CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter covers the history of English language teaching that will reflect the perceptions of the time, the evolvement of English as a second language and an overview on second language teacher education. It also includes the approaches to training and education in language teaching, their similarities and differences citing its proponents. Special focus is given to training, developing and assessing speaking.

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The teaching of English and the teacher training programmes have changed in approach with time. Teacher training reflects the kind of teaching and learning expected from teachers. The teaching of English has kept evolving with time and some possible reasons of it are- due to better and improved ways of teaching (research), changes within the practice and also the purpose and need to learn English.

3.1.1. BRIEF HISTORY

Language teaching first started with vernaculars replacing French. In the late 1500s, the absence of analysis in the English language and its description made teachers teach through translation. The language teaching era started with the ancient Greeks in the 17th Century. In the 17th, 18th and 19th Century language teaching was associated with the learning of Latin and Greek. When the system of schools began to be established, reading, writing and learning the spelling in the mother tongue, became part of the teaching learning approach. All kinds of French and Latin scripts were translated to English. The first grammar book of English, the “Catechism method of language teaching”, dates back to 1396. This book was a guide for native speaker teachers who taught English as a foreign language. The book reflected the catechism method, which lay principles of religious text for learning by means of repetition or rote. In the 20th century, a significant lack in the two year training for teachers was observed which fell short of extensive course work and teaching. The grammar-translation method (GTM) which was the dominant language teaching method in Europe from the mid 1840s to 1940s, reflected the purpose of that time, i.e., to gain
scholarly intellectuality. This method of language learning focused on grammar rules, sentence structures, rote memorization of vocabulary and translation of scholarly texts. Reforms in the 19th century made by Frenchmen, C. Marcel and F. Gouin, and an Englishman, T. Pendergast questioned the issue of language learning and the grammar-translation method. Pendergast proposed the first structural syllabus and suggested to arrange grammar so that the easy structures were learned first. Gouin’s study was on how children associated language with actions and in context. Though observing differently, a collective view of their work highlighted that there was similarity between the way children learned language and adults learned language. (Richards & Rogers, 1989).

The gradual development of linguistic temperament in the nature of language and language learning brought in dramatic changes. By the end of the 19th century, there was considerable change in approach and a revolution in teaching of languages. A formal system of language education began to develop due to the ongoing effect of radicalism. International trade, travel, contact of people and cultures, gave rise to the everyday spoken forms of English. During the II World War, strong certification criterion established in the development and preparation of teacher training programmes. In the 1940s teacher training started in major universities of that time. There were Language labs and demonstration centers for teacher training. Linguists, Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Vietor, and Paul Passy, stressed on language teaching to be scientific. Their recommendation was that language learning should begin with speaking and followed by other language skills. Words and sentences were taught in context, grammar teaching became inductive and translating and learning through the mother tongue was to be avoided. The acceptance of their proposition led to the direct method. The shift of focus to oral language introducing learners to oral language practice, spoken variations in dialects, and audio-lingual approaches resulted in very useful second language learning. After the success of the audio-lingual method for training soldiers to use foreign language, gave boost to the structuralist-behavioral approach to language teaching and learning.
### Table 3.1

Changing views on the nature of language and learning: Traditionalism and CLT. Nunan and Lamb (2001: 31)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Traditionalism</th>
<th>Communicative language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theory of language</td>
<td>Language is a system of rule-governed structures hierarchically arranged</td>
<td>Language is a system for the expression of meaning: primary function-interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of learning</td>
<td>Habit formation; skills are learned more effectively if oral precedes written; analogy not analysis</td>
<td>Activities involving real communication; carrying out meaningful tasks and using language that is meaningful for the learner promote learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>Control of the structures of sound, form and order, mastery over symbols of the language; goal-native speaker mastery.</td>
<td>Objectives will reflect the needs of the learner; they will include functional skills as well as linguistics objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllabus</td>
<td>Graded syllabus of phonology, morphology, and syntax. Contrastive analysis</td>
<td>Will include some or all the following: structures, functions, notions, themes and tasks. Ordering will be guided by learner needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>Dialogues and drills; repetition and memorization; pattern practice.</td>
<td>Engage learners in communication; involve processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of learner</td>
<td>Organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses.</td>
<td>Learner as negotiator, interactor, giving as well as taking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of teacher</td>
<td>Central and active; teacher-dominated method. Provides model; controls direction and pace.</td>
<td>Facilitator of the communication process needs analyst, counselor, process manager.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of materials</td>
<td>Primarily teacher oriented. Tapes and visuals; language lab often used.</td>
<td>Primary role of promoting communicative language use; task based, authentic materials.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For us to understand the kind of teacher training that was offered to teachers we need to look at the history of second language teaching considering the methods and approaches that the teacher followed. The feature of each teaching method is discussed as under:

3.1.2. METHODS OF TEACHING

Teachers have made principled decisions reflecting the need for language learning. The method adopted was dependant on the purpose for learning. Therefore, an overview on the language teaching methods and the emphasis on oral skills are discussed below.

**Grammar Translation Method (GTM):** In the GTM no attention is given to speaking and listening activities. The purpose of GTM is to seek literary intellectualism and for appreciation of scholarly texts. (Richards & Rogers, 1986) Reading and writing are the only skills that are focused consisting of; analysis of grammar rules for translating texts into one’s own language with high standards of accuracy.

**Total Physical Response (TPR):** Students seldom speak but are involved in physically demonstrating listening comprehension. (Murphy, 1991)

**Audio- Lingual Method (ALM):** Students repeat and orally manipulate language forms. It is based on structuralism which focuses on LSRW. Language learned through a mechanical habit formation from correct responses. These form verbal habits of automating language production (ibid).

**The Direct Method & Situational Language Teaching:** The direct approach is to learn the second language like the first language. The direct method is (Richards & Rogers, 1986, p. 10) “...dependent on the teachers’ skill”. Teachers do most of the talking while students engage in many controlled, context specific, speaking activities. Listening and speaking comprehension are focused. Fluency and accuracy are emphasised. Situations are brought to class for language practice. Vocabulary in situational language teaching is an important characteristic.
The Comprehension Approach: It emphasises listening and reading comprehension skills before speaking.

The Natural Approach: Initially emphasis is given to listening comprehension and later to reading, while leaving room for guided speaking activities. Exposure to language is focused.

The Silent Way: Teachers rarely speak, while student speaking is focused upon grammatically sequenced language forms.

Suggestopedia: It is a method wherein very controlled speaking activities involving imitation, are based upon lengthy written scripts and dramatic role play performances by the teacher.

Community Language Learning (CLL): There is peer- to- peer interaction for instilling community spirit among students, whereas the spoken forms included into the syllabus are generated by students themselves.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Coined by Hymes (1972) for being “...communicatively competent in a speech community”, cited in Richards & Rogers, (1989, p. 70). It is the most appropriate and acceptable approach to language teaching. Many peer- to- peer, guided and free speaking activities which are organized around notions, different functions, and/ or linguistic considerations. Gaining communicative competence and linguistic competence are important in this approach.

Task Based Approach (TBA): Activities are centered upon practical tasks for students to perform oral communication. The use of activities for performing tasks requiring language production.

3.2. **ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

3.2.1. English Language Teacher

The English teacher is a window, an imparter enabling its learners to a larger understanding of the world. The status of English as a channel for international communication has been recognized for over a decade now. Learners need not leave
their country but could need English for business, to talk to foreign visitors, to read on fields of interest or world affairs, to follow manuals, instructions, communicate and chat with friends and family abroad, etc. English no more being the language of the natives, is spoken and used world over because of its popularity and political history. It is astonishing to know that the users of English as second language are more than its native speakers. But there is not much help rendered for their problems in the language use. The standards of English even among the teachers who teach the language are questionable.

Freeman (1989, p. 37) mentions writers who have described teaching in various terms. Stevick has talked about teaching as the making of “informed choices” (1982, p. 2) or choosing among “options” (1986, p. vii). Calderhead (1984, p. 2) has categorized the types of teaching decisions into reflective, immediate, and routine. Larsen-Freeman (1983) describes teacher choice, quoting A. Bartlett Giamatti, who says that “the teacher’s power and responsibility lie in choosing where everyone will begin and how, from that beginning, the end will be shaped” (p. 266). Another related perspective is that of teaching as the “management of dilemmas” (see Berlak & Berlak, 1981; Lampert, 1985, 1986) or as “situational decision making” (see Bolster, 1983, p. 37)

The teachers’ role in the communicative context of teaching basically comprises of two roles suggested by Breen & Candlin (2001), the first role is that of a ‘facilitator’, who carries the communicative process and links the learners with the tasks and activities. The second is that of an ‘interdependent participant’, who supports the organisation and functioning of the activities and classroom procedures. The teachers’ role is also that of a ‘researcher- learner’ (ibid).

Lindsay and Knight (2006) state that “The teacher’s job is to help learners learn. This relates both to the formal classroom process and learning outside the classroom. Teachers are responsible for a large amount of what happens in the classroom. What is taught, the resources used, the type and order of activities, classroom management, assessment, feedback, correction, and so on”. They also define an effective teacher to be one who:
- "Understands learners' language needs and respond to them positively;
- Design lessons which reflect the learners' needs and develop their communicative skills;
- Monitors and corrects sensitively;
- Provides feedback and encouragement when appropriate;
- Tells learners not to worry about making mistakes- part of learning process;
- Encourages learning habits inside and outside the classroom;
- Keeps track of progress, gaps in learners' ability and repeat errors." (p.3-4)

For instructions in the classroom, both the productive and receptive skills need to be practiced by the language teacher. Wills, J. (1981) includes the following skills (Table 3.2.)

**Table 3.2**

**Productive Skills and Receptive Skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Productive skills</th>
<th>Receptive skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>➤ Presenting new language naturally and in a contextual way,</td>
<td>➤ Recognizing appropriate register,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ Giving examples on a similar structural pattern or of ways to express similar function,</td>
<td>➤ Isolating difficulties in a reading text,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ Eliciting particular forms or expressions of a function or a notion,</td>
<td>➤ Evaluating textbook exercises,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ Giving examples of how new items are used interactively,</td>
<td>➤ Selecting vocabulary for pre-teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ Acting out dialogues,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ Asking questions for different purposes, for example to check understanding or to promote discussion,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ Correcting errors of various kinds, including appropriacy and use,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ Introducing a reading or a listening text.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(p. 50)
Zaini (2014) explains that the responsibility of the teacher is to make the best use of classroom time and engage the students in producing their own language, so that their mistakes can be corrected. Explaining in the language classroom is a vital aspect in L2 teaching and learning. Some challenges faced by English teachers in L2 environments are:

- Students lack motivation because they do not get opportunities of using language in the classroom.
- The teachers are bound by their responsibility of completing their courses which leans heavily on the texts.
- The examination system is dependent on documenting language in the written form. Therefore, students are aware with the conventions of written language more than spoken language.
- Marking and evaluating students on writing is easier for teachers. A documented form is more authentic and can be produced, checked and rechecked if required.
- The teachers who teach English have also learned the language and not acquired it. Some teachers are also not from English medium school backgrounds. Therefore, constant improvement is required for them to attain language proficiency in the target language.
- Another major problem that teachers face are that of over large classes with limited resources.

3.2.2. SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION (SLTE)

B. O. Smith (1971) states, “Generally speaking . . . teacher education attempts to answer the question of how the behavior of an individual in preparation for teaching can be made to conform to acceptable patterns”, cited in Marilyn Cochran-Smith (2004, p. 295)

Teacher education in the late 1950s to early 1980s was considered a formal education process that ensured the potential teachers actions go with that of “effective” teachers. Teacher education viewed teachers to be “passive recipients of passing knowledge” (Crandall. 2000:35). Teacher Educators (TE) made teacher candidates to demonstrate
teaching observed and certified to be effective teaching through research. This approach to teacher education developed on the grounds of the process-product research that considered it a scientific base extending its goal to: “the scientific basis of the art of teaching” (Gage, 1978), and also correlating teacher behaviour with pupil learning and applying it to classroom situations (Gage, 1963).

Smith (2004) elaborates that;

During the late 1960s and early 1970s, the autonomous features of the process-product approach in teacher education were observable teacher behaviors, such as questions-asking strategies or clearly stated objectives, which were presumed correlated with student achievement. On the other hand, the dependent procedures of teacher education were micro-teaching, training prospective teachers to use interaction analysis or behavior modification, lecture, demonstration, and/or a collection of these procedures with or without feedback. (p. 296)

The perspectives on teacher education kept changing with the evolving research. The way language teaching was approached and how it was practiced theorized the way student teachers’ learned. Wright (2011) explains that there have been significant changes in teacher education, development and evaluation in SLTE. The diversity in the results and experiences brings in new dimensions to deal with the teaching learning process (p. 264). Since the 1980s the belief that excellence in teaching required expertise in the subject, pedagogy, judgment and establishment of progressive curriculum to gain credibility in teacher education. The SLTE that focused on methods and techniques shifted to learning to teach in 1998. A ‘constructivist view of how people learn to teach’… presented by Freeman & Johnson (1998) cited in Wright (2010) as:

Learning to teach is a long-term, complex developmental process that operates through participation in the social practices and context associated with learning and teaching (p. 266).
The emerging SLTE pedagog include the following features outlined by Wright (2010) as:

1. An emphasis on the student teachers LEARNING, and becoming a THINKING teacher.
2. This, in turn means, a great deal of REFLECTIVE ACTIVITY programmed into learning experiences, often with written records in the form of journals and diaries.
3. This also entails a commitment for student teacher INQUIRY- into one’s own beliefs and narratives, and into the professional contexts of teaching and learning for which student teachers are prepared.
4. It has resulted in the appropriation of pedagogies from adult education whose central idea is LEARNING FROM EXPERIENCE (p. 273)

Elaborating it further, teacher education programmes aim for social, organizational, and intellectual growth where the teacher can develop the knowledge, skills, and insights for functioning as a decision maker. Teacher education is a translation of a teachers own beliefs, knowledge, skills and experiences into potential teacher training programmes through classroom practice. In view of the cover term of SLTE, Richards (1990) asserts, ‘the intent of second language teacher education must be to provide opportunities for the novice to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use’. (p.15)

Szesztay (2004) cited in Wright (2006) emphasizes that teachers develop their knowledge of teaching by engaging in teaching – an intuitive and contextually sensitive process which cannot be expressed as it is implicit. (p. 269)

An overview of the term Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) originally coined by Richards (1990) to cover the preparation – training and education of L2 teachers is given. This study shall relate general teacher preparation as “teacher education” and specific skills training as “teacher training”.

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3.2.3. APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education has undergone numerous shifts with reference to approach. The focus of teaching, originally viewed it to be mastery by imitation, i.e., the trainers replication of their training model in the classroom. Freeman and Johnson (1998) observe that the trainee acquires knowledge which is "usually in the form of general theories and methods that were assumed to be applicable to any teaching context" (p. 399). With time the cognitive aspect came into being focusing on the teachers’ thinking. The last decade has seen changes in the approaches to language teacher education focusing on:

1. Practical experiences. e.g. observations, practice teaching and opportunities for curriculum and materials development.

2. Classroom centered or teacher research.


John Locke (1632-1704) cited in Gatenby (1965) understanding the worthiness of the oral approach in language learning states that, “Languages were not made by rule or art, but by accident and the common use of the people. And he that will speak them well has no other rule but that, nor anything to trust to but his memory and the habit of speaking after the fashion learned from those that are allowed to speak by rote.” (p. 10)


1. A craft or apprenticeship model by which less experienced teachers learn through observing those with more experience

2. An applied science or theory-to-practice model by which knowledge is learned from experts and then applied in real-world contexts; and

3. A reflective model by which teachers reflect upon, evaluate, and adapt their own practice.(p.37)
These three models are similar to the three views of teaching proposed by Freeman (1991; 1996)

1. Teaching as doing (encouraging teaching skills as a model of formed behavior),
2. Teaching as thinking and doing (involving teacher cognition promoting skills and theory development); and
3. Teaching as knowing what to do (a reflective process involving decision making according to context, interpretation to use skill and theory in overall teacher development). (Pg.37)

A new approach to SLTE away from traditional approaches to new perspectives proposed by Velez- Rendon (2002) is that which “...seeks to reconceptualize the field and establish research based approach to language teacher education” ( p. 457). The introduction to sociocultural models makes teachers critical reflective representatives. The social dimensions as well as the training approaches take the view of learning as an experience of reflective and dynamic exchange between theory and practice. Velez- Rendon (2002).

The structure of knowledge in a second language teacher education programme proposed by Richards (1998:1) constitutes the core knowledge base of SLTE as:

1. Theories of teaching
2. Teaching skills
3. Communication skills
4. Subject matter knowledge
5. Pedagogical reasoning and decision making
6. Contextual knowledge

The following include the core knowledge of Richards (1998: 2- 14) SLTE, that have been listed above six domain’s
1. Theories of teaching

Richards (1998: 2) states that “all the core of SLTE is a theory of teaching that provides the theoretical basis for the programme as well as justification both for the approach to teaching as well as the instructional practices students are expected to develop in the programme”. According to Posner (1985) cited in Richards (1998), theories of teaching can be classified as follows:

- **Didactic view** “... based on the belief that teaching is primarily concerned with transmitting knowledge...”

- **Discovery view** “... Based on the belief that students can develop knowledge themselves through active investigation and discovery...”

- **Interactionist view** “...holds that students arrive with well formed ideas, so that so that there is a necessary interaction between the students' own ideas, their empirical observation, and the curriculum content...”(p. 2)

Richards (1998: 3) also indicates that there is always a theory underpinning an SLTE programme, but there is still another theory named “teachers’ implicit theories of teaching” that is reflected in the content of the SLTE programme. In explaining this theory Marland’s (1995) asserts:

“The explanations given by teachers for what they do are typically not derived from what they were taught in teacher education programmes...Rather, the classroom actions of teachers are guided by internal frames of reference which are deeply rooted in personal experiences specially in-school ones, and are based on interpretations of those experiences”. (p. 131)

In another view Larsen- Freeman (2000: ix) talk about the importance of language teaching methods in a teacher training programme observing that:

a. The teachers become consciously aware of the decisions they make while teaching in the classroom. Methods help teachers’ become reflective and clear in their actions.
b. The idea of being reflective aids in making more appropriate choices for teaching and learning.

c. Methods are bases that every teacher uses and connects with. Hence this knowledge leads to professional connectivity involving the entire community of English language teachers.

d. Experimentation and discussions help teachers practices in the classroom lively and preventing it from being monotonous.

e. "A knowledge of methods helps expand a teacher's repertoire of techniques. This in itself provides an additional avenue for professional growth, as some teachers find their way to new techniques." (2000: x)

2. Teaching skills

Teaching skills refers to the range of any teacher of the subject. The teaching skills are chosen with regard to the theory of teaching the teaching programme emphasises, they basically comprise among others:

- Selecting teaching activities
- Preparing students for new learning
- Asking questions
- Checking students’ understanding
- Providing opportunities for practice of new terms
- Monitoring students’ learning
- Giving feedback on student learning
- Reviewing and re-teaching when necessary (Richards, 1998, p.4)

3. Communication Skills

This refers to the aptitude of communicating effectively. Richards (1998: 6) uses the example of the general communication skills required to attain the RSA diploma (a university of Cambridge ESL/EFL teaching qualification) as an illustration of what these skills are likely to consist of.
• Personality, presence, general style
• Voice-audibility, ability to project, modulation
• Voice-speed, clarity, diction
• Ability to establish/maintain rapport

The above skills are addressed for a general communication; second language teachers also require a certain degree of proficiency in the language that will make them more efficient teachers’.

Richards (1998, 7) refers to Heaton (1981) who proposes these set of functions as essential of Non Native Speaker’s (NNS) teachers:

• Requesting, ordering, and giving rules
• Establishing attention
• Questioning
• Repeating and reporting what has been said
• Giving instructions
• Giving and refusing permission
• Warning and giving advice
• Giving reasons and explaining

In relation to these functions, Richards(1998) points out that a lack of fluency in English can result in poor instructions, a failure of communication when giving directions, and “the need to resort to the mother tongue if the teacher is teaching a linguistically homogeneous class” (p.7).

Swain (1985) cited in Clark (1972) suggests four principles in communicative language testing namely:

• Start from somewhere (theoretical/practical perspective)
• Concentrate on content (content and material)
• Bias for best (learner’s best performance)
• Work of wash back (effect test has on teaching practice) (p. 30)
4. **Subject matter knowledge**

Richards (1998) defines subject matter knowledge as “what teachers need to know about what they teach (rather than what they may know about teaching itself)” (p. 8). He proposes a course for both pre-service and in-service second language teacher education programmes to cover the possible subject matter knowledge needed for SLTE.

- Phonetics and phonology
- English syntax
- Second language acquisition
- Curriculum and syllabus design
- Discourse analysis
- Sociolinguistics
- Analysis of TESOL methods
- Testing and evaluation (p. 8)

5. **Pedagogical reasoning skills and decision making**

According to Shulman (1987: 15) cited in Richards (1998), the core of pedagogical reasoning of teaching constitutes “The key to understanding the knowledge base of teaching lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy, in the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge he or she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variation in ability and background presented by the students”. (p. 10)

Vis-a-vis to decision making, the teacher makes decisions according to the learning context, Richard cites Parker (1984: 220), among other components to an interactive decision are:

- Monitoring one’s teaching and evaluating what is happening at a particular point of the lesson.
- Recognizing that a number of different courses of action are possible
- Selecting particular course of action
- Evaluating the consequences of the choice. (Richards, 1998: 11)
6. Contextual Knowledge

Contextual knowledge refers to “the understanding of how the practice of language teaching is shaped by the contexts in which it takes place and the role of societal, community, and institutional factors in language teaching” (Richards, 1998). The contextual factors stated by Richards are as follows:

- Language policies (e.g., status of the target language in the community)
- Language teaching policies (e.g., required/optional subject, intensity of delivery)
- Community factors (e.g., parents’ expectations, community support)
- Sociocultural factors (e.g., status of learners’ native language, cultural values)
- Type of school/institution (e.g., state, private, tertiary)
- Administrative practice (e.g., live management, teachers’ duties, workload)
- School culture (e.g., established beliefs and practices)
- School programme (e.g., reception class, pullout class, transitional class)
- Level of class (e.g., elementary, intermediate, advanced)
- Age of learners (e.g., children, teenagers, adults)
- Learning factors (e.g., learners’ motivation, learning styles)
- Teaching resources (e.g., syllabus, textbooks, other resources)
- Testing factors (e.g., role of school and national tests) (p.12)

Richards suggests that all these dimensions of contextual factors are interrelated.

The courses of any language teaching programme follow the basic patterns consisting of a language component and a methodology component. The language component is usually remedial and guidelines on eradicating common errors, improving pronunciation, etc. But this becomes challenging for teacher trainers because teaching English to English teachers who are supposed to ‘Know’ the language requires skill in itself. And also the teaching ability of each teacher cannot be generalized. The methodology component needs to be designed to make trainees learn new methods and techniques so that they can adapt them in their practical teaching. With trainee
teachers, the resistance to ‘new’ methods is less because no habits are formed. Their own language learning experiences are fresh in their minds.

3.2.4. TRAINING & EDUCATION: Specifying the key terms; similarities and differences

A constant concern in second language teaching is the similarity and difference between the terms “training” and “education”. McDonough and Shaw (2003) cited in Ortega (2006) elucidate the difference as follows:

1. “Training refers to pre-service programme for new teachers...A narrower concept...more applicable to people who need to acquire knowledge of the basic “tools” of the job...”
2. “Education refers to in-service work with experienced professionals...It implies a broader range of knowledge and skills”. (p. 31)

In another distinction Widdowson (1997) describes teacher training as solution-oriented, with the “...implication that teachers are to be given specific instruction in practical techniques to cope with predictable events...,”while teacher education is problem-oriented, that proposes “...a broader intellectual awareness of theoretical principles underlying particular practices”, cited in Crandall (2000: 36). In the statements made above both researchers imply teacher education to be macro in nature whereas teacher training to be micro in its approach.

Maley cited in Emery (2012: 5) has described teacher training or Initial Teacher Training (ITT) as the specific needs, involving the transmission of information and skills that have a fixed agenda adopting a top-down approach. ITT relates to teachers with no experience or little experience in teaching. Their development as teachers takes time. A continuous exposure to classroom teaching makes the teacher more reflective, flexible and capable of solving problems. This, with time, leads to the development of the teacher.

or education is something that can be presented or managed by others; whereas development is something that can be done only by and for oneself”. (p. 36)

Similarly, Richards (1998) (cited in Richards (2002: 28-29)) presents his views in distinction between “teacher training” and “teacher development”, listing some aims that these two terms involve:

Table 3.3

Richard’ distinction between teacher training and teacher development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher training</th>
<th>Teacher development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>➢ Understanding basic concepts &amp; principles as a prerequisite for applying them to teach</td>
<td>➢ Understanding how the process of second language development occurs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Explaining one’s repertoire of routines, skills and strategies</td>
<td>➢ Understanding how teacher’s role change according to the kind of learners he/she is teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Trying out new strategies in the classroom</td>
<td>➢ Understanding the kind of decision making that occur during the lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Monitoring oneself and getting feedback from others on one’s practice</td>
<td>➢ Reviewing one’s own theories and principles of language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Developing an understanding of different styles of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Determining learners’ perception of classroom activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Acquiring the skills of a mentor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Presenting his view on teacher development, Richards (2002) explains:

“Teacher development serves a longer-term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of the teacher’s general understanding of teaching and of himself or herself as a teacher. It often involves examining different dimensions of one’s own practice as a
basis for reflective review, and can hence be seen as “bottom-up” (p. 29)

He (Richard) views teacher development as a “continuous process” involving:

- “reflective teaching in a collaborative process together with learners and colleagues,
- Learning from one’s own teaching,
- From carrying out classroom research,
- From creating teaching portfolios,
- From interacting with colleagues through critical friendship, monitoring and
- Participating in teacher networks”. (p.29)

Richards (2002) also makes reference to the constructivism paradigm where: “Knowledge is actively constructed and not passively received. A constructive view of teaching involves teachers in making their own senses of their own classrooms and taking on the role of reflective practitioner.” (p. 30)

Both terms of “training” and “education” are often used interchangeably to refer to the professional preparation of teachers, but some researchers have defined them distinctly.

Ur (1996: 3), defines “education” to be a more varied and broader term: general learning that leads to the development of all aspects of the individual as a member of society”. Hence teacher education is not only about the rules of practice but also in the exploration of the “knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and thinking that inform such practices” Richards (1998: xiv). Lange (1990) refers ‘teacher development’ to relate to both in-service and pre-service teachers and suggests that teachers “continue to evolve in the use, adaptation and application of their art and craft” (p. 250).

Discussed above are three views on teacher preparation: training, education and development, used quite often relating to second language teaching. In the light of second language teacher trainers it is important to learn the basic skills but they also need to improve these skills as they observe their own and others’ classroom practice.
and as they gain experience to develop their own teaching method. As indicated by McDonough & Shaw (2003), language teachers should become “active and questioning professionals who are able to make generalizations and inferences from the basis of their own practice” (p.259).

To conclude, teacher “education” can be said to be more appropriately concerned with involving teachers in cognitive processes as reflection, examination and developing theories of teaching. Albeit, “training” can be seen as being embedded in “education” and within this broader definition, “education” is extended to include the idea of “development” explain McDonough and Shaw (2003, p. 259)

3.2.5. ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER TRAINING

Language teachers who have undergone a formal training period of conditioning are better equipped with skills and technicalities of classroom teaching. Furthermore, it makes the trainee aware and exposed to classroom situation with relation to content, behavior and management with continuous feedback. This is a phase of basic training which empowers the trainee to develop as a teacher with repeated classroom exposure during the training period. This exposure and experience leads to improvement and gradual development of the trainee as a teacher.

ELT trainers and writers need to acknowledge that practising ELT teachers’ face real teaching and learning situations, have their intelligences and beliefs, opinions, shortcomings, and, above all context in which they teach. The expectation of L2 teachers requires them to be:

- Linguistically & pragmatically competent (i.e. sociolinguistically and culturally)
- Competent in discourse (strategic)
- Handle different learner strategies
- Manage CR (organizers, initiators, monitors, advisers, and resource providers)
- Help learners learn (errors, motivate learners’; cater different abilities and learner styles).
All the above stated requirements of the teacher are difficult to be fulfilled. Hence the only way English language teachers’ can cope with the above listed criteria is through training for language improvement and development rather than training focusing on methodology alone. Basanta (1996).

It is important for teachers’ to be trained adequately for teaching. Native speaker proficiency in English is difficult for ESL teachers to achieve but not impossible. They need to develop a high level of proficiency and high competence in teaching inorder to be effective teachers of the target language. Requirements of teaching English vary according to the need; therefore, specialised training to teachers’ is needed to equip them with the skills and techniques. Hence, the training needs to produce qualified teachers who present good language models and can explain target language features that students understand (Shin 2008).

Several reports (e.g., Garton, Copland& Burns, 2010; Papp, 2011; Rixon, 2000) emphasise the necessity of adequate training (cited in Emery, 2000). The level and standard vary in teaching English. Teacher education may mean a basic training, but while applying it to a particular group or context it needs specific and specialised training. For instance, inorder to teach young learners’ the requirement of training would be to use simple and straight forward language, whereas, while teaching adults the requirements change. i.e., meanings and structures become more complex, there is better understanding of how language is made to function. There are separate standards established for qualifying to teach young learners and adult learners. International English Language Teaching bodies provide teaching certification for teaching e.g., TEFL, DELTA, CELTA etc. Initial or pre- service teacher training consist of Teaching Practice (TP) supervised and observed by the trainer who assesses in providing post—lesson feedback.

Willis, J (1981) informs that:

“...by the end of their (trainees) course they have had first-hand knowledge of the new methodology, in other words a chance to work things out for themselves and put them into practice successfully in conditions near enough to their own
teaching conditions, there is unlikely to be any effective transfer of new ideas in their own classroom." (p.46)

Pasternak and Bailey (2004) have suggested a training programme for teachers implying:

1. Help improve teachers English proficiency
2. Help improve teachers professionalism
3. Make distinction between Declarative knowledge (DK) and Procedural knowledge (PK) providing framework for assessing those areas where improvement is needed. (Table 3.4.)
4. Offer diagnostic tool for determining declarative/ procedural knowledge continua (pg. 158)

**Table 3.4**

**Declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>About the TL</th>
<th>Examples of DK</th>
<th>Examples of PK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The ability to explain grammar rules and their exceptions</td>
<td>The ability to use grammar rules appropriately in speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About Teaching</td>
<td>The ability to explain the rationale for using jigsaw activities in communicative language teaching</td>
<td>Skill in setting up communicative jigsaw activities in pair work/ group work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About the Target Culture</td>
<td>The ability to explain norms of kinesics and proxemics used by members of the culture during interaction</td>
<td>Being able to behave appropriately in terms of nonverbal behavior and physical spacing when interacting with members of the culture.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The general pattern of a teacher training programme constitutes guidelines, pre-
lesson discussions with the trainers including the individual traits of the trainee. The
trainer needs to instill in the trainee the importance of associating theoretical
knowledge with practical applications of teaching. Language teacher training should
link together theoretical and practical characteristics of teaching English. The most
beneficial phase for trainees can be to share their experiences and learn from their
peer trainee teachers (TT) as well as their supervisors and trainers about their ideas,
i.e., how they would deal with a topic, how they can improve a lesson or effectively
empower a skill. These discussions are ideal ways of assessing teachers’ capability
and reflection towards teaching. An important aspect in teacher training is also to
adapt to changes in approach and current trends in methodology. Innovations in
classroom teaching and experimentation at times make teaching and learning process
interesting.

Shavelson & Stern cited in Nunan (1989) elaborate:

Most teachers are trained to plan instruction by (a) specifying
(behavioural) objectives, (b) specifying students’ entry
behavior, (c) selecting and sequencing learning behaviours so
as to move learners from entry behaviours to objectives and (d)
evaluating the outcomes of instruction in order to improve
planning. While this perspective model of planning may be one
of the most consistently taught features of the curriculum of
teacher education programs, the model is consistently not used
in teachers’ planning in schools. (p. 134)

Wallace (1991) presents a reflective model on teacher education which consists of
two dimensions: received knowledge and experiential knowledge.

Received knowledge is related to the content knowledge, skills,
theories, concepts of the subject. With reference to speaking it
would mean a skilled language teacher is expected to speak the
target language with a degree of fluency and use patterns so as
to exhibit a good model. The experiential knowledge is related
to the reflection of practice. It can also be knowledge-by-observation which means gaining experience through observation. (cited in Chownahe, 2006, p. 27)

The methodology of a teacher training course first requires a trainee to observe an experienced teacher in the classroom. During the demonstration class the trainee observes the trainer teaching in the classroom. After this demonstration class the trainer and trainee discuss the lesson and teaching. Before the first exposure to classroom teaching, the trainee plans his/her lesson, makes changes guided by the supervisor/TE with feedback. This process of guidance and feedback from the supervisor pre and post classroom teaching helps in progressive development of the novice teacher. The observation is carried on from the beginning till the end of the training period.

The responsibility of the supervisor is to reflect on classroom teaching, based on decisions made in the classroom. The supervisor could show dissatisfaction with the lesson plan, material used, or misjudgment of content or students’ level. Commenting on what the trainee has done well in the classroom is also important. An observation checklist is an effective way of assessing the process involved in teaching. The checklist is a criterion of norms that the supervisor can set according to the need and content of teaching. The criterion set does not need to be too rigid or prescriptive. The checklist is more of a decision-making process, such as awareness, motivation, attitude, etc. The importance of this observation checklist depends on how it is used. A very rigid and prescriptive checklist does not help much in assessing teaching because it constitutes behaviour and tactful handling of classroom situations. Teaching English requires tact because not one problem is similar to the other. Instructional actions received unexpected responses requiring the teacher to respond reasonably without breaking the flow of classroom teaching.

3.3. **Spoken English in ESL Context**

Language teaching has constantly focused on speaking, that as a skill as well as how the teaching of speaking is approached. During the 1970s it meant: ‘repeating after the teacher, reciting a memorized dialogue, or responding to a mechanical drill’. Shrum
and Glisan (2000, p. 26) point out that reflecting the structural patterns of audiolingualism and situational language teaching are useful methods for gaining proficiency in speaking. With the emerging research in language teaching, the 1980s led to the concept of communicative competence emphasising proficiency. It started with notional and functional syllabuses that later followed to the development of communicative syllabuses. English as a second language is a much debated topic in language teaching today. The feature that makes it a popular and diverse language is due to its second language status. Furthermore, ESL exists in an English speaking environment where language skills and authentic situations for language use serve language learning. The Intent of ESL teaching is designed to develop communicative competence. In the CLT theory, individual learners possess unique interests, styles, needs, and goals that should be reflected in the design of instructional materials. (Savignon, 1991). Teachers play the role of facilitator, providing structures, explanations, and a forum for discussion in the ESL classroom at higher levels.

Spoken language according to Brown & Yule (1983) comprises of “...fragmentary utterances, in a range of pronunciations. There is often a great deal of repetition and overlap between one speaker and another, and speakers frequently use non-specific references”. The syntax of spoken language is loosely arranged and is not defined by a set pattern of denseness as compared to written language. The use of non-specific words, phrases and fillers make up the speaking skills (cited in Nunan, 1989). Brown and Yule also recommend the following questions teachers need to ask themselves who deal with teaching spoken language:

- What is the appropriate form of spoken language to teach?
- From the point of view of pronunciation, what is a reasonable model?
- How important is pronunciation?
- Is it any more important than teaching appropriate handwriting in the foreign language?
- If so, why?
- From the point of view of structures taught, is it all right to teach the spoken language as if it were exactly like the written language, but with a few ‘spoken expressions’ thrown in?
- Is it appropriate to teach the same structures to all foreign language students, no matter what their age is or their intentions in learning the spoken language?
- Are those structures which are described in standard grammars the structures which our students should be expected to produce when they speak English?
- How is it possible to give students any sort of meaningful practice in producing spoken English?

(p.27)

When speaking in language teaching becomes the focus, we consider native speakers’ and their use of the language. Native speakers’ are viewed as the reliable sources for linguistic data (Chomsky 1965 cited in Moussu and Llurda 2008). Paikelihood (1985 cited in Moussu and Llurda 2008) recommended the term ‘proficient user’ for speakers who can successfully use language after the studies showed that the number of native speakers of English were in minority than the number of non native speakers of the language. Davies (1991, 2003), deduced that by mastering the intuition, grammar, spontaneity, creativity, pragmatic control, and interpreting quality of ‘born’ native speakers, an L2 speaker can become a native speaker. The social acceptance of good speakers is determined by the speakers’ accent. After the World War II when language was taught to soldiers for the purpose of communication, they needed to follow a model which they could cram. It is from this time that the NS models were presented. Therefore the discrimination of native like speech and non native like speech emerged. In recent times the approach to speaking that is intelligible is acceptable. Cook (1999) has stated that skilled second language users should be considered ‘successful multicompetent speakers, not failed native speakers’ (p.185). Though high levels of proficiency in speaking are compared with nativeness, lack of fluent command over the language leaves language performance doubtful.

A’rva & Medgyes (2000) provide an example of this pragmatic position: ‘the term native speaker as opposed to non-native speaker is as widely used in the professional jargon of both teachers and researchers today as ever’ (p. 356). The development of English internationally is much larger than where it is a mother tongue. This
undoubtedly constitutes a paradox for many researchers who, while working towards the spread of the idea that nativeness is a fairly irrelevant feature in language teaching, at the same time need to accept the division between NS and NNS in order to start constructing their supporting argumentation (cited in Moussu and Llurda 2008).

In a similar observation made by Shin (2008) the native and non-native disparities are very small compared to the rich complexities of being users of a language. Rampton (1990) cited in Shin (2008) recommends the term ‘language expertise’ rather than ‘native’ or ‘non-native’ for users of the language. He also states that the focus of the language user should not be on ‘who you are’ but on ‘what you know’ (cited in Shin, 2008, p.3). Cook (1999) argues that “...skilled, second language users should be viewed as successful multicompetent speakers, not failed native speakers”

Kachru (1988) cited in Brown (2001) considers the role and functions of English remains a minority perspective. He characterizes three elements of his world Engishes paradigm (WE paradigm) namely;

- a belief that there is a ‘repertoire of models for English’
- a belief that ‘localized innovations [in English] have pragmatic bases’
- a belief that ‘the English language now belongs to all those who use it’. (p. 108)

It may be quite difficult to refer to all non-native speakers as a homogeneous group; with the diversity of geographical, cultural and linguistic backgrounds they may bring with their nonnative status. It would be wrong to say that one set of speakers’ is superior to the other non native speaker. The global approach requires effective communication that is intelligible to the listener.

D. Liu (1999) cited in Shin suggests that, “to help teacher trainees to develop appropriate instructional English, teacher training courses might incorporate ‘classroom language’ training in which the forms of English the teachers use when interacting with students may be analysed and practiced including both direct and indirect ways for encouraging student participation, techniques for establishing classroom rules and boundaries for misbehavior, as well as different ways of praising
students”. In studies conducted by Damhuis and De Blauw (2005) on teachers’ training, investigating teachers’ interaction skills to check whether classroom conversation was acquisition oriented that it allowed language acquisition. In the study, it was found that classroom conversation was acquisition oriented when the input and feedback led to the learners PRODUCTION. It was also noted that the current language teaching system did not provide opportunities for language production from the learners, though language teaching emphasises communicative competence. The teachers’ interaction skills are facilitating factors in language acquisition where students do not get much exposure outside their classrooms. (Hajer, 2005 a).

To gain proficiency and serve good models of language that the students understand needs to be the aim of teacher training programmes. Therefore, the training of teachers for developing speaking proficiency would require them to have an excellent command over the target language.

3.4. PROFICIENCY IN SPEAKING

Richards (1998) implies that language proficiency is a factor that “affects many aspects of teaching expertise, including teaching skills and subject matter knowledge” (p.8).

In Applied Linguistics literature, while the term proficient is used interchangeably with words such as ‘good’, ‘fluent’, ‘knowledgeable’, ‘bilingual’, ‘competent’, etc. it is not always clear when used in the reference of speaking proficiency.

Fluency comprising of proficiency is regarded as a very important feature of a successful L2 speaking ability. Shin suggests that an L2 teachers’ lack of fluent command of English becomes “a source of constant stress because they do less well in every aspect of language performance…” (p.4). It is difficult to define fluency because it encompasses many aspects of language state, Derwing et. al. (2004).

Brown (2003:1) Hartman &Stork (1976) propose that “a person is said to be a fluent speaker of a language when he can use its structures accurately whilst concentrating on content rather than forms, using the units and patterns automatically at normal
conversational speed when they are needed." Brumfit (1984) observes that fluency is "to be regarded as natural language use." Richard et. al. (1985) maintain that fluency is, "the features which gives speech the quality of being natural & normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, & use of interjection and interruptions."

In another definition given by Fillmore (1979) to the term fluency, he classifies it under four abilities namely; the ability to talk at length with a few pauses, the ability to talk in coherent, reasoned and "semantically dense sentences", the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of context, and finally ability to be creative & imaginative in language use (p. 93).

Galloway 1987; McNamara 1996 cited in Iwashita et al. (2008) explain that the term proficiency encompasses different meanings depending on the researcher. Proficiency in speaking would mean speakers ability to have spontaneity in the delivery of the target language as well as perform in the context and setting accordingly. There are a great number of assumptions as to what constitutes proficiency. Language competence and fluency are constituents of proficiency. In prominent frameworks in the U. S., for speakers to be proficient users of English, they need to demonstrate both accuracy and fluency and be able to use a variety of discourse strategies. The proficiency of natives is also questioned when we consider it as a criteria for judging language skill. Native speakers can be fluent speakers but they necessarily may not be proficient. The proficiency was sought in foreign language teaching, where proficiency was defined across language skills according to the guidelines of bands or descriptors. These bands determined the proficiency of the learners and their capability in the TL.

The C2 level of the Common European Framework (CEF) describes a proficient user to be one who:

- Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read.
- Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very
fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.

Thornbury (2006: 181) defines proficiency as a language user's 'degree of skill with which they can use the language'. A proficient user is one who has a native-like or near-native like proficiency in the language. Language proficiency is often mistaken to be equivalent to nativeness, but proficiency and professional development are two continuing processes that cannot be fixed. Pasternak & Bailey (2004) observe proficiency and nativeness to be "continua rather than as categorical absolutes". Their observation on effective teachers underlie that teachers irrespective of their language status need to possess declarative knowledge (DK) - "knowledge about something" and procedural knowledge (PK) - "ability to do things". With reference to ESL teachers and trainers they entail three key areas with respect to DK and PK as:

1. Knowing about and how to use the target language,
2. Knowing about and how to teach in culturally appropriate ways,
3. Knowing about and how to behave appropriately in the target culture.

For establishing an understanding of pedagogical issues it is essential for teacher trainers and educators to acquaint trainees with the phonological system of the target language. Realistic goals must be set by the teacher on the basis of current research findings so that the learners concentrate on achievable goals. Moats (1994) elaborates "... many adults, even experienced teachers of reading and writing, conceptualize words in their written rather than in their spoken form unless they are taught to pay attention specifically to speech sound structure." (p. 94)

The need for formal instruction and a good number of examples and practice can make ITTs aware to think beyond the written word and analyse speech. For establishing the concepts the awareness of how to identify speech sounds, the nature of sound-symbol correspondence, minimal corresponding pairs of words, also have an awareness of the historical change in spelling and pronunciation and the organisation of the spelling system in the English language needs to be known.
“Preliminary studies indicate that NNSs often find understanding an L2 speaker from their own L1 background easier than understanding someone from a different L1 background.” (Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2002; Smith & Bisazza, 1982 cited in Derwing and Munro. 2005. p, 982)

The TT need to focus on the classroom situations that they are expected to face involving

- learners' use of their L1;
- learners' reluctance to speak (or dealing with a dominant class speaker);
- different learning styles;
- responses to oral errors;
- activities with large classes;
- activities with multi-level classes; and
- Technology's role in teaching speaking.

It is also worth noting that some trainers actually train pre-service teachers’ or ITT in pronunciation but the rest are reluctant. They are left with their own intuitions with limited direction. The percentage of such teachers' is ineffective when it comes to teaching speaking in class. Mutual intelligibility needs to be the goal of training teachers with special reference to speaking skill.

For proficiency oriented teacher training, TEs’ need to provide:

- Opportunities to practise using the language in a range of contexts that are not limited to classroom discourse.
- Empower them with skills and tasks where they can communicate in a range of cross cultural settings of Target Language Use (TLU).
- Accuracy needs to be promoted in forms of instructions and feedback for providing correct and coherent use of language.
- The responses to instruction need to influence the cognitive needs according to their different personalities, preferences, and adapting styles. Adapted from Hadley’s principles for proficiency oriented teaching (cited in Richards (ELT, The Teacher)
3.5. **ROLE OF TEACHERS’ TRAINING IN DEVELOPING TEACHERS’ PROFICIENCY IN SPEAKING**

When we take up speaking as a skill for teaching in the classroom, it is the most challenging of all language skills to teach and learn. The reason why English speaking as a skill is avoided, compared to other skills of listening, reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar, because according to Hingle & Viv Livingston (2005: 31) “the very nature of speaking skill is difficult to define.”

**Suggestion for developing speaking proficiency in a training programme of teachers**

a) Syllabus design  
b) Principles for teaching speaking (the language level in question)  
c) Discussion of task and materials- description of activities and their application

Pair work, group work, simulations, information gaps, jigsaw, role plays, and picture based activities at all levels (scaffolding) etc.

Tasks are designed for learners to engage in productive use of language and skills development. Bradley (1987) cited in Nunan (1989: 109) has recommended factors that determine task complexity which need to be considered while designing tasks. This adaptation from Bradley’s proposal can be helpful for designing speaking tasks.

**Relevance:**

- Is the task meaningful and relevant for developing speaking among the learners?

**Complexity:**

- How many steps are involved in the task?  
- Are the instructions clear?  
- What does the task demand the learner to do?  
- What information is provided to perform the task?
Amount of context provided prior to the task:

- What kind of language exposure is (awareness, situation and context) do the learners have to perform the task?
- How is the task introduced?
- What is the context of the task being performed?

Processability of language of the task:

- Is what you expect from the learners and their speaking capability in harmony?

Amount of help available to the learner:

- How much assistance can be provided for the task?
- What sources can be used?
- How much non standard language can be tolerated?

Degree of grammatical accuracy/ contextual appropriacy:

- How 'standard' does the task require the learners to be?

Time available to the learner:

- How long does the task require?
- Will the learners be able to complete the task?
- Is the time sufficient for learning speaking conventions?

d) Guidelines on teaching pronunciation

Despite teachers increased interest in pronunciation in recent years it remains less practices and much debated. Pronunciation is a major part in speaking English but referring to pronunciation dictionaries is also not very reliable because it indicates pronunciation of a word in isolation. Fosler- Lussier and Morgan (1999) explain that the pronunciations of words change when they are spoken in spontaneous speech with respect to contextual factors. Speaking rate and word frequency are particularly promising for determining pronunciations. They state that, “Both increased speaking
rate and word likelihood can induce a significant shift in probabilities of the pronunciations of frequent words. However, the interplay between all of these variables in the realization of pronunciations is complex." (pg. 137)

Therefore the training of automating speech is a skill that needs thorough exposure and practice in English speech.

Guidelines for teaching pronunciation:

- Intonation and other features of pronunciation
- Phonetic symbols
- Vowel chart
- Segmental phonemes (determined by the learners' L1 and age rather than by language proficiency level)

CR observation of particular error patterns, accompanied by supervisor remarks are valid ways of documenting aspects of pronunciation, but they do not in themselves constitute sufficient evidence about learners’ abilities or about the effects of instruction on learners’ language output.

e) Assessing the particular language level

The teacher should talk on a learners’ level of comprehension, that is, the learner must understand what the teacher is saying (Richards& Lockhart 1994 in Nel & Muller 2010: 636)

Richards (ELT: Current trends) states the following principles outlining the current trends in the teaching of speaking.

Using language for communication, i.e., speaking and interacting is the main source of learning

- Native and non-native usage varieties can serve as models
- English for cross-cultural communication is a primary goal
- Models in classroom materials are often informed by corpus analysis
- Functional or other types of communicative syllabus predominate
• Both accuracy and fluency are primary goal with a greater tolerance of errors
• Oral proficiency is viewed as dependent upon mastery of lexical phases and conversational routines.
• Cultural awareness is addressed
• Pair and group activities predominate in the classroom.(pg. 19)

Training for developing proficiency in speaking requires features of speaking both at the micro level and macro level.

**Macro Skills:** Fluency, non-verbal communication, discourse, style, cohesion. All these include the appropriate accomplishment of communicative functions, use of appropriate styles, registers, conversation rules, etc.

**Micro Skills:** Micro skills would include phonemes, words, collocations, phrasal units. They comprise production of English stress patterns, reduced forms, production of fluent speech, use of strategic devices (pauses and fillers).

Speaking involves interacting, utterances that may not be full responses, taking of turns, speech that is fluent and not planned (spontaneous) uses fillers.

### 3.5. 1. TASKS FOR PRACTICING SPEAKING

For helping TT for developing speaking skills it is suggested that TE use activities involving the development of speaking skills in order to facilitate the trainees with the skills. This would help them to get a better perception of their expectation as teachers and the activity will also provide them with insights into how it is going to work.

**TASKS FOR TRAINEE TEACHERS**

• Giving opinions
• Agreeing and disagreeing
• Presenting points of view
• Language explaining
• Making suggestions
- Issues

Tasks that can be used in the training:

- Narrating a picture story: leaving the story to be narrated further (what do you think happened next…….)
- Role plays: the vegetable market, doctor and patient, shopkeeper and customer, farmer and visitor, etc.
- Pair work:
- Information gap exchanges: describe and draw, describe and arrange, asking for information, asking and giving directions.
- Discussions: Trainee teachers can discuss their classroom problems and teaching experiences; for students discussions on pets, planning a party, qualities in a teacher, favourites etc. can be used.
- Games: guessing personalities, guessing words.

3.6. ASSESSING ORAL PROFICIENCY

A significant part of assessing communicative competence is for the purpose of interaction. Therefore, ‘grammaticality’, ‘appropriateness’, ‘intelligibility’, ‘appropriateness’ and ‘coherence’ are judged for communicative performance on the basis of shared, negotiated, and changing conventions of English. Testing oral proficiency was either assessed through direct or indirect methods. Lado (1961) proposed less direct ways of assessing speaking proficiency because he considered the marking difficult and inaccurate. Therefore, for assessing oral proficiency tasks-based approaches and text-based approaches to teaching have been recommended. The emergence of communicative competence and proficiency in the 1980s changed the aspects of language assessment and evaluation.

Evaluation of oneself, evaluation of others and evaluation of self by others is intersubjective. The criteria of evaluation can be applied in a process involving three stages adapted from Breen & Candlin (2001):

1. What might ‘success’ in speaking proficiency mean?
2. Is the teacher’s performance successful?
3. If so, how successful is it?

Evaluation of oneself can serve as a basis for new directions in the teaching — learning process posing to lead one’s development and self reflection.

In addition, the Global oral proficiency emerged from the U. S. government agencies that led to form the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) Oral proficiency scales in 1956. This scale consisted of 11 major ranges of proficiency that meaningfully described speaking ability for its Foreign Service officers. This scale however, was not found very effective for academic purposes. Its limited utility led to an adapted version of the FSI scale known as the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale which was further improved by ACTFL (1986) and ETS.

Spoken proficiency in second language context is explained in the ACTFL () Guidelines (1985 & 1999), in terms of communicative growth. Different levels of proficiency are described in hierarchical order of performance range consisting of:

- Function
- Content
- Context and
- Accuracy

ACTFL views “performance” as being a collective result of three modes of communication: Interpretive, Interpersonal and Presentational. Many researchers have considered the relative weight of individual attributes of performance in establishing judgments of proficiency.

The recent oral proficiency testing system requires instruments which aim to test features of authentic communicative activities with functional relevance to the context of target language use rather than on the testing situation itself (Marrow, 1979; Carroll, 1980). Lado (1961) cited in (Lee 1985: 42) came up with different tests to assess oral proficiency. He suggested four types of test for oral proficiency

1) Face to face (within an academic context),

50
2) FSI oral Interview- Adams (1980) cited in Iwashita et.al (2008:25) also investigated the five factors of (FSI), Oral Interview Test of speaking consisting of:-

- Accent
- Comprehension
- Vocabulary
- Fluency and
- Grammar

Higgs and Clifford (1982) cited in (Iwashita et. al 2008) observed that language proficiency constituted different factors at different levels defined in the FSI scale, and suggested the Relative Contribution Model (RCM) to describe rater perceptions of the relative role of each component making up for the global proficiency i.e. vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency and sociolinguistics (p.25).

3) Structured test

A structured oral test consists of standard set of stimuli with instructions to the examinee on how to respond to them.

4) Interview schedule

Askari (2006) and Hughes, A. (2003), have also presented a checklist for measuring speaking proficiency. A revised version of the checklist on a 5 point scale consisting of fluency, comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and accent can be seen in appendix 0. These assessing criterion are also seen in the Winthorp College Model on a 0- 5 scale (Larson, J.W.: 2000, p.61)

In another approach to testing oral performance is by the three areas of: strategic, discourse and sociolinguistic competence. In this testing procedure errors do not hamper scoring, unless it interferes with communication. The scoring procedure is:

- Strategic competence; verbal and non verbal communication strategies.
- Discourse competence; quality and extent of communication
• Sociolinguistic competence; culturally appropriate language and behavior. (Larson, 2000)

Oral proficiency is assessed by the performance of the speaker. The sub skills that combine to form the criterion comprising of skills within speaking define proficiency and fluency.

The Council of Europe – self assessment grid assesses speaking on a grading scale of A1 to C2 and divides speaking into two parts namely; spoken interaction and spoken production. The grid is presented in appendix no. 16.

Scales and measuring criteria for proficiency in speaking differ in their purpose of target audience. It is advised to make different versions for different audience types than make one version of a scale to suit all purposes, Alderson (1991). In the appendix there are a number of scales that may be found useful in assessing oral ability of the teachers and can also be adapted for the learners.