroom should be as follows: instruct-demonstrate-check understanding (cf. Gower and Walters, 1995). This result could be seen as an indication of lack of knowledge on how to instruct students by the teachers investigated in the present work.

3.1.6.3. Causes of discipline problems

Considering the fact that to deal with classroom problems is a daily activity for most teachers, we wanted to learn the extent to which the subjects were familiar with this. The fallouts display 46.667% of the respondents blamed the teacher for class misbehaviour. The literature on the issue has shown different ways a teacher can cause classroom problems. To begin with, going to the classroom unprepared could cause serious discipline problems because the teacher can get lost or confused during the lesson. Secondly, not knowing appropriate methodology could also disrupt class behaviour. Finally, when teachers are unfair to students, it could cause reactive action on the part of the learners (cf. Harmer, 1984). Therefore, the respondents made a felicitous remark by mentioning the teacher as a source of classroom misconduct. However, there are other factors that influence the way students behave in the classroom. As discussed in the literature review, these are the students (time of the day for the lesson, negative attitude, acting out, bad company, family background, influence of previous learning experience, and success or failure), and the institution (not having a recognised system for dealing with problematic classes or individual students).

We can assume that while most subjects were able to identify one major source of misconduct in the classroom, they failed to positively link two other very important sources of students' indiscipline.

To summarise this section, we could say that the subjects failed to acknowledge the advantages of use of eye contact in the classroom. Nevertheless, all of them knew that a teacher must pay attention to all the students. Nonetheless, most of the participants did not know how to instruct students. Furthermore, the majority of the partakers were oblivious about positively linking two other significant sources of students' indiscipline. Therefore, a relevant part of the subjects was not familiar with the classroom management aspects tested.

This discussion has ended our debate on the audience's background knowledge of classroom management. Next in the questionnaire is to discover the teachers' awareness of ELT methods.

3.1.7. Awareness of English language teaching methods

It should be recalled that our research was built around the assumption that we could provide the subjects of this study with methodological insights. Prior to this, however, it was critical to learn what the student-teachers had already been familiar with. For this reason, we asked them whether they knew any ELT methods whatsoever. The answers to such question proved that 60% of the subjects claimed to have known ELT methods. Nevertheless, on confirming this claim, only two of the participants were able to list ELT methods. They listed the Grammar Translation Method and the Audio-lingual Method. Consequently, although the respondents claimed to have known ELT methods, in reality most of them had no clue of organised English teaching ways. Therefore, we can speculate that respondents acknowledged the importance of being familiar with teaching methods but did not seem to know any.

3.1.7.1. Communicative language teaching

We have finally reached the last part of the questionnaire. Recalling that CLT is the foundation of our study, the importance of this section can be easily perceived. As we wanted to provide the subjects of this investigation with a CLT in-service course, we deemed significant to discover their attitude toward some tenets ascribed to it.

3.1.7.1.1. Attitudes and opinions regarding main CLT principles

Table 21 from the results section portrayed main CLT principles juxtaposed with two renowned Grammar Translation teaching tenets. The findings show that the great majority of the participants had positive feelings about CLT philosophies. These were: the importance of learning activities having a communicative purpose, taking into account students' feelings, etc. We can, therefore, conclude that the audience was open to grasping CLT knowledge.

Having interpreted the findings referring to the subjects' ELT methods, and CLT awareness we turn now to look at the participants' introspection.

3.1.7.2. Self-evaluation

Based on the principle that to know oneself is the beginning of effective teacher development, we wanted to know the extent to which the subjects were appraised of their own problems. The results

portrayed peculiar answers. While this was expected, the insights showed extra areas of focus for the training programme. Thus, the course centred on the use of visual aids, and being aware of language teaching methods.

3.1.8. The knowledge base of the subjects

To summarise the discussion of the outcomes of the questionnaire, we will describe the audience's ELT background prior to the training programme as follows:

1. The audience had years of service but little experience.
2. The teachers were intrinsically motivated.
3. They acknowledged the importance of teaching Communicative Competence.
4. They did not know the relevance of risk-taking for language learning.
5. They understood the link between language and culture.
6. They knew that students' first language could interfere with the learning of the second language.
7. They did not seem to know how to teach vocabulary.
8. They did not appear to know how to teach grammar.
9. They did not give the impression of being familiar with language lesson planning.
10. It was as though they did not know how to manage language classrooms.
11. They were not aware of ELT methods.
12. Finally, they had positive attitudes about CLT.

These points bring us to address the results of the pre-test and the post-test.

3.2. Pre-test and Post-test

In the research methodology chapter, a point was made in respect of exposing a critical shortcoming of qualitative research: reliability. To increase reliability in our primarily qualitative investigation, we used pre and post-tests. We intend to carry out a direct comparison of scores to establish clear numerical progress from one test to another.

3.2.1. Question one: good language teachers

The model answer for the first question of both tests stated that although it was an open question with no prescribed answer, the following could be taken into account.

A good language teacher should have at least the following qualities:

- Understands feelings of students.
- Thinks about and reflects on practice.
- Is structured, yet flexible and spontaneous.
- Is responsible to situations and students' needs.
- Listens attentively to students' questions and comments.
- Responds to students with respect, even in difficult situations.
- Treats students equally and fairly.
- Maintains a professional manner at all times.
- Lesson plans are written for every school day.
- Students know the daily plan because an agenda of objectives and activities is given.
- Students' assessment and diagnostic data are available.
- Lesson plans are aligned with division curriculum guides.
- Lesson plans have clearly stated objectives.
- Lesson plans include activities and strategies to engage students of various ability levels.
- Lesson plans address different learning modalities and styles.

It was also stated earlier that this question was worth 3.33 marks. Looking at the results, we can see that the most frequent mark was 0. This means that the most considerable part of the respondents was not able to answer question number one in the pre-test. However, the grades of the post-test show that the highest mark was 3.33 and it was scored by 73.33% of the subjects. Therefore, there was an improvement of up to 73.33%.

3.2.2. Question two: teaching vocabulary

With regard to the presentation of vocabulary, we discovered that 33.33% of the subjects had 0 in the pre-test. Nevertheless, in the post-test, they progressed from 0 to 2.22 and 3.33 marks. It should be remembered that the model answer for question two in the pre- test was the following:

- Tree – Use of flash cards, photographs, or showing the real object if possible.
- Key – Using realia (i.e. showing real objects).
- Lazy – Through examples.
- Stumble – Miming.

For the post-test the model answer included the following:

- Plane - Use of flash cards, photographs, or showing the real object if possible.
- Handkerchief - Using realia (i.e. showing real objects).

- Proud - Through examples.
- Sneeze- Miming.

Notwithstanding the difference of answers, the criteria of choice of appropriate techniques were the same. It was based on the type of vocabulary item. For example, in the pre-test, we have the word tree, while in the post-test we have the word plane. These are both big objects that cannot be brought to the classroom. Therefore, they should be taught using the same procedures.

We can safely deduce that there was a significant advancement from the pre-test to the post-test. In fact, this improvement was of about 3 marks.

3.2.3. Question three: teaching grammar

As realised in the results, 33.33% of the test-takers scored 0 mark in the pre-test. In contrast, in the post-test, 26.67% got two marks. This number represents how well the audience progressed from the pre to the post-test. The particulars of this question were similar to the one on teaching vocabulary. In other words, the answers were different but the teaching techniques should be similar. They should both entail the following sequence:

1. Draw pictures (or any other type of visual aids), use a real or imaginary situation, and give examples to teach the meaning of the structure.
2. Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
4. Write the sentence on the board.
5. Explain how the structure is formed.
6. Ask the class to copy the sentence.
7. Give other situations and examples.

3.2.4. Question four: lesson planning

As with the other questions, number four was not an exception and we could observe clear progress from the pre-test to the post-test.

3.2.5. Question five: classroom management

For classroom management, the frequency tabulation showed that the value 0.8325 was the most frequent and it was scored by 40% of the subjects. However, the scores of the post-test displayed that the most frequent figure, as described on table 40, was 2.22. In fact, this was achieved by 40% of the

respondents. These numbers are crucial in proving our H1 (the in-service teacher training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills. Thus, their knowledge of English language teaching methodology will be upgraded, and their teaching practice quality will improve).

3.2.5. Question six: CLT

The results revealed that 0 was the lowest and the most frequent mark of the question making reference to CLT. This accounted for 46.67% of the subjects. Nevertheless, there was an improvement of at least 3 marks in the post test.

In short, looking back at table 43, it exhibits a direct comparison of the total scores from one test to the other. It gives the result of 12 cases having had positive marks in the post-test. In contrast with the two positive values in the pre-test. It is also clear that there was 100% development. That is to say, all the participants improved after the intervention (the training programme).

So far, we have discussed the scores of the pre-test and the post-test. This takes us to the analysis and discussion of the last instrument.

3.3. Lesson observation

We have finally reached the discussion of the results of the last research tool of the current investigation. To this point, we have already established the methodological background of the participants, and we have compared the marks of the pre-test and the post-test. As we explained in the research methodology chapter, for the purpose of confirmation *in loco* of the success or failure of the training programme, and as a way of increasing the reliability of the results of the other instruments, we used direct observation of lessons. Thus, the present section aims at interpreting and discussing the findings of the lesson observation. This will be grounded on the assessment bands presented in appendix 5.1. To attain this, we are going to analyse each category as presented in the observation chart.

3.3.1. Lesson planning

Through the disclosure of the findings, it was made clear that with respect to lesson planning, the most significant part of the respondents scored an average mark. This fact represents an important discovery and spells success of the training programme with regard to lesson planning. As a matter of fact, as

presented in the assessment bands of the observation chart (see appendix 5.1), in a normal lesson plan the teacher presents the aims of the lesson, the materials to be used, the topic of the lesson is clear and matches the school curriculum, teacher's aims are also provided in the lesson plan, the lesson format entails stages of the lesson (presentation, controlled practice, and communicative practice), there are appropriate interaction procedures for each stage, each part of the lesson has suitable objectives in addition to appropriate timing, the teacher provides anticipated problems with solutions, there is board work, etc. Considering these features, taking into account what was discussed in the literature review, and comparing them to the results of the questionnaire and pre-test, which showed that the participants did not seem familiar with procedures for planning a language lesson, we could argue that we were successful in training the student-teachers on how to plan language lessons.

3.3.2. Teaching vocabulary

One of the crucial skills for any language teacher is to be able to show the meaning and form of vocabulary items. This is so important that methodologists have devoted time and effort in discovering and developing ways of doing so. As we have seen in the literature review, teachers can have at their disposal a wide array of teaching procedures for words and expressions. We have also already said that to enable the trainees to teach vocabulary was one of the training programme's main focuses. When we compared the pre-test and the post-test findings regarding teaching vocabulary, we discovered that most of the participants improved from one test to the other. However, that analysis did not allow us to see how the majority of the subjects performed with regard to the use of particular techniques. To this effect, we will focus on individual procedures.

3.3.2.1. Use of visual aids

It was argued that for suitable vocabulary to show a picture or drawing of it could be the simplest and most effective way to teach its meaning to the students (see chapter one). Having found out that 60% of the participants were able to use this technique to a satisfactory extent (i.e. visuals were large enough to be seen from the back of the class; they illustrated the meaning of the teaching item; teachers were skilled enough in handling the aids. However, the quality of the materials was still a hindering aspect) means that the programme was successful in this regard. Moreover, this result adds extra validity to the findings of the questionnaire, pre-test, and post-test concerning teaching vocabulary.

3.3.2.2. Use of examples

While the meaning of some vocabulary items can easily be taught by showing a picture or other types of visuals, abstract words are usually taught by resorting to examples (cf. Doff, 1987). The fact that during the observation process we could see 73.33% of the subjects performing the use of such technique to a medium degree (in other words, although the students could have an idea of the word/expression taught, the examples contained new language. Thus, teachers had to show the meaning of other words, turning explanations longer), and comparing this to the discovery that in the pre-test most of them did not succeed in its use to teach a suitable word for this procedure, allows us to determine that there was an improvement on their teaching practice after the training course.

3.3.2.3. Order and sequence of techniques

While we do not assume in this work that there is a fixed order of organisation of techniques to teach vocabulary, we have maintained that naturally some techniques must come before or after the others. For example, as seen in the literature review, repetition before use of visuals to teach meaning tends to be counterproductive and seems unfair to ask students to repeat what they do not understand. That is the reason why we have adopted the sequence of techniques suggested by Doff (*ibid.*). As a result, any sequence that starts by the teaching of meaning and use of new vocabulary items has been taken as conforming to the standards of the current thesis. The fact that 66.667% of the subjects were able to follow an approximate order as suggested by Doff (*loc.cit.*), and considering that they were trained as to stay within those limits shows the degree of success we attained regarding helping trainees understand logic in teaching vocabulary (i.e. satisfactory category in the assessment band).

3.3.2.4. Use of gestures and miming

It should be recollected that our discussion concerning the aforementioned techniques has brought to light that action verbs and some adjectives could be presented in that way. This is defended as the use of actions, especially for younger learners, could be interesting and could make a long-lasting impression of the word learned. The training was felicitous in respect of enabling 80% of the partakers to our study in employing successfully the above techniques (i.e., gestures were used to convey the meaning of language, manage the class, add visual interest, increase pace, and cut down on the amount of verbal explanation).

3.3.2.5. Use of realia

Similar to the other results, the observations proved that the vast majority of the subjects used realia to teach meaning of vocabulary to an acceptable level. Therefore, the course helped teachers to use this technique more efficiently.

The fallouts and discussion of the findings of the lesson observations were not significantly different from the post-tests. This is taken to mean that on a par with the test done after the training course, although not to the maximum level, the subjects performed satisfactorily in respect of teaching vocabulary.

Our attention is turned now to the teaching of grammar. It should be pointed out that we are going to follow the same procedures as with teaching vocabulary.

3.3.3. Presentation of grammar

On the same ground as teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar was another key aspect of the training course. Similar to the findings of the post-test, the observation chart displayed satisfactory teacher performance in all but one of the categories of presentation of grammar. We are going to deal with them in turn below.

3.3.3.1. Order and sequence of techniques

In this work we have expressed the point that the following should be a reasonable order for the introduction of language structures:

1. Show the meaning visually or through a situation and examples,
2. Get the class and individual students to repeat,
3. Write the structure on the board and explain how it is formed,
4. Ask students copy the structure to their notebooks,
5. Give other situations and examples.

Although we do not defend a rigid order of organisation of the techniques to teach grammar, we believe that starting by teaching meaning should be seen as an indication of grasp of mainstream grammar teaching methodology (cf. Harmer, 1984, 1987). Unfortunately, for more than 50% of the investigated teachers, this was not the case owing to fact most of them either started with L1 explanations or simply tried to translate the structure.

3.3.3.2. Use of visual techniques

Resorting to visual techniques can be fun and interesting when presenting grammar. This is because students can see the action and sometimes participate in the teaching procedure. Despite the misplace of this teaching technique, the results showed that 80% of subjects were able to use it to a satisfactory degree. By this we mean that they were able to use pictures and other visuals to create a situation in which the structure could emerge naturally. Thus, as far as the aforementioned technique is concerned, we can claim success.

3.3.3.3. Use of examples

For the purpose of demonstrating language in use, teachers can give clear and simple examples of the new structure in a contextualised way. The examples can be thought out by the teacher or taken from authentic materials (e.g. real texts from magazines, newspapers, etc.). In our study, we observed 80% of the teachers using them both to an average degree. Meaning that although there was room for improvement, considering their limited skills, we were satisfied seeing the trainees using simple sentences to show students how they could use the newly learned language.

3.3.3.4. Use of meaningful practice techniques

After the presentation stage, teachers are supposed to get students to practice the new grammatical structure. As we discussed in the literature review, language practice should go from mechanical to meaningful. Mechanical practice can involve the use of repetition, substitution drills, single word prompts, picture prompts, and free substitutions. This should immediately be followed by exercises requiring students to provide real answers. In other words, the tasks must involve the students' lives. The direct observation that we undertook proved that more than 50% of the students managed to do the above to a satisfactory level. As described in the observation chart assessment bands, an average performance regarding the use of meaningful practice techniques means that the teacher was able to use at least some of the abovementioned techniques both for mechanical and meaningful practice.

The next observational category in the chart was the way the teachers were able of governing their classrooms. This is our next focus.

3.3.4. Classroom management

Classroom management entails a teacher's ability to create the conditions under which learning can take place. This concept encompasses a potentially large number of aspects. Some of them are

teacher's roles, students' roles, classroom arrangement, giving instructions, teacher's accuracy and fluency to promote learning, rapport, learning students' names, among many others (see chapter one). Understandably, we could not deal with all of them considering the scope of the current thesis. Although we have had an extensive discussion of classroom management techniques in the literature review, we decided to give more attention to just those that were given prominence during the in-service training course.

3.3.4.1. Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, and accuracy

The ability to use native-like standard language is a non-native teacher's dream. However, the truth of the fact is that for most of us this is fairly impossible. If we consider the Critical Period Hypothesis ('a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily and beyond which time language is increasingly difficult to acquire' (Brown, 2000: 53)), most teachers in our context of research learned English well after puberty. As a result, their pronunciation is hardly free of accents. Notwithstanding this, they are expected to reach at least some degree of intelligibility. In other words, they should speak well enough to be understood by the learners. For this category, the results showed that a little more than half of the participants had normal score. This number represented 53.33% of the total number of the participants.

3.3.4.2. Creativity

One of the most celebrated teacher qualities is creativity. In classroom management, being creative means to be able to use a number of techniques in innovative ways. For example, learning students' names in different forms, using an unorthodox sitting arrangement, knowing specific roles for every activity and stage of the lesson, finding ways to establish good rapport in the classroom, etc. are all aspects of creativity when managing language classrooms. Unfortunately, we could not observe this in more than half of the trainees (53.33%).

3.3.4.3. Teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time

For most English Foreign Language contexts, the only opportunity to practice the new language is in the classroom. Therefore, it is the teacher's job to ensure that the students have ample time to produce the language. However, some teachers do not afford students with enough chances to speak. This was the case of 73% of the participants. This unfortunate result casts doubt as to the extent to which the course helped in instilling on the trainees such crucial skill of controlling the amount of teacher-talking-time.

3.3.4.4. Encouragement of full interaction

Considering the above discussion, we were not surprised to see that regarding helping students' full interaction, the majority of the participants failed. It follows on logically that if students do not speak much, their full interaction will be harmed. Hence, this aspect of management was also another deficiency of the training course.

3.3.4.5. Students' freedom

In contrast with what was said above, in the classes observed, the students were free and able to ask questions (in some cases even unrelated to the main topic of the lesson), to disagree, or to express their own ideas. This finding represented a major achievement of the training course.

3.3.4.6. Discipline

Another important finding was that in all the lessons we observed that the teachers were in total control, allowing no misbehaviour on the part of the students. Similar to the previous discussion, this was another significant mark of the training course.

In a few words, as far as classroom management is concerned, we concluded that although the investigated teachers were not creative enough and spoke more than the students, they could control their learners, and allowed them freedom to express ideas, interests, and feelings.

This deduction takes us to address another chief aspect of the lessons observed: CLT.

3.3.5. CLT

As it has been established, in the current thesis and elsewhere, CLT entails a set of language learning and teaching principles, including the types of classroom tasks that best help language learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom all aimed at enabling students acquire Communicative Competence. We have also stated that CLT is the official method for language teaching in Angola, despite the fact that in the context of our research many teachers were not familiar with its application to their classrooms. Hence, the importance of this section in the debate as to whether with the training course we were capable of helping the subjects use a more communicative-based language teaching.

Our discussion of CLT in the literature review has produced a number of aspects that a communicative-founded language teaching should possess. However, the scope of the current work did

not allow us to observe all the aspects we discussed regarding CLT. Thus, we focussed only on those points that were given more attention during the training sessions.

3.3.5.1. Balance and variety of activities

One of the characteristics of CLT is that the teacher is constantly motivating the students by catering for their needs, using their interests and opinions, among other aspects. This is usually achieved by using a variety of activities. As seen in the literature review, since the aim of language teaching in CLT is to enable learners acquire CC, which has four main strands, tasks in the classroom should have different focuses. They should be divided according to those that help develop (a) linguistic competence, (b) sociolinguistic competence, (c) discourse competence, and (d) strategic competence.

We could observe that 80% of the teachers under investigation, although giving primary emphasis to linguistic competence, were able to tackle some of the other types of competence through the use of dialogues (where appropriacy of vocabulary and grammar use was included, plus strategic competence), question answer exercises (which checked discourse competence of the students), among other activities. To this effect, the course was successful to an average level.

3.3.5.2. Communicative activities

Communicative activities (CA) entail a wide range of tasks. Some of them, as discussed in the literature review, are pair and group work, discussions and role-plays, games, etc. Moreover, CA are usually divided into quasi-communicative, function-communication, and social communicative activities. Although we expected more from the trainees, we were satisfied to notice that 80% of them used group work, some games, simple role-plays, and other semi-communicative activities. This means that the insights of the training were helpful in this regard.

3.3.5.3. Error treatment

Within a communicative methodology, mistakes and errors are mostly seen as a natural part of the learning process; thus, when dealing with them, the teacher must bear in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct. Although strongly inclined to immediate and direct correction of mistakes (prior to the training), 60% of the subjects refrained themselves from unnecessary corrections. These represented a clear change in behaviour on the part of the participants.

3.3.5.4. Teacher's roles

During the lesson, to facilitate the learning process, teachers play different roles. For example, at the presentation stage, they are providers of information, and controllers. At practice stages, they can perform several roles, such as resource, co-communicator, monitor, feedback giver, etc. Collectively, they all amount to the communicative role of facilitator (see chapter one).

Even if in a shy way, we could observe over 80% of the trainees experimenting with different roles. This finding represents the level of success of programme.

3.3.6. Overall evaluation

Although not to an optimum level, the observed lessons showed satisfactory performances from the teachers in a number of categories. These included lesson planning, most aspects of teaching vocabulary, most points of teaching grammar, some parts of classroom management, and all features of CLT. That is why, we had more than 70% of the observed teachers with average overall evaluation.

As a summary of chapter three, it should be recalled that this study was motivated by the lack of training of a great number of teachers in the context of Huambo-Angola. We wanted to find out the extent to which the in-service training programme we proposed would be beneficial to our intended audience. For this reason, we used a questionnaire, two tests, and lesson observation. From the results and their interpretation and discussion we could understand the following.

Starting from the assumption that the characteristics of the present investigation required a prior build of ideas of what the participants knew about ELT, we administered a questionnaire. Thus, this tool was aimed at the discovery of the subjects' methodological background. The analysis and discussion of the results yielded the following conclusions:

First of all, although most of the members of this study had considerable number of years of service years, they had little teaching experience. Secondly, the student-teachers were self-motivated to teach English. Thirdly, they were open to the view of the importance of CC being the ultimate goal of language teaching. Fourthly, they did not show signs of being knowledgeable about the importance of risk-taking for language learning. Nevertheless, they seemed to have understood the link between language and culture. Moreover, they were aware of L1 interference in L2 learning. Despite this, they appeared not to know how to teach vocabulary, how to present grammar, principles and procedures for language lesson planning, and to manage language classrooms. Furthermore, they were not familiar with ELT methods. Nonetheless, as a final remark, they had positive attitudes towards CLT.

To acquire a stronger confirmation of the above, we administered a test, which was contrasted with another after the intervention. The findings and their interpretation of the pre-test and post-test generated the following conclusion:

One and only, prior to the training course only two subjects had positive marks. This was contrasted by the 12 cases of positive grades in the post-test.

We deemed as necessary an *in loco* observation of progress after training. This underscored our observation of lessons as taught by the investigated teachers. The results and their interpretation and discussion determined the following:

Notwithstanding the fact that all the observed teachers did not excel, over 70% attained an average performance in the focussed categories.

Therefore, our H1 (*The in-service teacher-training course of Communicative Language Teaching Methodology proposed in our investigation will equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills. Thus, their knowledge of English language teaching methodology will be upgraded, and their teaching practice quality will improve*) was tested and proven.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Our investigation was set to solve the problem making reference to the existence of unqualified personnel exerting the English teaching activity in Huambo-Angola. It aimed to discover SLTE procedures in the design of an in-service teacher-training course intended to improve the teaching quality in the aforementioned audience. The goal was attained through ten interrelated objectives comprising the theoretical basis of the study (i.e., secondary research), and a primary research.

The theory underscoring the study entailed the definition and history of SLTE, the scope of SLTE, the knowledge base of SLTE, SLTE preparation procedures, and SLTE course design.

The conceptual background of LTE enabled us to understand that it is a general process of educating prospect teachers to acquire the skills needed to start the profession and gain the knowledge to develop in the teaching career. It was also pertinent the conclusion that the content of SLL amalgamated with TE gave rise to the concept of SLTE.

As far as the scope of SLTE is concerned, we came to comprehend it as involving three key dimensions: content, process, and evaluation. These scopes are viewed in relation to teacher training and teacher development. The first appertains to the domain of acquisition of entry-level teaching abilities comprising what the trainee needs to know for an assertive start of the teaching profession as organised in a pre-service teacher education programme. The second draws on reflection-on-action as way of identifying insufficiencies and aiming action to improve practice in a teacher-initiated process of general professional growth. One scenario of teacher development explored in our work was in-service teacher education.

The main emphasis of the current investigation was on cognitive grounds needed for effective and efficient language teaching performance. In other words, what people need to know to function as competent language teachers. We concluded that the knowledge base for SL teachers ought to comprise content knowledge, general pedagogic knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, complementary SLL theoretical knowledge, and curriculum knowledge. The first one relates to having an advanced level of the language one is set to teach. The second involves general teaching principles common to most educational contexts. The third puts together content knowledge and teaching methodology. The fourth includes knowledge of SLL theories. The last has to do with teachers being acquainted with legal aspects associated with language teaching.

The application of the knowledge base to our research venue resulted in the focus on the content of the proposed in-service training programme designed to solve the research problem. Thus, we discussed CLT as the PCK to be conveyed to the participants. We came to a close that CLT is an approach aiming at the teaching of CC. It is sustained by two theoretical bases (theory of language as

communication, and theory of learning, encompassing the communication principle, the task principle, and meaningful and authentic language use), it is materialised through special syllabi (e.g. functional, notional, threshold level, etc.), it has specific learning activities (quasi-communicative, functional-communication, and social communication), it uses distinctive teachers and learners' roles (the teacher is a facilitator of learning and the student is a negotiator of information), and it gives rise to both process and product-based teaching approaches, such as Content-Based Instruction, Task-Based Approach, Text-based Approach, and others.

Within the CLT framework, as a way of narrowing down our focus, we elaborated on four communicative-based emphases: teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar, lesson planning, and classroom management.

With regard to teaching vocabulary, a number of aspects were grasped. First of all, we came to understand that knowing a word comprises its meaning (denotation, connotation, collocation, appropriateness, meaning relations, like synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, etc.) and form (written, spoken, and grammar). Secondly, vocabulary teaching should start by the process of selection of words to teach followed by reflecting and using appropriate techniques for teaching meaning and form. Finally, teachers must also consider vocabulary learning activities and strategies.

Concerning grammar teaching, following the communicative methodology, we comprehended that it should be centred on helping learners acquire one of the strands of CC, namely linguistic competence. Grounded on this tenet, teachers can have an array of procedures to adopt in the classroom. These could encompass showing meaning visually, showing meaning through contexts and situations, use of discovery procedures, contrasting structures, among others. Furthermore, we came to realise that helping learners to use the new language entails the exploitation of practice activities characterised by pre-learning, volume and repetition, success orientation, heterogeneity, interest, and teacher assistance. Moreover, these procedures should be categorised in mechanical, meaningful, and communicative practice.

As for lesson planning, it was established that it should be anchored on the principles of variety and flexibility. What is more, before designing a lesson plan, we should ponder on aspects related to the teaching profession, the students, and the institution. A final conclusion comprises the planning activity as beginning by the aims and objectives; other aspects come afterwards.

With respect to classroom management, we could understand that it involves the creation of conditions under which learning can take place. To this effect, although it incorporates many different facets, (1) eye contact must be used to control the class, establish rapport, show the teacher's interest

in what students are saying, etc., (2) gestures could be adopted to show the meaning of new words, to reduce T-T-T, to liven the lesson, and so on, (3) instructions should be demonstrated and checked, (4) and to prevent classroom unruly behaviour caused by the teacher, the students, or the institution teachers, with the help of students, teachers should create a code of conduct and go to the classroom well-prepared. In the event of misbehaviour, teachers should act immediately, keep calm, and focus on the behaviour (not the student).

Having dealt with content of the in-service training course, we discussed appropriate SLTE preparation procedures. We concluded that with today's tendency towards reflective teaching, the Reflective Model could be suitable for conveying PCK. The RM could be put in action through the use of teaching ways, such as the lecture mode (a way of teaching especially relevant to inform a vast audience) and the group mode (application of different methods, for instance seminars, crossover groups, Socratic technique, guided reading, and the like).

The theoretical base of the inquiry ended by the consideration of SLTE course design. It was unveiled that an in-service SLTE programme should comprise, at least, a rationale, aims and objectives, principles, outline of the teaching content, description of the training model and modes of teaching, and evaluation criteria.

The solution to the research problem came from the application of a district-wide qualitative action research involving the use of a questionnaire, administration of a pre-test, intervention through an in-service teacher-training programme, a post-test, and the observation of lessons.

The characterisation of the subjects prior to the study was conclusive in respect of a number of facts. First of all, they had intrinsic motivation, they acknowledged that language teaching should be oriented toward enabling students acquire CC, they had positive attitudes about CLT, they recognised the link between language and culture, and they were aware of L1 interference in learning a SL. Nevertheless, they undermined the importance of risk-taking in learning a new language, their knowledge about teaching vocabulary and teaching grammar was wary, they did not know about lesson planning principles, their knowledge about classroom management was insufficient, and they were not familiar with ELT methods. The direct comparison of the results of the pre-test and the post-test demonstrated that in the pre-test only two subjects had positive marks. In contrast, in the post-test 12 cases had positive results. Nonetheless, all the participants improved from one test to another.

Finally, the observed lessons allowed us to conclude that with regard to lesson planning, most aspects of teaching vocabulary, most categories of teaching grammar, some facets of classroom

management, and all the features of CLT included in the study the training programme produced satisfactory results.

In brief, our research problem was that a considerable number of English teachers in Huambo-Angola did not have any formal training in ELT. To solve the problem, we asked the question of *what type of training course and content can we use to equip the unqualified Secondary School English teachers in Huambo with basic teaching concepts and skills within a communicative methodology?* For which we proposed an in-service teacher-training course on communicative methodology.

Since the investigation helped to equip the participants with basic teaching concepts, (such as, Communicative Language Teaching), and teaching abilities (how to teach vocabulary and grammar, how to design language lesson plans, and some aspects of classroom management) our Hypothesis 1 was tested and verified.

Nevertheless, there were a few constraints. The first was related to the trainees' availability. It was considerably difficult to agree on a specific schedule for the training sessions because they were all teachers and had different timetables in their workplaces. The second concerned reluctance in participating in the study motivated by self-consciousness about their teaching. In other words, some subjects did not feel comfortable exposing the fact that they had serious problems regarding ELT. The third limiting issue pertained to in-depth treatment of the topics of the training programme. This was due to the fact that the student-teachers were only accessible two hours a week. Therefore, the course had to be tailored thereof. The fourth difficulty had to do with language problems affecting some of the participants. The level of English proficiency of some of the trainees impacted the speed of sessions because the language used had to be made appropriate for their level of comprehension. Finally, in terms of the planned methodology for conveying knowledge, it was not possible to use some teaching modes (e.g., buzz groups, jigsaw learning, and others) because of some trainees' characteristics and late-coming.

The extent of success of the investigation allows us to recommend to the Huambo's local educational authorities to implement and generalise the training model proposed in this study through pre-established periodic mandatory training in ELT. Moreover, teacher-training institutions in Angola should design in-service courses for unqualified teachers (e.g., in the form of post-graduation courses). In addition, non-trained teachers should actively seek training opportunities to acquire ELT knowledge and enhance their teaching careers. Failure to implement these recommendations will perpetuate the *status quo*, in which there is a high rate of failure in learning English caused by lack of knowledge on how to teach it.

Understandably, the study is far from complete. As mentioned earlier, ELT is a vast area comprising many elements. We could not discuss them all in the current study. Therefore, for the furthering of the investigation, future researchers should focus on the inclusion of a language component in the training framework, teaching the four language skills, language assessment, other aspects of classroom management not covered in the present inquiry, and teaching by principles. These could be taken as immediate learning needs to people who have just acquired basic knowledge of language teaching.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Questionnaire



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (√) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (√) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 ()
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (√) on your gender group.

- Male ()
- Female ()

3. Tick (√) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate ()
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

4. How long have you been teaching English?

5. Why do you teach English?

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (√) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.					
It is important to always reward students.					
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.					
Risk-taking promotes language learning.					
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.					
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.					
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.					

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (√) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.					
Draw a picture to show what the word means.					
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.					
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.					
Ask students to translate the word.					
Give an English example to show how the word is used.					
Ask questions using the new word.					

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	

9. What other techniques can you think of?

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.		
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.		

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Ner	Technique
	Write the sentence on the board.
	Draw pictures and give examples.
	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
	Give other situations and examples.
	Explain how the structure is formed.
	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes

No

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (√) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		
2	The use of gestures.		
3	The use of the voice.		

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (√) appropriately.

Yes

No

17.1

Justify

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (√) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (√) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- f. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- g. Unprepared
- h. Inconsistent
- i. Unfair
- j. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- e. Too many to control
- f. Time of the day
- g. Attitude
- h. Two's company

3. The institution

- c. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- d. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20 Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (√) appropriately.

Yes

No

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (√) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.					
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.					
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.					
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.					
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.					
The teacher should be a facilitator					
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.					
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.					
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.					
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.					

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1. Results of the questionnaire
Appendix 1.1.1. Subject 1



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

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INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 ()
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male ()
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate ()
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

psychology

4. How long have you been teaching English?

I am teaching English ten years

5. Why do you teach English?

I teach english because, I like english language.

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.	✓				
It is important to always reward students.				✓	
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.		✓		✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.		✓			
Draw a picture to show what the word means.	✓				
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.	✓				
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.	✓				
Ask students to translate the word.	✓				
Give an English example to show how the word is used.	✓				
Ask questions using the new word.	✓				

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Translate The word
2	Draw a picture
3	Say The word
4	Give an
5	A. Ss
6	Give an English...
7	ASK questions ...

9. What other techniques can you think of?

ASK students to write lists of words.

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		✓
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Ner	Technique
7	Write the sentence on the board.
1	Draw pictures and give examples.
2	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
4	Give other situations and examples.
5	Explain how the structure is formed.
6	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Teacher plan lessons because The lesson plan is way for successfully for teaching.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify _____

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
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19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
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- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.				✓	
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	✓
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.				✓	
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				✓	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.				✓	
The teacher should be a facilitator					✓
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.				✓	
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.	✓				
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning					✓
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.				✓	

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?



THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.2. Subject 2

S.2



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

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1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 ()
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older (✓)

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male (✓)
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate (✓)
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

I have specialized in agronomist engineer that is, knowing deeply about the agriculture work in the field. Now my specialization is more focussed for the Spic water and plants laboratory services. This knowledge I get from university: UAN/FCA - Angolan, UEM/FAEE - Mozambican and USP/ICENA - Brazilian.

4. How long have you been teaching English?

USP/ICENA - Brazilian.

5. Why do you teach English?

I want to know more about English.

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.				✓	
It is important to always reward students.					✓
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.					✓
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language				✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.					✓
Draw a picture to show what the word means.			✓		
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.			✓		
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.			✓		
Ask students to translate the word.			✓		
Give an English example to show how the word is used.			✓		
Ask questions using the new word.			✓		

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Translate
2	Draw a picture
3	Say the word
4	Get the class to repeat
5	Ask ss
6	Give an...
7	ASK Qs

9. What other techniques can you think of?

Ask ss to read text in English

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.	✓	
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important—like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Ner	Technique
3	Write the sentence on the board.
2	Draw pictures and give examples.
5	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
6	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
7	Give other situations and examples.
4	Explain how the structure is formed.
7	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

We make this because we have to organise our lessons and be ready for any situation in the classroom as we know that we should be flexible during a lesson. That's why we should plan our lessons.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

Yes, I have to take care with their ages the class.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

*1. Read in
2. Presentation
3. Control practice
4. Free practice
5. Homework, and I should always have always a board work.*

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		✓
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify _____

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding ✓

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude ✓
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom) ✓
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above ✓

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20 Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

1-Lead in 2-Presentation 3-Control practice 4-free practice 5-Homework 6-To have a board work.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.					✓
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.		✓			
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.			✓		✓
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.			✓		
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.					✓
The teacher should be a facilitator.					✓
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.					✓
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.					✓
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.				✓	
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.	✓				

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

How to motivate ss.



THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.3. Subject 3

1 2.3



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (√) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (√) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 (x)
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (√) on your gender group.

- Male ()
- Female (x)

3. Tick (√) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate (x)
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

Licentiate with Specialization in geography

4. How long have you been teaching English?

(10 years) 14 years

5. Why do you teach English?

because I love it

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.				X	
It is important to always reward students.			X		
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.					X
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		X			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				X	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				X	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				X	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.	X				
Draw a picture to show what the word means.				X	
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.				X	
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.			X		
Ask students to translate the word.		X			
Give an English example to show how the word is used.					X
Ask questions using the new word.					X

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Say The word clearly and write it on the board
2	get The class to repeat the words in chorus
3	Draw a picture to show what the word means
4	give an English examples to show new word
5	Translate the word. Ask questions using the new word
6	Translate The word into the students' own...
7	Ask The student to translate the word

9. What other techniques can you think of?

- Showing the ready object where it's possible
- Using audio to get the mean
- Using a dictionary in the classroom

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.		X
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either.		X
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.	X	
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important – like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	X	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Order	Technique
1 st	Write the sentence on the board.
4 th	Draw pictures and give examples.
5 th	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3 rd	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
6 th	Give other situations and examples.
2 nd	Explain how the structure is formed.
7 th	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Because lesson plan is a guide of the lesson. It gives us general information about the students, time and place, level, aim, different activities in the class, methods, materials. It sort facilitates the teacher's work.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		X

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	X
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

Aims Coherence, Variety and Flexibility

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

Normally I follow The WIPPEA format (Warm-up; Instruction; Presentation; Practice, Evaluation and application) developed by Hunter (2002).

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify

because teacher is the facilitator between knowledge and students, also because of individual difference, teacher is obliged to know all the students. They have the same right

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

Methods and Culture, Bargain's, Post method and Context-Sensitivity, and Making Choice

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.		X			
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				X	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.				X	
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				X	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.			X		
The teacher should be a facilitator					X
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.				X	
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.				X	
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.			X		
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.		X			

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

Using more techniques, Audio visual, class material, classrooms with no mal condition for majority of types lessons

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.4. Subject 4

S4



Universidade de Minas
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 ()
- 41-50 (✓)
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male (✓)
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor (✓)
- Licentiate ()
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

*Psychology is a good subject, and is very important of Education as you know that, without Psychology we can't teach well.
All the teachers that no has a psychology he can't teach well.*

4. How long have you been teaching English?

I have been teaching 10

5. Why do you teach English?

I teach English not because is only a subject I can teach, because I can teach another subject

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.				✓	
It is important to always reward students.					✓
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.		✓			
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.		✓			

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
•Translate the word into the students' own language.				✓	
Draw a picture to show what the word means.		✓			
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.					✓
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.			✓		
Ask students to translate the word.	✓				
Give an English example to show how the word is used.		✓			
Ask questions using the new word.		✓			

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	say the word clearly and write it on the board.
2	Translate the word into students' own language.
3	Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
4	Give an english example to show how the word is used.
5	Ask students to translate the new word
6	Ask questions using the new word.
7	draw a picture to show what the word means.

9. What other techniques can you think of?

About technique that think is, first, I think is better to use the same word and techniques for all school, to get some picture to the student, to plan together all school, etc.

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.	✓	
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important -like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Order	Technique
1	Write the sentence on the board.
2	Draw pictures and give examples.
3	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
4	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
5	Give other situations and examples.
6	Explain how the structure is formed.
7	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Because to plan the lesson is very important in Education, teacher without plan, he can't give the good lesson.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

Introduction the subject what is your object, to give the pupil why that English is the subject.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

First

1- To introduction

2- To development

3- conclusion

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify student can pay attention in a class al-
ways the teacher is giving the lesson
of correct
The teacher should always pay attention

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding ✓
- Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering ✓
- Unprepared
- Inconsistent
- Unfair
- Breaks the code

2. The Students

- Too many to control ✓
- Time of the day
- Attitude
- Two's company

3. The institution

- Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom) ✓
- Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20 Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	✓

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.		✓			
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.			✓		
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.			✓		
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.					
The teacher should be a facilitator				✓	
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.			✓		
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.	✓				
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.				✓	
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.					✓

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

*I need a lot of things for to improve the most my teaching, I need to study more English
 I need to study at I need to know more about English because I like it very much but I have not how to use it. I need you to happy me.*

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.5. Subject 5

S.5



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 (✓)
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male (✓)
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate (✓)
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

Licentiate with specialization in psychology.

4. How long have you been teaching English?

I have been teaching English for 10 years

5. Why do you teach English?

Because, I like it

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.				✓	
It is important to always reward students.				✓	
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.					✓
Draw a picture to show what the word means.	✓				
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.	✓				
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.		✓			
Ask students to translate the word.			✓		
Give an English example to show how the word is used.	✓				
Ask questions using the new word.	✓				

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Draw a picture to show what the word means
2	Say the word clearly and write it on the board
3	Give an English example to show how the word is used
4	Get the class to repeat the word in chorus
5	Ask students to translate the word
6	Ask questions using the new word
7	Translate the word into the students own language

9. What other techniques can you think of?

(Naming) mime, pictures etc...

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		✓
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Order	Technique
2	Write the sentence on the board.
1	Draw pictures and give examples.
3	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
6	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
4	Give other situations and examples.
5	Explain how the structure is formed.
7	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

They should plan their lessons to feel more safe and be aware with all the methods.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

e.g.: It must have like PPP

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

P.P.P

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify It's important to see what the students are doing.

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding ✓

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering ✓
- Unprepared
- Inconsistent
- Unfair
- Breaks the code

2. The Students

- Too many to control ✓
- Time of the day
- Attitude
- Two's company

3. The institution

- Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems ✓

4. All the above ✓

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

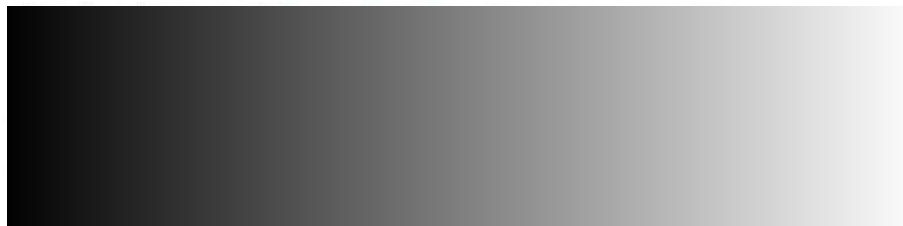
All of them

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.		✓			
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.			✓	✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.			✓		
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				✓	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.		✓			
The teacher should be a facilitator				✓	
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.				✓	
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.				✓	
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.				✓	
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.		✓			

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

I need to practice more all the techniques



THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.6. Subject 6

S.6



Universidade de Mato Grosso
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 ()
- 41-50 (✓)
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male (✓)
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor (✓)
- Licentiate ()
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology)

Bachelor with specialization in philosophy

4. How long have you been teaching English?

For nine years

5. Why do you teach English?

I teach English because I like it.

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.			✓		
It is important to always reward students.			✓		
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.					✓
Risk-taking promotes language learning.			✓		
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.		✓			
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.	✓				

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.					✓
Draw a picture to show what the word means.	✓				
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.			✓		
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.			✓		
Ask students to translate the word.				✓	
Give an English example to show how the word is used.	✓				
Ask questions using the new word.		✓			

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Draw a picture
2	Get the class to repeat
3	Say the word clearly
4	Give an English example
5	Ask questions
6	Ask students
7	Translate

9. What other techniques can you think of?

Ask individual students to repeat the sentence, ask the class to copy the sentence, give other situations and examples

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.		✗
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✗
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✗	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Order	Technique
4	Write the sentence on the board.
1	Draw pictures and give examples.
2	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
7	Give other situations and examples.
5	Explain how the structure is formed.
6	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Teachers should plan their lessons in order to teach well. When we don't plan, we plan our death.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✗

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	
No	✗

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		✓
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify Yes, teacher takes responsibility for the class.

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding ✓
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared ✓
- c. Inconsistent ✓
- d. Unfair ✓
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day ✓
- c. Attitude
- d. Two's company ✓

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above ✓

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	✓

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.	✓				
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.		✓			
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.					✓
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.			✓		
The teacher should be a facilitator					✓
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.					✓
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.			✓		
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning				✓	
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.			✓		

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

I need to improve my teaching methods.



THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.7. Subject 7

S7



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 () ✓
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male ()
- Female () ✓

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate ()
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology)

The qualification of bacher is to be a good teacher and working with some people

4. How long have you been teaching English?

6 years

5. Why do you teach English?

Because I like this language

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.				✓	
It is important to always reward students.				✓	
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.		✓			
Risk-taking promotes language learning.				✓	
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.		✓			
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.		✓			
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.					✓
Draw a picture to show what the word means.			✓		
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.				✓	
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.		✓			
Ask students to translate the word.		✓			✓
Give an English example to show how the word is used.	✓				
Ask questions using the new word.		✓			

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	T ✓
2	D ✓
3	C
4	G ✓
5	A
6	G ✓
7	A ✓

9. What other techniques can you think of?

To get students in the parks, shops, school in tourist and speaking only English

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either.		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.	✓	
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Nr	Technique
1	Write the sentence on the board.
✓ 2	Draw pictures and give examples.
3	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
✓ 4	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
✓ 5	Give other situations and examples.
✓ 6	Explain how the structure is formed.
✓ 7	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Because help me, how to teaching and prevent the mistake in the classroom

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

*first I have to: call a student
organize classroom, summary
Home work*

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify

To know well the student if they are learning well the English

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding ✓
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent ✓
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude ✓
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	✓

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.		✓			
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.				✓	
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.			✓		
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.					✓
The teacher should be a facilitator.			✓		
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.			✓		
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.			✓		
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.	✓		✓		
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.			✓		

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

The grammar and audio visual

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.8. Subject 8

5.8



Universidade da Minhã
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 () ✓
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male () ✓
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate () ✓
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

A: Licentiate with specialization in
psychology of Education

4. How long have you been teaching English?

A: 2 years

5. Why do you teach English?

A: My school's direction propose me the option and I
ACCEPTED, BECAUSE ENGLISH IS LIKE A SECONDARY
LANGUAGE FOR ME.

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.					✓
It is important to always reward students.		✓			
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.					✓
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.					✓

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.			✓		
Draw a picture to show what the word means.			✓		
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.					✓
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.					✓
Ask students to translate the word.				✓	
Give an English example to show how the word is used.					✓
Ask questions using the new word.				✓	

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	SAY THE WORDS CLEARLY AND WRITE IT ON THE BOARD.
2	GET THE CLASS TO REPEAT THE WORD IN CHORUS
3	GIVE AN ENGLISH EXAMPLE TO SHOW HOW THE WORD IS USED
4	ASK QUESTIONS USING THE NEW WORD
5	ASK STUDENTS TO TRANSLATE THE WORD
6	DRAW A PICTURE TO SHOW WHAT THE WORD MEANS.
7	TRANSLATE THE WORD INTO THE STUDENT'S OWN LANGUAGE

9. What other techniques can you think of?

A: CREATE PAIR GROUPS FOR TRAIN THE NEW WORDS USE. SEARCH IN THE INTERNET AND IN VOICE COMPUTER THE PROGANS THE SPELLING AND THE ACCENT OF DIFERENT ENGLISH'S COUNTRIES. ETC; ETC

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		✓
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Write the sentence on the board.
6	Draw pictures and give examples.
2	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
5	Give other situations and examples.
4	Explain how the structure is formed.
7	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

A: TEACHERS PLAN THEIR LESSONS USING
A: LESSON PLAN. IT IS IMPORTANT

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		X

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

A: warm up, presentation, practice, production,
Home work.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

A: Topic, structure, vocabulary, school, date,
Time, material, Aim,

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify A: MY ANSWER IS YES BECAUSE ALL THE STUDENTS IN THE CLASSROOM HAVE A DIFFERENT CAPACITY OF LEARNING. SOME LEARN FAST, OTHER LEARN SLOW

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding ✓

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above ✓

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20 Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

A: METHOD OF EXPLANATION, METHOD OF PARCIAL SEARCH, EXPLORATION.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.				✓	
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.					✓
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.					✓
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				✓	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.		✓			
The teacher should be a facilitator.				✓	
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.				✓	
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.				✓	
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.					✓
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.	✓				

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

A: I NEED TO IMPROVE MY METHODS AND MEANS OF TEACHING, ENGLISH IN ORDER TO GIVE THE BEST TEACHING TO MY STUDENTS.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.9. Subject 9



Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers, the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.
 - 20-30 ()
 - 31-40 (✓)
 - 41-50 ()
 - 51 and older ()
2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.
 - Male (✓)
 - Female ()
3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.
 - High school ()
 - Bachelor ()
 - Licentiate (✓)
 - Master's degree ()
- 3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

Psychology

4. How long have you been teaching English?

I have been teaching English for 14 years

5. Why do you teach English?

I teach English because it is my favorite subject.

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.					✓
It is important to always reward students.			✓		
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.	✓				
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.				✓	
Draw a picture to show what the word means.					✓
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.			✓		
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.			✓		
Ask students to translate the word.	✓				
Give an English example to show how the word is used.		✓			
Ask questions using the new word.			✓		

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Draw a picture to show what the word means
2	Translate the word into the students own language
3	Say the word clearly and write that on the board
4	Give an English example to show how the word is used
5	Ask a student to translate the word
6	Get the class to repeat the word in chorus
7	Ask questions using the new words

9. What other techniques can you think of?

To use audio and video in the class-room to improve the listening and a good comprehension

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Order	Technique
1	Write the sentence on the board.
2	Draw pictures and give examples.
6	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
5	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
3	Give other situations and examples.
4	Explain how the structure is formed.
7	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Teachers should plan their lessons because without teachers plan, it is not possible to teach any subject. The teacher's plan is the key of teaching.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify _____

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding ✓
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- ✓ a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- ✓ b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- ✓ c. Attitude
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- ✓ b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20 Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	✓

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.	✓				
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.				✓	
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				✓	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.		✓			
The teacher should be a facilitator.	✓				
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.	✓				
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.			✓		
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.				✓	
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.		✓			

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

I need to improve in my teaching.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.10. Subject 10

S.10



Universidade da Maia
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 ()
- 41-50 ✓
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male ✓
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate ✓
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

Licentiate with specialization in Mathematics and Architecture

4. How long have you been teaching English?

I have been teaching English for fifteen years

5. Why do you teach English?

Because of few English teachers in the province, but anyway I love this language

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.	✓				
It is important to always reward students.				✓	
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.		✓			
Risk-taking promotes language learning.			✓		
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.	✓				
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.			✓		
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.	✓				

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.				✓	
Draw a picture to show what the word means.		✓			
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.	✓				
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.				✓	
Ask students to translate the word.			✓		
Give an English example to show how the word is used.		✓			
Ask questions using the new word.					✓

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Motivation
2	Explain clearly
3	(Writing) say the word in oral form
4	(Writing)
5	Reading
6	Put examples
7	Exercises

9. What other techniques can you think of?

10 find a homework to solve in the classroom
 to draw and write the words
 to listen to the music and some film
 (watching film) at home.

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.		✓
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either	✓	
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.	✓	
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.		✓

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Nr	Technique
7	Write the sentence on the board.
1	Draw pictures and give examples. <i>Tree / This is a tree</i>
2	Give a model and get the class to repeat. <i>There is a tree in the garden</i>
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence. <i>What is this? It is a tree</i>
4	Give other situations and examples. <i>Is there a tree? yes, there is/No, there isn't.</i>
5	Explain how the structure is formed. <i>I explain first of all the importance of the</i>
6	Ask the class to copy the sentence. <i>After explain, I say: May you copy class?</i>

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

To follow in a good way the teaching process.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
	✓	

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15

conclusion and generalization

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

After development class, I remember the lesson & save them after that I make exercises to evaluate

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		✓
2	The use of gestures.		✓
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify To pay attention is the (manner) way to all students learn very well.

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding ✓
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared ✓
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude ✓
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

listen, writing, oral form

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.			✓		
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.	✓				
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.			✓		
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.	✓				
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.	✓				
The teacher should be a facilitator.	✓				
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.		✓			
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.			✓		
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.		✓			
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.		✓			


22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

To get more vocabulary to get some stories talking in English to motivate them. I've some difficulty to motivate them. Some greeting, how to teach and simple and clear lesson planning. And few dining, but good ways for teaching.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.11. Subject 11

✓ S.11



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

- Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.
 - 20-30 () ✓
 - 31-40 ()
 - 41-50 ()
 - 51 and older ()
- Tick (✓) on your gender group.
 - Male ()
 - Female () ✓
- Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.
 - High school ()
 - Bachelor ()
 - Licentiate () ✓
 - Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

4. How long have you been teaching English?
I've been teaching english for 5 years

5. Why do you teach English?
because i like it

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.			✓		
It is important to always reward students.				✓	
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.			✓		
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.			✓		
Draw a picture to show what the word means.			✓		
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.				✓	
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.				✓	
Ask students to translate the word.				✓	
Give an English example to show how the word is used.					✓
Ask questions using the new word.					✓

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Say the word clearly and write it on the board
2	Get the class to repeat the word in chorus
3	Ask the students to translate...
4	Give an English example...
5	Ask question using the new word
6	Draw a pic to show...
7	Translate the word...

9. What other techniques can you think of?

English songs

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		✓
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Ner	Technique
2	Write the sentence on the board.
6	Draw pictures and give examples.
4	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
7	Give other situations and examples.
1	Explain how the structure is formed.
5	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Planning is a key piece to achieve any professional goals, therefore, if a teacher want to achieve his goals must to plan

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14. If yes, list them and answer question 15.

Direct method
- aural-lingual method, communicative approach

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

Learning
→ Vocabulary
Speaking

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		✓
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify _____

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding ✓

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering ✓
- Unprepared ✓
- Inconsistent ✓
- Unfair
- Breaks the code

2. The Students

- Too many to control ✓
- Time of the day
- Attitude ✓
- Two's company

3. The institution

- Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom) ✓
- Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them

Grammar and translation method

audiolingual method

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.				✓	
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.				✓	
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				✓	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.			✓		
The teacher should be a facilitator			✓		
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.					
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.					
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.			✓		
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.		✓			

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

Listening



THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.12. Subject 12

S.12



Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 ()
- 41-50 (✓)
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male (✓)
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate (✓)
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

Licentiate, at Biology Specialization

4. How long have you been teaching English?

13 years

5. Why do you teach English?

I like English

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.				✓	
It is important to always reward students.			✓		
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				✓	✓
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.		✓			
Draw a picture to show what the word means.					✓
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.				✓	
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.					✓
Ask students to translate the word.				✓	
Give an English example to show how the word is used.					✓
Ask questions using the new word.					✓

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Order	Technique
1	Draw a picture to show what the word means
2	Get the class to repeat the word in chorus
3	Say the word clearly and write it on board
4	Ask students to translate the word
5	Give an English example to show how the word is used
6	Ask questions using the new word
7	Translate the word into the student's own language

9. What other techniques can you think of?

pictures, photographs

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either.		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		✓
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important—like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Nr	Technique
7	Write the sentence on the board.
2	Draw pictures and give examples.
1	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
5	Give other situations and examples.
4	Explain how the structure is formed.
6	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Everything you do must be planned, first so that you can't make mistakes. That's why a teacher, or those who call them teacher must plan the lesson to have good result in the process of teaching

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

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

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

Warming up, Introduction, presentation practice, Home work

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

*Subject, lesson no= Topic, Grade 7, time
2nd date:*

Outcomes:

Materials

Structure

Vocabulary

Warm up, presentation, practice, production and Home work

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		✗
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	

17.1

Justify Because all of them wants to learn and each and everyone is special and at the end will get good result

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

Explain

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.		✓			
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.				✓	
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.					✓
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.				✓	
The teacher should be a facilitator.			✓		
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.				✓	
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.			✓		
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.				✓	
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.		✓			

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?



THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.13. Subject 13

S.13



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (v) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (v) next to one of the groups below.
 - 20-30 ()
 - 31-40 ()
 - 41-50 (✓)
 - 51 and older ()
2. Tick (v) on your gender group.
 - Male (✓)
 - Female ()
3. Tick (v) next to your academic qualification:
 - High school ()
 - Bachelor ()
 - Licentiate (✓)
 - Master's degree ()
- 3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).
I was qualified on Biology as licentiate

4. How long have you been teaching English?
Since 2008

5. Why do you teach English?
Due my background in English language

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language					✓
It is important to always reward students.					✓
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.					✓
Risk-taking promotes language learning		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting					✓
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.					✓
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.					✓

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.			✓		
Draw a picture to show what the word means.	✓				
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.	✓				
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.	✓				
Ask students to translate the word.	✓				
Give an English example to show how the word is used.	✓				
Ask questions using the new word.	✓				

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	T
2	D
3	S
4	G
5	A
6	G
7	A

9. What other techniques can you think of?

Watch the news on BBC

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately.

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either.		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		✓
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important—like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Num	Technique
3	Write the sentence on the board.
1	Draw pictures and give examples.
2	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
4	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
5	Give other situations and examples.
6	Explain how the structure is formed.
7	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

To better give lesson

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

subject, topic, aim, structure, vocabulary, material, date, school, grade, time, period, classroom.

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		✓
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	✓

17.1

Justify because classes are too much full

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding ✓

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering ✓
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day ✓
- c. Attitude
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems ✓

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	✓

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.		✓			
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.					✓
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.					✓
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.					✓
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.		✓			
The teacher should be a facilitator.					✓
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.					✓
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.					✓
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.					✓
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.		✓			

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

I would have more didactical methods

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.14. Subject 14

3.14



Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please note that this is not a test. So, there are not right or wrong answers; the information will be relevant in its own right. This questionnaire is composed of 22 questions. While each question possesses its own rubrics, most of them will require respondents to tick (✓) next to an option.

GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 (✓)
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male (✓)
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor ()
- Licentiate (✓)
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

psychology

4. How long have you been teaching English?

I have been teaching English since 2003

5. Why do you teach English?

I teach English because English language is important to communicate, specially with a big company in world, and I like to teach English.

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.				✓	
It is important to always reward students.					✓
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.				✓	
Risk-taking promotes language learning.		✓			
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.				✓	
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.					✓
Draw a picture to show what the word means.	✓				
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.	✓				
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.	✓				
Ask students to translate the word.	✓				
Give an English example to show how the word is used.		✓			
Ask questions using the new word.	✓				

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Get the class to repeat the
2	T
3	S
4	G
5	A
6	A
7	B

9. What other techniques can you think of?

procedure is an ordered sequence of techniques. flashy technique, means specific activities managed in the classroom

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language so adults do not need to either.	✓	
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.	✓	
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities.	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Order	Technique
7	Write the sentence on the board.
5	Draw pictures and give examples.
6	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
4	Give other situations and examples.
2	Explain how the structure is formed.
1	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Because one of the most important reasons is to plan the teacher needs to identify his or her aims for the lesson. Teachers need to know what it is they want their students to be able to do at the end.

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
	✓	

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

Grade, time, date, recent work, previous related lesson, Materials

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

*topic:
 Teachers aims - personal aims, my aims
 Materials: as to improve
 Lead in - to show students what the lesson will be about.
 Presentation < Vocabulary
 Form - word.
 Structure < meaning
 product form
 Freer practice*

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact	✓	
2	The use of gestures.	✓	
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify _____

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding ✓
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.		✓			
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.				✓	
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.				✓	
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				✓	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.			✓		
The teacher should be a facilitator			✓		
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.				✓	
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.			✓		
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning.			✓		
Most of the class time should be spent on translating.			✓		

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?



THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 1.1.15. Subject 15



Universidade de Minho
Instituto de Letras e Ciências Humanas
Departamento de Estudos Ingleses e Norte-Americanos

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE

Dear teacher, we are carrying out an investigation in order (1) to identify your general knowledge about English Language Teaching (ELT), (2) to find out about the way you have been approaching the teaching of vocabulary and grammar, (3) to discover the way you have been managing your classrooms, and (4) to know your general knowledge of ELT methods, so that we can design an ELT training course to improve your English Language Teaching practice. The data will be used for the purpose of my PhD on 'Ciências da Linguagem, na Especialidade de Linguística Inglesa' degree and it will be kept confidential. Considering that we can all benefit from this research, we ask you to answer the questions as honestly as you can, in order that the results obtained can be used to their full advantage.

INSTRUCTIONS

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GROUP ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age by ticking (✓) next to one of the groups below.

- 20-30 ()
- 31-40 (✓)
- 41-50 ()
- 51 and older ()

2. Tick (✓) on your gender group.

- Male (✓)
- Female ()

3. Tick (✓) next to your academic qualification.

- High school ()
- Bachelor (✓)
- Licentiate ()
- Master's degree ()

3.1 Give details of your qualification (e.g. Bachelor with specialization in psychology).

*I stopped in third year, majoring Physics
and minoring on Geology.*

4. How long have you been teaching English?

Three (3) years.

5. Why do you teach English?

*Because I love English and I like
teaching.*

GROUP TWO: GENERAL ELT KNOWLEDGE

6. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The younger the better to learn a foreign language.					✓
It is important to always reward students.			✓		
Intrinsic motivation is the key for successful language learning.					✓
Risk-taking promotes language learning.				✓	
Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling and acting.				✓	
Students' first language interferes with the learning of a second language.					✓
Language teaching is aimed at enabling students to acquire communicative competence.				✓	

GROUP THREE: TEACHING VOCABULARY

7. How important are the following techniques for you? Tick (✓) from 5-1 (5 least important, and 1 the most important)

Technique	Rating				
	5	4	3	2	1
Translate the word into the students' own language.					✓
Draw a picture to show what the word means.	✓				
Say the word clearly and write it on the board.	✓				
Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.		✓			
Ask students to translate the word.					✓
Give an English example to show how the word is used.	✓				
Ask questions using the new word.	✓				

8. Put the above techniques in order i.e. which techniques should occur first, second, etc.

Ner	Technique
1	Give an English example to show how the word is used.
2	Draw a picture to show what the word means.
3	Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
4	Ask question using the new word.
5	Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
6	Ask the students to translate the word.
7	Translate the word into the students own language

9. What other techniques can you think of?

Ask students to get used on reading books, magazines, newspaper, listening to music, watching novels, etc.

GROUP FOUR: TEACHING GRAMMAR

10. Decide which of the following statements you agree with. Tick (✓) appropriately

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Students need to be given grammar rules if they are to learn English successfully.	✓	
Children do not learn grammar rules when they acquire their first language, so adults do not need to either		✓
If students get enough chance to practice using a language, they do not need to learn grammar.		✓
Making students aware of grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there are many other activities in the classroom which are just as important –like reading, listening, and fluency activities	✓	

11. Put the following techniques in order i.e., what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Nr	Technique
	Write the sentence on the board.
	Draw pictures and give examples.
	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
	Give other situations and examples.
	Explain how the structure is formed.
	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

GROUP FIVE: LESSON PLANNING

12. Why should teachers plan their lessons?

Teachers must plan their lessons to teach correctly and to give the students what is needed, on the other hand to avoid getting lost during the class

13. How often do you plan your lessons? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Never	Sometimes	Always
		✓

14. If you plan your lessons, do you follow any principles? Tick (✓) one option.

Yes	✓
No	

14.1 If yes, list them and answer question 15.

15. Describe your lesson plan format.

*1^o Lesson nr. 2^o Subject, 3^o Unity, 4^o Summary
5^o General aim, 6^o Specific aim
7^o Period, 8^o Grad, 9^o Date 10^o Duration (Time)
11^o School name*

This last part usually is the first one.

GROUP SEVEN: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

16. Do you think the following techniques can affect the learning process? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Ner.	Technique	Yes	No
1	The use of eye contact.		✓
2	The use of gestures.		✓
3	The use of the voice.	✓	

17. Is it important to pay attention to all the students? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

17.1

Justify It is important because it motivates others to be interested in the learning process as well.

18. How should teachers give instructions in class? Choose by ticking (✓) on one option only.

- a. Demonstrate-instruct-check understanding ✓
- b. Check understanding-demonstrate-instruct
- c. Instruct-check understanding-demonstrate
- d. Instruct-demonstrate-check understanding

19. What are the main causes of indiscipline in your classroom? Tick (✓) appropriately.

1. The teacher

- a. Too lenient / tolerant, and lets the students behave badly without interfering ✓
- b. Unprepared
- c. Inconsistent
- d. Unfair
- e. Breaks the code

2. The Students

- a. Too many to control
- b. Time of the day
- c. Attitude ✓
- d. Two's company

3. The institution

- a. Does not support teachers who punish undisciplined students (e.g. by expelling them from the classroom)
- b. Does not have a recognized policy for dealing with discipline problems

4. All the above

GROUP EIGHT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

20. Are you aware of any English language teaching methods? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Yes	✓
No	

20.1 If yes, name it/them.

1- Reading
2- Listening

21. How far do you agree with the following teaching principles? Tick (✓) appropriately.

Principle	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The teacher should be the only authority in the classroom.				✓	
Learning activities should have a communicative purpose.					✓
Students learn a Foreign Language for communication.					✓
Purposeful interaction is helpful for language learning.				✓	
Translation should not be allowed in the English classroom.					✓
The teacher should be a facilitator					✓
Students' feelings should be taken into consideration.				✓	
Errors are an essential part of the learners' language development.					✓
The contact with meaningful and interesting linguistic input helps language learning				✓	
Most of the class time should be spent on translating	✓				

22. What do you think you need to improve the most in your teaching?

Interaction with students, more materials, more effort by the students

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 2. Pre-test

English Language Teaching Test

Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion.
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials.
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes.
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method.
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive.
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class.
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson.
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan.

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work
- b. Pairs
- c. Enemy corners
- d. Opposing teams

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?'
- d. Avoid echoing

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class
- b. Creation of a poor working environment
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

Appendix 2.1. Pre-test correction criteria

TEST CORRECTION CRITERIA

QUESTION	OBJECTIVES	POSSIBLE ANSWERS	Marks
1.	<p>To assess the testees' general knowledge about ELT</p> <p>To analyse the extent to which the testees know about general positive qualities ascribed to effective English Language teachers.</p>	<p>There are no prescribed correct answers. However, the following topics will guide our assessment.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands feelings of students • Thinks about and reflects on practice • Is structured, yet flexible and spontaneous • Is responsible to situations and students' needs • Listens attentively to students questions and comments • Responds to students with respect, even in difficult situations • Treats students equally and fairly • Maintains a professional manner at all times • Lesson plans are written for every school day • Students know the daily plan because an agenda of objectives and activities is given • Students assessment and diagnostic data are available • Lesson plans are aligned with division curriculum guides • Lesson plans have clearly stated objectives • Lesson plans include activities and strategies to engage students of various ability levels. • Lesson plans address different learning modalities and styles 	3.33 marks
2.	To know the extent to which the participants know how to teach different types of vocabulary items.	<p><u>Possible answers:</u></p> <p>Tree – Use of flash cards, photographs, or showing the real object if possible.</p> <p>Key – Using realia (i.e. showing real objects)</p> <p>Lazy – Through examples</p> <p>Stumble – Miming</p>	1.11x3= 3.33 marks
3.	To know the extent to which the teachers know how to teach	<p><u>Possible answers:</u></p> <p>Following the sequence:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Draw pictures and give examples 	3.33 marks

	grammar.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Give a model and get the class to repeat 3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence 4. Write the sentence on the board. 5. Explain how the structure is formed 6. Ask the class to copy the sentence 7. Give other situations and examples 	
4.	To explore the testees' knowledge about lesson planning.	<p><i>Possible answers:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. F. 2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. F 3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. F 4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. F 5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. F 6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. T 7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. T 8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. F 9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. F 	0.37x9=3.33 marks
5	To explore the testees' knowledge about classroom management.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. a 2. a 3. d 4. a 	0.8325x4=3.33 marks
6	To know if the	There are no prescribed correct answers.	3.33 marks

	teachers are aware of the Communicative Language Teaching approach	However, testees are expected to discuss ideas related to CLT.	
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Appendix 2.2. Results of the pre-test

Appendix 2.2.1. Subject 1

S1

English Language Teaching Test

Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher? *A: To teach the student's good manners and to teach them correctly.*

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

- Use the picture for those things

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple *I'm He is We are I have We have*
- Has... been ... ing *You are She is you are you have you "*
- Was/were *it They are He has They have She is*

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *True*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. *True*
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *False*
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *True*
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *False*
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. *True*
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. *False*
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *False*
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *False*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process. *- correct option*

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work
- b. Pairs
- c. Enemy corners
- d. Opposing teams

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?'
- d. Avoid echoing

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class
- b. Creation of a poor working environment
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

Appendix 2.2.348. Subject

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

If it is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher? *The teacher as the organizer and guide of the instruction.*

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree - *Showing in garden examples*
- Key - *Realia picture, using our car keys*
- Lazy - *Giving examples*
- Stumble - *Giving examples*

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple - *To talk about routine activities or about a personal character*
- Has... been ... ing - *To make the meaning clear, I draw on the board and give examples in a situation*
- Was/were - *You use the most simple the contracted form in spoken and written work*

a. How would you teach them to your students? *To follow lead in presentation and motivation on homework*

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers: true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *FC*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. *T*
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *FC*
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *T*
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *FC*
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. *T*
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. *T*
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *FC*
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *T*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.
2. This is not a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners
 - d. Opposing teams
3. The following does not prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions
 - c. Asking 'do you understand?'
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - a. Relationships and interaction within the class
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

Consist in making students aware grammatical facts is one of the things a teacher can do, but there many other activities in the classroom a teacher can do which are just important like reading, listening and fluency activities

Appendix 2.2.349. Subject

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90mins

10.255

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS
It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?
for me it's. Scintific, humilitty

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY
Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree → *Drawing on board or showing the Real tree*
- Key → *Drawing or showing it on the blackboard*
- Lazy → *gesture*
- Stumble → *gesture*

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR
Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple *in general, I teach them whatly*
- Has... been ... ing *when and how to use it, finally*
- Was/were *The structure and rules in details*

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING
Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *T*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. *F*
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *F*
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *T*
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *F*
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. *T*
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. *T*
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *F*
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *F*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.
2. This is **not** a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners
 - d. Opposing teams
3. The following does not prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions
 - c. Asking 'do you understand?'
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - a. Relationships and interaction within the class
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS
What is communicative language teaching?
it's difficult to define, but

THE END

Appendix 2.2.350. Subject

54

2.3125

English Language Teaching Test

Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *True X*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials.
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes.
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *T X*
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *T A*
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. *True V*
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. *T A*
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *FL*
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *FL*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place *V*
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work
- b. Pairs
- c. Enemy corners *V X*
- d. Opposing teams

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?' *V X*
- d. Avoid echoing

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class
- b. Creation of a poor working environment
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables *V X*
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

0.8325

Appendix 2.2.351. Subject

S.T

English Language Teaching Test (5)
Time: 90 mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS
It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher? *Must know how to teach and respect students*

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY
Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR
Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students? *Explain them to the students*

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING
Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *FL*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. *FL*
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *FL*
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *TL*
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *FL*
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. *TL*
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. *T*
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *T*
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *FL*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.
2. This is not a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners
 - d. Opposing teams
3. The following does not prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions
 - c. Asking 'do you understand?'
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - a. Relationships and interaction within the class
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS
What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

Teaching English For communication

Appendix 2.2.352. Subject

S. 6

English Language Teaching Test

Time: 90mins

2.775

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has ... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. **T** ✓
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and when possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. **T** ✓
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. **T** ✓
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. **T** ✓
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. **T** ✓
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. **T** ✓
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. **T** ✓
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. **F** ✓
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. **T** ✓

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place. ✓
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place.
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place.
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work
- b. Pairs ✓
- c. Enemy corners ✓
- d. Opposing teams

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?'
- d. Avoid echoing ✓

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class. ✓
- b. Creation of a poor working environment.
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

Appendix 2.2.353. Subject

5.7
1.61

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS
It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY
Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key ✓
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR
Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple ✓
- Has ... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING
Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. ✓
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. ~~FL~~ ✓
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. ~~TX~~ ✓
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. ~~TX~~ ✓
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. ~~FL~~ ✓
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. ~~FX~~ ✓
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. ~~TX~~ ✓
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. ~~TX~~ ✓
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. ~~TX~~ ✓

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place. ✓
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work. ✓
- b. Pairs. ✓
- c. Enemy corners
- d. Opposing teams.

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?' ✓
- d. Avoid echoing. ✓

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class
- b. Creation of a poor working environment
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS
0.5 What is communicative language teaching? *Teaching to help each other.*
THE END

Appendix 2.2.354. Subject

S.8 5.600 T

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher? **A: Flexibility, SELF EVALUATION, Will OF IMPROVE His Methods, Humility AND Will OF CONTINUE TO LEARN**

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students? **A: USING THE METHOD OF LISTEN AND O.T. REPEAT**

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has ... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students? **A: USING THE METHOD OF EXPLANATION AND USE EXAMPLES**

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. **T**
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. **T**
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. **F**
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. **T**
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. **T**
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. **T**
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. **T**
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. **F**
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. **T**

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process. **✓ X**
2. This is not a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners **✓ X**
 - d. Opposing teams
3. The following does not prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions **✓ X**
 - c. Asking 'do you understand?'
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - a. Relationships and interaction within the class **✓ ✓**
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching? **A: IS A CONVERSATION METHOD.**

THE END

Appendix 2.2.355. Subject

S.9

5.0521

English Language Teaching Test

Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

A.T

Has to know grammar, vocabulary, good accent

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

J.2

- Tree *there is one mango tree in my yard*
- Key *my door is closed, please I need the key*
- Lazy *Don't be lazy, do your homework*
- Stumble *there is a stumble block*

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

O.T

- Present simple *subject + verb + complement*
- Has... been ... ing *she is a doctor*
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion.
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials.
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes.
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method.
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive.
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class.
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson.
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan.

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.

0.325

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work
- b. Pairs
- c. Enemy corners
- d. Opposing teams

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?'
- d. Avoid echoing

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class
- b. Creation of a poor working environment
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

Appendix 2.2.10 Subject 10

S.10

5.625

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

① there are some qualities in my mind of a good teacher most important for English language such as: motivation before and

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree - I should draw a tree on the black board.
- 2.24 • Key - I show a kind of key to the pupils
- Lazy - I explain and say that lazy is a word.
- Stumble - I explain, stumble appears when we don't know

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple we use present simple for permanent states
- 0.5 • Has... been ... ing has is the present of verb have is the third pers
- Was/were are the past simple of be. we use in the past

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. **F**
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. **T X**
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. **T X**
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. **T X**
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. **T X**
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. **T**
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. **FALSE**
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. **FALSE**
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. **FALSE**

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - ① c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place **X**
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.
2. This is not a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners
 - ① d. Opposing teams **X**
3. The following does not prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions
 - ① c. Asking 'do you understand?' **X**
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - ① a. Relationships and interaction within the class **✓**
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

0.8325

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

0.5 summarized in a good trend towards and interaction between.

Appendix 2.2.357. Subject

S 11 2.98

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90 mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. **T**
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. **F**
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. **F**
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. **F**
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. **F**
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. **T**
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. **T**
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. **F**
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. **F**

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.
2. This is not a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners **✓**
 - d. Opposing teams
3. The following does not prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions
 - c. Asking 'do you understand?' **✓**
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - a. Relationships and interaction within the class
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

1.48

*1.4. Planning the lesson as much as possible
2. Let students do the work
3. Ask students to explain*

Appendix 2.2.358. Subject

S. 12 English Language Teaching Test Time: 90mins 4.405

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS
 It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY
 Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tee
- Key
- Lazy
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR
 Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has ... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING
 Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion.
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials.
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes.
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method.

5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive.

6. Good lesson planning is the art of making techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class.

7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students.

8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson.

9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan.

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
 Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process
2. This is **not** a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners
 - d. Opposing teams
3. The following does **not** prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions
 - c. Asking 'do you understand?'
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - a. Relationships and interaction within the class
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS
 What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

student, benefactor, lovely and show
 every day: a background of the student. A Teacher

2 - Tree - its a noun - It is a tall plant that can
 time, its used to give wood for our furniture,
 cine - To clean the acetate
 - Key - its a noun, small metal key for opening
 - Lazy - its a adjective
 - Stumble - its a verb - to fall or almost fall
 - Present simple - something happening in
 moment
 structure
 subject + verb + complement
 Past: I am a student
 Past: I was a child.

Appendix 2.2.359. Subject

S.13 10.95

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS
It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher?
2 speaks well the teacher is friendly knows the material reproaches students

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY
Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:
2-22

- Tree - Draw a tree on the board
- Key - Bring keys and show to us
- Lazy - use some sentences
- Stumble

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR
Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:
1

- Present simple *explain to students*
- Has ... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING
Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction-development and conclusion. *F*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials.
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *MM*
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method.
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive.
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class.
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students.
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *F*
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *F*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place. *✓*
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work
- b. Pairs
- c. Enemy corners
- d. Opposing teams

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?'
- d. Avoid echoing. *✓*

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class
- b. Creation of a poor working environment
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS
What is communicative language teaching? *It is a method based speaking competence*

THE END

3

Appendix 2.2.360. Subject

8.14

6645

English Language Teaching Test
Time: 90mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher? *It's responsible, listening, learning*

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree - *baum*
- Key - "
- Lazy - *faul*
- Stumble - *stürzen*

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple
- Has... been... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *F*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. *T*
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *T*
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *F*
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *F*
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. *T*
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. *F*
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *T*
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *T*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is

- a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place
- b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
- c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
- d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.

2. This is not a seating arrangement:

- a. Group work
- b. Pairs
- c. Enemy corners
- d. Opposing teams

3. The following does not prevent learning:

- a. Helpful sentence completion
- b. Complicated and unclear instructions
- c. Asking 'do you understand?'
- d. Avoid echoing

4. Rapport has to do with

- a. Relationships and interaction within the class
- b. Creation of a poor working environment
- c. Establishment of teaching timetables
- d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

0.5 What is communicative language teaching? *It's about communication*

THE END

Appendix 2.2.361. Subject

345

~~English Language Teaching Test~~ English Language Teaching Test 5.682
Time: 90 mins

QUESTION ONE: GOOD AND BAD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

It is axiomatic that both teachers and students have mind pictures of a 'good' teacher. Using your experience as a language teacher, what qualities do you consider most important for an English language teacher? *Speaks well the language* 0.5

QUESTION TWO: TEACHING VOCABULARY

Imagine that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following vocabulary items:

- Tree - *use a picture*
- Key - *show a key*
- Lazy - *stumble*
- Stumble - *stumble*

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION THREE: TEACHING GRAMMAR

Consider that as part of your teaching program you are required to teach the following grammatical items:

- Present simple *explains*
- Has... been ... ing
- Was/were

a. How would you teach them to your students?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *FL*
2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. *F*
3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *FL*
4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *T x*
5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *FL*
6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class.
7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students
8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson.
9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *FL*

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Choose the most correct option

1. Classroom management is
 - a. To establish the conditions in which learning can take place ✓
 - b. To maintain the conditions in which learning can take place
 - c. To deal with the conditions in which learning can take place
 - d. To create the conditions that hinder the learning process.
2. This is not a seating arrangement:
 - a. Group work
 - b. Pairs
 - c. Enemy corners
 - d. Opposing teams
3. The following does not prevent learning:
 - a. Helpful sentence completion
 - b. Complicated and unclear instructions
 - c. Asking 'do you understand?'
 - d. Avoid echoing
4. Rapport has to do with
 - a. Relationships and interaction within the class
 - b. Creation of a poor working environment
 - c. Establishment of teaching timetables
 - d. Consider learners as recipients of knowledge

QUESTION SIX: TEACHING METHODS

What is communicative language teaching?

THE END

Appendix 3. Training modules of the in-service training programme

Modules one and two: introduction to the course and the Characteristics of the good language teacher

Aims:

To introduce the course

To introduce general positive qualities ascribed to effective English Language teachers

Training modes: Cross-over groups, full class discussion, and others

Time: 120 minutes

Learning content:

The Teacher as a Person

The teacher is the representative of the content and the school. How a teacher presents him/herself makes an impression on administrators, colleagues, parents, and students. Often a student links the preference for a particular subject to a teacher and the way the subject is taught. A teacher who exudes enthusiasm and competence for a content area may transfer those feelings to the students. In addition, the way the teacher relates to the pupils has an impact on the students experience in the class. The teacher's personality is one of first sets of the characteristics to look for in an effective teacher. Many aspects of effective teaching can be cultivated, but it is difficult to effect change in an individual's personality.

Positive qualities of a teacher as a person

- Assumes ownership for the classroom and the students success
- Uses personal experience as examples in teaching
- Understands feelings of students
- Communicates clearly
- Admits to mistakes and corrects them immediately
- Thinks about and reflects on practice
- Displays a sense of humour
- Dresses appropriately for the profession
- Maintains confidential trust and respect
- Is structured, yet flexible and spontaneous
- Is responsible to situations and students' needs
- Enjoys teaching and expects students to enjoy learning
- Listens attentively to students' questions and comments
- Responds to students with respect, even in difficult situations
- Treats students equally and fairly
- Has positive dialogue and interactions with students outside the classroom
- Maintains a professional manner at all times

Red flags

- Believes that teaching is just a job
- Arrives late to school and class on a regular basis

- Has classroom discipline problems
- Is not sensitive to students' culture or heritage
- Expresses bias (positive or negative) with regard to students
- Works on paperwork during class rather than working students
- Uses inappropriate language
- Demeans or ridicules students
- Exhibits defensive behaviour for no apparent reason
- Is confrontational with students
- Lacks conflict resolution skills
- Does not accept responsibility for what occurs in the classroom

The Teacher as the Organiser and Guide of the Instruction

Some teachers plan at home and others work after school, crafting unit plans that incorporate various objectives. Regardless of how and where teachers plan and organise for instruction, the evidence of effectiveness is seen in the classroom. An observer in the classroom of an effective teacher can quickly understand the work by viewing the daily lesson objectives and activities posted. Further, the teacher is able to share what the class will be doing to follow up the lesson of the day. In many schools, teachers are required to submit weekly lesson plans; these plans typically note accommodations for different learning styles or needs, and the variety of instructional approaches that will be used. It is important to note, however, that a lesson is not an end-all; it is merely a description of what should be occurring in the classroom. Thus, a good plan doesn't guarantee high-quality instruction, but a poor plan most certainly contributes to ineffective instruction.

Positive qualities of the Teacher as the Organiser and Guide of the Instruction

- Lesson plans are written for every school day
- Students know the daily plan because an agenda of objectives and activities is given
- Student assessment and diagnostic data are available
- Assessment data and pre-test results are included in the preparation of lesson plans
- Student work samples are available and considered when writing lesson plans
- Lesson plans are aligned with division curriculum guides
- Lesson plans have clearly stated objectives
- Lesson plans include activities and strategies to engage students of various ability levels.
- Lesson plans address different learning modalities and styles
- Lesson plans include use of available materials
- Lesson plans include required accommodations for students with special needs
- State standards are posted in the classroom
- Lesson plans include pacing information
- Etc.

Red flags

- No (or very few) lesson plans are available
- Student assessment and diagnostic data are not available
- No connection between assessment data and lesson plans is evident
- No differentiated instruction is provided
- Lesson plans are not aligned with local or district curriculum guides
- Activities that are unrelated to learning objectives are selected
- No plans for or anticipation of potential problems

- Students are not engaged in learning
- Lesson plans do not address different learning modalities and styles
- Lesson plans do not include required accommodations for students with special needs
- Lesson plans do not include pacing information
- Etc.

Further reading:

Stronge, J.H. 2007. *Qualities of Effective Teachers* (2nd Edition). Virginia, USA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Module three: presenting vocabulary

Aims:

- To establish the importance of teaching the meaning of new vocabulary as well as the form, showing how words are used in context.
- To give teachers techniques for showing the meaning of new words.
- To show teachers how to reinforce new vocabulary by asking questions using the new items.

Training Model: Reflective Teaching

Teaching Modes: Informal lecture; group mode activities (cross-group activities, and workshops)

Time: 120 minutes

Procedures

0. Revision of the previous session

- Get trainees discuss the positive qualities of a language teacher.
- Summarise the discussion

1. Informal lecture

a. Linkage - the lecturer shows the topic to be dealt with and links it to the previous one. E.g.: Our session today will revolve around the teaching of vocabulary, which is a crucial skill for a good language teacher.

b. Briefing - the trainer explains the aims for the lesson, and the type of learning activities the audience will be expected to undertake. E.g.: the trainer tell the trainees the following: we will engage in a number cross- group activities, informal lectures, and workshops, all related to teaching vocabulary, so that at the end of the lesson you are able to present vocabulary items to a given learning audience.

c. Overview - the lecturer displays the structure of the session.

- Definition of vocabulary and what needs to be taught
- Showing the meaning and form of words
- Combining different techniques
- Using a new word.

d. Signposting, the educator guides the audience towards the teaching aims.

2. Group mode

2.1 **Full class discussion** on the following topics:

What is vocabulary?

What needs to be taught?

2.1.2 Trainer overview

The trainer summarises the discussion

2.2 Workshop

1. Trainees are divided in pairs and are asked to do exercise one on their workbooks

2. Facade discussion of students answers.

3. Demonstration of two techniques (translation, and giving examples) followed by analysis and discussion. E.g.:

3.1. Ter teaches the meaning of the word **rumble** by giving a direct translation and asking the class to repeat to form on the form

3.2 Ter teaches the meaning of the word **grumble** by giving examples: some people grumble about everything. If it's hot they say it too hot. If it's cold they say it's too cold. They are never satisfied.

3.3 discuss the two techniques with the tees

4. Showing the meaning of words

Showing meaning visually

4.1 Ter writes the following words on the board and asks tees how they could most easily show their meaning:

Watch window elbow

4.2 Ter asks tees to think of the kinds words that can be presented in this way

4.3 Ter writes the following words on the board and asks tees how they could show their meaning:

Tree tractor cow

Same procedure as in 4.2

4.4 Ter writes the following words on the board and asks tees how they could most easily show their meaning:

Sneeze dig stumble

Same procedure as in 4.2

Giving examples

5. Ter informs that another way to show what words mean is by giving an example using the word in a context. For example:

'Building'

Houses are buildings. This school is also a building. In big cities there are many large buildings – there are hotels, and offices, and cinemas. They are all buildings of different kinds.

'Lazy'

Some people work hard, other people don't work hard – they are lazy. For example, I have a friend. He's very lazy. He gets up late, and then he does nothing all day. I say to him, 'don't be so lazy! Do

some work!'

6 Ter Overview:

It is not necessary to give a complicated explanation; the meaning can be shown by simple sentences (statements using the word (example ner 1) or by imagining an example (example ner 2 above)).

A good example should clearly show the meaning of the word to someone who does not know it already. So, we need to give enough examples not just a single sentence.

Examples are especially useful for showing the meaning of abstract words, e.g. love, happiness, imagine, quality, impossible, etc.

7. Tees demonstrations

In groups tees do workbook activity two and demonstrate in front of class

Combining different techniques

8. Tees study the demonstration on their handouts and demonstrate in front of the class.

9. Tees do workbook activity 3 and demonstrate in front of the class.

10. Ter comments o tees presentations

Using a new word

11 Engage learners in a discussion of ways to do so.

Summary

Ter summarises the session with the help of the tees.

Module Three: Presenting structures

Aims:

- To make sure that teachers know what structures are, and how they can be used to make a number of different sentences.
- To show teachers ways of showing the meaning of new structures and their forms.
- To help teachers think of their own situations and examples to present new structures.

Training modes: Lecture mode, group discussions, guided reading, trainer demonstrations, etc.

Time: 120 minutes.

Learning content:

1 Grammar in general

Grammar is sometimes defined as 'the way words are put together to make correct sentences'. This is, as we shall see presently, an over-simplification, but it is a good starting-point (and an easy way to explain the term to young learners). Thus, in English *I am a teacher* is grammatical, and *I a teacher*, and *I are a teacher* are not.

We can, however, apply the term 'grammatical' to units smaller than sentences. A brief phrase said or written on its own can be grammatically acceptable or unacceptable in its own right: *a tall woman* sounds right; *a woman tall* does not. The same may be true of single words: compare went with " goed.

Further: the minimal components to be combined may not be whole words; for example, the - ed suffix indicating the past tense of a regular verb in English, or the -s plural of nouns. And sometimes it is not even a question of putting 'bits' before or after other 'bits'; words may actually change their spelling and pronunciation in certain grammatical contexts: irregular forms of the past tense, for example, in English, and many common plural forms in Arabic (Ur, 1996: 75).

Question: *Can you formulate a more precise definition of 'grammar', in the light of the above discussion? Compare your definition with a dictionary's.*

2 Grammatical structures

A specific instance of grammar is usually called a 'structure'. Examples of structures would be the past tense, noun plurals, the comparison of adjectives, and so on. Not all languages, of course, have the same structures: the English verb has 'aspects' (such as the progressives: he is going for example) which many other languages do not; German ascribes masculine, feminine or neuter gender to its nouns, which English does not. It is largely such discrepancies which cause problems to the foreign language learner; though quite how difficult these problems will be it is often hard to predict, even if you are familiar with the learner's mother tongue. Occasionally, foreign structures that look strange may be surprisingly easy to master, and vice versa.

2.1 Examples of structures

I'd like to visit Paris.

Identify the structure in the above sentence.

I'd like to	Climb Mount Everest. Earn more money. Go home.
-------------	--

Structures are important because they can be used to make many different sentences; thus if students learn the most important structures of English, it will be easy for them to speak and to write the language.

Look at each sentence in turn. Think of two or three more examples of the structure in italics. Write the examples in a table.

1. *Shall I* open the window?
2. He *seems* to be rich.
3. *Is there* any tea?
4. I *used to* live in the country.
5. *She's writing* a letter.
6. The room was *so* dark *that* I couldn't see anything.

3 Showing the meaning of a structure

When introducing new structures, it is vital to:

- To teach meaning through examples

- Show the form of the structure clearly so that students can use it to make sentences of their own

3.1 Showing meaning visually

A simple and clear way of showing the meaning of a structure is often to show it directly using things the students can see: objects, the classroom, the students themselves, pictures, etc.

Demonstration 1

T: (point to the ceiling) what's that?

Ss: the ceiling.

T: (reach up and try to touch it) Look – I'm trying to touch it. Can I touch it?

Ss: No.

T: No, I can't. because it's too high. It's too high to touch. Too high. The ceiling's too high to touch. (say this sentence again in the students' own language)

Demonstration 2

T: Look at this. Is it light or heavy?

Ss: Heavy.

T: Yes, it's heavy. How heavy is it?

Ss: A hundred kilos.

T: That's right. It is very heavy. Could you lift it?

Ss: No.

T: No, of course you couldn't. it's too heavy. It's too heavy to lift.

It is important to establish a context for the new structure through a 'led in' to the presentation by focusing on a topic and asking questions about it.

3.2 Showing meaning through a situation

Another way of showing the meaning of a structure is by thinking of situation outside the classroom in which the structure could naturally be used. This could be real or imaginary.

Demonstration 1

'There is no point in ... ing':

T: Listen. Imagine you are with a friend. You're going to visit your uncle, who lives quite near. Your friend says, 'Let's go by bus'.

What will you say? Yes or no?

Ss: No.

T: Why?

Ss: Because he lives near.

T: Yes, he lives nearby. So you might say, 'we can walk there in 15 minutes. There is no point in going by bus.' There is no point in doing it. No point. (say this again in the students own language). There's no point in going by bus.

Demonstration 2

Here's another example. You want to read a book. But I know it isn't a good book. I might say to you, 'Don't read that book. There's no point in reading it – it isn't at all interesting'.

Another example: you have a bicycle, and you are going to clean it. But I know the weather is going to turn bad, so it would get dirty again. What could you say? There's ... yes?

Ss: There's no point in cleaning the bicycle.

T: Very good.

- It is important to give several different examples to help the class build up a clear idea of what the structure means and how it is used.
- After giving a few examples, the teacher can just give the situation and try to get the students to give the example. This checks students' understanding and helps involving the class more.

Discussion: ways of showing meaning

This is how different teachers presented comparison of adjectives to their students. Which presentation do you think is:

- The most interesting?
- The easiest?
- The most useful?

Teacher A:

I talked about two buildings in the town. ('the post office is bigger than the bank')

Teacher B:

I drew lines on the board. ('Line A is longer than Line B')

- ER THAN
NOT AS... AS...

Teacher C:

I called a tall and a short student to the front and compared them. ('Anna is taller than Maria')

Teacher D:

I drew pictures of two men on the board and compared them ('Hani is taller than Abdou')

Important:

- Drawing lines on the board is simple and clear, but not very interesting.
- Comparing two students would be interesting but it could be embarrassing for the students concerned; drawing two imaginary people on the board would be safer and just as clear.
- Referring to local buildings would be very clear, could be made more interesting by showing pictures.

How would you present the following structures?

1. *Shall I...*
2. *...seemsto...*
3. *Is there...*
4. *...used to...*
5. *'s ...ing...*
6. *so ... that*

3.4. Showing form and meaning

Apart from showing clearly how a structure is used and what it means, it is necessary to show the way it is formed. This can be done in two main ways:

8. Give a clear model and ask students to listen and repeat two or three times. e.g.:

T: Listen. It's too heavy to lift. Too heavy to lift. (*Gesture for repetition*).

Ss: It's too heavy lift.

Here our concern is to get students the 'feel' of the structure so that they are familiar with the way the structure sounds. Teachers should also know that a few repetitions by the class followed by one or two repetitions by individual learners should be enough.

9. Write the structure clearly on the board. e.g.:

It's too heavy to lift.

(Say the words as you write them, and underline the 'fixed' part of the structure.)

A teacher presented the structure 'has been... -ing... for...' to her class. To make the meaning clear, she drew pictures on the board and gave this imaginary situation: 'woman starts waiting for a bus at four o'clock. At five o'clock the bus comes. She's been waiting for an hour.'

Here are the teacher's notes for the lesson, but they are not in their correct order. What order should they be in? are all the stages necessary?

Say 'she's been waiting for an hour' and ask the class to repeat it phrase by phrase.

Ask the class to copy the sentence

Write the sentence on the board:
She's been waiting for an hour

Explain how the structure is

Ask individual students to repeat the sentence

Give other situations and examples:
Another person arrived at 4.30.
He's been waiting for half an hour, etc.

Ways of organising presentations of structures

1. Draw pictures and give examples
2. Give a model and get the class to repeat
3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence
4. Write the sentence on the board.
5. Explain how the structure is formed
6. Ask the class to copy the sentence
7. Give other situations and examples

Situation and example to show meaning

T: (drawing picture) Look, see this woman. What's she doing?

Ss: Waiting for a bus.

T: Yes. Look, it's four o'clock. She 's just started waiting.

(drawing second picture) what's the time now?

Ss: Five o'clock.

T: Yes – and look, the bus is coming. But the woman's been waiting for a long time. How long? Can you tell me?

Ss: One hour.

That's right. She's been waiting for an hour.

Model the structure

T: Listen. She's been waiting for an hour. Let's say together. For an hour.

Ss: For an hour. '

T: She's been waiting for an hour.

Ss: She's been waiting for an hour.

Model the example on the board

T: Now, let's write it. Who can tell me? (write She's) she's ... what comes next?

Ss: waiting.

T: Not yet – before that.

Ss: been.

Good. (write 'been') Now – what next?

Ss: waiting.

T: That's right (write 'waiting) and then?

Ss: For an hour.

T: Good. (write ' for an hour', and underline the structure)

Other examples

(draw another person, a man, and a clock) Look – here’s another person. He arrived at three o’clock. What can we say about him?

He’s been...?

Ss: He’s been waiting for two hours.

(and so on).

Contrasting structures

Sometimes it is also important to show the difference between two structures. This is mainly important when there is a contrast between them in English which does not in the students own language.

How?

- By giving examples: ‘how much/how many’
- And by giving simple explanations: how much is used with uncountable nouns. How many is used with countable nouns.
- ✓ Well- chosen examples are the clearest way to show how a structure is used. Rules and explanations can be useful by providing a kind of ‘short cut’ for the students, but they should be seen as an aid in learning, as something ‘extra’.
- ✓ It may not always be necessary to explain differences between structures. Students can get a sense of the way structures are used by hearing or seeing examples, without ever knowing the rule.
- ✓ Explanations are usually best done in students’ own language to increase student’s chances of understanding them. Explanations should always be as clear and simple as possible.

Further reading:

Doff, A. 1988. *Teach English - A Training Course for Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Module four: Practicing structures

Aims:

- To show teachers how to move from presenting structures to practising them.
- To make teachers aware of the difference between mechanical and meaning practice.
- To show teachers ways of organizing controlled oral practice in class.
- To show teachers how to use real and imaginary situations for freer practice.

Training modes: informal lecture, demonstrations, etc.

Time: 120 minutes.

1. From presentation to practice

Activity 1 ☺

The easiest way to practice the structure would be to do a repetition drill: the teacher gives other examples and gets the class to repeat them. This is only useful as a first step, because it is a limited

form of practice – the students do almost nothing.

The other techniques are more useful because they are all different forms of substitution practice: the teacher gives prompts and gets the students to give examples. This would keep the class more active, and give students practice in forming the structures themselves. Note that the prompts can be a whole sentence, a phrase or a word, or a picture.

The aim at this stage of the lesson is simply to give students practice in forming or 'manipulating' the structure. All the techniques shown are very controlled kinds of practice which would be done very quickly.

1.1 Degree of difficulty of the techniques

- a. Repetition – students have to do nothing themselves
- b. Substitution – students have to fit in the structure
- c. Single word prompts – students have to add the verb
- d. Picture prompts – students have to think of the whole sentence
- e. Free substitution- students have to invent a sentence

Although all the techniques would not be used together, the teacher could use a combination of them.
e.g.

Imagine that you have just presented the structure 'Let's'

Analyse the following demonstration and practice it.

T: Now, can you make some more sentences? Listen. You want to watch television, so you say, 'Let's watch television'. Now – you want to listen to the radio. Let's ...

S: Let's listen to the radio.

T: Good. Again.

S: Let's listen to the radio.

T: You want to go to the river.

S: Let's go to the river.

T: Good. (Indicating another student) Can you say it?

S: Let's go to the river.

(and so on)

T: Now, I'll just say a word, and you say the sentence, OK?
Television.

S: Let's watch television

T: Radio.

S: Let's listen to the radio.

(and so on)

T: Now – who can make another suggestion? Make your own sentence.

S: Let's go to the cinema.

T: Good. Another one.

S: Let's go for a walk.

(and so on)

To involve the whole class, get response from individual students and then get the whole class to repeat in chorus. You could also get two or three students to respond in turn to each prompt (by saying 'again' or simply pointing). This is a good way of giving weaker students a chance of saying something.

However, teachers should know that chorus repetition is not an ideal way of involving the class – the more chorus repetition there is the more mechanical the practice becomes.

2 Controlled practice

2.1 Meaningful practice

Drills like the ones seen above are only useful if done just for a few minutes as the first stage of practice. Drills are done essentially just to help students get their tongues round the new structure. Drilling is limited for three main reasons:

1. It is mechanical. Students may do the practice with their minds ‘switched off’ i.e., thinking about something different from what they are doing. Because it is easy to do, it is also easy to forget.

2. Teachers cannot be sure the students understand what the words mean.

e.g.

T: you want to muggle a wump.

S: Let’s muggle a wump.

T: you want to figgle a wimp.

Let’s figgle a wimp, etc.

3. All the students have to do is to produce the correct form; they are getting practice in saying the structure, but not in using it to express meaning.

It is important to give students practice in which they have to think, understand what they are saying, and express meaning. This is what is meant by meaningful practice.

Activity 2 😊

Comment: it is a completely mechanical procedure – it can be done without thinking or understanding. Therefore, they are meaningless and uninteresting to do.

2a

Sounds natural and gives useful basic practice of the structure. But it is mechanical – students could ask the questions correctly without any idea of what they were asking.

2b

Comment: students must understand the situation and think about what to ask. So, it is more meaningful but also more difficult than 2a as students have to provide the names of places themselves.

3a

Comment: it is mechanical; the question is always the same and to answer the student merely fits the prompt into the sentence.

3b

It is more meaningful because students had to add a reason, so they must understand what they are saying.

Ways of making practice more meaningful

- Get students to say real things about themselves

- Give situations that imply the structure but leave the students to decide exactly what to say.
- Let students add something of their own.

2.1 Organising practice in class

Activity 3 😊

Group work

Comments

Getting the class to repeat all the questions and answers turns the activity too mechanical, and it is unnecessary (they could just repeat one example). Students would learn the question better just by listening and responding to them.

In the second stage of the practice, teachers should insist on students real answers to make the activity meaningful.

Asking students to read the questions is again a very mechanical activity, and gives practice in reading aloud, not in asking questions orally. Instead, students could keep their books closed and try to remember the questions.

At the end the teacher could let students think of their own questions using 'can you...?' To ask each other.

A possible lesson plan for the activity could be:

1. Write an example on the board. Students repeat it.
2. Ask questions. Students give real answers.
3. Give prompts. Students ask each other questions.
4. Students make up their own questions.

Demonstration

Write on the board:

i) Can you swim? Yes, I can.
No, I can't

Get ss to repeat the question and answers.

ii) T: Now give me true answers. Can you swim?

S1: Yes, I can.

T: what about you? Can you swim?

S2: No, I can't (and so on).

T: Now, listen. Can you drive a car?

S3: No, I can't.

iii) Now can you remember the questions? Amir, ask Samir. Sing.

S: Can you sing?

S: Yes, I can.

iv) T: Now, can you ask your own questions? Yes?

S: Can you ride a bicycle?

T: Good. Who can answer? Rashid?

S: Yes, I can. (and so on)

Note that during the third and fourth stages of the practice, the teacher says as little as possible, and lets students take over the activity.

To get students to ask questions it is best to give short prompts which do not give away the question, e.g. 'Ask Samir. Car.' Not ask Samir if he can drive a car'.

The technique seen above can be used for any type of questions and answers or for short dialogues. After this the teacher could divide the whole class into pairs to ask and answer at the same time.

3 Free oral practice

Activity 3 🎯

After a controlled practice stage, there should be a freer practice one. Topics for oral free practice can be of two kinds:

- students to talk about real life (themselves, their friends, things in the world). Get
- students to imagine a situation which is not real. Get

Activities like those could be used with a low level class, as students only have to make simple sentences with 'going to'. It would be important to introduce the activity very carefully, giving instructions in students own language and giving a few examples.

With a large class it may be necessary to make the activity more highly organized. Rather than done freely in groups. For example:

The teacher could ask students in turn to give sentences, and then get students to ask each other.

The teacher could give a few minutes preparation time – students work alone or in pairs and think of sentences they could say. Then the teacher asks students to give their sentences.

The aim of the activity is to get students to talk as much as possible. So the teacher should try to 'prompt' rather than ask full questions (e.g. what about you ? And you?, Lucie, ask Françoise) the less the teacher says, the more chance students have to speak.

Demonstration

T: Marie, what are you going to give?

S: I'm going to give her a book – because she likes reading.

T: Christina, what about you?

S: I'm going to give her flowers.

T: Why?

S: Because it's spring.

T: Lucie, ask Françoise.

S: Françoise, what are you going to give?

T: I'm going to give her some money – then she can buy a present for herself. (and so on)

Module five: lesson planning

Aims: To raise trainees' awareness on the reasons and principles of planning, and help them understand the

importance of producing a workable and clear lesson plan;

Training modes: Lecture mode, guided reading, group discussions, workshop.

Learning content:

What is a lesson plan?

Importance of planning

Planning principles

- *Variety*
- *Flexibility*

Pre-plan

- *The profession*
- *The institution*
- *The students*

The plan

- *Aims and objectives*
- **Materials**
- **Description of the class**
- **Recent work**
- **Skills and language focus**
- **Anticipated problems**
- **Procedures**
- **Interaction patterns**

Lesson plan model:

<p>Teacher's name:</p> <p>Grade:</p> <p>Time:</p> <p>Date:</p> <p>Recent Work: (a past topic closely related to the current one)</p>

AIMS

7. **Structural:** in terms of what learners should be able to do with new language. For example: by the end of the lesson learners should be able to talk about general past experience using the present perfect.
8. **Functional:** in terms of language use. For example, expressing thanks, requirements, opinions, comments, attitudes, confirmation, etc. directing: ordering, instructing, persuading, advising, warning, etc. describing: actions, events, objects, people, process, etc. eliciting: information, directions, service, clarification, help, permission, etc. narration, reporting.
9. **Skills:**
 - e. Speaking: (1) informational skills (provide personal information, give instructions, express need, seek permission, speculate, paraphrase, make excuses, make suggestions, etc.). (2) Interactional skills (express purpose, repair breakdowns in interactions, attempt to persuade others, respond to requests for clarification, establish common ground, express agreement, etc.) (3) Managing interaction (initiate interactions, change the topic of an interaction, share the responsibility for the development of an interaction, take turn in an interaction, come to a decision, etc.).
 - f. Reading: (1) Skimming (to obtain main ideas and discourse topic quickly and efficiently, establish quickly the structure of a text, decide the relevance of a text to their needs, etc.). (2) Search reading (to find quickly

information on a predetermined topic). (3) Scanning (to find: specific words or phrases; figures, percentages; specific items in an index; specific names in a bibliography or a set of references. (4) Identify pronominal reference, identify discourse markers, interpret complex sentences, distinguish fact from rumour or hearsay, etc.

- g. Listening: (1) informational (obtain factual information, understand requests for information, recognize and understand comments, recognize and understand suggestions, recognize and understand excuses, etc.) (2) Interactional (understand greetings and introductions, understand expressions of agreement, understand expressions of disagreement, recognize speaker's purpose, recognize indications of uncertainty, etc.)
 - h. Writing: (1) express thanks, requirements, opinions, comments, attitudes, confirmation, etc.
 (2) Direct, order, instruct, persuade, advise, warn, etc.
 (3) Describe: actions, events, objects, people, process, etc.
 (4) Narrate, report, etc., in the form of like letters, messages, faxes, notes, notices, postcards, reports, instructions, compositions, etc.
10. **Vocabulary**: in terms of a general topic (furniture, means of transportation, food and drink, etc.), plus a limited number of words (e.g. ten new words a lesson)
11. **Topic**: the general theme of the lesson (e.g. famous people, family and friends, football, music, etc.)
12. **Teacher's Aims**: in terms of what the teacher aims to improve regarding the teaching profession

Materials: The most important teaching aids

Stage	Procedure	Interaction	Aims	Time
Lead in	Games, songs, stories, discussions, question and answer practice, etc.	T-C T-S S-S P/W	Possible aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To establish the context of the new language • To show ss the need of using the lge 	
Presentation	1. today we're going to talk about ... 2. Teach vocabulary 2.1 Meaning 2.1.1 Using realia, flash cards, examples, asking questions, etc. 2.2 Form 2.2.1 Oral model followed by repetition 2.2.2 Written model on the board 3. Structure 3.1 Teach meaning: 3.1.1 Visually/Through a situation followed by examples 3.2. Teach the form 3.2.1 Give a clear model and ask the class to repeat (Chorus, rows, and individual ss) 3.2.2 Write sentences on the board and show how the structure is formed 4. Give other situations and examples 5. Check understanding: Get students correct sentences Yes/No questions, Etc.	T-C	Possible aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To introduce the new lesson • To teach meaning and form of the new vocabulary items • To teach meaning of the new language • To show ss how the new lge is formed 	

	6. Deal with the Anticipated Problems			
Controlled Practice (Mechanical and meaningful)	1. Chorus repetition (whole class, rows, & individuals) 2. Drilling (substitutions) 3. Prompting (words & pictures) 4. Free substitution 4. Move from mechanical to meaning practice 4.1 Get students to say real thing about themselves 4.2 Give situations that imply the structure but leave the students to decide exactly what to say. 4.3 Let students add something of their own.	T-C T-S PW	Possible aims: • To give ss controlled practice within contextualized frameworks	
Communicative Practice	Ss play games Discussions Role plays Etc.	P/W G/W	Possible aims: • Give freer practice	
H/W		T-C	Possible aims: • To give ss h/w to consolidate the new lesson subject matter	

ANTICIPATED PROBLEM	PROBABLE SOLUTION
BOARD WORK	

Module six: classroom management

Aims:

To consider different aspects of class management to ensure the success of the teaching and of the tasks/activities which are used in class.

Training modes:

- Informal lecture
- Gapped lecture
- Group work activities

Learning content:

What is Classroom management?

Use of eye contact

- To ensure that students have understood what they are supposed to do and know what is going on;
- To indicate who is to speak;
- To encourage contributions when are trying to elicit ideas or specific language from students;

- To show a student who is speaking that you are taking notice;
- To hold the attention of students not being addressed and to encourage them to listen to those doing the talking;
- To keep in touch with other students in the class or group when you are dealing with an individual, perhaps when correcting;
- To signal to a pair or group to start, to stop or to hurry up;
- To indicate that groups are on the right or wrong lines;
- To indicate that something is incorrect;
- To check that everyone is participating;
- To check silently with students whether they have finished an activity.

Gestures

- To convey the meaning of language;
- To manage the class;
- To add visual interest;
- To increase pace;
- To cutdown on the amount of verbal explanation.

Using the voice

Giving instructions

Classroom discipline

Causes of discipline problems

- The teacher
- The students
- The institution

Preventing classroom indiscipline

- Code of conduct
- Teacher preparation

How to deal with classroom indiscipline

Module seven: traditional language teaching methods

Aim: To impart knowledge of some traditional language teaching methods

Training modes: Formal lecture, guided reading, Video session, etc.

Learning content:

Grammar translation method

- **Principles**
 1. Language learning is motivated by the purpose of reading the literature of the target language.
 2. The teacher is the only authority in the classroom.
 3. A substantial amount of class time is spent on translating. In addition, grammar is taught deductively.
 4. Teaching is a one-way interactional activity: teacher-to-student.
 5. Written language is superior to the spoken one.
 6. The teaching activity is centralised to grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing at the expense of speaking, listening, and pronunciation.
 7. Students' native language is the most predominant in the classroom.

8. Learning success is determined by translations, and questions about the target language culture in which students apply grammar rules.
9. Error treatment is done explicitly

- **Main techniques**

1. Translation.
2. Reading comprehension.
3. Antonyms/synonyms.
4. Deductive teaching.
5. Fill-in-the-blanks.
6. Memorisation.
7. Use words in sentences.
8. Composition.

The direct method

- **Principles**

1. The purpose of language teaching is to instruct students on how to communicate in the target language with a total exclusion of translation.
2. Teachers and students work as partners in the teaching and learning process.
3. The teaching and learning process is characterised by an association of meaning and target language directly.
4. Interaction patterns in class go from teacher-to-student, student-to-teacher, and student-to-student.
5. There is not much concern about students' feelings.
6. Spoken language is superior to written one, and vocabulary is given more attention than grammar.
7. Evaluation criteria are strongly based on language performance rather than competence.
8. Self-correction is seen as a key point in error treatment.

- **Main techniques**

1. Dictation
2. Question-and-answer exercises
3. Paragraph writing
4. Reading aloud
5. Self-correction
6. Conversation practice
7. Fill-in-the-blank and
8. Map drawing

The audio-lingual method

- **Principles**

1. Language learning results from habit formation and that as the habits of the learner's first language may interfere with the target language learning, committing errors should be prevented as much as possible. From this basic assumption several principles derive and orient the teaching and learning process.
2. Students are supposed to learn the target language in a way that they will not need to think later when using it.
3. The teacher directs and controls the learners' language behaviour by getting them imitating language models.
4. The teaching and learning process is characterised by vocabulary and language forms being

presented through dialogues, which are learned through imitation and repetition.

5. Interaction in the classroom takes the form of teacher-to-student, and student-to-student.
6. Grammar and pronunciation are key areas of language tuition in this method.
7. Error treatment is approached considering the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Accordingly, the teacher tries to predict them before they occur.

- **Main techniques**

1. Dialogue memorisation
2. Repetition drill
3. Backward build-up
4. Chain drill
5. Single-slot substitution drill
6. Multiple-slot substitution drill
7. Grammar game.

The silent way

- **Principles**

1. The teaching and learning activities are oriented towards helping learners' self-expression by taking into account their thoughts, perceptions and feelings.
2. The teacher is seen as technician who works with students' feelings and language awareness as he/she recognises that learners must do the learning. What is more, learners exploit their knowledge to get rid of the barrier that would interfere with the learning process.
3. The teaching and learning process is characterised by an initial attention to sounds, which are presented using colour-sound charts of particular languages.
4. Most of the time the teacher is silent.
5. The SW emphasizes language areas as, pronunciation, language structures, and all the four skills are worked on from the beginning.

- **Main techniques**

1. Sound-color chart
2. Teacher's silence
3. Peer correction,
4. Word chart,
5. Rods,
6. Etc.

Module eight: communicative language teaching

Aim: To impart knowledge of Communicative language teaching

Training modes:

- Formal lecture
- Jigsaw learning
- Guided reading
- Video session
- Full class
- Discussion

Learning content:

Definition

Principles

1. The instructional goal is to get students communicate in the target language.
2. The teacher is seen as a facilitator of communication, and students as communicators.
3. The teaching and learning process is characterised by the fact that most of learning activities have a communicative purpose.
4. Interaction patterns in the classroom occur with the teacher adopting essentially the roles of facilitator, and co-communicator.
5. Students' feelings are dealt with through considering that motivation can come as a result of students learning how to communicate, and by paying attention to their opinions and ideas.
6. Language is viewed for communication.
7. Language functions are given more attention.
8. Well thought-out use of students' L1 is allowed in the classroom.
9. Teachers' evaluation focuses on both accuracy and fluency.
10. Errors are viewed as an essential part of learners' language development

Origin

Development

Theoretical grounds

- **Theory of language**
 - **Communicative Competence**
 - ❖ **Linguistic competence**
 - ❖ **Sociolinguistic competence**
 - ❖ **Discourse competence**
 - ❖ **Strategic competence**
 - **Theory of learning**
 - Communication principle.
 - Task principle.
 - Activities should be selected according to the degree in which they help learners to embark on meaningful and authentic language use.

Syllabi

- **Skills-based syllabus.**
- **Functional syllabus**
- **Notional syllabus**
- **Threshold level syllabus**

Activities

- Quasi-communicative activities.
- Functional communication activities.
- Social communication activities.

Communicative materials

- Contain real life communication interchanges
- Role plays should be set up considering real life language situations.
- Activities should be grounded on information gaps.
- Materials should take into account the transferability to the real world of the activities.

Teacher's role: Facilitator

Learner's role: Negotiator

Appendix 4. Post-test

English Language Teaching Test

Time: 120 minutes

QUESTION ONE: GOOD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

The teacher is the representative of the content and the school. How a teacher presents him/herself makes an impression on administrators, colleagues, parents, and students. The teacher's personality is one of first sets of the characteristics to look for in an effective teacher. Many aspects of effective teaching can be cultivated, but it is difficult to effect change in an individual's personality.

- a) List a few positive qualities of the teacher as a person.

QUESTION TWO: PRESENTING VOCABULARY

What techniques would you use to teach the following vocabulary items?

- Plane
- Handkerchief
- Proud
- Sneeze

QUESTION THREE: PRESENTING NEW STRUCTURES

1. Put the following techniques in order, i.e. what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Ner.	Technique
	Write the sentence on the board.
	Draw pictures and give examples.
	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
	Give other situations and examples.
	Explain how the structure is formed.
	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

2. A teacher presented the structure 'has been ... -ing ... for ...' to her class. To make the meaning clear, she drew pictures on the board and gave this imaginary situation: 'A woman starts waiting for a bus at four o'clock. At five o'clock the bus comes. She's been waiting for an hour.'

- a. What should the teacher do next for practicing the structure?

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

- a. Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.
1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion.
 2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials.
 3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes.
 4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method.
 5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive.
 6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class.
 7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students
 8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson.
 9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan.
- b. Describe the parts of a lesson plan.

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Talk about causes, remedies and how to prevent classroom discipline problems.

QUESTION SIX: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Discuss CLT by focussing on the following aspects:

- Definition
- Origin
- Principles
- Communicative activities
- Among others

2. A teacher presented the structure 'has been ... -ing ... for ...' to her class. To make the meaning clear, she drew pictures on the board and gave this imaginary situation: 'A woman starts waiting for a bus at four o'clock. At five o'clock the bus comes. She's been waiting for an hour.'

- b. What should the teacher do next for practicing the structure?

Appendix 4.1. Post-test correction criteria

TEST CORRECTION CRITERIA

QUESTION	OBJECTIVES	POSSIBLE ANSWERS	Marks
1.	To analyse the extent to which the testees grasped the knowledge about general positive qualities ascribed to effective English Language teachers presented and discussed in the training.	Any six positive qualities of the teacher as a person.	3.33 marks
2.	To assess the extent to which the participants learned about how to teach different types of vocabulary items.	<i>Possible answers:</i> Plane - Use of flash cards, photographs, or showing the real object if possible. Handkerchief - Using realia (i.e. showing real objects) Proud - Through examples Sneeze- Miming	1.11x3= 3.33 marks
3.1	To know the extent to which the teachers	<i>Possible answers:</i> Following the sequence of techniques below plus examples of them: 1. Draw pictures and give examples 2. Give a model and get the class to repeat 3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence 4. Write the sentence on the board.	1.665 marks

	internalised the techniques for teaching grammar presented and discussed in the training.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Explain how the structure is formed 6. Ask the class to copy the sentence 7. Give other situations and examples 	
3.2	To know if teachers learned how to move from presenting structures to practicing them.	<p>Possible answers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repetition • Substitution • Single word prompts • Picture prompts • Free substitution • Get students to say real things about themselves using the structure • Give situations that imply the structure but leave the students to decide exactly what to say. • Let students add something of their own. • <p>Free oral practice (Get students to talk about real life (themselves, their friends, things in the world), Get students to imagine a situation which is not real).</p>	1.665 marks
4.a	To discover the extent to which the testees' learned about lesson planning.	<p><u>Possible answers:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. F. 2. Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. F 3. Variety does not apply to a series of classes. F 4. Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. F 5. Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. F 6. Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. T 7. Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. T 8. Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. F 9. Students' interests do not influence in the design of 10. a lesson plan. F 	0.147x9=1.323
4.b		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aims and objectives • Materials • Description of the class • Recent work • Skills and language focus • Stages of the lessons 	2 marks

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedures • Interaction patterns • Timing • Anticipated problems • Board work 	
5.	To know if learners understood basic classroom management techniques.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher The students The school • Dealing with discipline problems: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Act immediately Stop the class Reseating Change activity After class Using the institution • How to prevent problems <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Code of conduct Being fair and consistent Being well-prepared Being adaptable and interesting 	3.33 marks
6.	To discover how much the trainees grasped about CLT.	No prescribed answers, the assessment will be based on the extent to which test takers can discuss the concepts learned during the training course and suggested in the question.	3.33 marks

Appendix 4.2. Results of the post-test

Appendix 4.2.1. Subject 1

SL Proficient
S1

Question one 11.9705

Assumes ownership for the classroom and the SL success (as a)
uses personal experience as examples in teaching
understands feelings of students
communicates clearly
Admits mistakes and corrects them immediately.
Thinks about and reflects on practices 3.33
Dresses appropriately for the profession
Maintains Confidential Trust and respect
Treats students equally and fairly
enjoys teaching and expects students to enjoy learning

Question Two: vocabulary

Plane
To teach this word
I'm drawing a picture on the board, and showing a picture to students
T: look - this is a plane (pointing to his plane).
A plane. A plane
S1: A plane

Handkerchief
Showing the handkerchief to students
T: Look - this is a handkerchief (pointing to his or her handkerchief)
S1: A handkerchief
T: (gesture) what is it?
S1: A handkerchief

Proud
My Cousin is very proud of himself. He has good marks, a good job, and works hard. I'm also proud of him.

Smize
T: Look - (mime someone smizing). Aahed! I've just smized.
Smize. Smize. Can you say it?
S1: Smize
T: Again
S1: Smize

Question Three: Teaching Grammar

① 0.788

- 1- Draw pictures and give examples
- 2- Explain how the structure is formed
- 3- Write the sentence on the board
- 4- Give a model and get the class to repeat (the sentence)
- 5- Ask individual students to repeat the sentence
- 6- Give other situations and examples
- 7- Ask the class to copy the sentence

② Repetition
Substitution
Single word and free substitution

Question four: lesson planning

a. 0.788

- 1- True
- 2- True
- 3- False
- 4- True
- 5- False
- 6- True
- 7- True
- 8- True
- 9- False

b.

Aims
Materials
Skills
Revision
Presentation
Controlled practice
Production

Question five: management

2.22 The causes are: the teacher, students, and the school
To prevent problems we should be prepared.
When problems arise we should act immediately

Question six: Communicative language teaching (CLT)

CLT is a way of teaching based on communicative competence
its origin is Britain in 1960s

2 The principles (we) are that CLT should be taught for
communication. there are many communicative activities
Some are: Role plays and discussions.

Appendix 4.2.2. Subject 2

S2 Post-Test

15.1495

Question one: good language teachers

Positive qualities of a teacher as a person:
 • Assumes ownership for the classroom and the students success; Uses personal experience as examples in teaching. Understand feelings of students; communicates clearly; admits to mistakes and corrects them; thinks and thinks about and reflects on practice; displays a sense of humour; dresses appropriately for the job; etc.

Question two: Presenting vocabulary

Phone, we could use, showing visually; giving examples; using a new word, combining different techniques.

Handkerchief → Showing visually 2.02

Sneeze → Demonstrating two situations
 as show by gestures or by facial expression.

Question three: teaching grammar

1.66
 1. ①
 2. ②
 3. ③
 4. ④
 5. ⑤
 6. ⑥

2. Repetition and prompts
 0.882

Question four: lesson planning

a.
 1. ① ✓
 2. ② ✓
 3. ③ ✓
 4. ④ ✓
 5. ⑤ ✓
 6. ⑥ ✓
 7. ⑦ ✓
 8. ⑧ ✓
 9. ⑨ ✓
 10. ⑩ x

b. We could delineate the following steps:
 1- lead in a topic; 2- presentation; 3- controlled practice; 4- activities focussing on fluency and activities focussing on accuracy.

Question five: Classroom management

Causes:
 2.12
 - When teachers don't prepare themselves
 - to prevent be prepared
 - When there are problems stop the class
 - and solve the problems.

Question 6: Communicative language teaching

C.L.T in context of definition is a set of the principles about language learning and teaching which are applicable in a variety ways to addressing different aspects of the teaching and learning processes.

The starting points of the C.L.T are to be traced back to the British language teaching dating from the 1960s. The work of the Council of Europe, the writings of some writers and British Applied linguists was decisive in the origin of C.L.T.

At least the communicative activities in C.L.T must be on activities focusing on fluency to look for linkage between use and the context, yet must follow activities focussing on accuracy for focus on the formation of correct examples of language.

Thank you very much
The author

Appendix 4.2.3. Subject 3

SS Post-Test 16.5625

Question 1

- Taken responsibility
- Does have bias
- He is organized 3.55
- It's fair
- Plans lesson
- It's alternative

Question 2

Plane - Show a positive
 Handwriting - Showing a red object
 Proud - Give examples
 Smug - Demonstrate

Question 3

1. Draw pictures
2. Give a model for repetition
3. It's for SS repeat 1.665
4. Write it
5. Explain it
6. SS copy
7. Other examples

2. Pairwork about a situation
 0.855 Dialogues

Question 4

a.

1. F ✓
2. F ✓
3. F ✓
4. F ✓ 0.755
5. T ✗
6. T ✓
4. F ✗
8. T ✗
3. T ✗

b. Revision, Presentation, Practice, Production, board work,
 2 Participated problems, aids, timing, etc.

Question 5

Causes

- ① Teacher - unprepared, boring lesson
- ② Students - more
- ③ School - When there are no rules

Prevent by using a code of conduct
 In case of problems act immediately

Question 6

CLT is teaching of Communicative competence.
It is mostly a British innovation.

↳ It gives attention to fluency focused activities, information gap, role plays, language functions related practice.

Appendix 4.2.395. Subject

S4 Post-Test

One 9.90475

- Understands feelings of students
- Is responsive
- Treats students fairly
- Always a professional
- Plans all lessons
- Etc

1.665

Two 2.25

Plane - show picture
Handkerchief - real object
Bread - brief explanation
Suzuki - translate

Three 0.8325

① draw pictures
Give examples
Explain

② have students to repeat after the teacher

Four 0.41625

a. 1.FV 2.F 3.F 4.F 5.F 6.F 7.F 8.F 9.FA
0.449

b. Lesson plans must include the following:

① Lead in / Revision
② Presentation

communicative practice!
Anticipated problems
Board work

FIVE

The causes are the students when they make a lot of noise.

1.665
We must prevent students' noise by telling the rules of classroom behaviour.

SIX

Communicative language teaching is all about teaching language for communication

Some of its principles are: students must communicate in the language they are learning, the teacher is a facilitator, all the four language skills important, errors are important.

Communicative activities use natural language, focus on communication, meaning is more important.

Appendix 4.2.396. Subject

SS Post-7. 13.06

① Question one: Good language teachers

- Uses personal experience as examples in teaching
- Understands feelings of students
- Communicate clearly 3.33
- Admits to mistakes and corrects them immediately
- Thinks about and reflects on practice

② Question two - presenting vocabulary

- plane - by showing a picture
- Handkerchief - by miming (drawing a picture) 3.33
- Proud - by giving an example using the words in a context
- Sneeze - miming, using actions and facial expressions

③ Question three: Teaching grammar

1. 1.66
2
3
4
5
6
 - 2. Repetition, substitution, prompts, use real examples

①

① Question Four: lesson planning

- a. 0.733
 1. TX
 2. FL
 3. FL
 4. TX
 5. FL
 6. TL
 7. TL
 8. TL
 9. TX
- b. Topic
- Aim 1.5
- Goal
- Time
- Materials
- Stages: presentation, controlled practice, Communicative practice

② Question six: Communicative Language Teaching

- 1 - CLT can be seen as a set of principles about the aims of language teaching
- 2 - The starting points of the CLT are to be traced back to the British language teaching traditions dating from the 1960s
- 3 - Variety, flexibility

4. Activities focussing on Fluency

- * Mirror natural language use of language
- * Focus on reaching communication
- * Involve meaningful use of language

Activities focussing on accuracy

- * Mirror classroom of language
- * Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
- * practice language out of context.

St Post

2. 176

Question one

The positive qualities of the teacher is to be aware of what skill will be developed in the lesson.

0.7

⇒ The teacher needs to be aware of what skills will be developed in the class

⇒ Writing a lesson plan helps the teacher to prepare the lesson

Question two

Plane - Have you travelled by plane?

Question three

0.7

1
5
4
6
3
2

Question four: Lesson Planning

a.

1. T ✗

2. F ✓

1. 176

3. F ✓

4. F ✓

5. F ✓

6. T ✓

7. T ✓

8. F ✓

9. F ✓

Appendix 4.2.400. Subject

12.7.97 Post

Question one: Good language Teachers

- Pays attention to the students
- Respects students
- Is fair to students
- Maintains a professional manner all time
- Plans lessons
- Understands letting feelings of students
- Assumes responsibility of what happens in the classroom.

Question Two: Presenting Vocabulary

Plane - show a picture of plane
 Handkerchief - show use realia
 Road - give examples
 Sneeze - mime

Question Three: Teaching Grammar

1. Pictures and examples
2. Choral: Chorus repetition
Other situations and examples
3. Repetition and real answers.

Question four: lesson Planning

a

1.	F	✓
2.	F	✓
3.	F	✓
4.	F	✓
5.	F	✓
6.	T	✓
7.	F	X
8.	F	✓
9.	F	✓

b. Revision/lead in, Presentation, Controlled ~~Practice~~
 Communicative practice.

Question five: Classroom management

The causes can be

1. The teacher - gives boring lessons
2. The students - when they don't pay attention
3. The institution - lack of rules

How to prevent

- Be fair to students
- Prepare lessons

When ~~the problems~~ There are problems

- separate the students
- repeat
- change the activity

Question six: Communicative language Teaching

CLT is a way of teaching based on Communicative Competence. This has four types of abilities:

- Linguistic
- Sociolinguistic
- Strategic
- Discourse

CLT originated in England as a result of the dissatisfaction with the situational language teaching approach.

The main principle of CLT is that language is for ~~for~~ communication.

The main activities include: *Task* - Communicative, *Function* communication activities, and *Social* communication.

Appendix 4.2.9. Subject 9

St Post

13.8A

Question one

- Assumes responsibility of the teaching and learning process
- Speaks well English
- Does not express bias
- Is fair to students
- is always professional in his actions
- uses real examples
- Respect the students
- Does not think the teaching is just a job.

3.33

Question two

Plans - drawing, pictures, or photographs
 Handkerchiefs - Bring it the class
 Board - write contextual sentences
 Smeeze - pretend to sneeze in front of the students

2.22

Question three

7-

1 Draw pictures and give examples	5. Explain...
2 - Give a model...	6 - Ask the class...
3 - Ask individual...	7 - Give other...
4 - write the...	

1.667

2. Mechanical practice:

- Repetitions
- 1 - Substitutions
- Meaningful practice
- use real examples
- use role plays

Question four

a.

1.	T	×
2.	T	×
3.	T	×
4.	F	✓
5.	F	✓
6.	T	✓
7.	T	✓
8.	F	✓
9.	F	✓

5. aims, description of the class, anticipated problems.
 stages: revision, presentation, practice, communication
 value practice.

causes → The teacher, the students, the institution
 Convention → Establish a code of conduct

in case of problems → Act immediately, separate the students, use the institution

Question Six

CLT is a set of principles about language learning and teaching which focus on the four language skills to help students acquire the four types of communicative competence (linguistic, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse.)

It is a British innovation cause by introduction with SLTA.

It's activities a fluency based.

Appendix 4.2.10. Subject 10

SID Post
English Language Teaching Test

13.909

Q. One

a) Positive qualities of the teacher:

- Assumes ownership for the classroom and the students success.
- Uses personal experience as examples in teaching.
- Understands feelings of the students.
- Communicates clearly.
- Admits to mistakes and corrects them immediately.
- Thinks about and reflects on practice.
- Displays a sense of humor.
- Maintains (appropriately) confidential trust and respect.
- Maintains a professional manner at all times.
- Treats students equally and fairly.

Question Two: Presenting vocabulary.

The techniques are:

- Plane is the meaning of object that cannot be brought to the classroom. Then, we show a picture. This can be done by drawing a picture on the board.
- Hand is 2 parts of the (body) human body we can simply point at them.
- Watch is a real object that we can wear, then it can be brought in the classroom. For example:
Teacher: Look - this is a watch (pointing to his or her watch). A watch. A watch.
Students: A watch
Teacher: (gesture) What is it?
Students: A watch
- Lazy is an adjective, we can (use) be taught by miming using actions and facial expressions.

it explains in this way:

Some people work hard, other people don't work hard - they are lazy. For example, I have a friend who is very lazy. He gets up late, and then he does nothing all day.

We can give them other examples: Don't be so lazy! Do some work.

• Sneeze is an adjective. How (can) can teach.

Example: Teacher: (mime someone sneezing) At school, I've just sneezed. Sneeze, sneeze. Can you say it?
Students: Sneeze
Teacher: again
Students: Sneeze

Showing meaning visual for suitable vocabulary is a very effective method because it is interesting, and it makes an impression on the class.

Question Three: Teaching grammar

The ways of organizing or to put in order are:

1. Draw pictures and give examples.
 - Give a model and get the class to repeat.
 - Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
 - Write the sentence on the board.
 - Explain how the structure is formed.
 - Ask the class to copy the sentence.
 - Give other situations and examples.
2. Repetition Drilling, read answers

- Question four: Lesson planning
1. (True false) True ✓
 - 2 - False ✓
 - 3 - False ✓
 - 4 - False ✓
 - 5 - True ✓
 - 6 - True ✓
 - 7 - True ✓
 - 8 - False ✓
 - 9 - False ✓

① Question ~~four~~ ^{six} Communicative language

- Definition: CLT treats the weak aspects of many of the prior methods and build on their main strengths.
 - Origin: Can be seen as a set of principles about the aims of language teaching.
 - Principles: Speak about or treats about definition, origin, development, theoretical ground, syllabus activities, etc.
2. • Communicative activities.
1. Activities focussing on fluency. Mirror natural use of language focus on reaching communication, etc.
 2. Activities focussing on accuracy mirror classroom use of language practice small samples of language, etc.

Question five

~~causes~~ 2.2 Causes - the teacher } lack of preparation
" " " } " " training

The students { Two's company
Attention
Motivation
Interest

The school - lack of rules.

Prevention use of code of conduct
problems - listen and act immediately

Appendix 4.2.406. Subject

S11 POST
Question one 4.573

a) The teacher is the representative of the content and the school, and he is a personal who can teach the person for all knowledge. Person need to know something. English is a good language and makes a person to be a good one.

① The teacher's personality is one of first sets of the characteristics to look for in a effective teacher.

Many aspects of effective teaching can be cultivated, but it is difficult to effect change in an individual's personality.

A good language teacher is that he give a time to read, revise, to study etc.

Question two

The techniques that I use to teach using this item, is:
to use the plans is a key for all form on it, after the method (night) teacher can't be lazy to follow the plans and method) how to use the same plans, to organize the item, vocabulary, etc.

① teacher can't be lazy to follow the plans and method right.
We can use a watch to control the time in classroom, and to sneeze always for to speak well.

Question three

- 1- Explain how the structures is formed.
- 2- Write the sentence on the board.
- 3- Give other situation and examples. 0.2
- 4- Draw pictures and give examples
- 5- Give a model and get the class to repeat.

Question four

1 - true ✓	}	<u>Question five</u> The teacher The student The institution 1.665
2 - true ✓		
3 - true ✓		
4 - true ✓		
5 - true ✓		
6 - true ✓		
7 - true ✓		
8 - false ✓		
9 - false ✓		

0.87

Question five

Presentation, practice
Free practice

Teacher can be able to communicate well in to activities, because communicate is a key, for all activity.

① Thanks for your time you gives us to be together.

Hwambo, 10 / Maio de 2018

Appendix 4.2.407. Subject

S12 Post-T 16.0915

①

- IS always professional
- Prepares all lessons
- ↳ Assumes ownership of the class
- IS not biased
- Treats students fairly
- Loves his job
- IS respectful to students
- Uses real examples to motivate students

②

plane: Show a picture, give an oral model
SS repeat ask questions using the new word

Handkerchief - Use realia to show the meaning and use the procedure above.

fraud - Use contextual clues plus the techniques above

Sneeze - Demonstrate followed by the above

③

1. Draw...
2. Give model
3. Ask individual...
4. Write
5. Explain...
6. Ask to copy...
7. Give other...

2.

- Repetition
- Substitutions
- Meaningful practice
- ↳ Ask questions to say real things about themselves
- Communicative practice

Repetition

Substitutions

Meaningful practice

- Ask students to say real things about themselves

- Communicative practice

(4)

0.5-1-~~F~~ 2-~~F~~ 3-~~F~~ 4-~~F~~ 5-~~T~~ 6-~~T~~ 7-~~F~~ 8-~~T~~

b. lead in/revision, presentation, controlled practice and freer practice

(5)

The causes of indiscipline can be the teacher, the students and the institution.

To solve problems teachers can stop the class

2) Change activity, etc.

To avoid issues in the classroom teachers should use a code of conduct.

(6)

CLT is a way of teaching that involves all the four language skills. The main objective is to help students acquire communicative competence.

CLT is not skill-based, notional, three-level syllabi. Communicative activities should be in formation gap based. The role of the teacher is a facilitator.

The students are negotiators of meaning

Appendix 4.2.409. Subject

5.13

15.904

English Language Teaching Test Time: 120 minutes

QUESTION ONE: GOOD LANGUAGE TEACHERS

The teacher is the representative of the content and the school. How a teacher presents him/herself makes an impression on administrators, colleagues, parents, and students. The teacher's personality is one of first sets of the characteristics to look for in an effective teacher. Many aspects of effective teaching can be cultivated, but it is difficult to effect change in an individual's personality.

a) List a few positive qualities of the teacher as a person.
3.93 *Give many positive qualities of the teacher as a person. But I'm going to list some of them: a good teacher uses personal experience as examples in teaching, understands feelings of students, communicates clearly, is open to mistakes, thinks about and reflects on practice*

QUESTION TWO: PRESENTING VOCABULARY

What techniques would you use to teach the following vocabulary items?
3.33 *Plane - Ask Teacher shows the meaning. Video 3 and gets students to repeat. Handkerchief - shows one doing it to the p, makes some sentences. Proud - use several examples and show the meaning. Sneeze - pretend to sneeze, and other procedures*

QUESTION THREE: PRESENTING NEW STRUCTURES

1. Put the following techniques in order, i.e. what should the teacher do first second, etc.

Nr.	Technique
4	Write the sentence on the board.
1	Draw pictures and give examples.
2	Give a model and get the class to repeat.
3	Ask individual students to repeat the sentence.
7	Give other situations and examples.
5	Explain how the structure is formed.
6	Ask the class to copy the sentence.

2. A teacher presented the structure 'has been ... -ing ... for ...' to her class. To make the meaning clear, she drew pictures on the board and gave this imaginary situation: 'A woman starts waiting for a bus at four o'clock. At five o'clock the bus comes. She's been waiting for an hour.'

a) What should the teacher do next for practising the structure?

1 *repetition, substitution, meaningful practice*

QUESTION FOUR: LESSON PLANNING

a) Are the following statements true or false? Justify all your answers, true or false.

- In a language lesson we usually follow the sequence introduction development and conclusion. *T*
 - Variety in planning means involving learners in a few of the same type of activity and where possible introduce them to a narrow selection of materials. *F*
 - Variety does not apply to a series of classes. *F*
 - Flexibility means the ability to use any number of different techniques attached to a particular method. *T*
 - Variety and flexibility are mutually exclusive. *F*
 - Good lesson planning is the art of mixing techniques, activities and materials in such a way that an ideal balance is created for the class. *T*
 - Before the plan we need to know about the profession, the institution, and the students. *T*
 - Knowing about the students' social background is not important in planning a lesson. *F*
 - Students' interests do not influence in the design of a lesson plan. *F*
- b) Describe the parts of a lesson plan.

QUESTION FIVE: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

2. Talk about causes, remedies and how to prevent classroom discipline problems.

causes *causes the teacher (not prepared), the students (too much noise), school (no)*

QUESTION SIX: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Discuss C.L.T by focussing on the following aspects:

- Definition
- Origin
- Principles
- Communicative activities
- Among others

Communicative language teaching has tried to better the weak aspects of many of the prior methods and build on those which strengths so as to provide practical and theoretical grounds on which a more communicative language oriented language teaching would be based (C.L.T.)
C.L.T began in Britain because of dissatisfaction with the SL
C.L.T 9 principles: 1st language learning is for communication
2nd activities focussing on fluency: rather natural use of language
3rd focus on reading communication, call for the use of communication strategies
look for leakage between age and use context.

Appendix 4.2.410. Subject

15.09.2014 Post-T.

Question one: good language teachers

- * Take responsibility for what happens in the classroom
- * Is respectful to students
- * Loves his/her profession
- * Has no bias
- * Has positive dialogues with students outside the classroom
- * Is flexible and structured
- * Knows how to deal with discipline problems
- * Always a professional

Question two: presenting vocabulary

1. Draw - show a picture and get ss to repeat
2. Handkerchief - use realia
3. Card - use examples and situations
4. Sneeze - Gestures and miming

Question three: Teaching grammar

1. Meaning precedes form: Reinforcement comes next.
2. Ask ss to repeat, use some substitutions, picture prompt

Question four: Lesson planning

a.

1. F ✓
2. T ✗
3. T ✗
4. T ✗
5. F ✓
6. T ✓
7. T ✓
8. F ✗
9. F ✓

5. Revision, presentation, practice, production

Question five: C.M.

Causes

- the teacher
- the students
- the institution

Remedy immediate appropriate action

prevention - Code of Conduct

Question Six: CLT

CLT is all about helping students be able to communicate. Students work on the four language skills. The CLT uses the following types of syllabi:

- skills
- Notional
- Functional
- Threshold

(3)

CLT activities are both fluency-based and accuracy focused. CLT includes content based instruction, task based approach, competency based teaching, etc.

Appendix 4.2.15. Subject 15

S.M Post-T (12.65)

Uses humour in teaching
 Dresses appropriately
 Loves teaching

2) Is responsible
 Pays attention to students' problems
 Communicates well
 Treats students equally
 Is flexible

Plan - flash cards
 Handwritten real object
 2) Proud - use examples
 Sneize - show to students

1. Draw pictures and show how the structure is formed
 2. Repetition and real examples

1. 1 - ✓
 2. 1 - ✓
 3. 1 - ✓
 4. 1 - ✓
 5. 1 - ✓
 6. 1 - ✓
 7. 1 - ✓
 8. 1 - ✓
 9. 1 - ✓
 10. 1 - ✓

1. Aims, stages of the lesson, procedures, anticipated problems
 Board work

1. Lack of preparation
 - Students' attitudes
 - " Interests
 - 2. School politics
2. Use the code of conduct
 - Be fair to students
 - Use interesting activities and techniques

CLT starts from the idea that students should use language for communication.

It uses Communicative Competence, which about

- Grammatical ability
- Sociolinguistic "
- Strategic "
- Discourse "

2) The syllabic are

- Skill-based
- Notional
- Functional
- Multi-aspects

Communicative activities are

- Quasi-communicative
- Functional Communication
- Socio "

Appendix 5. Observation chart

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner _____

Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____

Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan			
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids			
Use of examples to teach meaning			
Order and sequence of techniques			
Use of Gestures and miming			
Use of realia			
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques			
Use of visual techniques			
Use of examples			
Use of meaningful practice techniques			
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language			
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity			
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time			
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction			
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas			
Dealing with discipline			
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities			
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.			

Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)			
The teacher's roles			

COMMENTS

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average

Appendix 5.1. Observation chart assessment bands

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan	The teacher does not provide a lesson plan; the plan does not have any clear objectives; the stages of the lesson are not appropriate for a language lesson; there is mismatch between the stages, the procedures, interaction patterns, objectives, and timing	The aims and objectives are clearly stated; the lesson follows a logical organisation format; the stages, procedures, interaction patterns, objectives, and timing fit together.	There is evidence of the use of the two planning principles (variety and flexibility) All the main elements of a language lesson are stated and clearly presented and organised. These include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description of the class. • Aims and objectives. • Language focus. • Skills focus. • Materials. • Teacher's aims. • Stages: lead in/revision, presentation, controlled practice, communicative practice. Anticipated problems and possible solutions. Board work
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids	Poor quality of materials makes it difficult for students at back of the class to understand the teaching point. The teacher covers the materials when showing them to students. Alternatively, they cover their face when showing the aids to	Visuals are large enough to be seen from the back of the class; they illustrate the meaning of the teaching item; the teacher is skilled enough in handling the aids. However, the quality of the materials is still a hindering aspect. Thus, it may create some	Excellent quality of materials in terms of size, colour, and pedagogical value. The teacher is skilled enough in handling the material as to maintain students' attention and interest. Moreover, he/she is able to control the class to minimize unruly behaviour that can be caused by the impact the visuals may have on the students.

	students. Thus, they cannot see the students' reactions.	confusion to the students.	
Use of examples to teach meaning	The examples are confusing and hardly relevant to demonstrate the meaning of the vocabulary item.	Although the students can have an idea of the word/expression being taught, the examples contain new language. Thus, the teacher is forced to teach other words and the explanations become longer.	The sentences providing context for word meaning are simple and straight to the point, giving an unmistakable image of the meaning of the new word.
Order and sequence of techniques	Little or No perceivable methodological order of sequencing different techniques for teaching vocabulary; excessive use of translation to teach meaning.	Order and sequence of techniques is logical. However, some of the procedures are not fully appropriate for the type of vocabulary item being taught.	The techniques are logically organised and sequenced into meaning, form, and use. The teacher explores a variety of activities to reinforce retention, such as meaning relationships (synonyms, antonyms, etc.) denotation, connotation, collocation, etc.
Use of Gestures and miming	No use of gestures where appropriate. Or, use of confusing or culturally unsuitable gestures.	Use of gestures helps students grasp the meaning of the new word. However, due to exaggeration, they may look ridiculous and	Gestures used appropriately to: Convey the meaning of language; Manage the class; Add visual interest; Increase pace; Cut down on the amount of verbal explanation.

		distracting.	
Use of realia	No use of realia where appropriate. Use of impractical real objects (e.g. big objects, items of food that require special care, etc.)	Use of realia where suitable. However, their introduction requires further pedagogical tactics, such as appropriate timing, teacher posture when handling the visual, among others.	Suitable choice of realia (furniture, clothes, food, small objects from the home like soap, cups, keys, etc.) that can effectively create memorable learning experiences and show clear link between the new words and other aspects of language. The teacher uses appropriate timing and procedures when presenting meaning using the real objects.
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	Little or No perceivable methodological order of sequencing different techniques for presenting structures.	Order and sequence of techniques is logical. However, some of the procedures do not match methodologically acceptable sequences of introducing grammar.	Appropriate sequencing of techniques following a meaning to form pattern. Or, it uses the following ordering: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Draw pictures and give examples 2. Give a model and get the class to repeat 3. Ask individual students to repeat the sentence 4. Write the sentence on the board. 5. Explain how the structure is formed 6. Ask the class to copy the sentence 7. Give other situations and examples
Use of visual techniques	Poor quality of materials makes it difficult for students to understand the teaching point.	Materials are good examples of the new language; the teacher is able to show the meaning of the new language. However, teacher lacks strategies for effective use of visual techniques.	The use of visual aids helps catch and hold students' attention and interest for the new language, facilitates the comprehension of rules, enable retention of the items taught, etc. Moreover, the teacher uses visual techniques appropriately.
Use of examples	The examples are confusing	Although the students can	The sentences providing context for the new structure are concise and give an unambiguous idea of its the meaning and

	and hardly relevant to demonstrate the meaning of the new language.	have an idea of the meaning of the new structure, the examples contain language not suitable for the students' level.	use.
Use of meaningful practice techniques	Activities have no meaningful communicative value.	Activities are meaningful but students still work on discrete grammatical items instead of working on having a holistic picture of the new language for real communication.	The practice helps students to think, understand what they are saying, and express meaning. It goes beyond the production of examples of language to entail the encouragement of students to create genuine contextualised pieces of language based on information gap and negotiation of meaning.

4. Classroom management

Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	Pronunciation frequently unintelligible, Frequent errors showing some major patterns and causing irritation and misunderstanding. Speech is occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and groping for words.	Marked foreign accent and mispronunciations which do not interfere with understanding; Speech is occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and groping for words; Occasional errors showing imperfect control of some patterns but	Native pronunciation, with no trace of 'foreign accent'; Speech on all professional and general topics as effortless and smooth as a native speaker; No more than two errors during the lesson;
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		no weakness that causes misunderstanding.	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	The teacher cannot or has serious difficulties in dealing with unpredicted students' needs and learning problems;	The teacher is able to use a variety of activities and techniques to cater for needs, wants, and interests. Nevertheless, there is insufficient amount of back up activities.	The teacher possesses and is able to use his/her repertoire of activities, techniques and procedures to successfully handle unexpected needs; the teacher is able to make lessons more interesting by expansion and extension of learning tasks.
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	The teacher talks for over 80% of the lesson time.	Teacher talk and student talk is 50% of the lesson time each.	The teacher talks only when it necessary (during presentations, instructions, providing feedback, offering help, and like); thus, students have a higher percentage of the lesson talking time.
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	Exclusive use of individual activities.	Use of pair work and some group activities.	Students have time to interact with each other through pair and group work; class discussions and debates, role plays, interactive games, etc.
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas	Teacher centred approach; students' opinions are given little or no importance.	Students can ask questions and express their own ideas. However, the teacher still tries to control what students produce.	Students are able to initiate conversations, ask clarification questions to both the teacher and peers; the teacher sets appropriate tasks that allow students to fully explore and express their ideas.
Dealing with discipline	The teacher lacks conflict management skills.	The teacher is able to manage classroom unruly behaviour. However, sometimes fails to identify the sources of	The teacher is able to identify the cause of indiscipline. He/she is able to use a variety of the following procedures when dealing with discipline problems: Act immediately Stop the class Reseating Change activity After class Using the institution.

		misbehaviour . Thus, the same problem is dealt with several times.	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities	Activities are essentially of the same type and they hardly address students' characteristics.	Use of a variety of activities. However, they are effectively balanced.	Use of a carefully balanced wide range of different interactive activities according to students' level, age, needs, and learning styles.
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.	Learning activities are mainly mechanical (i.e. with no communicative interest).	Learning tasks are of the quasi-communicative type.	Use of a variety of communicative tasks including functional communication and social communication practice characterised by the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • natural use of language • focus on reaching communication • involve meaningful use of language • all for the use of communication strategies • reduce language that may not be predictable • look for linkage between language use and the context
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	All types of mistakes are dealt with immediately. Thus, communication is most of the time impeded.	Most of the mistakes are corrected. However, the teacher is sensitive enough not to discourage students' participation.	The teacher understands that mistakes are an essential part of the learning process. He/she effectively displays knowledge of the types of mistakes that should be dealt with immediately or later, the most effective correcting procedures (those that do not embarrass students or discourage future participation), and whether there is a need for correction.
The teacher's roles	Most of the time the teacher is a provider of information and controller.	The teacher is able to use a variety of roles to a satisfactory extent.	The teacher is a facilitator.

Appendix 5.2. Observation of lessons

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 1 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids	✓		
Use of examples to teach meaning	✓		
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia	✓		
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	✓		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time		✓	
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction		✓	
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	✓		
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

- + The Teacher clearly prepared the lesson
- + Good control of class behavior
- + Satisfactory + Command of the language
- ~~5~~ ~~Alot~~ Too much use of MS & LI
- ~~un~~ Very translations
- The lesson should have had more visual aids

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 2
 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids	✓		
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	✓		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction		✓	
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	✓		
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

Cons:
 - use of ML1
 - Command of English
 - lack of the voice
 Pros:
 - lively, despite lack of fluency

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 3
 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	✓		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

Pros

- Command of English
- kept motivated as
- good use of pictures

Cons

: use of SL

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner Sc4 Class _____ Time _____
 Institution _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques	✓		
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity		✓	
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time		✓	
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction		✓	
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	✓		
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

Pros

- Avoiding the use of Ss L1
- Use of visual aids

Cons

- The stages of the lesson were not very clear

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner SC (5) Class _____ Time _____
 Institution _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan			✓
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity		✓	
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time		✓	
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction		✓	
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

Very well prepared and delivered lessons
 - Showed good knowledge of CLT

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 6
 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples	✓		
Use of meaningful practice techniques	✓		
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity		✓	
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	✓		
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

Pros
 - Creativity
 - Good use of some Teaching Techniques

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 57
 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids	✓		
Use of examples to teach meaning	✓		
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of Gestures and miming	✓		
Use of realia	✓		
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of visual techniques	✓		
Use of examples	✓		
Use of meaningful practice techniques	✓		
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	✓		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities	✓		
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.	✓		
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	✓		
The teacher's roles	✓		

COMMENTS

Too much use of M L 1

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
✓		

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner _____ 8 _____
 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity		✓	
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

- Good command of English
 - Some Creativity
 - The ss seemed to enjoy the lesson

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 9 Class _____ Time _____
 Institution _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity		✓	
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

- The Teachers voice
- Good Report
- Giving instruction

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner _____ 40 _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Institution _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples	✓		
Use of meaningful practice techniques	✓		
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity		✓	
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

Good rapport
 Variety of Techniques
 use of voice

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 11
 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids	✓		
Use of examples to teach meaning	✓		
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of Gestures and miming	✓		
Use of realia	✓		
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques	✓		
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques	✓		
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	✓		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities	✓		
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)	✓		
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)	✓		
The teacher's roles	✓		

COMMENTS

Too much use of Portuguese

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner _____ 12 _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Institution _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques	✓		
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

r Good command of English.

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner 13
 Institution _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language		✓	
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity		✓	
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction		✓	
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

- Good command of English
 - Very confident

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner _____
 Institution 14 _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan		✓	
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids		✓	
Use of examples to teach meaning		✓	
Order and sequence of techniques		✓	
Use of Gestures and miming		✓	
Use of realia		✓	
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques		✓	
Use of examples	✓		
Use of meaningful practice techniques	✓		
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	✓		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction	✓		
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities		✓	
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)		✓	
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

- Good pacing
 - Logical program

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
	✓	

LESSON OBSERVATION CHART

Subject Ner _____ AS _____ Class _____ Time _____
 Institution _____
 Topic _____

	Not satisfactory	average	Above average
1. Teacher preparation			
Lesson plan	✓		
2. Presentation of vocabulary			
Use of visual aids	✓		
Use of examples to teach meaning	✓		
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of Gestures and miming	✓		
Use of realia	✓		
3. Presentation of Grammar			
Order and sequence of techniques	✓		
Use of visual techniques	✓		
Use of examples		✓	
Use of meaningful practice techniques		✓	
4. Classroom management			
Intelligibility of pronunciation, fluency, accuracy and appropriate use of language	✓		
Initiative, resourcefulness, and creativity	✓		
Balance between teacher-talking-time and student-talking-time	✓		
Teacher encouragement of full student interaction		✓	
How free the class is able to ask questions, to disagree, or to express their own ideas		✓	
Dealing with discipline		✓	
5. Communicative language teaching			
Balance and variety of activities	✓		
Communicative activities (e.g. pair and group, discussions and role-plays, use of games, etc.)	✓		
Appropriate error and mistake correction (bearing in mind, what, when, who, why, and how to correct)		✓	
The teacher's roles		✓	

COMMENTS

Too much use of L1

OVERALL EVALUATION

Poor	Average	Above average
✓	✓	

Appendix 6. Consent Form

I hereby authorise the research to use the information collected for investigative purposes only. These include the information collected through the research instruments, and the recording of the training sessions.

The participant
