CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background
A range of factors shape what occurs in teaching and learning of English language. These factors can roughly be classified into three main axes: one axis has something to do with the educational institutions that are responsible for selection and content of the textbook or professional syllabus design, institution management, system governance and accountability structures, the available financial resources and the physical site of the classrooms. Another axis concerning teacher expertise achieved by pre, in and post service training, the ongoing teachers’ education and perpetual practical experience, in addition to that, the testing and examination, and the classroom assessment. Alongside with this, there is another factor which must highly be put into consideration and may have a significant effect on the learning process is the teacher’s conduct. The final axis can be represented in the background knowledge, the cognitive and cultural resources, the attitude and the aptitude that the students bring to the classroom or lecture room. The overall purpose of English teaching and learning is to develop the students’ competence and performance into a plausible standard that enables them to express themselves easily in all walks of life. This standard is somewhat can be aligned and affiliated with proficiency which is a coherent orchestration of discrete elements, such as vocabulary, discourse structure and gestures, to communicate meaning in specific context. Proficiency in English lurks beneath the surface of knowledge and has not pragmatically received sufficient attention from policymakers, researchers and educators. It can be attained through programmatic ways and non programmatic ones. The non programmatic ways embodies autonomous learning, living or born in the native countries. The programmatic ways can be attained through educative system. As long as proficiency is attained, this will probably lead to professionalism, which is an umbrella term includes competence, performance and conduct. Professionalism has relevant significance in education in that it affects the role of the teacher and his or her pedagogy which in return affects the students’ ability to learn effectively. In other words, professionalism remains one of the most influential attributes of education.
1.1 Statement of the Problem
Lack of trust in the faculties of education English department has recently prevailed among learners, teachers and even the laymen. This is due to the fact that most of graduates who have completed the first university degree and thought to have high level of knowledge credibility; and appropriate proficiency level appear to have superficial, weak performance. In other words, there is currently a perception that English language teachers are not as professional as is desirable. The issue of teachers’ professionalism should highly be put into language teachers’ concerns, for the teachers themselves need to feel that they are up to date with their language and content knowledge, the skills that they need to have in order to teach effectively.

1.2 Objectives of the Study
a. To emphasize the need for remedial strategies which would significantly improve students’ proficiency.
b. To provide a new interpretation of the term professionalism.
c. To explore competence, performance, and conduct as key factors in attaining professionalism in ELT.
d. To prove that linguistic proficiency is not in itself effective to produce professional teachers.
e. To suggest effective practices to enhance and inculcate both knowledge and skills during the learning process.
f. To ensure that a 45-day microteaching in schools is practically inadequate to train student for teaching.
g. To propose an acknowledged English series to be taught to the students from the first semester up to the last one.
h. To stress the significance of teachers cooperation in designing and mapping out the English courses of each semester.

1.3 Questions of the Study
a. To what extend is the linguistic proficiency important to develop the students overall professionalism?
b. How does the introduction of an acknowledged English series help develop the students’ proficiency?
c. What is the effect of teachers’ cooperation in designing and mapping out the English courses on the students’ level?

d. To what extent is the 45-day microteaching at schools sufficient to prepare students well for teaching?

e. What are the highly effective practices that enable both teachers and students to achieve appropriate level of proficiency?

f. What is the relation between proficiency and professionalism?

g. What is the effect of the extensive use of English language on the students’ level?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

a. Linguistic proficiency is neither sufficient nor effective in itself to produce proficient teachers.

b. Good implementation of competence, performance and conduct has great role in attaining professionalism.

c. The introduction of an acknowledged English series helps students attain appropriate level of proficiency.

d. The extending of the teaching practice period at school to a full school year (induction year) prepares students better than a 45-day period.

e. Considerable, effective practices (pair work, group work, cooperative learning, project based teaching) engage the learners in a variety of social settings that will add to their proficiency level.

f. Attaining proficiency leads to attaining professionalism.

g. The extensive use of English language inside the lecture room as a medium of instructions, gives students extra exposure to the language.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The essentiality of this study revolves round the teaching terms: competence, performance and conduct and their contribution in enriching and enhancing the students and teachers’ professionalism. The study can be considered as an exploration of a tool that may help novice teachers and even other experienced ones map out their learning and teaching strategies to develop professionally. That can be attained via improving content knowledge and pedagogical skills and contribute back to the profession through presenting responses to suggest forward positive ways. The study
is also supposed to be of interest to those who are involved in the teaching-learning process of English language.

1.6 Methodology of the Study

The methodological approach to handle the study is the quantitative in which the researcher uses a theory – Questions and hypotheses – deductively and places it towards the beginning of the plan for study, then collect data to test or verify this theory and reflect on whether the theory is confirmed by the results in the study. The descriptive analytical method will be used to conduct the study. Two instrumentations are going to be used for data collection. A questionnaire will be distributed to ten (10) teachers at Faculty of Education Hantoub, English Department. The teachers are chosen because they are supposed to be well acquainted with the language and the students’ level. Another questionnaire will be given to (50) students from Batch 34 Faculty of Education-Hantoub, English Department. Batch 34 is chosen because the students are supposed to have considerable amount of knowledge. The second instrumentation is the observation. Random selection of the sample representative will be followed to avoid bias and to get reliable yet trustable results. Fish box procedure will be carried out in the random selection. The collected data will be analyzed by the analytical tool SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences)

1.7 Limits of the Study

This study is limited to ascertain the essentiality of competence, performance and conduct in attaining professionalism in ELT. It is also limited to the teachers and students Batch (34) in their final year semester eight at University of Gezira, Faculty of Education- Hantoub. The study is conducted in 2014.

The next chapter will include the relevant literature regarding the topic of the research.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Professionalism in ELT is highly important in education because it affects the role of the teacher and his or her teaching style which definitely affects the student’s positive learning ability. In order to reach the students in a meaningful way a teacher has to be competent , with highly attractive and indulging performance and a considerate upright conduct. This alongside with developing innovative approaches to manipulate content and motivate, engage, and inspire students to prepare for acquiring knowledge in an effortless way. However, what has been mentioned does little to show precisely how a professional teacher carries himself or herself in the teaching process. Due to the growing demands of professional teachers, professionalism remains one of the most influential attributes of education today. Teacher professionalism contains, just to exemplify, three essential characteristics: competence, performance, and conduct, which reflect the teachers’ abilities and standards, and consequently impact the effectiveness of teaching through the development of these qualities.

To begin with, competence characteristic is fundamental in an educator’s pursuit of excellence. It focuses on three important ideas: preparation, knowledge of subject area, and defined pedagogy. The first, preparation, prepares the teacher for the learning environment of the classroom. This can include: language, cultural barriers, socio-economic differences and individual variations. In other words, all hindrances and barriers that educators face in the classroom must be broken down by professional techniques. Thus, having bridged these barriers, the teacher will be better prepared for classroom management and will be able to create an effective learning environment. Furthermore, the professional teacher will have control over the students by his or her example: if you are prepared for difficulties you will absolutely be able to overcome them.

Besides preparation, a professional teacher with a strong knowledge of his/her subject area prepares innovative techniques to teach material instead of spending significant amounts of time studying the material. Having known the curriculum material well,
the educator will have more confidence in their teachings, because they have already placed significant thought on the material which is going to be taught. Thus, a professional is able to relate subject matter to the students and their cultures in an original method.

The final characteristic of competence is discovering a defined pedagogy. To discover the most effective teaching technique, a professional teacher has to journey through several techniques. Although this may take a long time, a professional should be patient and willing to self-evaluate his or her pedagogy, develops it and apply one’s ideas to a practical situation. Furthermore, by doing this, a professional creates more autonomy for him or herself and will be partially released from the constraints constructed by the administration, school board, or parents.

The usefulness of competence, although it is essential to professionalism in ELT, can only be seen if the teacher is able to perform. Performance is the ability to effectively teach the concepts of a curriculum to students to apply them to their lives. The essentiality of high standard of performance, which derives from both premeditated and improvisational technique, will make a teacher reliable and dedicated. By doing this the teacher will be active rather than passive because he/she shows the students a genuine unique style which will affect their interest and in return positively affect their progress.

The final characteristic of professionalism in ELT is conduct. Conduct is equally as significant as the first two. The manner in which a teacher carries himself or herself inside the classroom. Conduct also includes one’s ability to initiate and maintain quality communication with all those involved in education: students, fellow teachers, school board, administration, and parents. A professional teacher desires to locate effective communicative skills to participate in a discussion, disagree and suggest in order to achieve preferred educational goals.

2.1 Dimensions of Professionalism

In order to know the quality of a teacher, dimensions of professionalism is to be prescribed first, Leung (2009: 49-58) explains that there are two different dimensions to professionalism. The first can be professionalism which is prescribed by institution.
It represents the ideas of ministries of education, teaching organizations, institution principals, and so on that specify what teachers are expected to know and what constitutes quality teaching practices. Such specifications are simply differ from country to country. This aspect of professionalism entails having knowledge of the standards set to be a member of the profession and attaining those standards. Such standards needs to acquire the qualifications which is recognized by the profession as evidence of professional competence, besides showing a commitment to attaining high standards in the profession, regardless of the status whether it is a classroom teachers, supervisors, administrators, or teacher trainers.

The second dimension to professionalism is the independent professionalism, which refers to what teachers think of their teaching and their reflection on their own values, beliefs, and practices. This reflection is a key to long-term professional development which will reflect on one’s teaching experiences. Reflection means asking questions like these about one’s teaching:

a. What kind of teacher am I?
b. What am I trying to achieve for myself and for my learners?
c. What are my strengths and limitations as a language teacher?
d. How do my students and colleagues view me?
e. How and why do I teach the way I do?
f. How have I developed as a teacher since I started teaching?
g. What are the gaps in my knowledge?
h. What role do I play in my school, and is my role fulfilling?
i. What is my philosophy of teaching, and how does it influence my teaching?
j. What is my relationship with my colleagues, and how productive is it?
k. How can I mentor less experienced teachers?

Teachers can engage in critical and reflective review of their own practices in several ways throughout their teaching career. Reflection involves both looking back at teaching experiences as well as looking forward and setting goals for new or changed directions.

Dewey (1933: 145) suggests three attributes that can facilitate the reflective thinking:

a. Open-mindedness.
b. Responsibility.
c. Wholeheartedness.

The first is a desire to see an issue from different angles and to give attention to alternative thoughts. The second means considering the consequences of an action. And the last one is to overcome fears and doubts to allow critical evaluation of one’s practice in order to make considerable change.

2.2 The Core Elements of Professionalism

The main elements of professionalism which teachers must highly consider are clearly pointed out by Sachs (2003: 132) in which he explains that autonomy and self-regulation are core elements of professionalism. Self-regulation can be affiliated to self-determination in which teachers determine to achieve higher standard in teaching getting over whatever difficulties they face. While autonomy seen as having knowledge of different language areas without relying only and completely on formal education or training. Autonomy also helps teachers to make important decisions where necessary.

There are four foundations in which teacher professionalism relies on:

a. A type of expert knowledge.
b. Autonomy.
c. Ethical concern for the client
d. Socialization of members based on social integration and reward structure.

It is also necessary to acknowledge that the form of professionalism is as important as its function. In that it serves as a bridge between teachers and the society. Professional teachers have the burden of responsibilities which can be extended to participate in the outside community.

Characteristics of Teacher Professionalism

2.3

The characteristics that identify teacher professionalism in teaching and learning are summed up by the European Council (2009) which includes the following points:

Professional autonomy, through professional monopoly and control over their own work.

Involvement in the entrance to the profession.
Control over the central values and good conduct within the profession through the use of ethical codes, connected to sanctions for breaking the code.

Membership of professional societies that can take the responsibility for these elements.

A focus on integrity and dedication of the professional.

Public accountability for outcomes of professional performance.

A strong academic and practice-based knowledge base that underlies professional activities.

Involvement in the development of that knowledge base through involvement in academic research, action research and self-study.

Lifelong professional development of the members of the profession.

Collaboration with colleagues and stakeholders.

Involvement in the innovation of the profession.

Commitment of the teacher to support both the public and the state in their understanding of educational matters.

Elements That Contribute to the Professionalism of Teachers 2.4

When the above mentioned characteristics of the profession are translated to qualities of individual professionals, a frame of reference in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes can be created and can be used to analyze the contribution of teacher education curricula to the professionalism of teachers.

Knowledge 2.4.1

- Thorough knowledge of the subject.
- Thorough knowledge of the teaching and learning process (including being up to date with relevant outcomes of educational research).
- Thorough knowledge of society.
- Knowledge of policy in education.

Skills 2.4.2

- Able to communicate and discuss educational issues with a wider audience.
- Able to account the quality of work to the outside world.
. Able to conduct research within the practice of schools
. Able to contribute to collaborative learning of professional communities
Able to translate outcomes of educational research to innovations in the classroom/school

Attitudes 2.4.3
.Dedicated to the learning of pupils
.Committed to the profession and the collective group of professionals
.Willing to contribute to the collective knowledge of the profession
Committed to the ethical code of the profession and the integrity of his/her work
.Willing to account the quality of work to the outside world
.Focused on continuous professional development
.Focus on improvement and innovation of teaching

Other Characteristics of Professionalism 2.5
Characteristics of professionalism vary in quality and quantity from a writer to another. Hoyle and John (1995: 43-104) have another characteristics of professionalism in that they point out three posits:

Knowledge: teachers should be acquainted with a highly specialized body of knowledge that is beyond the reach of the laymen. This body of knowledge should be scientific and able to be applied successfully. Moreover, for the sake of development teachers should enlarge this by training and higher education
“Professionals, through specialist and usually long periods of training, are taught to understand this research validated knowledge and to apply it constructively and intelligently according to the technical rules governing the conduct of the profession

Autonomy: It can help teachers develop academically and skillfully in taking the right and rational decision in unexpected or unpredictable situations during the lesson or in their socialization with the involved members in the educational institution. As hoyle and John suggest “As professionals work in uncertain situations in which judgement is more important than routine, it is essential to effective practice that they should be sufficiently free from bureaucratic and political constraint to act on judgements made in the best interests (as they see them)” of the clients
Responsibility: To make a sound judgement of any situation encountered by teachers requires values, commitment and a set of principles.

2.6 Language Structure and Professionalism

Any professional teacher should have a wide knowledge about the structure of the language that he/she is going to teach. For the teacher to be to be in the domain of professionalism, he/she should not restrict themselves to only one particular area of language i.e. syntax, grammar, semantics, pragmatics and so on. Having considerable knowledge or general skeleton about these items or language areas will help teachers to manoeuvre and get over any contingencies of having problems that might turn up inside the class room. Leech (1983: 21-24) categorizes the general skeleton of the English structure into two main aspects:

a. The rules that govern pronunciations, putting words together, the way that phrases, clauses, and sentences are structured and finally the way to create meaning. These rules can be studied under the term grammar: which for many linguists involves the study of linguistic rules that are part of our linguistic competence – the unconscious knowledge of the rules of a language that any fluent speaker possesses.

b. Principles governing how the structures created by those rules should be used. These principles can be studied under the term pragmatics – it involves the social context in which language is used and the linguistic context in which a particular linguistic structure occurs.

Rules of grammar can be explained in various ways such as:

a. Phonetics: It focuses on the sounds system of English, how they are produced, transmitted and perceived by the listener and the rules that govern them.

b. Phonology: It focuses on the smallest unit of structure in language, how sounds are pronounced in various context.

c. Morphology: It focuses on morpheme – the smallest unit of meaning in language. It also focuses on how words and parts of words are structured.

d. Syntax: It focuses on how words, clauses and sentences are structured. The largest level of structure is the clause (subject, predicator, object, compliment and adverbial).

e. Semantics: It focuses on the meaning of individual words and the ability of words to refer to points in time or individuals in the external words.
The second category which is pragmatics one can say that: when people communicate with each other, besides using rules of grammar, other social considerations must be put in mind such as: the age, the social class, the level of education, the occupation, the power status (equals, different or intimate). In addition to that, it is important to have some knowledge about cohesion (the linguistic devices that connect the section of the text together) and coherence (meaningful text).

2.7 Competence

Competence is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2010: 103) as

“the implicit system of rules that constitutes a person’s knowledge of a language. This includes a person’s ability to create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before, knowledge of what are and what are not sentences of a particular language, and the ability to recognize ambiguous and deviant sentences. For example, a speaker of English would recognize I want to go home as an English sentence but would not accept a sentence such as I want going home even though all the words in it are English words. Competence often refers to an ideal speaker/hearer, that is an idealized but not a real person who would have a complete knowledge of the whole language”.

2.7.1 Language Teacher Competence

It is the language competence which a teacher must have and it has to dimensions as pointed out by Thomas (1987: 112) in which he explains that language teacher competence (LTC) consists of two components: language competence (which includes both linguistic competence, i.e. accuracy, and communicative competence, i.e. the ability to communicate meaning appropriately), as well as pedagogic competence. Besides the language competence component, Thomas also advocates the need for language awareness (i.e. explicit knowledge), which has a role as an aid in both language and pedagogic competence.

2.7.2 Creative Competence

The ability to use language creatively by a teacher is needed in order to be a model of his students or even the community. Finch (2003: 19-43) mentions that creative competence is the ability to use language in a unique valuable way that a community will want to preserve this particular form of utterance. It is not just restricted to literature it can also be found in all memorable uses of language. It is a productive not
receptive competence. It is an extension and development of a general literary competence. Finch goes on to make a distinction between linguistic competence and linguistic performance:

a. **Linguistic performance** – the mechanical skills which are necessary for producing and receiving language.

b. **Linguistic competence** – the cognitive skills which are necessary for constructing and understanding the meaningful sequences of words and it consists of:
   
i. **Grammatical competence** – the ability to recognize and use lexical and syntactic patterns (Ideational).
   
ii. **Communicative competence** – the ability to use the grammatical competence to communicate effectively (interpersonal).
   
iii. **Creative competence** – the ability to exploit grammatical competence and communicative competence uniquely.
   
iv. **Textual competence** – the ability to perceive text in quite different way from a series of utterances or a string of sentences (textual function).

### 2.7.3 Components of Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is the ability to use language effectively in communicating with people around. Savignon (1983: 37-40) explains that communicative competence is divided into four main competences:

a. Grammatical competence – it is the ability to have knowledge of the lexical, morphological, syntactic and phonological features and to use them to form words and sentences.

b. Sociolinguistic competence – it has something to do with the social rules of language use. It requires an understanding of the social context (the role of the participants, the information they share and the function of the interaction).

c. Discourse competence – it is the ability to connect sentences or utterance to form a meaningful discourse.

d. Strategic competence – it refers to the strategies that a person uses to sustain communication (repletion, hesitation, avoidance and guessing) and to compensate for limiting factors (fatigue, distraction and inattention).
2.7.4 Competent Teacher

In order to fulfill his/her task effectively in the class, a teacher has to gain certain competences. Nicholls (2004: 143) points out that if a teacher wants to be competent he/she has to be acquainted with certain competencies. In addition to that a teacher needs to demonstrate that their theoretical knowledge and the actual practice reflect good grounding. Teachers should have confidence to deal with different issues such as identifying individual variations, classroom management and the effect of the students’ behavioural, social, emotional and cultural background on learning. Nicholls divided competencies into three groups.

1/ Professional Practice Competence

It is the good relationship the teacher creates with the other staff members in the institution and the respect and appreciations of the staff collaboration.

2/ Knowledge Competence

It is the knowledge of the subject the teacher is going to teach as well as knowing the students’ cognitive, emotional, social and cultural background.

3/ Teaching Competence

It is the ability to plan and deliver lessons to the students of different individual variations. Moreover, the teachers should use behavioural management and strategies to secure good working climate.

2.7.5 Competency Based Teaching

It is also known as competency based education/instruction. Richards and Schmidt(2010: 104) state that it is an approach to teaching that focuses on teaching the skills and behaviours needed to perform competencies. Competencies refer to the student’s ability to apply different kinds of basic skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Competency Based Education is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks learners are typically required to perform in real-life situations.
2.7.6 Teacher language awareness

It is the teacher’s knowledge of the language which helps them to teach effectively. Thornbury (1997: x) defines teacher language awareness as “the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of language that enables them to teach effectively”. But Pajares (1992: 312-313) adds to this definition that it incorporates beliefs as well as knowledge because both of them are intertwined. It also includes the awareness of how learners learn the language and awareness of the learners’ interlanguage. Language teacher awareness has two dimensions:

a. Declarative dimension – the nature, limits and depth of teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and awareness of the language system.

b. Procedural dimension – the impact of teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and awareness on their teaching.

2.7.7 Content knowledge

It is the knowledge of the course that the teacher need to know in order to teach it effectively. Richards (2011: 10) explains that “content knowledge refers to what the teachers need to know about what they teach (including what they know about language teaching itself), and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared by teachers of other subject areas”. In other words it is the deep knowledge of the subject matter that a teacher needs to know in order to present it clearly, flexibly and effectively to the students. Richards goes on to make a distinction between disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in that the former is the essential restricted body of knowledge required by the language teaching profession for the teacher to be a member of the profession. In other words it is acquired by special training and professional education. The disciplinary knowledge includes: history of language teaching, method, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, phonology and syntax, discourse analysis, critical applied linguistics and so on. While the latter refers to the knowledge that provides a basis for the language teaching which is drawn from the study of language teaching and learning. It comprises course work in areas such as: curriculum planning, assessment, reflective teaching, classroom management, teaching the four skills and so on. Richards stresses that relevant pedagogical content knowledge should prepare teachers to be able to do things like the following:

a. Understand learners’ needs.

b. Diagnose learners’ learning problems.

c. Plan suitable instructional goals for lessons.
d. Select and design learning tasks.

e. Evaluate students’ learning.

f. Design and adapt tests.

g. Evaluate and choose published materials.

h. Adapt commercial materials.

i. Make use of authentic.

j. Make appropriate use of technology.

k. Evaluate their own lessons.

2.7.7.1 Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Alongside with the course knowledge, a teacher also needs to have the ability to use technology in teaching. Richards (2011: 12) points out that it is the ability to use and integrate technology into teaching. Reinders (2009: 231) has more explanatory view about this in which he states that the teacher’s technological knowledge can include his/her ability to use certain technology, to create activities using the technology and to teach with that technology. Since learners have more access to modern technology in the present times teachers also have to exert great effort to keep up with the advancements in technology.

2.7.8 Incompleteness Hypothesis and Competence

Adult learners can hardly achieve native speakers competence, but their competence can be increased. James (1998: 53) refers to this as ultimate attainment. It explains the issue of whether adult learners can achieve native speaker competence in the target language or not. However, James suggests two ways to increase language learner’s competence. The first is to find out what are the successful learners’ strategies and teach them to less successful ones. The second is that the learners should find out what is possible and not possible in language.

2.8 Performance

Performance is the second factor in this research which works for attaining professionalism in ELT. One should have some knowledge about it and its relation to teaching. It is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2010: 428) as “a person’s actual use of language”. A person should distinguish between competence (a person’s knowledge of a language) and how a person uses this knowledge in producing and
understanding sentences (performance). For instance, people may have the competence to produce a long sentence but when they actually attempt to use this knowledge (to perform) there are many reasons why they restrict the number of adjectives, adverbs, and clauses in any one sentence. They may run out of breath, or their listeners may get bored or forget what has been said if the sentence is too long. In second and foreign language learning, a learner’s performance in a language is often taken as an indirect indication of his or her competence.

2.8.1 Teacher Performance and Active Learning

It is generally acknowledged that teacher performance has great role in the students’ Learning achievement. Crawford (2005: 2-3) notes that as long as students learn by exploring and inquiring, good teachers should encourage students to inquire and show them how to inquire, question, seek and examine information.

Furthermore, teachers should also encourage students to reflect on what they have learned, examine its implications, apply it in some useful way, and modify their old ways of thinking about the topic, as long as the act of learning changes our old ideas and enlarges our capacity to learn new things. Crawford points that there are three phases for active teaching and learning:

1/ The Anticipation Phase

First, each lesson begins with a phase of anticipation, in which students are directed to think and ask questions about the topic they are about to study.

The Anticipation Phase serves to:

- a. call up the knowledge students already have
- b. informally assess what they already know, including misconceptions
- c. set purposes for learning
- d. focus attention on the topic
- e. provide a context for understanding new ideas

2/ The Building Knowledge Phase

After the lesson gets started, the teaching leads students to inquire, find out, make sense of the material, answer their prior questions, and find new questions and answer those, too.
The Building Knowledge phase serves to:
   a. compare expectations with what is being learned
   b. revise expectations or raise new ones
   c. identify the main points
   d. monitor personal thinking
   e. make inferences about the material
   f. make personal connections to the lesson
   g. question the lesson

3/ The Consolidation Phase

Toward the end of the lesson, once students have come to understand the ideas of the lesson, there is still more to be done. Teachers want students to reflect on what they learned, ask what it means to them, reflect on how it changes what they thought, and ponder how they can use it.

The Consolidation Phase serves to:
   a. summarize the main ideas
   b. interpret the ideas
   c. share opinions
   d. make personal responses
   e. test out the ideas
   f. assess learning
   g. ask additional questions

In English these three terms are abbreviated as “ABC The three-phase model was earlier called Anticipation, Realization, and Contemplation by Joseph Vaughn and Thomas Estes (1986).

Crawford likens the ABC model to the different phases of the wheat plant’s life cycle in which he states:

“In the anticipation phase, a seed is planted in rich soil. The success of a lesson does not just depend on this “seed,” however; it must also draw on knowledge the students already possess, just as the seed must draw on the nutrients in the soil. The essential groundwork laid, the teacher proceeds to the building knowledge phase; the wheat seed sprouts roots and a plant grows. The lesson concludes with the consolidation phase. The head of
wheat is mature, and contains seeds of many other plants; so too the lesson can lead into many other activities. These three icons are always shown together and in sequence, suggesting teachers build on what came before and keep in mind what may come next.

2.9 Teacher Conduct

It is generally acknowledge that Several studies have attempted to identify specific classroom teaching behaviors that contribute to student perceptions of effective teaching. Feldman (1976: 243-255) concludes that students consider superior college teachers to exhibit the following characteristics: stimulation of interest, clarity, knowledge of subject matter, preparation and organization, enthusiasm, rapport with students, availability, and interaction.

Feldman goes further and reports that the consistent differences between college faculties in the behaviors endorsed by students as those of the ideal teacher. Students in the natural sciences stressed teaching behaviors reflecting clarity and organization, whereas students in the social sciences and the arts emphasized behaviors reflecting interaction and interest.

Pohlmann (1976: 335) also found differences between academic disciplines in the frequency of various teaching behaviors (e.g., humanities instructors encouraged student participation more often than science instructors).

2.9.1 Professional Conduct and Effective Working Relationships

Educational institutions is like a small community where a teacher has to maintain good relationship with the people around him/her. Nicholls (2004: 178) points out that establishing effective working relationships is essential in any educational institution. As long as a teacher becomes a part of a community he/she has to involve themselves in different kinds of activities. Because, working with colleagues whether formally and informally is an important part of long-term development and becoming professional. Furthermore, as an individual within a group it is important for the teacher to know what to contribute, how to contribute and the value of doing that. Nicholls adds that for an individual to interact effectively in a group he/she should:

a. Sharing in common activities;

b. Promoting a cause or idea;
c. Gaining power or status;
d. Establishing friendships and gaining a sense of belonging;
e. Understanding that working in groups is part of one’s job.

Another thing that is very essential on the way teachers are perceived and developed is the personal presentation and conduct which is suggested by Raymond et al (1992: 76):

“The link between personal and professional dispositions makes it important for teachers to have opportunities to examine their own personal commitments, histories and teaching styles. Discovering and making explicit the roots of their commitments, understanding the personal grounds that underlie their professional work, being clearer about the types of educational contexts …assist in the process of teacher development”.

Teachers must understand that when they establish good working relationship and familiarize with the working practices and principles, this will reflect to their style and approach to the teaching profession, consequently, be professional.

It is essential for the teachers to know that professional personal conduct must be practices everywhere in the educational institution and not to be restricted to certain places or among certain people. The people (students, teachers and the staff) in the institution judge teachers on their behavior and interpersonal skills. For example if a teacher shouts at the students they will respond in the same way which makes noise in the classroom, or if the teacher is late for the class, the students are not expected to come on time. So a teacher should develop good practice throughout the institution and beyond. He/she has to bear in mind that courtesy and respect for colleagues and students constitutes good professional conduct.

2.9.2 Conduct According to the Teaching Council

In its second edition, the Teaching Council sets out the following standard for teachers conduct.
1/ Professional Values and Relationships

a. Teachers should be caring, fair and committed to the best interests of the pupils/students entrusted to their care, and seek to motivate, inspire and celebrate effort and success.

b. They should acknowledge and respect the uniqueness, individuality and specific needs of pupils/students and promote their holistic development.

c. They should also be committed to equality and inclusion and to respecting and accommodating diversity including those differences arising from gender, civil status, family status, sexual orientation, religion, age, disability, race, ethnicity, membership of the Traveller community and socio-economic status, and any further grounds as may be referenced in equality legislation in the future.

d. Teachers should seek to develop positive relationships with pupils/students, colleagues, parents, school management and others in the school community, that are abided by professional integrity and judgement.

e. They should work to establish and maintain a culture of mutual trust and respect in their schools.

2/ Professional Integrity

a. Teachers should act with honesty and integrity in all aspects of their work.

b. They should respect the privacy of others and the confidentiality of information gained in the course of professional practice, unless a legal imperative requires disclosure or there is a legitimate concern for the wellbeing of an individual.

c. He/she should represent themselves, their professional status, qualifications and experience honestly.

d. They should use their name/names as set out in the Register of Teachers, in the course of their professional duties.

e. They should avoid conflict between their professional work and private interests which could reasonably be deemed to impact negatively on pupils/students.
3/ Professional Conduct

a. Teachers should uphold the reputation and standing of the profession.
b. They should take all reasonable steps in relation to the care of pupils/students under their supervision, so as to ensure their safety and welfare.
c. They should work within the framework of relevant legislation and regulations.
d. He/she should comply with agreed national and school policies, procedures and guidelines which aim to promote pupil/student education and welfare and child protection.
e. Teachers should report, where appropriate, incidents or matters which impact on pupil/student welfare.
f. They should communicate effectively with pupils/students, colleagues, parents, school management and others in the school community in a manner that is professional, collaborative and supportive, and based on trust and respect.
g. They should ensure that any communication with pupils/students, colleagues, parents, school management and others is appropriate, including communication via electronic media, such as e-mail, texting and social networking sites.
h. Teachers should ensure that they do not knowingly access, download or otherwise have in their possession while engaged in school activities, inappropriate materials/images in electronic or other format.

4/ Professional Practice

a. Teachers should maintain high standards of practice in relation to pupil/student learning, planning, monitoring, assessing, reporting and providing feedback.
b. They should apply their knowledge and experience in facilitating pupils’/students’ holistic development.
c. They should plan and communicate clear challenging and achievable expectations for pupils/students.
d. He/she should create an environment where pupils/ students can become active agents in the learning process and develop lifelong learning skills.

e. Teachers should also develop teaching, learning and assessment strategies that support differentiated learning in a way that respects the dignity of all pupils/ students.

f. They should inform their professional judgement and practice by engaging with, and reflecting on, pupil/student development, learning theory, pedagogy, curriculum development, ethical practice, educational policy and legislation.

g. In a context of mutual respect, teachers should be open and responsive to constructive feedback regarding their practice and, if necessary, seek appropriate support, advice and guidance.

h. They should act in the best interest of pupils/students.

5/ Professional Development

Teachers should take personal responsibility for sustaining and improving the quality of their professional practice by:

a. Actively maintaining their professional knowledge and understanding to ensure it is current.

b. Reflecting on and critically evaluating their professional practice, in light of their professional knowledge base.

c. Availing of opportunities for career-long professional development.

6/ Professional Collegiality and Collaboration

a. Teachers should work with teaching colleagues and student teachers in the interests of sharing, developing and supporting good practice and maintaining the highest quality of educational experiences for pupils/students.

b. They should work in a collaborative manner with pupils/students, parents/guardians, school management, other members of staff, relevant professionals and the wider school community, as appropriate, in seeking to effectively meet the needs of pupils/students.
c. They should also cooperate with the Inspectorate of the Department of Education and Skills and other statutory and public non-statutory educational and support services, as appropriate.

d. They should engage with the planning, implementation and evaluation of curriculum at classroom and school level.

2.9.3 Standards and Ethics for the Teaching Profession

The teaching profession must have standards and ethics to govern the teaching and the learning process. Shirley et al (2006: 35-54) reported that the professional standards and ethics which guide and reflect the teaching practice and continuous professional improvements are essential to effective teaching and learning:

The standards were set to serve:

a. Focus on the responsibility of teaching profession to enhance student learning.

b. Provide a common understanding of what makes being a teacher a unique professional experience.

c. Clarify the knowledge, skills and values implicit in the practice of teaching.

d. Provide the basis of ongoing personal and professional growth and the accreditation of professional learning programmes.

e. Represent the aspirations and goals of the teaching profession.

f. Enhance the dignity of the teaching profession.

g. Acknowledge the contribution made by the teaching profession and assist the college in fulfilling its mandate to govern the practice of teaching in the public interest.

As standards are important in the teaching process, the purpose of ethics is also necessary to:

a. Maintain professional relationship with students.

b. Recognize and respect the privilege nature of the relationship that teachers maintain with students.

c. Demonstrate important and consistent respect for all students as individuals with distinctive and ongoing learning needs and capacities.

d. Respect confidential information about students unless disclosure is required by law or personal safety is at risk.

e. Model respect for human dignity, spiritual values, cultural values, freedom, social justice, democracy and the environment.
f. Work with member of college and others to create professional environment that supports the social, physical, intellectual, spiritual, cultural, moral and emotional development of students.

g. Base relationship with parents or guardians in their role as partners in the education of students on respect, trust and communication.

h. Co-operate with professionals from other agencies in the interest of students and as required by law.

i. Act with integrity, honesty, fairness and dignity.

j. Respect the confidential nature of information about members of the college obtained in the course of professional practice, unless disclosure is required by law or personal safety is at risk.

k. Comply with the Acts and regulation.

l. Advise the appropriate people in a professional manner when policies or practices exist that should be reviewed or revised.

These standards and ethics should be available (even taught at educational colleges) in every educational institution and should be implemented with high accuracy in order reflect a successful teaching and learning environment.

2.10 Effectiveness in Teaching

Culture and competence affect the definition of effectiveness in teaching.

Richards (2011: 6) holds the fact that the conception of effectiveness in teaching is not easy to define because it differs from culture to culture. In some cultures a teacher is considered as a facilitator where he/she forms class interpersonal relations with the students who are encouraged to discuss and even challenge the teacher. While in other cultures the teacher who controls the classroom, guides students and have reciprocal respect is considered as a good one. Richards goes on to explain that it is not necessary for the teacher to be native speaker or have native-like command of a language to teach it effectively. But a language teacher needs language specific competence, as Richards names it, these include:

a. To comprehend texts accurately.

b. To provide good language models.

c. To maintain use of the target language in the classroom.

d. To maintain fluent use of the target.

e. To give explanations and instructions in the target language.
f. To provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations (e.g., of vocabulary and language points).

g. To use appropriate classroom language.

h. To select target-language resources (e.g., newspapers, magazines, the Internet).

i. To monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy.

j. To give correct feedback on learner language.

k. To provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty.

l. To provide language-enrichment experiences for learners.

It is important for those whose mother tongue is not English to learn how to carry out these aspects. But for those who are native speakers of English, other skills are to be acquired such as:

a. To be able to monitor one’s language use in order to provide suitable learning input.

b. To avoid unnecessary colloquialisms and idiomatic usage.

c. To provide a model of spoken English appropriate for students learning English as an international language.

d. To provide language input at an appropriate level for learners.

Seidlhofer (1999: 233) posits another thing that contributes to teaching skills alongside with proficiency which is, teacher’s confidence. It depends on language proficiency in that a teacher with high teaching confidence will show a strong teaching ability and vice versa. Cullen (1994: 162) goes further to link language component to methodology component in that a teacher has to pick up a particular classroom teaching strategy to suit a certain language skill.

2.10.1 Teaching Strategies

These are the strategies that a teacher manipulates to carry out a lesson according to the number of the students. Reece and Walker (2003: 111-139) mention that it is necessary for the teacher to have some insights into the teaching strategies in order to teach professionally. The theories are divided into:
1/ Large Group Strategies

There are some appropriate strategies for teaching large group of students such as:

a. **Lecture** - the word lecture comes from the Latin word “letcare” which means to read aloud. It involves the teacher to take to students in class about a topic or subject. It has an introduction to the content, detailed presentation and the summary of the lecture at the end. It is worth noting that the period of concentration of the students is generally said to be a maximum of ten minutes. So to maintain students’ attention throughout the lecture, teachers should develop the structure of the lecture carefully. This can be done by breaking down the topics into smaller ones in order to suit the concentration time or by giving students incomplete handouts for them to make their own notes. Another thing is that teachers should show enthusiasm for the topic, ensure vocal inflection, gesturing and maintaining eye contact and finally adding a touch of humour.

b. **Demonstration** – it is to demonstrate a practical skill showing its point and importance. The skill must be well prepared and that is by identifying the key points and involving the learners.

c. **Team teaching** – it is the time when two or more teachers cooperate in the planning, assessment and evaluation of the presentation of the course. This is when there is a large group of students and the teachers take responsibility of parts of the course or if there is an area in a course that needs expert teachers.

d. **Discussion** – it refers to the situation where students are involved in talking about a topic to solve problem or make a decision. Teachers need to control the situations by timing, careful planning, furniture arrangement and ensuring the participation of every student. It is also necessary that after the discussion the results should be fed back to the teacher or to the whole group. The members need to assign an individual at the beginning of the discussion in order to give the feedback.

e. **Debate** – it is similar to a discussion but it needs more rules for the arrangement. Because there is no right or wrong answers. It is a matter of exploring ideas. Teachers should divide the groups into students who are for, against or uncommitted to the motion.

f. **Question and answer** – it is the time when teachers ask students questions to promote thinking and understanding. This is usually done at the end of the
lesson (or during it) in order to assess the learning that has taken place. Teachers should use open and close questions and allow students time to answer then praise the correct responses and explore the reasons for incorrect ones. Teachers should always accept the students’ answer without criticism to ensure future participation.

g. Video – it is considered as a method to bring realism into the classroom. It can be linked to other teaching strategies for variation in teaching. Teachers should also preview videos to identify and select the main points. They should plan activities during or at the end of the film that is by providing incomplete handout to students to take notes and the teachers stop the video whenever necessary.

2/ Small Group Strategies

When teachers have become dissatisfied with the effectiveness of the classroom, they tend to use small group strategies. This is to let students think through situations themselves and at their own pace. Teachers should make the task clear and ensure that every one is involved. They should also go around the groups helping, encouraging discussion and giving ideas. At the end every group reports back to the class in a limited time. The small group strategies include:

a. Seminar – here students assign a topic, research information about it, present the finding to the class (using multimedia if possible) and manage the discussion. Teachers should monitor the discussion and avoid cross talking. Seminars give students the ability to find information, present it and answer questions from other students.

b. Workshop – it is an opportunity for developing practical skills in a sort of simulation. It is essential part of many courses because it is enjoyable and real. Teachers should prepare the equipment and know how to start and end each session. They should start with demonstration, manage individual working, link theory with practical aspect and allow time for conclusion.

c. Gaming/Quiz – it is a valuable learning situation where students compete or cooperate. It involves learners to interact with other students and the game or quiz procedures. Teachers should try out the game prior to the lesson, ensure rules are clear and understood, monitor the game and summarize the learning outcomes.
d. **Brainstorming** – it is a problem solving technique used to generate a number of ideas or solution in a short time (5 – 15 minutes). It is a challenging and active learning situation. When a problem arises students are encourage to bring about possible solutions. Teachers must make sure that students understand the problem, gather key words and identify possible solutions.

e. **Buzz group** – it is the division of large group into smaller ones usually (4 to 6 students in each) to discuss a problem or a situation for a short time (5 minutes). It gets its name from the buzz of conversation around the class while the students are working together. Teachers should inform students about the topic, the time and nominate a leader for the feedback.

f. **Field trip** – it is when students are taken out of the normal teaching site (classroom) to a real-life situation (any place outside) to reinforce learning by realism. Teachers should make sure everything is planned well such as safety, weather, clothes, activities, employer permission and follow up activities. Moreover, they should make supervision at all time to make sure the field trip goes well.

g. **Role play** – it is the time when students act a part or role in events before, during or after a situation. Teachers should plan activities for students by giving them role cards but they should not see each other’s role play card. In addition to that, they can step in if things go badly or wrong. The role card can be used many times with different classes.

h. **Ice Breaker** – it is a technique used to get the students feel part of a group and part of the learning process. It is used with the first meeting of a group or when students join an established group. It can be through having each student to introduce himself or herself or any other way. Teachers should try to use this strategy with care and in an unthreatening way.

i. **Simulation** – it is the simulation of real or possible situation. It is used when it is not possible to undertake learning in the actual conditions (e.g. running a reception desk or a job interview). Teachers should make sure that simulation is made realistic and supervise all students at all time to avoid reinforcement of errors.

j. **Case Study** – it is an examination of a real problem or learning situation to analyze what went wrong and to consider how to avoid failure. It can also decide when learning can take place successfully or needs to be reinforced.
The situation must be accurate, realistic and attainment of a lot of information about it is vitality.

3/ Individual Teaching Strategies

It is the state when students are provided with activities or assignments to be carried out through independent effort. These can include:

a. **Project/Assignment** – the students are given individually a certain topic to research and report with analysis in writing or verbally to a group. The project involves students to work together on different matters but on the same problem. It is always used in advanced courses for training in research techniques. It is considered as an alternative to traditional examination because students feel in command and promote learning independently.

b. **Tutorial** – it is a means of preparing students for a task (already set for students), assisting them in the process and discussing the quality of learning outcomes. Students and teachers should prepare well for the tutorial. It is important for the teachers to listen to what students know and do not know.

c. **One – to – One** (coaching) it is the time when the teacher and student work together on a one-to-one basis. The teaching should meet the individual students needs and ability. Teachers need to know what and when to assess.

2.10.2 Open Learning and Distance Learning

This is the time when teachers and students meet infrequently, sometimes they do not meet at all. This is because students cannot attend classes due to work or a long-distance travel. Communication between students and teachers can be through videos, broadcast materials, audio tapes, written materials, etc. these materials must be tried and tested prior to the class.

2.10.3 Evaluation of Teaching Strategies

In order to make vital benefit from the teaching strategies, they should be evaluated by the teacher themselves. Reece and Walker(2003: 146) hold that better preparation can improve the use of teaching strategies, but this is a small part of the process. Teachers can achieve effectiveness in the use of strategies by:

a. Introspection – to think about what you have done after the event.

b. Ask a colleague to attend with you and write a comment on your approach.
c. Using micro-teaching – teach a topic to a group of colleagues and they analyze critically your teaching.

d. Ask your students to tell you what they think of your approach.

By doing this, teachers will gather information and then decide and judge the necessary changes and adjustments.

2.10.4 Dimensions of Expert Teachers

A teacher cannot be always called a teacher because when he/she reaches certain level of teaching can be called an expert. Tsui (2003: 247) identifies three dimension where we can call a teacher an expert:

a. How teachers relate to the act of teaching, and the extent to which they integrate or dichotomise the various aspects of teacher knowledge in the teaching act.

b. How they relate to their specific contexts of work, and the extent to which they are able to perceive and open up possibilities that do not present themselves as such in their specific contexts of work.

c. The extent to which they are able to theorize the knowledge generated by their personal practical experience as a teacher and to ‘practicalise’ theoretical knowledge.

2.10.5 Acquiring Teaching Skills

They are the skills which a teacher needs to acquire to run the lesson effectively at different levels of classes. Richards (2011: 10) notes that acquiring the basic classroom skills needed to present and carry out the lessons is the initial challenge for novice teachers. So teaching from this perspective is an act of performance, and for a teacher to be able to run the lesson successfully, he/she has to be acquainted with a repertoire of techniques and routines. These include routines and procedure for such things as:

a. Opening the lesson.

b. Introducing and explaining tasks.

c. Setting up learning arrangements.

d. Checking students’ understanding.

e. Guiding student practice.
f. Monitoring students’ language use.
g. Making transitions from one task to another.
h. Ending the lesson.

2.10.6 Planning and Effective Teaching

Planning a lesson is very necessary for the teacher to decide in advance what are the necessary teaching practices. Nicholls (2004: 85-86) mentions that trainees and even their mentors, should allow themselves considerable time to plan for their lesson and to figure out students’ reactions and learning outcomes. Hence, giving themselves a chance to plan for unexpected reactions so as to achieve the same learning outcomes. By doing this, the teacher will be ready to take into account students differences and to decide the necessary teaching and learning activities so as to overcome the students variation.

Griffey and Housner (1999: 203) point out that there is a difference between trainees and experienced teachers in terms of planning. The difference stems from the fact that trainees believe that experienced teachers do not exert great effort in planning, yet they achieve high quality learning outcomes. So trainees follow the same procedures in their planning forgetting the fact that experienced teachers’ process in planning is more internalized based on their extensive previous experiences. This is clearly stated by Kyriacou (1991: 17):

“While student teachers on teaching practice are usually required to make explicit lesson plans, experienced teachers more often rely on their extensive experience to form a mental framework of how they want the lesson to proceed. This does not necessarily mean that the lesson plans of established teachers are any less detailed than those of beginning teachers, simply that the lesson plans have become internalized through repetition.”

Nicholls goes on to stress that planning is an invaluable, tangible and guiding framework that is used inside the classroom. When the necessary resources have been selected, prepared and organized before the lesson, this will allow teachers to have secure knowledge and focus more on the teaching styles and strategies and even more focus on the nature of learning activities. Furthermore, effective planning reduces teachers’ stress and anxiety, because teachers who are well prepared before they get in
the classroom identifies and minimize problems prior to the lesson. Moreover, teachers will be able to manoeuvre any unexpected potential problems and that is by organizing alternative resources, tasks and styles if the prepared ones do not facilitate the learning outcomes. Clark and Yinger (1987: 88) give three purposes for planning:

a. Planning to meet immediate personal needs (to reduce uncertainty and anxiety, to find a sense of direction, confidence and security);

b. Planning as a means to an end of instruction (to learn the material, to collect and organize materials, to organize time and activity flow);

c. Direct uses of plans during instruction (to organize students, to get an activity started, to aid memory, to provide a framework for instruction and evaluation).

Kyriacou (1986: 115) points out that there are three psychological conditions which are necessary for students learning that teachers should put in their minds when planning and before getting inside the classroom:

i. **Attentiveness:** The learning experience must elicit and sustain pupils’ attention.

ii. **Receptiveness:** The learning experience must elicit and sustain pupils’ motivation and mental effort.

iii. **Appropriateness:** The learning experience must be appropriate for the educational outcomes desired.

All in all, planning is prerequisite, the teaching and learning process constantly revolves around and it is an essential component of effective teaching. This is summed up by Mawer (1995: 55):

“Planning is therefore an essential feature of pedagogical thinking and reasoning. Planning appears to mediate between a teacher’s basic knowledge of the subject being taught and his or her ability to teach the subject effectively, because it brings into play the teacher’s general pedagogical content knowledge. This includes knowledge of theories and principles of teaching and learning, knowledge of the learner, and knowledge of the techniques and principles of teaching such as class management. The plan for a lesson, unit or course is the result of a considerable degree of thinking on the part of the teacher”.

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2.10.7 Learner-Focused Teaching

During the teaching process, a teacher must highly put the students’ understanding as an ultimate goal. Richards (2011: 16-18) holds that teaching is generally viewed as a type of teacher performance, but the ultimate goal of this is to facilitate student learning. So the way that the teacher carries out the lesson should reflect the following:

a. The amount of talking the teacher does during the lesson.
b. The extent to which input from learners directs the shape and direction of the lesson.
c. The extent to which the teacher’s primary preoccupation during the lesson is with such things as classroom management, control, and order.
d. The extent to which the lesson reflects the teacher’s lesson plan.

And if teachers want to achieve more progress in learner – focused approach the following characteristics are to be considered:

a. The degree of engagement learners have with the lesson.
b. The extent to which learners’ responses shape the lesson.
c. The quantity of student participation and interaction that occurs.
d. The learning outcomes the lesson produced.
e. The ability to present subject matter from a learner’s perspective.
f. The teacher’s ability to reshape the lesson based on learner feedback.
g. The extent to which the lesson reflects learners’ needs and preferences.
h. The degree to which the lesson connects with the learners’ life experiences.
i. The manner in which the teacher responds to learner’s difficulties.

So teachers, especially new ones, have to be preoccupied with a sense of competence, confidence and any necessary thing needed to perform well inside the classroom. Moreover, they should follow style of teaching which provides a comfort zone for the teacher and give learners the opportunity to achieve progress in learning. Richards reported some of the characteristics which expert teachers used inside the classroom. They are as follows:

a. They are familiar with typical student behaviors.
b. They use their knowledge of learners to make predictions about what might happen in the classroom.

c. They build their lessons around students’ difficulties.

d. They maintain active student involvement.

Senior (2006: 200) suggests that learner-focused teaching creates a classroom which works like a community of learners: “It is sometimes forgotten that language classes operate as communities, each with its own collection of shared understandings that have been built up over time. The overall character of each language class is created, developed, and maintained by everyone in the room”.

Richards has another point of view in that he explains that using different effective strategies such as: group-based activities and pair work ones where students change places and communicate with different students in the class, develop a community-like classroom. In addition to that, teachers can link the lesson with the students’ lives and use humour to create a warm and friendly classroom atmosphere.

Another effective way of learner-focused teaching is to involve students in choosing different topics to be taught and even selecting the course contents.

2.10.8 Applying Theories and Teacher Development Through Practice

Teachers should apply any knowledge they get from theoretical courses at the College of Education or throughout their teaching career in the classroom. Richards (2011: 20-23) stresses that effective application of the teaching theories adopted by teachers in their teaching career is vital in managing classroom activities. In that teachers turn the subject matter into forms that are pedagogical, powerful and appropriate to the level and the ability of the students. Moreover, teachers must also be acquainted with improvisational techniques and skills to face anything which might go beyond the lesson plan. To achieve this they can do the following:

a. Analyze potential lesson content (e.g., a piece of realia a text, an advertisement, a poem, a photo, etc.) and identify ways in which it could be used as a teaching resource.

b. Identify specific linguistic goals (e.g., in the area of speaking, vocabulary, reading, writing, etc.) that could be developed from the chosen content.

c. Anticipate any problems that might occur and ways of resolving them.
d. Make appropriate decisions about time, sequencing, and grouping arrangements.

Through time teachers should work to develop their personal system of knowledge beliefs and the understanding of what teaching is. Moreover, try to gain mastery of teaching skills and specialized thinking skills so as to reach the level of experts. By doing this, teachers are going to form their own personal teaching philosophy which will help them arrive at:

a) Expectation and generalization: e.g.
   i. Children are much better language learners than adults because they are not worried about making mistakes and are much more prepared to take risks.
   ii. When we begin learning a language it’s better to follow the natural way, using imitation. But when you are more advanced, then you need to know more about the grammar.
   iii. The essential thing in language learning is knowing how to say what you want to say but not why you have to say it in a particular way.
   iv. Learners learn more when they work in groups because they can learn from each other and they get more opportunities to talk than when the teacher is conducting the class.
   v. Error correction works best when you ask students to monitor their own language, rather than having them depend on the teacher all the time.

b) Developing principles and a teaching philosophy
   Teachers formulate principles and personal philosophy that they refer to in planning and evaluation that guides their decision making:
   i. They have to be positive, patient and have good attitude
   ii. They should take into consideration the students’ ability and their overall background.
   iii. Follow the learners’ interest to maintain students involvement
   iv. Always teach to the whole class – not just to the best students.
   v. seek ways to encourage independent student learning.
   vi. Make learning fun.
   vii. Build take-away value in every lesson.
   viii. Address learners’ mental processing capacities.
   ix. Facilitate learner responsibility or autonomy.
By reaching these principles and procedures, teachers may be able to evaluate their own teaching as well as the teaching of others.

2.10.9 Basic Components of Teaching

These are the axes that teachers should have and should go through in their teaching career. Reece and Walker (2003: 5-6) suggest basis which provide teachers with an uncomplicated concept of teaching process and plan and implement an effective learning sequence. The basis include:

a. **Objectives** – it is to determine what students should be able to do when they have completed certain instruction.

b. **Entry behavior** - it describes what students already know about a topic before the start of the instructions. It refers to the students intellectual ability and development, their state and their learning abilities(to precisely determine the level).

c. **Instructional or teaching techniques** – this describes the teaching processes which result in student behavior.(learning)

d. **Assessment** – it is used to determine(through test or observation) how well the students have achieved the objectives. If all or most of the students fall behind the objectives , then either the entry behavior or teaching techniques needs to be adjusted.

2.10.10 Inductive and Deductive Approaches in Teaching

They are the two main approaches to the teaching process and teachers should determine when to use them appropriately. Reece and Walker (2003: 90) identifies the difference between the two approaches as follows:

a. Inductive approach - It is the process of moving from specific examples to a generalized one e.g. learners are not taught rules of grammar directly but they are left to discover them from their experience of using language.

b. Deductive approach – It is the process of working from general using specific examples e.g. the learners are taught rules and given specific information about the language then they apply these rules when they use the language.
Both approaches have their benefits, so the teachers should choose an approach according to topic they would like to teach. Moreover, some students may prefer the deductive approach while others may learn better with the inductive one. Teachers should also try to use a mix of the two approaches throughout the course.

2.10.11 Teaching as a Community of Practice

Collaboration between teachers with similar backgrounds in different classes or institutions is needed to develop educational environment. Richards (2011: 25-26) explains that teaching is often considered by some teachers as a confined private activity which is done only in the classroom. But to achieve considerable results in teaching and learning, teachers who share goals, values, interest and experience should collaborate in a teaching community of practice that is characterized by:

a. Involving a group of people who have common interests and who relate and interact to achieve shared goals.

b. Focusing on exploring and resolving issues related to the workplace practices that members of the community take part in.

This kind of collaboration between teachers either in the same educational institution or in another, will form a better understanding of what goes on in the classroom. Consequently, decision will be made about which part of the teaching style or techniques should be changed or adjusted. It will also provide opportunity for teachers to work in a group-oriented activities to share responsibility in problems solving. This collegiality will also help create a new role for the teacher in that he/she might be team leader, teacher trainer, mentor, or at least critical friend.

Collaboration can be in a variety of ways:

a. Collaboration with fellow teacher - It concentrates on the use of textbook, making tests and teaching planning.

b. Collaboration with university colleagues - It focuses on sharing interest in the language fields such as learning strategies and language acquisition and so on.

c. Collaboration with others in the institution - It focuses on working with the administration and the supervisors about school’s issues.
Such kind of collaboration can be carried out through the lesson study approach that is reported by Johnson (2009: 74) in which a group of teachers gather and plan a lesson for specific unit of study. They draw on every conceivable source concerning learning strategies, teaching techniques and learner background. Then the assign a volunteer to teach the lesson in a certain class while the other teachers observe (sometimes teachers from outside the school are invited). After the lesson ends they come together and discuss the outcomes review and revise them and assign another teacher to teach the lesson to a different class. Finally a report is written and is made available to others.

Many other forms of collaboration can help foster the teachers’ development such as reading groups, action research, team teaching, peer observation and peer coaching. Teachers must see collaboration as a source of strength which has valuable personal and practical benefits that shapes the teacher identity to develop professionally.

2.10.12 Grammar and Pragmatics in Teaching and Learning

The study of language elements through grammar or pragmatics has different linguistic views. This is what Meyer (2009: 49) points out clearly in that the boundary between pragmatics and grammar is still not settled out. Most linguists accept that certain elements of language are best studied under the realm of grammar, others accept that they should be studied in the domain of pragmatics. Those who rely on grammar, such as Chomsky, see the study of grammar as the primary focus of linguistic analysis which is abided by the regularity of the linguistic description, but pragmatics is not. While those who rely on pragmatics believe that the meaning of a sentence goes beyond understanding its meaning at the level of grammar. The social context in which the sentences is uttered needs to be understood. In addition to that, it is important to study pragmatics so as to understand the human language, since the study of linguistic competence is as important as the study of communicative one. Dell Hyme (1971: 115) also supported this view by saying that a person, besides his/her of forming linguistic structures, he/she should have considerable knowledge of knowing how to use these structures in specific communicative contexts. In order to discover this fact, He believes that if a person studies English only in the classroom and then he/she travels to the country where the language is spoken, he/she will find out that they have very little about English and realize that using English among its speakers entails more than just knowing the grammar rules. Fillmore (1996: 5) holds
another view about the relation between grammar and pragmatics in which he notes that “this view yields a subtractive view of pragmatics, according to which it is possible to factor out of the full description of linguistic activities those purely symbolic aspects which concern linguistic knowledge independently of notions of use or purpose.”

2.10.13 Teacher’s Attitudes
Teacher’s attitude, individual or professional, affects the student’s learning. Sauvignon (1983: 114) explains that to understand learners’ attitudes is very important in the learning process, but teachers attitude is as necessary as that of the learners’ one. This is because learners’ interest depends on the attitude that the teacher bring with him/her to the classroom. What teachers think of their role, their experience and proficiency and the process of self-selection at work, all will influence their attitudes. So to create a most helpful learning environment to student, teachers attitude (individual or professional) must be studied carefully.

2.10.14 Teacher Training and Skills
The instructions in basic classroom skills which are often linked to a specific teaching context are generally referred to as teacher training. But plausibly, The performance of the teaching skills, which is acquired via observing experienced teachers and often through practice teaching in a controlled setting using activities such as micro-teaching or peer teaching should be developed and that what training involves. The mastery of a set of skills or competencies from a training perspective is considered as good teaching. To acquire good performance of basic teaching skills a teacher should experience a variety of different situations with different kinds of learners and teaching different kinds of content. Through time, the development of such teaching varieties enables the teacher to perform fluently and automatically with less conscious and attention, hence to focus on other areas in the lesson.

Borg (2009: 163-171) points out that a cognitive dimension to the notion of skills is introduced by teacher decision making, since each “skill” entails the teacher to involve in sophisticated processes of observation, reflection, and assessment. Furthermore, to decide which course of action to take from a range of available alternatives. These decisions assist the teachers to change course during a lesson, relying on serious occurrences and other unexpected aspects of the lesson.
Accumulated experience and knowledge moves the teacher toward a degree of flexibility in teaching and the development of improvisational teaching. Thus, Borg describes some of the following characteristics of expert teachers:

a. They have a wide repertoire of routines and strategies that they can call upon.
b. They are willing to depart from established procedures and use their own solutions and are more willing to improvise.
c. They learn to automate the routines associated with managing the class; this skill leaves them free to focus on content.
d. They improvise more than novice teachers – they make greater use of interactive decision making as a source of their improvisational performance.
e. They have more carefully developed schemata of teaching on which to base their practical classroom decisions.
f. They pay more attention to language issues than novice teachers (who worry more about classroom management).
g. They are able to anticipate problems and have procedures available to deal with them.
h. They carry out needed phases more efficiently, spending less time on them.
i. They relate things that happen to the bigger picture, seeing them not in the context of a particular lesson.
j. They distinguish between significant and unimportant issues that arise.

So while the teacher is developing the teaching skill he/she is expected to master specific teaching competencies, which reflect complex levels of thinking and decision making – cognitive processes. Consequently, the application of knowledge and of learned skills only cannot be roughly considered as teaching. It is a cognitively driven process that is affected by things such as: the classroom context, the teacher’s general and specific instructional goals, the teacher’s beliefs and values, the learners’ motivations and reactions to the lesson, and the teacher’s management of critical moments during a lesson.

**2.10.15 Teaching Resources**

Teaching resources should be well-selected to suit the country’s contexts and traditions. Chick (1996: 22) points out that the development of language programmes based on learning and teaching methodologies imported from developed
countries is, therefore, an inadequate solution with which to equip teachers who face a variety of unique context-specific issues in their classrooms. The educational institutions and consultants, the local experts, policymakers, researchers, and teachers within these contexts when faced with a variety of methodologies and material imported from Western contexts or other countries and/or promoted by international organizations, must determine what is and is not suitable for use within their particular contexts and classrooms.

When a teacher encounters such materials, he/she has to manipulate effective techniques to adapt and adjust them to suit their students’ level, cultural and social background and even customs and norms.

2.10.16 Competency Based Teaching

Competency based teaching focuses on the learners needs and learner’s good implementation of what they study in real life. Richards and Schmidt (2010: 104) explain that it is also called competency based education/instruction. It is a teaching approach based on a set of outcomes derived from an analysis of tasks that the learners need to perform successfully in real life. It focuses on teaching students skills and behaviours in order to perform competencies. Consequently, teachers must bear in mind that the ultimate result of teaching is enable students to use what has been learned in class successfully in everyday activities.

2.10.17 Induction Year for Newly-Qualified Teachers (NQTs)

Newly-qualified teachers need to thoroughly apply the theoretical parts they have studied. Hence, an induction year is suggested by Nicholls (2004: 198-208) where he explains that to gain qualified teacher status is the start of professional development as a teacher. Because, a teacher has theoretical elements which need to be put in reality since many teaching situations teachers have little or no experience about. So, Nicholls suggests and induction period (one school year) which is designed to ensure that teachers are fully prepared for taking on all the responsibilities of a full time teacher. The load of the teachers at the induction year should be less than the normal ones. Their job should:

a. Not demand teaching outside the age range and subject(s) for which the NQT has been trained.
b. Not present them on a day-to-day basis with acute or especially demanding discipline problems.

c. Involve regular teaching of the same class(es).

d. Involve similar planning, teaching and assessment processes to those in which teachers working in substantive posts in the school are engaged.

e. Not involve additional non-teaching responsibilities without the provision of appropriate preparation and support.

During this induction year the newly-qualified teachers must be assisted and equipped with all the necessary information and guide that will help them carry out their induction in a beneficial way. In order to do this, roles and responsibilities should be set out, successful induction requires all people who are in concern to carry out their role responsibly:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table 1 The Head teacher</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Head teacher</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Role</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>To designate staff responsibilities.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To develop the induction programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To agree the NQT’s timetable.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• To provide rigorous and fair assessment of NQTs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To provide independent assessment of NQTs failing to make satisfactory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To collate assessment meeting Reports.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• To make recommendations to the appropriate bodies.</td>
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### Table 2 The Tutor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
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</table>
| • Day-to-day monitoring and support. | • To implement the school’s induction programme.  
• To act as a source of advice.  
• To observe NQTs teaching.  
• To report and feedback on observations to:  
  – the NQT  
  – the headteacher (where appropriate)  
| • Be trained for the role of induction tutor. | • To attend INSET deemed necessary by the headteacher.  
• Apply induction assessment criteria. | • To be familiar with induction assessment requirements.  
• To apply induction assessment criteria rigorously and fairly.  
• Implement the NQT’s action plan. | • To translate the NQT action plan into an achievable programme given the circumstances present within the school.  
• To enable full and proper support. | • To ensure that there is an appropriate breadth of experience for the NQT.  
• To arrange for additional support and experience outside the NQT’s school if necessary.  
| • Record keeping | • To maintain accurate records of the NQT’s progress.  
| • Assessment activity recording | • To ensure that assessments of NQTs are undertaken according to induction guidelines and keep formal records of their outcome. |


Head teachers are responsible for making sure that the high quality induction programme is ready for the newly-qualified teachers. That can include preparing
experienced staff to be induction tutor and to ensure a fair and rigorous assessment of the newly-qualified teachers. The newly-qualified teachers (NQTs) as well have responsibilities in making the induction year successful. Their responsibilities include:

**Table 3  The NQTs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Take part in the induction programme.</td>
<td>• To actively participate and monitor own work in relation to the induction standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Aid target setting</td>
<td>• To use the CEDP to negotiate short, medium and long-term targets for professional development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Monitor the support, assessment and guidance given.</td>
<td>• To raise professional concerns over the induction programme if necessary through the appropriate channels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Understand the purposes of induction and the standards related to them.</td>
<td>• To be familiar with the induction standards and the programme for induction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The governing body, the Ministry of Education or Faculties of Educations, has also responsibility for overseeing the establishment of induction within the school and maintaining it. During and at the end of the induction year the NQTs, the tutor, the headteacher and the governing body must gather evidences on the NQTs progress. Those evidences must come from a variety of sources such as lesson planning and preparation, how NQTs support and assist in the institution, their working relationship, students’ progress and so on. Then a report is written about the satisfactory and unsatisfactory completion of the induction period so as to decide whether to grant NQTs a full time job or extension is needed.

**Table 4  The governing body**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The governing body</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Oversee induction arrangements.</td>
<td>• To ensure that appropriate and adequate induction programmes are available in their school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Liaison with the appropriate body.</td>
<td>• To seek guidance on the nature, range and appropriateness of induction arrangements for NQTs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Oversee the roles of individuals with responsibility for induction.</td>
<td>• To seek guidance on the extent and nature of the roles of individuals responsible for the induction of NQTs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2.12. Learning
It is the process by which change in knowledge, skills, etc. comes about through practice, instruction or experience and the result of such a process.

2.12.1 Theories of learning
There are five main theories tell us how we learn. These theories are of great importance to teachers in order to have general insights of learning to incorporate them in their teaching. Reece and Walker (2003: 82-89) reported them as follows:

1/ The Behaviourists
It suggests that the main elements of different types of learning are stimulus and reinforcement i.e. learn by receiving a stimulus from the teacher this stimulus provokes a response from the students. So teachers should encourage the correct response (positive feedback) and discourage the incorrect one.

How to apply this theory in the classroom:

a. Use reinforcement (e.g. giving quick feedback, encourage trial and error learning, use praise and prizes) to encourage and strengthen certain behavior.

b. Take advantage to encourage the learning process in an scheduled intervals.

c. Use programmed learning approaches by informing students of the course outlines, arranging the material to be learned step by step and providing feedback to each step.

d. Use special forms to motivate students when they are less motivated (e.g. use frequent rewards).
2/ The Neo-Behaviourists

They believe that the human mind is selective in its action and not simply responsive to stimuli. They also think that as long as we have cognitive map we should consider the action rather than limiting ourselves to a single stimulus. So students have to apply new learning into different situations (what leads to what). Planning for feedback is the key feature or characteristic of the neo-behaviourists. To apply this in the classroom teachers should have a sequence of instructions such as:

   a. Inform the students with the objectives
   b. Question the students to determine their entry behavior.
   c. Use cues to form the chains of concepts or rules.
   d. Question students so that they can demonstrate their learning.
   e. Ask students to make a verbal statement of the rule.

3/ The Gestaltists

Gestalt is a German word means patterns or structure. They are interested in the whole perspective than in the individual parts. Understanding is based on insights which is characterized by sudden solution to problems and applying these solutions to similar problems in different contexts. Teachers should encourage students to use these insights. This theory focuses on the students and how they gain and organize their knowledge. How to apply this theory in the classroom:

   a. Group similar things together so that the pattern can be more easily understood.
   b. Use diagrams where possible as this shows the whole at one glance.
   c. Allow times for students to apply information to their own situations so that they can make their own patterns and have insight in terms of their own previous experiences.
   d. Let students solve problems in their own way.

4/ The Cognitivists

This theory points the effectiveness of mind in creating responses as well as the organization of perception in mind rather than the responses themselves. As in the behaviourists theory the mind receives the information and converts it into new forms and categories.
How to apply this theory in the classroom

a. Call attention to, and take advantage of, the structure of the subject. Stress relationships in what you present. Use advance organizers where appropriate and urge students to seek patterns of their own.

b. Take advantage of students wanting to find answers to problems that have personal significance to them, so relating the learning to their own personal situations.

c. Arrange the learning so that students discover things for themselves.

d. Structure discussions by posing specific questions.

e. Use discussions and give students themselves the responsibility for leading them.

5/ The Humanists

They believe that a person is worth dignity and teachers should develop qualities of worth and self-esteem. Students must feel that they part of a group and their contribution has worth. Humanist believe that it is essential to trust the learners to follow their own learning programme at their own pace and direction. In other words, they stress the active nature of the learners. The role of the teacher here is to increase the range of experiences so that the students choose how to achieve their own learning strategies.

How to apply this theory in the classroom

a. Be aware of the extent to which we control the learning and, where possible, allow students make choices and to manage their own learning.

b. Establish a warm, positive class atmosphere so that every student believes that they can learn and that you want them to learn.

c. Act as a facilitator to learning and encourage, help and assist the learning process.

d. Consider participation as an individual in group settings.

e. Do your best to help students to develop positive feelings about themselves.

f. Use role-play and simulation exercise when they are appropriate.

g. Provide learning activities that will lead to the development of the habits and attitudes that we want to foster.

2.12.2 The Learning Styles
Learning styles is how learners receive and perceive information presented by teachers. Reece and Walker (2003: 1143) reports different learning styles that can be of great importance to enhance students learning. They are as follows:

a. Visual/verbal learning style

It suggests that the learners learn best when the information is presented visually and written. This is when teachers use boards and overhead projector to provide the lecture’s outlines or points. They also make use of information from textbooks or class notes. When students want to remember the lesson they can see information in their minds.

b. Visual/Non-verbal learning style

It suggests that the learners learn well when the teachers present information using visual aids such as videos, film, maps or charts. Students may obtain information from pictures and diagrams in textbooks. When students try to remember the lecture they can visualize a picture in their minds.

c. Tactile/Kinaesthetic learning style

It suggests that learners learn best when they are physically engaged in an activity in the classroom. Students benefit when they can manipulate materials to learn new information. They benefit from teachers who encourage in-class demonstration or field work outside the class.

d. Auditory/verbal learning style

It suggests that the learners learn best when the information is presented auditory in an oral language format. They benefit from listening to lectures, participating in group discussion and listening to audio tapes. When students try to remember things they often hear the way someone told them the information.

2.12.3 Aptitude and Attitude in Second Language Acquisition and Learning

Aptitude and attitude are vital in learning a language in that they encourage the learners’ achievement in language. Krashen (1981: 19) explains that language aptitude and attitude are related to second language achievement. Aptitude which is defined by Carroll (1973: 5) as the “rate at which people at the secondary school,
university and adult level learn to criterion”. Carroll (1973: 7-8) notes that there are three main components of measuring aptitude: the first is the phonetic coding ability – the ability to store new sounds in memory. The second component is the grammatical sensitivity – the individual ability to demonstrate awareness of the syntactical patterning of sentences in a language. And the third component is the inductive ability – the ability to examine language material and identify relationship involving meaning and grammatical form. Carroll connects this final component with general intelligence.

Krashen (1981: 21) reports that there are certain attitudinal factors that either encourage language intake or enable the performer to utilize the language. Such factors can include:

a. Integrative motivation, it is the desire to be like members of the community that speak the second language. This encourages the acquirer to interact with the speaker of the second language without fear and engage himself/herself in a receptive learning.

b. Instrumental motivation, it is the desire to achieve proficiency in a language for practical reasons. It encourages the performer to interact with L2 speaker in order to achieve certain ends.

c. Personality factors which are interrelated with motivational ones and related to language achievement. Such factors could include: self-confidence, lack of anxiety and self-esteem.

d. Empathy, the ability to put oneself in another’s shoes which makes the performer accepted and form positive identification of the target language.

e. Attitude towards the classroom and teacher, students who feel at ease in the classroom and like the teacher may achieve high intake in language learning.

2.12.4 Collaborative Learning

Collaborative learning is an approach to teaching and learning that requires learners to work together to discuss and create meaning. Smith and MacGregor (1992: 56) define the term as follows: “Collaborative learning is an umbrella term for a variety of educational approaches involving joint intellectual effort by students, or students and
teachers together”. Usually, students are working in groups of two or more searching for understanding, solutions, or meanings, or creating a product. Collaborative learning activities vary widely, but most center on students’ exploration or application of the course material.

1/ Student-Student Collaboration

Collaborative learning not only allows students to engage deeply with content but also helps students build the interpersonal skills needed to be successful in college and careers. Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1993: 67) notes that collaborative learning provides students with the opportunity to develop social skills. They found that many of the outcomes expected as part of a collaborative learning activity corresponded with goals for student content understanding and skill attainment. What builds the social skills that students need to be successful when working with others is the strategies associated with collaborative learning—such as role assignments, collaborative problem solving, and task and group processing. Additionally, these skills are important because they prepare students for the world of work, where the key elements of many careers are collaborative writing and problem-solving.

2/ Teacher-Student Collaboration

The purpose for collaboration in an educational setting is to learn and explain content together to develop a shared understanding. Harding-Smith (1993: 43) points out that collaborative learning approaches are based on the idea that learning must be a social action in which learning occurs through interaction. Johnson and Johnson (1986: 124) similarly emphasize that the students and teachers gain a deeper understanding of the content when they talk and listen to each other, moreover, they can develop the skills necessary to negotiate meaning throughout their lives. The instruction should be shifted from teacher-led instruction to instruction and learning that is designed by both teachers and students.

Collaboration between student and teacher helps students to reflect and engage in their own learning experiences. The constructivist learning movement is one current example of efforts to increase the amount of collaboration between student and teacher occurring in the classroom. Mayer (2004: 14) defines constructivist learning
as an “active process in which learners are active sense makers who seek to build coherent and organized knowledge”. Students construct their learning, with the teacher serving as a guide or facilitator. The teacher does not function in a purely didactic (i.e., lecturing) role. Neo and Neo (2009: 254) found that constructivism helps students develop problem-solving skills, critical thinking, and creative skills and apply them.

3/ Teacher-Teacher Collaboration
Teachers may not have the time to collaborate, but Professional learning communities, which provide teachers with established time to collaborate with other teachers, have become a more common practice in recent years. Louis and Kruse (1995: 87) conducted a case study analysis that highlighted some of the positive outcomes associated with professional learning communities, including a reduction in teacher isolation, increases in teacher commitment and sense of shared responsibility, and a better understanding of effective instructional practices. For the teachers to gain new strategies and skills to improve and energize their teaching and classrooms, professional learning communities encourage them to collaborate in problem solving. Lewis (2002: 96) points out another example of teacher-to-teacher collaboration that is lesson study which began in Japan. Lesson study is a collaborative approach to designing and studying classroom lessons and practice. The most critical components of lesson study are observation of the lesson, collection of data about teaching and learning, and a collaborative analysis of the data to further impact instruction. Some of these characteristics are similar to other forms of professional development—analyzing student work, cognitive coaching, and action research, to name a few—but the fact that it focuses on teachers observing a live lesson that was collaboratively developed is different than any other form of professional development. Lesson study is a way for teachers to work together, collect data, and analyze data to reflect on teaching and learning.

2.12.5 The Good and Bad Language Learner
A language learner is said to be either weak or intelligent but these two dichotomies are viewed differently by Krashen (1981: 37-38) who has other two dichotomies where he notes that a good language learner is the one who is able to acquire adequate intake in L2 and has high ability to utilize this input for language
achievement. While the bad language one is the learner obtained pathetically low intake, from the class or the natural environment, in L2 from learning and acquisition. This is as a result of lack of interest in the target language and its speaker, self-conscious, high anxiety as well as low aptitude or interest in grammar. A person may have high aptitude and low attitude or vice versa, he/she may have both high or both low. However, a person may acquire the language effectively with one of these attitudinal factors.

2.12.6 The Role of Linguistic Environment in Learning

Linguistic environment plays important role in successful learning. Krashen (1981: 40-41) notes that there are two sorts of linguistic environment: artificial or formal which is found in the classroom, and natural or informal. The features of formal environment, which are not present in informal one unless a person has a helpful friend to correct or to check a consultant, can include: rule isolation and feedback (errors correction and detection). Krashen points out that the issue of which environment is more beneficial has not been settled yet. But he draws out that both of them make contribution to different aspect of second language learning.

2.12.7 Motivation and Learning

Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second/foreign language (L2) learning. Reece and Walker (2003: 78-81) points out that motivation is essential in successful learning. A weak student who is highly motivated may learn better than the more intelligent one who is not well motivated. Teachers should maintain and better still maximize students’ motivation and that is by considering the following:

a. Interest – It makes students pay attention to the lesson and achieve better understanding.

b. Need – Students need to succeed to reach certain goals, to make a friendly relationship with other students or teachers and to get the best results in the class.

c. Attitude – When students get pleasure or satisfaction of what they are learning, they will learn skills well.

d. Aspirations – Students may have a particular goal need to be achieved after finishing a certain course.
1/ **Intrinsic Motivation**

It is considered as the best one because learners learn for the purpose of learning itself. For many students what happens in the classroom will be of vital importance in determining their attitude to the language.

2/ **Extrinsic Motivation**

Which depends on outside reasons provided by the teacher or other stimuli. Harmer (1983: 3) divides extrinsic motivation into two:

**a/ Integrative Motivation**

The students are attracted by the culture of the target language community and wish to integrate themselves into that culture, so they desire to know as much as possible about that culture.

**b/ Instrumental Motivation**

The students believe that mastery of the target language will be instrumental in getting them better job or position. The language itself is an instrument to be used by such students.

Reece and Walker (2003: 212) state that to help the teachers to work for extrinsic motivation they should be acquainted with the following techniques:

a. **Verbal praise** – Comments such as “good answer”, “great” are helpful to the students’ motivation.

b. **Test results** – To see that they are making progress, students need feedback of the periodic assignments or tests. These results are also important to the teacher to make remedies.

c. **Arousal** – Students by nature are curious, so teachers should enhance this curiosity by puzzlement and contradictions. But these puzzlement and contradictions should not highly exceed the students’ limit in order to avoid frustration.

d. **Unexpected events** – While teaching it is motivating to have unexpected events (e.g. practical activity instead of theoretical, changing place of furniture or as students to design any activity).
e. **Surprise** – Instead of relying on certain methods or ways it is better to use surprise in teaching to make students think differently and hence they learn differently.

f. **Use materials familiar to the students** – Teachers should avoid using materials which are not familiar to the students so as not to hinder learning.

g. **Unusual context** – After the students have learned concepts in a familiar way, to ensure better learning, they should know how to use these concepts in an unfamiliar situations.

h. **Games and simulations** – They strongly motivate in the learning, but at the end of the topic students should know the purpose of the play or game.

i. **Minimize adverse effects** – There are a number of things which reduce motivation and have negative effects in the learning process, teachers should try to minimize them as possible as they can. For example,

   i. Listening to a dull, boring, uninteresting teacher.
   
   ii. Tests which are too hard or too easy.
   
   iii. No feedback on progress.
   
   iv. Pace too fast or too slow.
   
   v. Sitting for too long.
   
   vi. Poor lighting/heating/acoustics.
   
   vii. Being told they are unlikely to understand something.
   
   viii. Waiting for help from the teacher.
   
   ix. Being told that the topic is difficult.

Extrinsic motivation can be affected by different other factors Harmer (1983: 4) explains them as follows:

   a. **Physical conditions**

   The physical conditions in most cases include the temperature, fresh air, the acoustic and the furniture. Classrooms that are badly lit, equipped and overcrowded can be excessively demotivating.

   b. **The method**

   As long as the method used by the teacher is not deadly boring, the students will feel confident of it and they will become motivated. Moreover, the students’ confidence in
the method is largely in the hand of the most important factor in affecting students’ motivation i.e. the teacher.

c. Qualified teacher

The teacher should have certain qualities which are stated below:

i. He/she has to make his class interesting

ii. The teacher must be fair in treating the students and as far as possible understands them in order to act on the worries and aspiration of the students.

iii. The teacher must offers a good language model as the target language user

iv. He/she must be a good technician, students should understand what is required from them and be stimulated into activity in the target language.

v. He/she must have a wide knowledge of English sound system, grammar and lexis.

vi. The teacher must also master communicative techniques, functions and notions. He/she is also a drill master, motivator, an evaluator, has a good knowledge in English culture or literature and has a knowledge of applied linguistics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

vii. The teacher must master the job and is professionally well informed, has personal charm, patience, a sense of humour and has a friendly attitude towards the language, students and colleagues.

d. Success

The teacher should give the students high challenging activities, because low challenging one are sometimes demotivating. If the students can achieve all the tasks with no difficulty at all they may lose the motivation that they have when faced with the right level of challenge. Therefore, to avoid negative result the teacher should set tasks which students will realistically be able to achieve.

Walking (2000: 2) provides practical ways of encouraging students’ motivation by saying that, the teacher should present materials in such a way that involves and encourages students’ mental image and emotional state i.e. to make students use as many senses as possible rather than relying on passive learning methods. Moreover, students should be made aware of the links between the immediate learning objective, the overall aims of the instruction and the benefit to be gained in the long run.

2.12.8 Courses Memorization and Learning
Memorization of the courses taught at any educational institution without understanding them will hinder the process of learning. That is because the learners memorize language courses for the purpose of overcoming the examination. Hence, after the examination very little, sometimes nothing, of the knowledge of the courses remains in their minds. And if they are faced with situations outside the classroom, they may not be able to use that knowledge appropriately. Rivers (1976: 71) notes that memorization has very little to do with learning a new language for use in unpredictable context and bear no relation to the active memory processes that enable language learners to express their intention (meaning) in new language form. What the mind is doing during language learning activities will determine what is stored, in what form and whether it is retrievable and usable in new context.

2.12.9 Deep Learning and Surface Learning
Both deep and surface learning help learners to attain certain achievements but with a slight difference. Reece and Walker (2003: 80-81) explain that students may reach an end by surface or strategic approach. They may have good results in examination because they have good memory to recall facts (memorization) and they are considered as surface learners. Others may think deeply and are highly intrinsically motivated which are considered as deep learners.

1/ Characteristics of Surface Learning:
   a. Intention to recall/reproduce lecture notes
   b. Sole aim to pass assessments
   c. Passively accepting teachers’ ideas/notes.
   d. No reflection.
   e. No concept of overall patterns or theme (focus on elements only).
   f. Treating assignments and reading as a burden.

2/ Characteristics of Deep Learning:
   a. Relating concepts to existing knowledge and understanding, and to everyday life.
   b. Organizing and structuring new information.
   c. An interest in understanding new materials.
   d. Challenging new concepts and reading widely.
e. Examining the logic of the development.

f. Determining what is significant.

To help students to be deep learners, teachers should design active learning experiences and reduce passive note taking. Moreover, they can apply learning to problem solving, encourage discussion and structuring reflection.

2.12.10 Barrier to Language Learning

There are certain barriers to language learning and teachers should work hard to identify them. Walking (2000: 17) claims that barriers or blockage to learning may be self-imposed: learners may think that learning a language is difficult, or may result from past involvement with teachers i.e. some bad experience in schools or in earlier college courses. However, once teachers identify learners with learning blocks, the best way to clear them is to ask students about their perceived problems and try to share their worries with a sympathetic teacher. Moreover, the teacher should be aware of the fragile relationship that will initially exist and work hard to at dispelling anxieties. Clearing learning blocks can also be achieved through explaining things inside classrooms without rushing, moving carefully from the known to the unknown. Teachers from the very beginning should consider the students sensitivity to language, try to bring the language to their level and be patient when students are slowly to grasp ideas.

2.12.11 Needs of Learners

Learners’ needs should not only be based on passing examinations, but on how learners can master different language skills. Byrne (1986: 4-5) points out that for most students language learning is a long-term process that cannot be achieved through the amount of time available in the classroom. For many students the only reality is a final public examination with a probable emphasis not on skills but on those parts that can be measured through a written examination. To achieve the ultimate purpose of language which is communication, students must master as much of the language system (grammar, vocabulary and phonology) as they can. Bearing in mind that firstly, a language is a means to an end. So they do not need to work their way through the whole language systems and they should be given essential items of language economically and enjoyably. Secondly, the learners need opportunity to try out language for themselves, in other words, to experience within the classroom ways
of communicating through the language. Another thing is that communication in the classroom is not quite the same as in real life, because teachers may usually be satisfied with weak performance for the sake of motivation. Also learners are required to be able to use the language both with accuracy, which depends on mastery of the language system and with fluency, which derived from experience of trying the language out oneself. In trying to meet the need of learners to communicate, a balance between these two goal should be made.

1/ Special Educational Needs

Learners are not alike in their learning ability. Each one has his/her own learning needs. Nicholls (2004: 137-140) notes that students have particular needs, some prefer topics, teaching styles and learning approaches to others. The range of special needs is different from students to others and from class to class and they might change overtime. The main special educational needs are:

   a. Cognitive and learning difficulties (including specific learning difficulties);
   b. Autistic spectrum difficulties;
   c. Social, emotional and behavioural difficulties;
   d. Sensory and physical difficulties;
   e. Communication and interaction difficulties.

It is worth noting that students who fall into one or two of these categories cannot be assessed as having high or low intelligence. So it is important for the class teacher to identify and recognize students with special educational needs so as to provide a suitable learning environment for them. It is also necessary for the teacher to identify students with exceptional ability in order to nurture their talent.

2/ Syllabus Required to Meet the Learners’ Needs

In the process of syllabus selection or design certain characteristics should be borne in mind. Byrne (1986: 6) suggests that a syllabus should contain grammatical items together with suitable vocabulary which have been selected and graded according to certain criteria and the other language systems. The syllabus may be a list of functions – things that the learners will probably want to do through the language such as advice, persuasion, etc. and notions – the meaning they will probably want to express. These too will be arranged in some sort of order, taking into account both the needs of the learners and the relative simplicity of the language needed to express
them (exponents). In addition, the syllabus may contain a list of situations such as on
the telephone, at the cinema, ordering a meal, etc. in which the language can be used
and a list of activities through which the language be taught.

2.13 Using Computer in Teaching and Learning

To enhance the teaching and learning process, computer should be skillfully used in
the classroom. Beatty (2010: 12-13) explains that computer has been widely used in
teaching and learning in the recent years, in which it has been developed from tasks
that entail simple programming exercise to interactive multimedia presentation. Since
it has become complementary to almost all classroom language teaching and learning,
teachers and learners should make use of it in and out the classroom. Beatty goes on
and adds that this form of technology can even be used in testing and scoring as well.
But a problem may occur in that the computer may face difficulty in sorting out
unexpected answers. In this case he points that a common solution to such problem is
either to save more complex answers for the teacher to mark them individually or to
This test offers testing in the four skills with higher validity and reliability than
human. Although using computer in teaching and learning is so helpful, but there
barriers from using this technology to its best advantage. In that the material designers
are either teachers with poor technological skills or competent technician with no
experience in teaching. So one should consult a good learning or teaching
programme.

2.13.1 Using Multimedia Effectively in the Classroom

Multimedia with its broad meaning has positive impact on learning if used effectively.
Reece and Walker (2003: 157) note that multimedia does not mean using only
computer and learning technology. It is about using multiple ways and utilizing every
aspects of interaction to present information. There are other terms that confuse
people when they talk about multimedia:

a. Learning technologies – refer to any technology that enhances learning such as
electronic, electrical or computer-based technology.

b. Technology – refers to any tools used to assist in learning and teaching.
c. Learning aids – refer to any material or tools that assist, help, promote and enhance learning.

Effective use of multimedia can really enhance the students’ learning experience. A well designed multimedia should:

a. Promote perception.
b. Promote understanding.
c. Help reinforcement
d. Aid retention.
e. Motivate and arouse interest.

2.14 Classroom Management

Classroom management is as important as managing learning and good planning. Nicholls (2004: 105) explains that classroom management, control or organization is highly dependent on good planning and preparation. In that good planning keeps students busy with carrying out the well-selected steps in presenting learning activities. But Turner (1997: 69) makes a very crucial and critical point where he raises a question about whether the teacher manages behavior or manages learning. A plausible answer for Turner’s question is that a teacher must be trained and equipped with a variety of teaching skills and ways to manage learning and behavior as well. Mawer (1995: 93) reports that in the context of classroom management there should be rules which set at the beginning of the relation between the teacher and the students. These rules must be flexible in the light of changing circumstances – the relation between the teacher, student, content and classroom. In addition to that, they must define general expectations of the acceptable and unacceptable behavior and cover different situations for example, expecting students to be quiet and attentive when the teacher is talking.

Nicholls (2004: 108) identifies simple guidelines that teachers can consider so as to create appropriate classroom rules:

a. Keep the rules ‘short and sweet’, very much to the point and explicit.
b. State the rules positively and make them realistic, providing mainly positive, but also negative examples. A community orientation to the wording is also recommended; for example, ‘We will...’.
c. Ensure that the terminology used for the rules can be understood by those they apply to.
d. Ensure that the rules are supported by and consistent with departmental and school-wide rules.
e. Negotiate (where possible) with the pupils.
f. Identify and consistently apply consequences to rules, ensuring that you are willing to enforce them.
g. Do not provide too many rules to any given context—a maximum of six.

Mawer provides rules for classroom management while Siedentop (1991: 95) identifies routines as a useful procedure for that. He notes that specific teaching behavior or routines should be performed and established in the classroom at the first teacher-students encounter. These routines should be reassessed throughout the year. Fink and Siedentop (1989: 205) adopt five different kinds of routines:

a. Preliminary routines — entering/leaving the classroom; introductory activity; pupils’ method of gaining teacher’s attention; teacher’s method of gaining pupil attention and request for quiet.
b. Transitional management routines — pupil dispersal (e.g. to the work area); pupil gathering (e.g. for demonstrations); equipment movement (e.g. taking out and putting away); group work (movement into pairs, small and large groups).
c. Instructional management routines — starting activities; defining boundaries of work area (whole group, small group and individual).
d. Housekeeping routines — record keeping; accidents; collecting valuables.
e. Closure routines—finishing the activity; leaving the work space.

2.15 The Concept and Definition of Proficiency

It is a commonplace that a consensus on one definition of proficiency has not been reach yet. Canales (1992: 7) offers a practical definition of proficiency in that her definition of language usage is predicted on a socio-theoretical basis. This means language is more than just the sum of discrete parts (e.g. pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar). It develops within a culture for conveying the beliefs and customs of that culture. By language usage Canales means that language is:

a. Dynamic and contextually-based (varies depending on the situation, status of speakers and the topic)
b. Discursive (requires connected speech) and 
c. Requires the use of the integrative skills to achieve communicative competence.

In short, language proficiency is a coherent orchestration of discrete elements such as vocabulary, discourse structure and gestures to communicate meaning in specific context.

Valdes and Figueroa(1994: 34) indicate that what it means to know language goes beyond simplistic views of good pronunciation, correct grammar and even mastery of rules of politeness. Knowing a language and knowing how to use it involves a mastery and control of a large number of interdependent components and elements that interact with one another and that are affected by the nature of situation in which communication takes place.

2.15.1 Contribution of the Four Language Skills to Proficiency

The American Council of Chief State School Officers(CCSSO: 1992) indicates that the four language skills contribute to language proficiency as follows:

a. Reading: 
   It is the ability to comprehend, interpret, and extract meaning from a variety of text types including textbooks from across the curriculum, reference books, and other printings. Moreover, reading is the ability to evaluate written texts with understanding and fluency.

b. Listening:
   It is the ability to understand the language of the speaker/the teacher, to understand routine aural instruction in a large or small group setting, to comprehend and extract information and follow the instructional discourse through which information is provided.

c. Writing:
   It is the ability to produce written texts with content, format and fulfilling pieces of writing such as short answers, paragraphs, essays, and term papers.
In addition to the ability to be engaged in written communication in a variety of forms for a series of purposes and audiences.

d. Speaking:
It is the ability to use oral language appropriately and effectively in learning activities such as peer queries for information, synthesize reading materials, collaborative learning activities and asking probing questions in question/answer sessions within the learning environment and in social interactions.

1/ The Integration of the Four Language Skills
It is irrational to decide a persons’ proficiency level depending on only one skill. It is also implausible to teach only one skill at a time. Harmer (1983: 47) stresses the principle of integrating the four language skills. He suggests that one topic can be manipulated in many different skills. Students when involved in an oral communicative activity will have to do some writing or reading to accomplish the task. Students will be asked to write but on the basis of reading, listening or discussing. So it is the teachers’ responsibility to see that all the skills are practiced. Robinson (1941: 130) adds to this that in real life language skills are not used in any set of order but they intertwined according to the situation. This is also what happens in teaching. So integrating skills is important because of the following:

a. They provide opportunities for using language naturally, not just practicing it.

b. Many pair and group work activities call for a variety of skills, sometimes simultaneously, in order to involve all the learners.

c. Students seem to learn better when they are engaged on activities that involve more than one skill.

2.15.2 The Degree of Proficiency
Two view are set to decide on which basis the degree of proficiency is stated: mastery of structure or communication. Yalden (1988: 15) points out that to decide the degree of proficiency achieved by the learners in traditional approaches to language is stated from the students’ mastery of structure: phonology, morphosyntax and lexicon of the target language. Varied specifications is made in advance for these structures which differ from course to course. Yalden indicates that this kind of knowledge is yet not enough for learners who want to learn the language to communicate with each other.
rather than to know about it. He finally states that communication involves more than structure and to appreciate revised notion of proficiency it is necessary to have a look at Chomsky’s distinction between linguistic competence – what the speaker knows and what the linguists should be concerned with; and linguistic performance – what the speaker does, says or writes at any given time. The speaker should know the language perfectly unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shift of attention and interest and errors in applying his knowledge of language in actual performance. Here Yalden stresses the dimension of social appropriateness or social context.

2.15.3 Communicative Proficiency

It is the mastery of both linguistic rules and communication one. Yalden (1988: 25) claims that definitions of proficiency are based upon definitions of competence. He reported three distinctive features of communicative proficiency:

a. Linguistic competence (e.g. morphology, syntax)
b. Pragmatic competence (e.g. vocabulary, cohesion and organization)
c. Sociolinguistic competence (e.g. register, nativeness, and non-literal language).

2.15.4 Communicative Efficiency

Learners are said to have communicative efficiency when they can express themselves clearly as the situation needs. Harmer (1983: 24-26) explains that in communicative efficiency students are expected to be able to express what they wish to say. In other words, if they wish to express disagreement, they are able to do so and they are understood. Communicative efficiency can be applied to:

a. Students’ level
   The students’ knowledge of English does not mean they cannot communicate efficiency with the language they have. But according to their level they can be called less or sophisticated users of language for the purpose of communication. Language is not just an abstract system, so it is the job of the teachers to make this true for students at different levels.

b. Use of grammar
Teachers must train students in the use of language more than just teaching them an abstract system. They should try to avoid highly sophisticated styles, although they are sometimes desirable, but are not absolutely necessary to speak the language. In order for the students to communicate efficiently, they should have a grasp of the major sophisticated grammatical concepts that are essential for any language user.

c. Situation and context
Language happens in situations and in order for students to be able to use it they should realize in what situation certain pieces of language are used. To attain communicative efficiency students must be taught to learn the language and the situations it occurs in. For example, it is easy to teach students to say “John is running” but unless they are taught how and in what situation and context such language is used, they will not be helped towards communicative efficiency.

d. Pronunciation and accent
Many teachers and students feel that the only realistic long-term goal of language is for the students to sound exactly like the native speakers. This idea is rather worrying, the fact is that a student learning English in classes outside England, will not have adequate model to reach such proficiency. Communicative efficiency serves for the goal that students express what they want to communicate and the possession of a foreign accent does not in a way or another prevent them from doing so. So teachers and students should insist of a level of pronunciation that ensures communicative efficiency, because students do not need such an impossible standard of pronunciation to be understood.

e. Skills
It is now generally accepted that students can take a higher level of English in the receptive skills than in the productive ones. Communicative efficiency in terms of the four skills means that students are expected to be able to perform at their given level of English and be sufficient in this performance. The
2.15.5 Concept of Proficiency Governing Teaching and Testing

Certain concepts must be put in mind when talking about proficiency. Yalden (1988: 24) offers two concepts of proficiency that govern contemporary approaches to teaching and testing:

1/ The Concept of Standard or Generalized Definition of Proficiency

It requires the setting of tests by some central body, whether it is a group of teachers, an institution or an educational authority. It ascertains some uniformity in instruction, and that input in the form of the item taught ought to equal output in the form of items learned. It stems from a view of linguistic competence as unitary consist of communicative competence.

2/ The Concept of Variable Definition of Proficiency

It governs an approach in which the input is believed to be affected by the learners’ processing before it can turn into output. That means, according to the learners’ goal and purposes as well as to their personal characteristics.

2.15.6 Results of Beginning Stages of Language on Proficiency

If the beginning stages of learning are not well guided and governed, they will negatively affect learning. Marton (1988: 52) explains that the inaccurate, fossilized lexical and grammatical items acquired in the beginning stages of language study are generally not remediable. This may hinder the learners’ linguistic development at some fairly low level of proficiency and they may not attain the linguistic skills needed to meet minimum job requirements. It may also stigmatize them socially in certain types of encounter with native or non-native speakers.

2.16 The Aspect of Errors

In the process of teaching and learning, when students are trying to make use of the inputs they get from the lesson in a sort of outputs, they make different kinds of errors. Since errors in learning are inevitable teachers should deal with them in a
professional way to make the students feel relax and not ashamed or shy of any sort of communication in the class. To do this, teachers should be acquainted with the various kinds of errors that might be committed by learners and better still know how to deal with them professionally. Richards and Schmidt in the Fourth Edition of Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2010) explain the general aspects of errors. They start by defining the word error in that “errors, which can happen in the speech or writing of a second or foreign learner, is the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning”. Error is sometimes distinguished from mistake in that error results from incomplete knowledge whereas mistake results from lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness or some other aspects of performance. Error is classified as:

a. Lexical error (vocabulary).
b. Phonological error (pronunciation).
c. Syntactic error (grammar).
d. Interpretive error (misunderstanding of speaker’s intention or meaning).
e. Pragmatic error (production of the wrong communicative effect, e.g. through the faulty use of speech act or one of the rules of speaking).

Errors are also classified into:

a. Developmental – which results from a normal pattern of the learner’s development in language learning, e.g. the application of the regular past rule to all verbs (comed, goed). But such errors disappear through time as the learner’s language ability increases.
b. Global error – is an error in the use of a major element of sentence structure which makes it difficult of impossible to understand. This is often contrasted by local error – an error in the use of an element which does not cause problems of communication.

2.16.1 Error Gravity

It is the effect or the reaction of error made by learners or speakers of a second or foreign language on other speakers of the language. The effect differs according to the degree of error, some errors have little effect, some cause irritation, while others may cause difficult communication.
2.16.2 Error of Measurement
It is also called measurement error or error score. It estimates the test taker’s true score and observed score. In this case it is divided into:

a. Random or systematic errors – they affect test taker’s score because of random happening (e.g. guessing, problem with the test administration or scoring error).

b. Systematic errors – they constantly affect a test taker’s score because of factors associated with a test taker or a test that is not related to the trait measured(e.g. cultural bias in a test of reading comprehension).

2.16.3 Speech Errors
These are the unintended fault made by native speakers or nonnative speakers of a language in the production of sounds, words and sentences. They can include:

a. Anticipation – when we bring a sound or a word before it is needed:
   I’ll put your cat in the cupboard instead of I’ll put your hat in the cupboard.

b. Preservation error – when we say a sound or a word again after it has already been said:
   The president of Prance instead of the president of France.

c. Reversal error or spoonerism – when we reverse a position of a sound or a word:
   Let’s have chish and fips instead of let’s have fish and chips.

2.16.4 Error Correction
Error correction can be either by a teacher or by more advanced learners. There are two ways of error correction:

a. Direct – the teacher supplies the correct form.

b. Indirect – the teacher points out the problem and asks the learner to correct it if possible.

2.16.5 Error Analysis
It is a branch of applied linguistic which studies the second language learner’s errors. It generally carried out to:

a. identify strategies which learners use in language learning
b. try to identify the causes of learner errors

c. obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid to
teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.

Error analysis is considered as an alternative to contrastive analysis. The main
prospect of error analysis is shown by the distinction between two categories:

a. Intralingual errors which are classified as: **overgeneralizations** (errors caused
by extension of target language rules to inappropriate contexts), **simplifications** (errors resulting from learners producing simpler linguistic rules than those found in the target language), **developmental errors** (those reflecting natural stages of development), **communication-based errors** (errors resulting from strategies of communication), **induced errors** (those resulting from **transfer of training**), **errors of avoidance** (resulting from failure to use certain target language structures because they were thought to be too difficult), or **errors of overproduction** (structures being used too frequently). Attempts to apply such categories have been problematic however, due to the difficulty of determining the cause of errors.

b. Interlingual errors – which result from transfer of L1 rules in to L2 usage.

### 2.16.6 Error Detection

Students’ errors should be traced and followed carefully in order make remedies. James (1998: 91) notes that error detection is somewhat harder in spoken than in writing. The purpose of error detection is to identify where the error is whether in writing or speaking in order to become aware of it. Moreover, spotting a person’s errors is more difficult than spotting other people’s errors.

### 2.16.7 Prevention or Correction of Errors

Linguists have contrasting views on whether to correct or prevent errors. James (1998: 241-252) explains that prevention is better than cure, in that teachers should search for ways to prevent errors from happening rather than correcting them. To do this, George (1972: 62) suggests ways of prevention errors:

While teaching, teachers should ignore learners’ errors and do not pay high attention to them. Another way is that teachers should make sure that the newly taught items are repeated well for the learners to understand them. The final way is to teach a little
language and focus on that. In other words, learners should not be asked to produce a language unless they have maximum receptive experience. Behaviourists prefer overlearning as a method to prevent errors. Teachers must provide intensive practice as it was assumed that practice makes perfect and that perfect means error-free. On the other hand correction is also important, but it should be sensitive, non-threatening, giving students time before correcting them so as not to make them feel embarrassed. Moreover, repeating the error with emphasis for the students to correct them by themselves or giving written feedback to the students.

2.17 The Nature of Assessments

Assessment is necessary for both teachers and learners. Reece and Walker (2003: 315-318) points out that it is important for teachers and learners to know the purpose of assessment in learning. The reason behind that is as follows:

a. To discuss for the purpose of establishing entry behavior and to define the learning needs or difficulties.

b. To posit feedback to both teachers and learners on the learning progress for the purpose of reinforcement and development.

c. To maintain standards for certificate achievement, predict future performance and provide data for quality assurance.

2.17.1 Types of Assessment

There are two main types of assessing students’ learning:

1/ Summative Assessment:

It takes place at the end of the course and is generally used to satisfy the needs of the society and specifically to get a certificate. It decides whether students have learned the course and are able to go further to the following one.

2/ Formative Assessment

It takes place during the course and it is used to tell students about their progress in learning as well as telling teaches about the success of the teaching.
a/ Principles of Formative Assessment

i. Using short term informal assessment – this can be through question and answer, test or homework, explaining errors and provide comments with the mark

ii. Provide rapid feedback – for feedback to be effective teachers must provide it to students as soon as possible. This can be through question and answer, tutorials or getting students to describe their work

iii. Ensure that feedback gives motivation to the students – this can be through commenting and praising the good responses and highlight responses which are done less but without condemnation.

b/ Techniques of Formative Assessment

The main types of questions that can be used in formative assessment are as follows:

i. Multiple-choice questions – can be used to measure certain learning outcomes such as vocabulary, explanation, facts and application. They also identify students learning problem and ensure test reliability. They are easy to mark but difficult to make. They cover wide area of the syllabus.

ii. True/False question – like multiple-choice questions true/false questions are easy to design and mark but they have very high guessing factor. So teachers must be plausible and test one idea at a time.

iii. Matching block questions – they are suitable for matching date with events, principles with applications and symbols with meaning, etc. in order to make marking easy provide a response box under the questions. Reduce the guessing aspect teachers should write more answers than questions.

iv. Short answer questions - it is suitable for recalling assessment. They are effective in testing wide coverage of the syllabus. They are easy to set and to mark. Students may be asked to supply a missing word or a single sentence.

v. Multiple response questions – it is similar to a multiple choice one but it differs in that it has two or more selections for every question. It reduces the ability of the students to guess.

vi. Essay or free response questions – they are often called traditional questions. They test students’ ability to structure a response in writing. They are easy to
make but difficult to mark. Student. Marking is going to be subjective and students are penalized for poor grammar, spelling and style.

vii. Structured questions – they help students to know what exactly required from them in that they are more specifically defined than an essay question. They are more reliable in marking, easier to test higher ability and can be related to more of the syllabus.

2.17.2 Norm and Criterion Referenced Assessment

Norm and criterion referenced assessment are considered as the main methods of assessing the students achievement. Reece and Walker (2003: 319-320) note that a distinction must be made between norm referenced assessment and criterion referenced assessment. In that the former focuses on the normal curve of distinction i.e. the average is between 40% and 60%, less than 40% fail and more than 60% achieve. While the latter focuses on that students must master the stated objectives or criteria of a topic or course. In other words, all students will need to learn the minimum essential objectives with the better students achieve the developmental objectives.

2.17.3 Instruments of the Test

Certain instruments and characteristics should be followed in designing a test. Reece and Walker (2003: 320-327) defined test as an instrument for measuring the students achievements. It needs to be accurate and limited to what it is testing. The following characteristics affect the quality of a test:

1/ Power of Discrimination
A test is said to have power of discrimination when it successfully and accurately discriminates between good and weaker students.

2/ Objectivity and Subjectivity of Scoring
When a test (essay for example) scored by different people independently and they award different marks(because areas of emphasis differ from teacher to teacher) since they depend on subjective judgement and personal preference this kind is known as subjective scoring. On the other hand, in an objective test if different people are asked to score a test independently they will award the same marks. An example for an
objective test is the multiple choice question which has only one correct answer, so it is objective in marking.

3/ Validity

A test is said to have validity when it measures what it is supposed to measure. There are two main types of validity:

a. Content validity – a test must assess a variety of samples of the objectives in a curriculum. It must not only test knowledge but it must also test comprehension and applications.

b. Construct validity – it is the appropriateness of the assessment method(types of questions) of testing which is relevant to the course. It is necessary to ensure that a particular type of a test is used for particular assessment. i.e. assessment of group work, assignment, oral work, etc. it needs to be borne in mind that there is no right or wrong in using a particular test. What is right for one course might be different for another. To increase the test validity teachers must ensure that the sampling is representative of both the content of the course and the abilities of the students.

4/ Reliability

A test is said to be reliable when it is consistently measures what it is supposed to measure. Also when different examiners assess (and reassess on other occasions) the same test and score the same marks. And if students get the same scores on the test when it is administered at different times. To increase the reliability of the test teachers can use a sort of a marking scheme to mark a test questions like essay for example where the overall marks is (40) it can be divided into (15) for the style(the effectiveness of using sentence structure and range of vocabulary), (10) for the accuracy(spelling, grammar and the use of tenses) and (15) for the content(how original and relevant to the title). Hence, an effective marking scheme as well as the length of the test influence its reliability. Reliability can also be influence by awarding more marks for the more demanding questions( those which take longer time or require higher ability to answer) and less marks for the easier ones. Regardless for the weighting factors it is advisable to write marks on the test questions or better still tell the students about the marks of each question.
2.17.4 Assessment of Group Work

Generally, certain objectives can only be achieved through the presentation of group tasks. This is one of the advantages of group work activities. It is always vital to remember that small groups are better than larger ones for the fact that weaker students tend to hide in large groups. Group work has some problems in assessment in that individual weaknesses are covered up by strength of others. Another thing is that group works cannot state clearly individual differences. To overcome such problems, group shared marks is to be used in which students agree to equally share the marks, or it can be according to the distribution of the tasks among them (data collection, leadership and direction, report writing, presentation).

2.18 Evaluation

There are different ways of evaluating students achievements. Richards and Schmidt (1998: 216) define evaluation as the systematic gathering of information in order to make a decision. It has two methods:

a. Quantitative method, (e.g. tests).

b. Qualitative method, (e.g. observations, rating or value judgement).

Evaluation in language planning requires gathering information on patterns of language use, language ability, and attitude towards language. While evaluation in language programme involves decisions about the quality of the programme itself, i.e. the study of the curriculum objectives, materials, test and grading system. The evaluation of the individuals requires decision about entrance to programme, placement, progress and achievement. Evaluation can be divided into two aspects:

2.18.1 Formative Evaluation

Which is carried out during the programme or curriculum in order to develop it and that is by providing information to curriculum developers. It can be used in syllabus design or developing language teaching programmes and materials.

2.18.2 Summative Evaluation

It is the process of providing information to decision makers after the programme is completed in order to decide whether the programme was effective and successful or not.

2.19 Evaluating Textbooks and Materials
Textbooks and materials should be evaluated regularly following certain features. Sheldon (1988: 7) points out that in a published paper that there are several key questions to ask when we embark evaluating textbooks and materials according to each feature:

a. Rationale
   i. Why was the book written in the first place, and what gaps is it intended to fill?
   ii. Are you given information about the Needs Analysis or classroom piloting that were undertaken?
   iii. Are the objectives spelt out?

b. Availability
   i. Is it easy to obtain sample copies and support material for inspection?
   ii. Can you contact the publisher’s representatives in case you want further information about the content, approach, or pedagogical detail of the book?

c. User definition
   i. Is there a clear specification of the target age range, culture, assumed background, probable learning preferences, and educational expectations?
   ii. Are entry/exit language levels precisely defined, e.g. by reference to international ‘standards’ such as the ELTS, ACTFL or Council of Europe scales, or by reference to local or country-specific examination requirements?
   iii. In the case of an ESP textbook, what degree of specialist knowledge is assumed (of both learners and teacher)?

d. Layout/graphics
   i. Is there an optimum density and mix of text and graphical material on each page, or is the impression one of clutter?
   ii. Are the artwork and typefaces functional? Colourful? Appealing?

e. Accessibility
   i. Is the material clearly organized?
ii. Can the student find his or her location in the material at any point, i.e. is it possible to have a clear view of the ‘progress’ made, and how much still needs to be covered?

iii. Are there indexes, vocabulary lists, section headings, and other methods of signposting the content that allow the student to use the material easily, especially for revision or self-study purposes?

iv. Is the learner (as opposed to the teacher) given clear advice about how the book and its contents could be most effectively exploited?

f. Linkage

i. Do the units and exercises connect in terms of theme, situation, topic, pattern of skill development, or grammatical/lexical ‘progression’?

ii. Is the nature of such connection made obvious, for example by placing input texts and supporting exercises in close proximity?

iii. Does the textbook cohere both internally and externally (e.g. with other books in a series)?

g. Selection/grading

i. Does the introduction, practice, and recycling of new linguistic items seem to be shallow/steep enough for your students?

ii. Is there a discernible system at work in the selection and grading of these items (e.g. on the basis of frequency counts, or on the basis of useful comparisons between the learner’s mother tongue and English)?

iii. Is the linguistic inventory presented appropriate for your purposes, bearing in mind the L1 background(s) of your learners?

h. Physical characteristics

i. Is there space to write in the book?

ii. Is the book robust? Too large? Too heavy?

iii. Is it a book that could be used more than once, especially if it is marked by previous students?

i. Appropriacy
i. Is the material substantial enough or interesting enough to hold the attention of learners?

ii. Is it pitched at the right level of maturity and language, and (particularly in the case of ESP situations), at the right conceptual level?

iii. Is it topical?

j. Authenticity

i. Is the content obviously realistic, being taken from L1 material not initially intended for ELT purposes?

ii. Do the tasks exploit language in a communicative or ‘real-world’ way?

iii. If not, are the texts unacceptably simplified or artificial (for instance, in the use of whole-sentence dialogues)?

k. Sufficiency

i. Is the book complete enough to stand on its own, or must the teacher produce a lot of ancillary bridging material to make it workable?

ii. Can you teach the course using only the student’s book, or must all the attendant aids (e.g. cassettes) be deployed?

l. Cultural bias

i. Are different and appropriate religious and social environments catered for, both in terms of the topics/situations presented and of those left out?

ii. Are students’ expectations in regard to content, methodology, and format successfully accommodated?

iii. If not, would the book be able to drive students away from their preconceived notions?

iv. Is the author’s sense of humour or philosophy obvious or appropriate?

v. Does the coursebook enshrine stereotyped, inaccurate, patronizing or offensive images of gender, race, social class, or nationality?

vi. Are accurate or ‘sanitized’ views of the USA or Britain presented; are uncomfortable social realities (e.g. unemployment, poverty, family breakdowns, racism) left out?

m. Educational validity
i. Does the textbook take account of, and seem to be in tune with, broader educational concerns (e.g. the nature and role of learning skills, concept development in younger learners, the function of ‘knowledge of the world’, the exploitation of sensitive issues, the value of metaphor as a powerful cognitive learning device)?

n. Stimulus/practice/revision
i. Is the course material interactive, and are there sufficient opportunities for the learner to use his or her English so that effective consolidation takes place?
ii. Is the material likely to be retained/remembered by learners?
iii. Is allowance made for revision, testing, and on-going evaluation/marking of exercises and activities, especially in large-group situations?
iv. Are ready-made achievement tests provided for the coursebook, or is test development left for the hard pressed teacher?

o. Flexibility
i. Can the book accommodate the practical constraints with which you must deal, or are assumptions made about such things as the availability of audio-visual equipment, pictorial material, class size, and classroom geography?
ii. Does the material make too many demands on teachers’ preparation time and students’ homework time?
iii. Can the material be exploited or modified as required by local circumstances, or is it too rigid in format, structure, and approach?
iv. Is there a full range of supplementary aids available?

p. Guidance
i. Are the teacher’s notes useful and explicit?
ii. Has there been an inordinate delay between the publication of the student’s and teacher’s books which has meant that teachers have had to fend for themselves in exploiting the material?
iii. Is there advice about how to supplement the coursebook, or to present the lessons in different ways?
iv. Is there enough/too much ‘hand-holding’?
v. Are tapescripts, answer keys, ‘technical notes’ (in the case of ESP textbooks), vocabulary lists, structural/functional inventories, and lesson summaries provided in the Teacher’s Book?

vi. Is allowance made for the perspectives, expectations, and preferences of non-native teachers of English?

q. Overall value for money
i. Quite simply, is the course book cost-effective, easy to use, and successful in your teaching situation, in terms of time, labour, and money?
ii. To what extent has it realized its stated objectives?

These features or criteria of evaluation cannot be taken for granted but they can at least set or pave the way to choose a course book that is worth teaching and learning and will be of benefit to the students, not demanding for the teachers and suitable for the cultural and political setting. Furthermore, When a course book is selected, its success or failure can only be meaningfully determined during and after its period of classroom use.

2.20 Course Evaluation

A course after it has been implemented needs to be analyzed and judged to measure its success. Reece and Walker (2003: 380-393) points out that course evaluation benefits teachers personally, their teaching, the course and the students. To achieve this effectively, teachers need to consider the aims of course evaluation. These aims might be:

a. To find the achievement of the aims and the objectives of the course.
b. To consider the balance, progress and the coherence of the course.
c. To understand the quality and effectiveness of the teaching approach.
d. To find the abilities and skills of the graduates
e. To improve and develop assessment skill in revealing students’ achievement in relation to the objectives.
f. To find whether the course is current or updated.
g. To give appreciation of the staff who teach on the course, their development and cohesion.
h. To promote and develop resources.
It is worth noting that it is not usually possible to achieve all of those aims, but
teachers need to be selective in deciding what they want to achieve in order to make a
manageable task for each evaluation. Consequently, the aims must not be too many (to
be unmanageable) or too few (not covering all of the aspects). To design considerable
and effective aims, teachers must think of evaluation in terms of four headings with
questions under them reported by Reece and Walker:

2.20.1 Context

a. Are the aims of the curriculum consistent with the needs of society and the
   individual students?
b. Does the curriculum foster purposeful cooperation and interaction with the
   world of work?
c. Are the aims broad enough to ensure further education and mobility of the
   students?
d. Are the aims updated regularly?

2.20.2 Input

a. Do the students possess the entry behavior assumed when designing the
   curriculum?
b. Do the teachers have the competences required for implementation of the
   curriculum?
c. Are the resources for teaching and learning, explicit or implicit in the
   curriculum documents, available to the teacher and to the students?

2.20.3 Process

a. Do the teachers make use of the curriculum documents and, if so, for what
   purposes?
b. Do the teachers understand the curriculum documents?
c. Is there a system of feedback from students and teachers on the problems
   faced in the achievement of the aims and objectives?
d. Are the teaching strategies (classroom, laboratory and workshop) in line with
   those proposed in the curriculum?
e. What is the extent of the use of instructional resources material?
f. Is the student assessment system valid, reliable and practicable?

2.20.4 Product

a. What are the trends in percentage of passes and drop outs?
b. Do the students get absorbed into work fields? Is there a time lag? Do they get appropriate employment?
c. What are the opinions of students and ex-students regarding the relevance of the course/subject/topic?
d. What are the staff development needs that have arisen and to what extent have they been met?
e. What are the views of employers on the curriculum?

2.21 Instruments for Course Evaluation

For the evaluation to serve the aims that were designed, it must be a continuous process with observation, measurement and with report of implementation. Teachers can obtain information through:

2.21.1 Questionnaire

It can include both open questions (which require a written response) and close questions (require a tick and easier to answer and analyze). The questionnaire should be easy to answer, its questions are related to the aims, the questions are clear and separate from each other and it should not take long time to answer (maximum 5 minutes).

2.21.2 Checklist

It ensures that teachers have covered the necessary aspects in the evaluation and can be used as basis for a questionnaire. It must contain clear terms to make the respondents express views rather than just answering an open ended question.

2.21.3 Student Assessment

The students’ results in the examinations can be a source of information that helps in deciding how well the course is going. If most of the students fail /pass the examination, this is useful information about the assessment of the part of the course that is assessed (if during) or the assessment of the whole course (if at the end).
2.21.4 Structured Interview

It is a sort of a one-to-one interview with the target people. It helps to cover items in depth that is by asking subsequent questions. It also ensures that all of the questions are clearly understood and answered. The questions should be structured from the general to the specific.

Once data is collected either qualitatively(related to opinion) or quantitatively(related to number) using computer to analyze it is the best way of reaching a precise yet accurate results. These results or conclusions of an evaluation need to be prepared and clearly conveyed in a sort of a report. This report generally contains four main divisions:

a. Introduction – it includes reasons for the evaluation, the aims to be achieved, key question to be answered and any limitations.

b. Methodology – it contains sources of data, data instruments and the procedures used for the analysis of data.

c. Presentation and analysis of data – it comprises the presentation of the findings using tables, figures and explanation.

d. Conclusion and recommendations – it talks about the summary of the report and the recommendations. There are two types of conclusion:

   i. Predetermined decision situation which is based on synthesis of information about a particular decision(political or social).

   ii. Exploratory conclusion which explores the general feelings about the adequacy of a course(whether it meets the needs or not).

Recommendations must be based on the conclusion. It is advisable that the recommendation must be placed on important areas: instructional methods and course management. It should also be concise and ranked in the order of importance.

2.22 Course Design

Richards and Schmidt (1998: 141) indicate that it is also called language programme design, curriculum design and programme design in language teaching. It is the development of a language programme or set of teaching material. Course design and syllabus design are not the same in that syllabus design refers to the procedures to decide what will be taught in a language programme (content), while course design involves how a syllabus will be carried out. For example:
What teaching method and materials will be needed to achieve the Objectives.

a. How much time will be required?

b. How classroom activities will be sequenced and organized?

c. What sort of placement tests, achievement tests and other sorts of tests will be used?

d. How the programme will be evaluated?

It worth noting that course design is part of the process of curriculum development.

2.22.1 The Importance of Culture in Course Design

It is worth mentioning that culture plays an essential role in the process of learning a foreign language. Hence the courses designed for foreign language learners should plausibly contain some culture of the target language and the native speakers. Hudson (1996: 78) points out that culture may be defined as the kind of knowledge which a person learns from other people, either by direct instruction or by watching their behavior. Since culture is learned from those around us, it may be assumed that it is shared with them, so this kind of knowledge is likely to play a major role when communication happens, and in particular, when language is used.

2.22.2 Living Language Courses

A course when designed should include different categories. Rivers (1976: 161) suggests that in order to achieve a continuous series of imaginatively conceived classes where living language is taught as a whole, we need semantic structure, syntax, diction and communicative competence. These should be linked to context of purposeful activities and cultural subjects and serves as an opportunity for students to familiarize themselves with widen areas of interest. So, teachers need to have a thorough command of the language they are teaching and a wide knowledge of their professional field. They need to keep in touch with finding in the area of language teaching and learning. They should know how to design courses for specific purposes of their students and how to select the techniques and materials that will enable their students to achieve these purposes in the most efficient and interesting way. They should not be tied to one approach or to one particular set of techniques, but be able to adapt and to innovate.
2.23 Previous studies

Jil (2009) reveals in a PhD research entitled "Qualities of a Competent English Language Teacher" that competent EFL teacher should model good settings that reflect knowledge, motivation and interest of individual students. He states that a competent language teacher should consider, assess the nature of language skills and recognize the linguistic and ethnic diversity of students. He also points out that competent language teacher should know how to select the most various appropriate materials. Moreover, he concluded that a competent English language teacher should be given a special refreshment training so that to arrive at competence to import knowledge of English language. In addition to that, a competent language teacher should use effective and interesting delivery techniques appropriate to teaching and learning situation.

Mohamed (2006) in an MA research entitled "The contribution of Teaching Techniques Towards the Development of the Students' English Language Competence" concluded that there should be intensive instructions for English language teachers to be aware of both the students' attitudes and motivation towards English. He also points that teachers at Faculties of Educations, during the training, should be directed to adopt the optimal ways of correction. He finally stresses that education administration at schools should exert an all-out effort to activate the classroom atmosphere taking into account the number of the students and the layout in every class.

Adlan (2005) carried out a study "The syllabus Inadequacies for Developing EFL Learners' Oral Communicative Competence" a case study at the University of Gezira. The study aims at investigating Why and how the syllabus offered to EFL learners is inadequate for developing their competence in oral communication. It also aims at finding out ways to develop EFL learners' oral communicative competence. She found that most EFL learners find difficulty in receiving spoken language due to the negligence of the listening skill in the syllabus. There is also a relation between the syllabus offered to EFL learners and the difficulties facing them in oral communication. Exposing learners to meaningful interaction in realistic communicative situations is necessary to enable them to communicate orally. Lack of native language speakers can be compensated for by exposing learners to a wide range of recorded materials of native models. Finally, especially designed models for
oral production are not enough on their own to prepare EFL learners to communicate orally.

Bossier (2003) a lecturer at Sapporo Gakuin University conducted a study on "The power of perception: a look at professionalism in private language schools in Japan". In which he concluded that the term professionalism first has to be qualified by the school administration to include things such as pedagogy, cooperation, fulfilling students' needs etc. before hiring teachers. He also points out that teachers must demonstrate commitment quality teaching besides continuous upgrading of their levels.

Alsalahi (2015) carried out a paper on "Stages of teacher's professionalism: How Are English Language Teachers Engaged? in Saudi Arabia". The study aims at discussing the changing of building and developing teacher's professionalism in Saudi Arabia. The study also investigates Saudi teachers' professionalism issues that disempowering them from being acceptable in the profession. The study concluded that top down policy decisions regarding their professionalism from supervisors and head teachers practices impacted negatively on their professionalism. Moreover, the culture of teachers' education in the Ministry also has a negative effect on Saudi teachers' professionalism.

Hudson (2013) conducted in a PhD thesis on "Tiptoeing Through the minefield: Teaching English in Higher Educational Institutes in the United Arab Emirates". The study aims at knowing how foreign ELT professionals working in higher Educational Institutes perceive the social aspects of the working environment. Besides, investigating how they attempt to negotiate the complexities and potential areas of conflict they encounter. The study reveals that there is a complex, diverse and often conflicting picture of the way the respondents perceive the context in which they are working. There is also a dominant discourse of fear related to issues of power, religion, gender and money which requires censorial teaching approach. The study also reveals that in a context where "Gulf Arab" students interact with "western native-speaker" teachers, the preconception may bear resemblance and imitation of attitudes, actions and even beliefs from the students part. This entails the training of foreign English teachers to the contextual consideration of the Gulf area.

It is clear that, all researchers' ideas in the aforementioned studies either correspond to one component of professionalism such as teachers'/students' competence or underestimating local teachers' professionalism in addition to the relation between
professionalism and the local context. This study is significantly different from the others studies in that it concentrates on the main essential components of professionalism that can be considered as an umbrella to what it means to be a professional.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.18 Introduction
As mentioned in chapter one, this study is mainly concerned with investigating the essentiality of competence, performance and conduct in attaining professionalism in English language teaching. Consequently, this chapter will provide an account of the methodology and procedures carried out to attain information. This information will either prove or reject the hypothesis.

3.1 The Sample
The sample of this study was fifty (50) students chosen randomly to avoid bias from University of Gezira, Faculty of Education-Hantoub, Department of English Language. These students are at their final year semester eight (8) and are going to be teachers soon (within 6 months). They are mainly chosen because they plausibly have considerable knowledge of English, hence, their responses to the questionnaire answers are more reliable than of those students from lower semesters.

The second part of the sample is ten (10) teachers from the Faculty of Education-Hantoub. The teachers were chosen because they have much experience ranging between 5 to 20 years in teaching English language at the Faculty of Education. This experience definitely enables them to state precisely what the students need to upgrade their professional level.

3.2 Tools of Data Collection
Three tools are used to collect data for this study. These tools include a questionnaire for the teachers, a questionnaire for the students and observation of students at different level at Faculties of Education in the Gezira State.

3.2.1 The Questionnaire
As it is generally believed the questionnaire is one of the most reliable tools of data collection. So, the researcher used it in order to reach reliable and valid data. Such data will be used to verify the hypotheses and consequently achieve the objective of the study.
3.2.1.1 Contents of the Teachers’ Questionnaire

The teachers’ questionnaire comprises ten (10) questions, all of them work in favour of the problems of this study. It was designed purposively to get from the teachers as much beneficial information as it can. Questions one (1) and two (2) aimed at finding out whether the linguistic proficiency in itself is enough to achieve professionalism. Question three (3) was mainly designed to find out whether competence, performance and conduct are the main axes of professionalism according to the teachers' experience. Questions four (4) and five (5) were intended to find out whether an English series is needed to enhance classroom activities for both teachers and learners. Question six (6) and eight (8) were to find out the relationship between professionalism and proficiency. While question seven (7) was intended to find out whether teachers consider conduct as a facilitating tool for students' learning. Question nine (9) attempted at finding out whether teachers believe in the benefit of extensive use of English language in the class. And finally questions ten (10) was designed to find out whether the 45-day microteaching for the students is enough.

3.2.1.2 Contents of the Students’ Questionnaire

The students’ questionnaire contains ten (10) questions. These questions were designed to extract information from the students in order to find out their view of the learning and teaching processes. This view will absolutely affect on their future career which is teaching. Question one (1) was designed to find out whether the courses at the department give students confidence to teach at schools. Questions two (2) and three (3) aimed at finding out whether a competent teacher with good performance in class affect positively the students’ learning. Questions four (4) and five (5) attempted to find out whether a teacher who misses one of the three components of professionalism, affects students learning negatively. Questions six (6) and ten (10) were set forward to find out whether effective practices (pair work, group work….etc) in the class are enough or an acknowledged English series is needed. Questions seven (7) and eight (8) aimed at finding out whether teachers use English extensively in the class as a means of instruction and whether students prefer that or not. Question nine (9) was designed to find out whether the 45-day microteaching is enough for students to at least implement the theoretical part they have studied.
3.2.1.3 Validity of the Questionnaire

After the questionnaires have been designed in relation to the hypotheses and the objectives, they have been distributed among teachers at the Faculty of Education-Hantoub. It is worth noting that, a photocopy of the hypotheses and the objectives of the study has also been given to the teachers alongside with the questionnaires. This is because the teachers may use them in their judgment and suggestions. The questionnaires have been collected from the teachers and what they suggested was considerably taken into account and implemented in the questionnaires.

3.2.1.4 Reliability of the Questionnaires

In order to find the questionnaire reliability the spilt-half method is followed in which the questionnaire is divided into two equal halves and considered as separate units (odd numbers and even numbers). Then a coefficient is made for the two separate units using:

\[ r = \frac{6 \sum d^2}{n (n^2 - 1)} \]

Then Spearman formula is used to make coefficient of reliability for the whole questionnaire following:

\[
\begin{align*}
-1 & = 1 \\
& \quad r = 2 \times \text{coefficient reliability for the first half} \\
& + \text{coefficient reliability for the second half}
\end{align*}
\]

The result obtained is (,46) which means the questionnaire is reliable.

3.3 Observation

It is generally believed that observation is the best way of collecting primary data. Observation is divided into two types: participant observation where the observer is actively participating in different educational sessions while in the non-participant one, which the researcher followed. The observer remains passive, watching, listening and drawing conclusions from the teachers' performances and techniques.
The researcher has nearly thirteen years of teaching experience wandering from teaching at schools, in English Institutes and university. Relying on this considerable experience and depending on the long encounter with novice teachers who graduated from different Faculties of Education in the Gezira State, the researcher has noticed that most of the novice teachers of English language lack considerable amount of the teaching requirements. Hence, an observation checklist is designed to support this assumption.

3.4 The Statistical Procedures

The data which was collected through the students and teachers’ questionnaires was fed into the computer and analyzed by the statistical programme (SPSS) which is short for Statistical Packages for Social Sciences. Then the data was organized in tables and figures.

To sum up, this chapter states an account of the methodology of the study. In the following chapter, the results of data analysis will be displayed and discussed in relation to the hypotheses of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is assigned to the presentation, analysis and discussion of the data i.e. the data collected from the empirical phase (teachers and students’ questionnaires and observation). Each question in the questionnaire was analyzed, arranged and displayed by means of tabulation and a bar chart. The table in itself can do the job of presenting data clearly, but the bar chart was chosen because a quick look at it gives the reader full yet general background about the displayed information. The questionnaire was chosen to be a tool of data collection, because it makes the respondents feel at ease, takes short time to answer and provides anonymity. The teachers’ questionnaire will be tackled first followed by the students’ one. At the end of this chapter, a discussion and verification of the hypotheses mentioned in chapter one will be carried out in order to conclude whether each hypothesis is accepted or rejected.

4.1 Results of the Teachers’ Questionnaire

The results of the analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire are summarized in a form of a table followed by a graph and a comment under it:
Table 4.1.1

The theoretical knowledge of the courses taught at the English Department is enough for attaining professionalism in ELT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.1

It is clear from table (4.1.1) and figure (4.1.1) the respondents choices are between the option “Yes” and the option “No”. Most of them (70%) chose the option “No”, while just nearly one third of the respondents goes to the option “Yes”. This may infer that the courses in themselves are not very reliable for attaining professionalism in ELT.
Table 4.1.2

The linguistic proficiency in itself is enough for a teacher to be professional.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.2

A look at table (4.1.2) and figure (4.1.2) shows that exactly (90%) of the respondents are between the options “To some extent” and “No”. This means they are not in favour of the adequacy of linguistic proficiency in attaining professionalism in ELT. Only (10%) for the option “Yes” and this entails other factors which must be aligned with linguistic proficiency to strengthen teaching strategies.
Table 4.1.3
Competence, performance and conduct are essential to gain professionalism.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.3
It is noticed from table (4.1.3) and figure (4.1.3) that nearly all of the sample (90%) think that competence, performance and conduct are essential to gain professionalism in ELT. While only (10%) of the respondents have a negative view of the idea stated in the question. This definitely indicates that competence, performance and conduct are the main axes in attaining professionalism.
Table 4.1.4
The students need an acknowledged English series to be introduced from the first semester to the final one, to attain a considerable level of proficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.4
According to table (4.1.4) and figure (4.1.4) most of the respondents (70%) assume that the students need an acknowledged English series this is clear from the high percentage of the option “Yes”, while (20%) of them chose the option “To some extent”. And only (1%) of them chose the option “No”. One may acknowledge the necessity of introducing English series at the Department of English Language to upgrade the students’ level.
Table 4.1.5

Effective practices (group work, pair work, etc.) in the classroom enhance and upgrade students’ level of proficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.5

With reference to table (4.1.5) and figure (4.1.5) it can clearly be seen that (80%) of the sample chose the option “Yes” which denotes that effective practices in the class are vital in upgrading students’ level. While (20%) of the sample chose the option “To some extend” which might be considered a positive reaction to the question. And nothing is given to the negative option “No”
Table 4.1.6
In order to attain professionalism in ELT, teachers have to command proficiency first.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.6
It is apparent from table (4.1.6) and figure (4.1.6) that all of the respondents have a positive view about the need of commanding proficiency on the first place to attain professionalism. This is clear in the great percentage (100%) given to the options “Yes” and the option “To some extent” and nothing is given to the option “No”.

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Table 4.1.7
Teacher’s good conduct in the classroom affects the students’ learning positively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.7
The majority of the sample (80%) believe that the teachers’ conduct in the class highly affects the students’ learning positively. While (20%) of the respondents chose the option “To some extent” which is also considered a plus in favour of the question.
Table 4.1.8
Attaining proficiency leads to effective teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is observed that a great percentage of the respondents (80%) is given to the positive option “Yes” in that attaining proficiency will assist the teaching processes. Hence, it is, in return, considered as a basic step in attaining professionalism in the long run. Whereas the rest (20%) is given to the option “To some extent” and none of the respondents chose the option “No”
**Table 4.1.9**

In a non-native English lecture room, extensive use of English will give the learners better exposure to the language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.1.9**

Since it is nearly the only English environment that encounters the students, it is clear that almost all of the respondents (90%) chose the option “Yes” and only (10%) of them chose the option (“To some extent” and the option “No” got nothing of the percentage. This denotes that extensive use of English in the class is necessary.
**Table 4.1.10**

The extension of the teaching practice to a full year is more effective in preparing students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.1.10**

Table (4.1.10) and figure (4.1.10) show that (20%) of the respondents believe that the 45-day microteaching is not enough to prepare the students to be teachers. While (40%) of the percentage is given to the neutral option “To some extent” and (40%) is given to the negative option “No”. When the percentage of the two options (Yes) and “To some extend” is added we get (60%). This percentage can be considered as a positive view of the question.
4.2 The results of the students’ questionnaire

**Table 4.2.1**

The courses at the faculty in themselves help you get confidence to teach effectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.2.1**

It can be seen from table (4.2.1) and figure (4.2.1) that (56%) of the sample chose the option “Yes” in that the courses help them in their future career. Whereas (32%) of the respondents chose the option “To some extent” and only (12%) percent is given to the option “No”. one may infer from this that the courses are helpful in preparing the students. But the percentage that is given to the options “To some extend” and “No” must be put in mind.

**Table 4.2.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A highly competent teacher positively affect your learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extend</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.2.2**

It can be noticed from table (4.2.2) and figure (4.2.2) that most of the respondents believe that a highly competent teacher affects their learning positively. This is clear because (58%) goes to the option (Yes) and (26%) goes to the option “To some extend”. And only (16%) of the sample goes to the option “No”. the result drawn from this is that competent teachers are needed to make their students competent.
Table 4.2.3
The teachers’ excellent performance in class enhance your learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A glance at table (4.2.3) and figure (4.2.3) show that a high proportion of the respondents, (74%) to the option “Yes” and (20%) to the option “To some extent”, do not deny the proposition that teacher performance is essential in teaching. While only (6%) of them chose the option “No”.
**Table 4.2.4**

The benefit from a teacher who is competent but has bad performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.2.4**

More than half of the sample (54%) who chose the option “No” believe that they benefit less from a teacher who is competent with bad performance. And (30%) of the respondents chose the option (To some extent). While only (16%) of the respondents has a positive view of the question. One may conclude that competence alone is not enough in the teaching and learning process.
Table 4.2.5
The negative effect of a teacher who is competent with a good performance but has bad conduct in class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.5
It can be drawn from table (4.2.5) and figure (4.2.5) that only (20%) of the sample are negatively affected by a teacher who is competent and with good performance but has bad conduct. While (32%) goes to the option “To some extent” and a high percentage is given to the negative option “No” in which the respondents benefit from such teacher naturally. One can infer that competence and performance are more important than conduct.
Table 4.2.6
The students’ satisfaction with the teaching and learning practices in the classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.6
Nearly two thirds of the respondents (62%) have a positive view about this assumption. Whereas (28%) of them chose the option “To some extent” and only (10%) is given to the negative option “No”. Hence, students are satisfied with teaching and learning practices in the class, but the percentage given to the two options “To some extend” and “No” must be considered.
Table 4.2.7
The teachers’ use of English language extensively in the lecture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.7
It can be seen from table (4.2.7) and figure (4.2.7) that (56%) of the percentage is given to the option “Yes” in that teachers use English language extensively in the class as a means of instruction. And (24%) of the respondents chose the option “To some extent” and a small number of them chose the option “No”. Relying on the percentage given to the last two options one may suggest that teachers need to increase the use of English in the classroom.
Table 4.2.8
The preference of extensive use of English language inside the classroom to being bilingual as a medium of instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.8
It is apparent from table (4.2.8) and figure (4.2.8) that more than a half of the respondents (52%) prefer the extensive use of English in the classroom. (36%) of the percentage is given to the option “To some extent” and only (10%) of the respondents chose the option “No”. one may deduce that extensive use of English in the class is widely accepted among students.
Table 4.2.9
The 45-day teaching practice is enough to implement the theoretical part you have studied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.9) and figure (4.2.9) show that (44%) of the sample believe that the 45-day microteaching is enough for them to implement the theoretical practices. While (42%) of them chose the option “To some extent” and only (14%) is given to the option “No”. The researcher believes that those respondents who chose the option “Yes” may not want additional supervision or teaching burden. But the duration of the microteaching should be reconsidered.
**Table 4.2.10**

The effective practices (pair and group work etc) related to the native social and cultural setting can upgrade the level of proficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.2.10**

With reference to table (4.2.10) and figure (4.2.10) it is clear that more than a half of the respondents (54%) believe that effective practices related to the native social and cultural background is needed. This can only be attained through the introduction of acknowledged English series. While (34%) of the percentage goes to the option “To some extent” and only (12%) is given to the option “No”.

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2.22 Discussion of results in relation to the hypotheses of the study:

4.3.1 The first hypothesis of the study is (Linguistic proficiency is not sufficient and effective in itself to produce proficient teachers) this hypothesis is proved by the analysis of question one (Do you think that theoretical knowledge of the courses taught at the depart the English Department is enough for attaining professionalism in ELT ?) and question two (Do you think that linguistic proficiency in itself enough for a teacher to be professional ?) in the teachers’ questionnaire. In question one, most of the respondents (70%) believe that the course taught at the Department of English in themselves are not very reliable to attain professionalism. While in question two most of the sample (90%) agreed that linguistic proficiency is also not enough for attaining professionalism in ELT. The result of the analysis of question one (Do the courses at the faculty in themselves help you get confidence to teach effectively ?) in the students’ questionnaire must also be put into consideration although it seems to fall a little short, because the percentage given to the option that served to prove the hypothesis is less.

4.3.2 The second hypothesis is (Good implementation of competence, performance and conduct has great role in attaining professionalism) relying on the results of the analysis of question three (Are competence, performance and conduct essential to gain professionalism ?) and question seven (Do you think teacher’s good conduct in the classroom affects the students’ learning positively ?) in the teachers’ questionnaire this hypothesis is proved. In question “three” and “seven” it can be clearly and strongly stated that nearly all of the respondents (90%) in question “three” and (80%) in question “seven” support the assumption that in order to attain professionalism it is necessary to have the main three axes of professionalism (competence, performance and conduct). Another thing that works in favour of this hypothesis is the analysis of questions two (Does a highly competent teacher positively affect your learning ?), three (Does the teachers’ excellent performance in class enhance your learning ?), four (Do you benefit from a teacher who is competent but has bad performance ?) and five (Are you negatively affected by a teacher who is competent with a good performance but has bad conduct in class?) in the students’ questionnaire. In that more than a half of the sample (50%) in question “two” , (74%) in question “three”, (54%) in question “four” and (48%) in question “five” do not
deny the fact that a competent teacher with a good performance and good conduct enhances the students’ learning. It can be concluded that all of the three axes of professionalism are equally important for a teacher to be professional.

4.3.3 The third hypothesis is (The introduction of an acknowledged English series will help students attain appropriate level of proficiency) a look at the analysis of question four table (4.1.4) and figure (4.1.4) (Do students need acknowledged English series, to be introduced from the first semester to the final one, to attain a considerable level of proficiency ?) in the teachers’ questionnaire show that the majority of the responses (70%) are given to the option “Yes” which serves to prove the hypothesis and only a third of the percentage is given to the options “To some extent” and “No”. this indicates a positive view of the assumption. In addition to that, question ten (Do you think effective practices related to the native social and cultural setting can upgrade your level of proficiency ?) in the students’ questionnaire verifies that more than a half of the sample (54%) acknowledged the necessity of an English series during the semester.

4.3.4 The fourth hypothesis is (The extension of the microteaching period at school to a full school year prepares students better than a 45-day one) considering the data obtained from question ten (Is the extension of the 45-day micro-teaching to a full –year preparation more effective in preparing students ?) in the teachers’ questionnaire (20%) of the respondents believe that the extension of the 45-day microteaching is needed and (40%) is given to the option “To some extent” which can be considered as a positive view of the assumption. But one can consider the (40%) which is given to the negative view of the hypothesis. Question nine (Do you think the 45-day micro-teaching enough to implement the theoretical practices you have studied ?) in the students’ questionnaire should also be considered, in that less than a half of the sample (44%) believe that the 45-day microteaching is enough to implement the theoretical practices, while (42%) is given to the option “To some extent” and (14%) is given to the option “No”. accordingly, one can conclude that this assumption seems to fall behind the verification of the hypothesis. But relying on the observation tool, the researcher has encountered a lot of graduates who really lack considerable teaching requirements. Consequently, the researcher strongly suggest
implementation of an induction year for the newly qualified teachers (see chapter two).

4.3.5 The fifth hypothesis is (Considerable, effective practices, pair work, group work, cooperative learning, project based teaching, engage the participants in a variety of social settings that will add to their proficiency level), according to question five table (4.1.5) and figure (4.1.5), (Do effective practices (group work, pair work, etc.) in the classroom enhance and upgrade students’ level of proficiency?) in the teachers’ questionnaire, a large percentage (80%) is given to the option “Yes” (20%) to the option “To some extent” and nothing is given to the option “No”. this can be considered a positive view of the hypothesis. The answers in question six (Are you satisfied with the teaching and learning practices in the classroom?) in the students questionnaire need to be considered. Where nearly two third of the sample (62%) are satisfied with the teaching and learning practices in the class. But the percentage given to the other two options (20%) to “to some extent” and (10%) to the option “No” must also be put into consideration.

4.3.6 The sixth hypothesis is (Attaining proficiency will finally lead to attaining professionalism), in questions six in the teachers’ questionnaire (Do you think in order to attain professionalism in ELT, teachers have to command proficiency at the first level?) (100%) is distributed between the option “Yes” (40%) and the option “To some extent” (60%) and nothing is given to the option “No”. this means proficiency needs to be acquired on the first place. and in question eight in the teachers’ questionnaire (Does attaining proficiency lead in a way or another to effective teaching?) most of the respondents (80%) believe that attaining proficiency assists in attaining professionalism. While only (20%) is given to the option “To some extent” and nothing is given to the negative option “No”. On the other hand, the analysis of question one (Do the courses at the faculty in themselves help you get confidence to teach effectively?) in the students’ questionnaire might also be used to serve this hypothesis because of the percentage given to the option “No” (12%) and (32%) to the option “To some extent”.

4.3.7 The seventh and the final hypothesis is (The extensive use of English language inside the lecture room as a medium of instructions, gives students a
considerable exposure to the language), in question nine table (4.1.9) and figure (4.1.9) (In a non-native English lecture room, do you think extensive use of English will give the learners better exposure to the language?) in the teachers’ questionnaire, nearly all of the respondents (90%) chose the option “Yes” where they believe that extensive use of English language in the class provides the students great exposure to the language. And only (10%) is given to the option “To some extent” and nothing is given to the option “No”. Question seven (Do teachers use English language extensively in the lecture?) and eight (Do you prefer extensive use of English language inside the classroom than being bilingual as a medium of instruction?) in the students’ questionnaire are also set forward to test this hypothesis. In question “seven” more than a half of the sample (56%) state that teachers use English extensively in the classroom. (24%) is given to the option “To some extent” and (20%) is given to the option “No”. In question “eight” most of the percentage (90%) is given to the two options “Yes” and “To some extent”. And only(10%) is given to the option “No”. Since the teachers believe that extensive use of English in the class gives students more exposure to the language, and the students prefer that extensive use, hence the hypothesis is proved.

4.4 The Observation Checklist

As it is mentioned in chapter three the researcher used a non-participant observation checklist to check the overall performance of ten (10) student teachers in carrying out a lesson. The checklist revolves round the main axes of this research which are competence, performance and conduct. To detect each axis a set of statements are put forward and include the main components of each axis. The first axis is competence which the researcher tackled in six (6) items (see appendix). When calculating data manually, it exhibits that more than two third of the sample observed (70%) lack knowledge of grammar, range of vocabulary and accuracy throughout the lesson. The students also manifest weak fluency through incorrect pronunciation. On the other hand, nearly all of the sample (90%) shows that they have good ability to plan a lesson. Regarding the cultural knowledge of the student teacher, it is clear that nearly all of the sample (90%) just stick to the culture of the student book without any further enlightenment.

Concerning the second axis of the checklist which is performance, the researcher covered it in ten (10) points (see appendix). Nearly all of the sample (90%) have
shown that they have difficulty in using appropriate classroom language, giving correct feedback, following the lesson plan and using clear instructions in a motivating way. Moreover, (70%) of the sample have shown weak classroom management and lack of voice clarity. In addition to that, most of the sample exhibit their ability to give clear instructions for what is required from the students concerning homework. But using group and pair work and variation of teaching aids fell behind nearly all of the sample (90%).

As for the final axis of the checklist which is conduct, it has been tackled in five (5) points (see appendix). It is observed that more than half of the sample (60%) do not consider individual differences and fairness in dealing with the students. This is clear in their focusing on the smart students in presentation and in practice as well. Nearly all of the sample (90%) have exhibited that, in their responses to students’ errors, they lack patience and understanding. This is reflected in ignoring serious errors and neglecting giving professional advice to the students to utilize later in their study. On the other hand, (60%) of the sample have manifested respectful manner towards the students.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Summary

The current study is an investigation of the essentiality of competence, performance and conduct in attaining professionalism in ELT. The study is intended to achieve a number of adjectives one of which is to prove that linguistic proficiency in itself is not enough to gain professionalism in ELT. Another objective is to emphasize the need for remedial strategies to improve student teachers’ proficiency level. It is also intended to make clear that competence, performance and conduct are key factors in attaining professionalism in ELT. Proposing an acknowledged English series at Faculties of Education is also one of the objectives. The study follows the descriptive analytic method. The population of the study consists of all EFL teachers and learners in Sudan. The sample of the study comprises fifty (50) students and ten (10) teachers selected from the Faculty of Education-Hantoub. This research contains five chapters. In chapter one, which is considered as the introduction of the study, the researcher tackled the main features of the research such as the statement of the problem, the objectives, the hypotheses, etc. Chapter two is confined to the literature review which includes the theoretical part of the study. The researcher collected information from references paraphrased and organized it in relation to its importance in the study. This is followed by the previous studies done by other researchers in the area of this research. Chapter two is followed by chapter three, where the researcher followed the descriptive analytical approach to carry this study. The data collected by means of observation and a questionnaire for teachers and students at University of Gezira, Faculty of Education-Hantoub, English Language Department. It was analyzed and tabulated by the statistical programme (SPSS). Chapter four includes two parts: part one is assigned to the tabulation and the results of the teachers and students’ questionnaires. While part two is confined to the discussion of the results in relation to the seven hypotheses of the study. In the final chapter, chapter five, the researcher stated the seven results which are driven from the analysis of the teachers and students’ questionnaires. Based on the these results the researcher posited seven recommendations. This is followed by the suggestions of further studies to complement this study and a final synopsis of the whole research.
5.1 Findings

a. The researcher has proved that linguistic proficiency, which is gained only from the courses taught at the English department, is not enough in itself to attain professionalism in ELT.

b. Good implementation of competence, performance and conduct has great role in attaining professionalism in ELT.

c. The introduction of an acknowledged English series is also needed to develop the students’ level.

d. The extension of the microteaching from 45 days to one year is not highly preferable by teachers, although it is academically acknowledged for increasing student teachers' exposure to teaching.

e. Considerable effective practices (pair work, group work, cooperative learning and teaching) develop the students’ level of proficiency.

f. In order to attain professionalism in ELT, it is highly necessary to command proficiency on the first place.

g. The extensive use of English language inside the class gives students considerable exposure to the language and will add to their proficiency level.

5.2 Recommendations

a. It is strongly recommended that teachers have to inform the students not to depend totally on the courses taught at the department of English language, although they are beneficial, in attaining professionalism in ELT.

b. It is advisable that the teachers at the department should make good implementation of competence, performance and conduct in the class in order to be perceived as a model for their students. This will encourage them to copy and consider the importance of these three axes of professionalism.
c. It is also advised that the teachers at the department of English should get together to select appropriate English series to be taught from semester one to semester eight.

d. The idea of extending the 45-day microteaching to one year (induction year) at schools is highly recommended, although it is not highly proved. In that students will experience different teaching and learning activities assisted by the Faculty of Education, the teachers at the schools and the Ministry of Education (see Chapter Two). The researcher believes that the suggestion of an induction year is not highly proved by teacher because they may not be well acquainted with the procedures carried during this induction year.

e. It is recommended that teachers should implement and encourage effective practices in the classroom. This can best be done through pair work, group work cooperative learning and teaching and any other effective practices.

f. Teachers should encourage students to attain proficiency and inform them that it leads in the long run to attain professionalism.

g. The extensive use of English language from both teachers and students inside the classroom is highly recommended. In that it creates an English environment. Consequently, teachers are required to encourage students to use as much English as they can in the classroom and even outside it.

h. In the long run after introducing acknowledged English series from semester one to semester eight, the researcher suggests that a proficiency test is to be carried out for the students to prove whether it works for the purpose of proficiency or not.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies
As it is stated in chapter one, this study was intended to ascertain the essentiality of the three axes competence, performance and conduct in attaining professionalism. The researcher suggests that further studies on whether experience in itself capable of providing professionalism ELT. It is also suggested that a practical programme about
the induction year for the newly qualified teachers should be carried out to prove whether it is a remarkable idea.


Dear teachers, this questionnaire is designed to assert the essentiality of competence, performance and conduct in attaining professionalism in ELT. So you are kindly requested to put a tick where appropriate relying on your past experience in English language teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The questions</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>To some extend</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/ Do you think that theoretical knowledge of the courses taught at the English Department is enough for attaining professionalism in ELT ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2/ Do you think that linguistic proficiency in itself enough for a teacher to be professional ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3/ Are competence, performance and conduct essential to gain professionalism ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>4/ Do students need acknowledged English series, to be introduced from the first semester to the final one, to attain a considerable level of proficiency ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>5/ Do effective practices (group work, pair work, etc.) in the classroom enhance and upgrade students’ level of proficiency ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>6/ Do you think in order to attain professionalism in ELT, teachers have to command proficiency at the first level ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>7/ Do you think teacher’s good conduct in the classroom affects the students’ learning positively ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>8/ Does attaining proficiency lead in a way or another to effective teaching ?</td>
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<tr>
<td>9/ In a non-native English lecture room, do you</td>
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<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Answer</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>think extensive use of English will give the learners better exposure to the language?</td>
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<tr>
<td>10/ Is the extension of the 45-day micro-teaching to a full –year preparation more effective in preparing students?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Students’ Questionnaire

Dear students this questionnaire is intended to ascertain the essentiality of competence, performance and conduct in attaining professionalism in ELT. Please put a tick where appropriate and make sure that any information you give will be highly confidential.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The questions</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>To some extend</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/ Do the courses at the faculty in themselves help you get confidence to teach effectively?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2/ Does a highly competent teacher positively affect your learning?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3/ Does the teachers’ excellent performance in class enhance your learning?</td>
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<td>4/ Do you benefit from a teacher who is competent but has bad performance?</td>
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<tr>
<td>5/ Are you negatively affected by a teacher who is competent with a good performance but has bad conduct in class?</td>
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<tr>
<td>6/ Are you satisfied with the teaching and learning practices in the classroom?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/ Do teachers use English language extensively in the lecture?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8/ Do you prefer extensive use of English language inside the classroom than being bilingual as a medium of instruction?</td>
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<tr>
<td>9/ Do you think 45-day micro-teaching enough to implement the theoretical practices you have studied?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
10/ Do you think that introducing effective practices related to the native social and cultural setting (English language series) can upgrade your level of proficiency?