CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
AND
REVIEW OF THE RELATED STUDIES
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This chapter deals with the following two major headings:

2.1 Theoretical Framework
2.2 Review of the Related Studies

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This part of the study discusses the theory, and approaches taken in the present study. It is divided into four sub-headings:

2.1.1 Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)
2.1.2 English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
Syllabus Design and Its Implementation
2.1.3 Teacher Effectiveness and Its Appraisal
Procedures and Techniques
2.1.4 In-service Teacher Training Education (ISTE)

2.1.1 Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

Language, as it is a digital form of information, is considered a tool of thought and a means of communication. And in addition, to its being arbitrary and abstract, language has several other characteristics that distinguish it from analogues, two of which
Postman (1979: 54) considers important are that: (i) words are concepts; they are not representations of reality, they are representations of ideas of reality; and, (ii) "...all language is paraphrasable". For further explanations, Postman views that:

By using different words, one can always approximate what someone else has said. If this were not so, there could be no such thing as translation. Translation can occur because an idea, unlike a picture, can be represented in various ways. Words have synonyms. Pictures do not. Analogic forms, such as picture, are not ideas; nor are they paraphrasable. A picture must be experienced to be experienced. This is what people mean when they say, 'You have to see it', or 'You should have been there'. They mean that symbolic event must be directly apprehended in the form in which it existed. There is no translation of it. There is no idea of it. If someone attempts to use a different form to convey the meaning, he will change the meaning. For example, one cannot use a picture of a man to represent a picture of another man (unless, of course, he tells someone, in language, that this is what he means. And even then the 'translation' will probably not work). Each image, distinct and unique, calls to mind only what is imaged ... Words are of a different order of abstraction, requiring an entirely different mode of intellectual activity.

Regarding the importance of language, it can be said in conclusion that people use language in order to conduct their lives, to control their lives, and to understand their lives. Thus, language is an integral part of human behaviour and by means of it people's thinking is enriched and they share their experience with each other,
and receive and transmit the ideas of civilization (Postman, 1979: 151). The study of language to unlock the knowledge and secrets of different cultures is thus interesting and useful to the individual and society. Progress in the means of transport and communication has brought the people of the world close together and the need to know foreign languages has emerged.

In addition, Gritner (1977: 42-43) expresses his opinions towards the importance of foreign language study, which is assumed as well for EFL study, as follows:

Diversity of language is a fact of human existence; seven-eights of the world's people do not speak English natively. Even if they have learned English as a second (or as a foreign or an international) language, they still cherish their mother tongue as an essential means of communication. Therefore, people who have failed to acquire minimal proficiency in at least one foreign language have missed an experience that is essential to understand the world they live in. Being monolingual, they grasp the nature, function, and social importance of language ... This fundamental error leads to gross misunderstanding regarding the actions, customs, and beliefs of other peoples, and ignorance the modern world can ill afford. Also, many of the great monuments of human thought have been expressed in a foreign language. Some writings have not been translated, and, in any case, much is lost when foreign writings are translated ... In this view foreign language study is essential to the full development of an individual's latent potentialities as a civilized human being.

It is evident that English language is considered one of the most famous world's international language. "In the age of jets, internationalism, world trade, and communications,
satellites, the list of conceivable applications of foreign language skill" (Gritner, 1977: 44). Proficiency in English therefore promotes international co-operation and world understanding.

Furthermore, Smith (1983: 77) in, "The Five Senses of Teaching Learning English as an International Language", explains why he uses the term 'English as an International Language (EIL)' "rather than English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) that the two terms (ESL and EFL) are common ones" in teaching-learning professions and he believes that they no longer adequately describe the way English is used in most of the world, as it "(English) is becoming the principal means of communication among people of different nations. It is estimated that 700 million people living on all continents use English as their primary or secondary language. Many of these are not native speakers but they use English, sometimes with their fellow national (an Intra-national use) but more frequently with people from other countries (an international use). These people from other countries represent both native and non-native speakers of English. It may not be long before non-native users outnumber native users; therefore ... English should be taught as an international language rather than as a second or foreign language".
Moreover, Smith (1983: 78) adds that "the performance target in EFL and ESL classes is almost always the native speaker. Students in these classes are told they should sound like and write like native speakers of English. In an EFL class, students are urged to aim towards mutual intelligibility while using appropriate language for the social situation. There is no suggestion that they develop a native speaker phonology or style in writing. ... In EIL classes, non-native speaking students are prepared to interact with the native speakers of English but in addition they are also prepared to deal with other non-native speakers. Native speaking students are prepared to deal with non-native speakers as well as with other native speakers who use different national varieties of English. ... It is time to look at other culture as well as the cultural component of the native speakers".

However, it can be said in conclusion that no matter what English is looked at as EFL: ESL; or EIL, or what purposes it is used: ESP (English for specific purposes); EOP (English for Occupational Purposes); or EAP (English for Academic Purposes, or how much it has been "continually changing... to meet the demands of the moment ..., and to remain an effective living language" (Dalzell, 1975: 47), the target aim of English study seems to agree, as one of its first and foremost characteristics as a language is a means of
communication not as a set of rules or patterns..." the capacity to communicate includes abilities to interpret the meaning of others, to express one's own meaning, and negotiate meaning between one another" (Breen and others, 1979), to gear toward an effective trend in teaching-learning English by aiming at helping the students to develop their ability of using English for communication.

It is said that trends in language teaching tend to follow trends in linguistics for over the past fifty years, the evolution and revolution in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), which has been partly motivated by the looks and the developments of the linguists, has been seen. Many approaches and methods of teaching have been developed, for example, "the Grammar-translation method; the Direct method (no use of native language permitted); Transformational grammar theory (not really an approach or method); Cognitive-code learning theory (the direct result of Chomsky's work; specific learning domains with behavioural objectives and emphasis on rules and meaning forming a basis for communicative learning) and, Notional and functional approach or Communicative approach (actually expressed in syllabus, emphasis on speech in social contexts to form another basis for communicative learning) (Education, 1983 : 1).

In recent years, the movement has been from a structural approach towards a communicative approach. But before undertaking
a detailed discussion of these two main approaches and making a comparison, the brief historical development of these teaching approaches is being taken up for providing the skeletal background.

Historically language has been understood as a means of communication as Celce-Murcia (1984 : 3), in her words, observes that:

Beginning with Bloomfield's 'Language' (1933) which had defined the language as a system of vocal symbols by means of which communication is achieved between members of the same culture (society or speech community). Thus, language, by definition, is a means of communication and one would assume that the goal of teaching as a second or foreign language would be for learners to gain the ability to communicate in the target language.

It is hard to understand why the linguists seem to lose track of the fact that language is essentially a means of communication whereas the linguists seem to agree that language learning is a habit formation and therefore they emphasize the audiolingual approach to language: the approach that depends on mimicry, memorization, and over-learning of set phrases and patterns. This approach to language teaching held sway during the 1940s and 50s because it was strongly buttressed by the dominant theoretical positions in structural linguistics and behavioural psychology. However, Chomsky's (1959) articulate denunciation of the behavioural-structural model of language and language acquisition coupled with the
pioneering work of more cognitive-oriented psycholinguists such as Miller (1967) foreshadowed the decline in popularity of the audio-lingual approach. It should be noted that Chomsky (1965) defines the term language 'competence' of the learners as follows: "We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situation). His concept of competence is like the knowledge of a linguistic system or the knowledge of grammar.

However, Prator (1965) points out that, "the audio-lingual approach had been a failure at getting language learners to communicate in the target language" (Celce-Murcia, 1984:3). He claims that students do not communicate unless they themselves find the words and structures they need in order to express their opinions or reactions - or if they themselves try to exchange with others, facts and information about topics that are meaningful to them.

At about the same time as the controversy over Chomsky's idea of the linguistic competence of the learners, the idea of emphasizing communicative competence in language teaching has been developed. Many language authorities such as Hymes, Gumperz, and Widdowson disagree with Chomsky's view. Hymes (1972), as a socio-linguist broadens the definitions of language competency by adding the socio-linguistic dimensions. He (Hymes, 1962) coins the phrase 'communicative competence'
and carefully distinguished 'competence' by making the former subsume the latter along with the knowledge of social and psycholinguistic factors that govern a speaker's ability to use a language appropriately in specific context. He describes four sectors in the communicative competence: (i) grammatically; (ii) feasibility; (iii) appropriateness to context; and, (iv) accepted usage.

Gumperz (1972) agrees with the above views and adds that language competence must include the ability of using and interpreting communicative acts appropriately in any situations. The competent person must be able to understand what is being said to him, by whom, when, and how it is expressed; and at the same time, he must be able to respond appropriately.

Widdowson (1973) in his "Teaching Language as Communication", states that communicative competence is the ability to produce and perceive coherent discourse. It is a process which involves interpretative procedure using both linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge.

It is worth noting that the pioneering theoretical work of Hymes was followed by the empirical research of Savignon (1972) who demonstrated that language classes doing communicative-oriented activities achieve higher levels of performance than classes using the audiolingual approach.
Savignon (1971) views that, "communicative competence may be defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting; that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total information input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors".

The notion of 'communicative competence' is defined in many other ways. For example, Oiler (1979) involves communicative competence in terms of 'accuracy' in learner's 'expectancy grammar' - the predictive competence. He proceeds to characterise communication as a functional, context-bound and culturally specific use of language involving an integrated view of receptive and reductive skills.

It can be said that communicative competence is composed of both the knowledge of grammar and knowledge of how to produce language appropriately in social situations. The definition indicates the potential value of the approach because it helps set meaningful objectives for teaching language in a realistic way. To serve the communicative needs of the learners, language teaching programmes developed from this approach can help them acquire communicative competence.

From the previous discussion it seems that the communicative approach has recently made a great impact on
the TEFL. Its influence has been seen in the new English syllabi of all educational levels in Thailand especially the primary educational level. Many text books like series of "English to Fun" for grade 5 and 6 have already appeared and are being used. However, in order to put the focus on the actual situation of TEFL in Thailand, it seems relevant to this study to discuss briefly: (1) the shortcoming of the present structural approach in the light of current trends; (2) the general argument that underlies the new approach; and, (3) the possibility of implementing effective EFL classroom.

1. The Structural Approach

The structural approach or a grammatical approach is defined by Canale and Swain (1980) as, "one that is organized on the basis of linguistics, or what we call grammatical forms (i.e., phonological forms, morphological forms, syntactic patterns, and lexical items) and emphasizes the way in which these forms may be combined to form grammatical sentences". This approach has had a strong influence over English language teaching for a long time. However, in the light of the current development of TEFL, the structural approach seems to face a heavy criticism. For example, Johnson (1978) criticizes that "the structural syllabus has had rather a raw deal". It is felt that the structural approach does not allow one "to see the practical application of the language
to real life" (Johnson, 1979). It seems true that there is little practical application to real life, for instance in structural-based textbooks, they focus heavily on teaching structures or patterns of grammar which are too general to meet the communicative needs of the local students of any particular country. The students under the structural approach are acquiring 'classroom' language which they are not likely to need.

Secondly, the structural approach does not take into account appropriateness of the language used. This is evidenced in course book materials in which the teachers asks questions like, "What is that?"; "What is on the table?"; or "Is this a pen?" requiring replies like "It's a book"; "There is a book on the table"; and, "No, it isn't a pen. It's a book," on the purpose of teaching the structures like answering questions by using the patterns: "It's a ..."; "There is a ... on the ..."; and, "No, it isn't a ... It's a ...".

To teach such patterns is useful but to teach them in this way, is "situationally dishonest" (Johnson, 1978) for the questions and the answers are perfectly correct but inappropriate to the situations in which they are supposed to be uttered.

To make it more clear, it may be better to illustrate by another example in which "one of the most widespread ways
of demonstrating the present continuous tense by 'situational presentation' is for the teacher to perform an activity like walking to the door or the widow and to say, while doing so: "I'm walking to the window." (Widdowson, 1978: 8). In addition, Widdowson (1978: 8) points out that "although the teacher has thereby devised a situation which makes the meanings of his sentences plain, the situation at the same time makes his sentences inappropriate in terms of use. Since everybody sees him/her walking to the door and walking to the window, there is no need whatever for him/her to announce that he/she is doing these things".

Thirdly, the structural approach fails to show the students the application of language to real life in an explicit way. In other words, when such a structure: "Would you like to ...?" is taught, it may not be explicitly pointed out that a common use of the structure is "to invite". Other examples are given by Palmer (1983: 56) in his 'Language in Use: Or, Building a Fire in a Wooden Stove on a Sinking Ship', for they might reflect how the sentences are led into misinterpretation if only the structure is literally considered, for instance on the English greeting like "How are you?" for "it is not a question. It is the acknowledgement of one's existence as a social being. The rejoinder to the greeting "How are you" is "Fine, thanks", not "My arthritis has been acting up lately and I've had a
headache all morning". And, the questions like "Would you mind passing the salt?" and "Is there salt on the table?" which are indirect requests rather than questions as they literally appeared, are not answered by either "Yes" or "No" but they may simply be responded by "the 'requested action' and a common action in a return" (Shatz, 1974:55).

It seems a disadvantage that the knowledge of grammatical forms cannot help the students to express themselves appropriately in social situations. As a result, they are handicapped in using language to communicate effectively with others. It is thus essential, in TESL, that grammatical patterns should be made relevant to actual situations as Dalzell (1978:110) expresses in his 'Real or Unreal? - Teaching the Conditions' as follows:

We are faced constantly with the problem of the student who has learned grammatical constructions but is unable to use them when the occasion comes up. We need to present grammar less as absolute rules and patterns, and to devote more effort to showing students how these patterns may be appropriate at some times and not at others. Both teacher and text must force the student to think about what he is learning and to consider carefully where and when he will utilize what he has learned. Only then will the unreality of grammar disappear, and the language structures will become to the student very real indeed.

One can perhaps extend the list of criticisms but for the present purpose of this study, it is sufficient to mention only a few, to show that the structural approach, in concentrating on the 'structure' to be taught, has failed to meet the
communicative purposes of language learning. But it is worth noting that such criticisms do not, by any means, imply complete abandonment of the structural approach in favour of the communicative approach or any others. In fact, there is no need for such an action. As Salimbene (1983: 2) states in her, 'From Structurally Based to Functionally Based Approaches to Language Teaching' that, "the functional approach does not deny the importance of mastering the grammatical system of the language, nor does it abandon a systematic development of structural mastery in the presentation of materials... Grammatical form is taught, not as an end in itself, but as a means of carrying out communicative intent".

Therefore, it can be concluded that, though there are such criticisms storming the structural approach on the points that it has put too much emphasis on 'advanced' structural patterns and caused the TEFL shortcomings that the students are unable to use the EFL effectively, it is argued that these shortcomings can be eliminated without discarding the structural approach. What is advocated is the teaching of structurally oriented materials in a communicative way (Byrne, 1978; and Johnson, 1978).

2. The Communicative Approach.

Since language is an efficient tool for communication and the goal of the student of EFL is to be able to communicate
effectively, methodology aiming at developing the communication skills of the students which calls for activities in the classroom which "parallel the 'real world' as closely as possible" (Clarke and Silberstein, 1979 : 135 - 154) and advocate a learning environment that involves the teacher as well as the student in a cooperative process of setting and achieving goals, is crucial in the TEFL and the learning process.

Recently, the communicative approach has come into focus in the field of TEFL because it potentially serves the students' needs in studying the language. Salirribene (1983 : 2) raises up such interesting questions for further discussion about communicative approach that is, "What is the 'functional approach' an approach', the 'notional approach', or even the 'communicative approach'? How do functionally based courses differ from structural based courses? Do these differences require major changes in language teaching methodology and models of student evaluation? Will these, in turn, affect the training, orientation and philosophy of future language teachers?" The answers to these questions are basic to the understanding and utilization of the new materials and current language research.

Wilkins (1976) calls communicative approach an analytic approach: "Analytic approach are behavioural ... They are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that
are necessary to meet those purposes ..." Canale and Swain (1980) add that "a communicative approach is organized on the basis of communicative functions that a group of learners need to know and emphasizes the ways in which particular grammatical forms may be used to express these functions appropriately.

The communicative approach looks at language acquisition as more than just "learning how to produce grammatically correct sentences; that there is 'grammar plus something else'. This 'something else' involves the ability to 'use' language 'appropriately' to perform those functions identified as being useful to the students" (Johnson, 1978).

Apart from appropriateness, the communicative approach also looks at the 'purpose' for which the language is being learned. Thus, "we use language to express judgments, to evaluate, to condemn, to absolve ..." (Wilkins, 1976) and the list goes on. The thing that is considered important is the 'functions' of the language.

In the communicative approach to teaching language, attention is given to methodology. This is concerned with what communication skills involve and it involves knowledge of linguistic forms and ability to use these forms in appropriate ways. The focus therefore, of every TEFL lesson is the performance of some kind of operation which the students actually use in the EFL. This means that practice activities
in the EFL classroom should be within a communicative framework; the activities which are based on the concept that highly motivate learning to communicate because it is one of the most important real-life purposes in communication, which "involves finding meanings, the exchange of meanings and the sending of meaning" (Age and Samude, 1980: 50).

Consequently, the majority of the communicative courses that have appeared so far have adopted this functional approach to language teaching. However, although this approach has a lot of appeal, it is not without problems. According to Johnson (1976), "a functional organisation of material automatically implies a degree of structural disorganisation" and as such, its suitability for students at a low level may be questioned. Furthermore, functional courses are need-based and the problem is that it is difficult to predict with accuracy what are the communicative needs of the students. Therefore, "to abandon familiar methods and techniques already found useful in the given learning situation" for a fully functional approach in general academic courses is seen as "decidedly premature" and "unjustifiable from an applied linguistic as well as an educational planning point of view" (Johnson, 1976).

However, one should also not be content and remain 'imprisoned within a structural straight jacket" (Byrne, 1978). Instead one should abstract what is useful from the new development
in language teaching. Much therefore can be gained from an eclectic approach where structurally-oriented materials are taught in a communicative way.

3. An Eclectic Approach.

Finocciary (1975 : 34) calls for attention to overemphasis on recent articles in many respectable language journals which tend to encourage with feverish advocacy only 'one' theory, 'one' method and 'one' set of techniques by viewing figuratively as follows:

In the last decade especially, it has been disheartening and frustrating to hear language-teaching specialists talk as if God had called to Moses as he was hurrying down the mountain with the tablet containing the ten Commandments and said "Moses! Moses! Come back. I forgot the most important commandment - number eleven: Thou shalt teach language in only one way". Interested, conscientious teachers and other educators concerned with learning theories and teaching practices have always realized in all areas and in all countries, that there is never an 'either/or' answer to any facet of educational theory or practice. They have always known that 'an eclectic, integrated approach' - one that combines non-conflicting and mutually supporting theories from several disciplines - is generally the most productive.

Gritner (1977 : preface) echoes the above idea by citing that "a foreign language reaches report issued by a Swedish pedagogical university in the early 1970s included a summarizing epigram stating that 'all methods are the best methods". According to Gritner's view, "this statement quite aptly sums up the conclusion arrived at by many contemporary foreign language
educators with respect to the part claims of doctrinaire methodologists. That is, there is an increasing scepticism with respect to people who prefer that they have discovered a 'pedagogical breakthrough' or that they are in possession of some 'new key' to teaching languages, which outmodes and makes laughable all previous instructional approaches". Gritner further adds that, "as the flaws of doctrinaire approaches to methodology became apparent, language teachers tended to discard the pursuit of methodological panaceas in favour of a more pragmatic, eclectic approach. With such an approach, one examines the entire repertoire of available teaching techniques and selects those which work in a given situation regardless of whether or not they are consistent with certain linguistic, psychological, or administration dicta" (Gritner, 1977: preface).

The ideas behind the use of communicative activities in eclectic approach are that, "the essence of learning of language is learning to communicate in that language and that the best way to learn to communicate in a language is through practising communication in it" (Honeyfield, 1979), though the students "may not be accurate but they are using language as it should be used - to say something, to communicate" (McIntosh, 1975: 26).

2.1.2 EFL Syllabus Design and Its Implementation.

Echoing the new trends in TEFL, the last decade has
witnessed a great deal of discussion of syllabus design "for much of the period during the past decade. When the movement towards communicative language teaching was strong, the syllabus was seen as the most important determinant of successful language teaching. Certainly the syllabus must be a major factor when the teaching intervenes explicitly in the language learning process" (Brumfit, 1993 :4).

A syllabus is primarily concerned with 'what' is to be learned, but as Corder (1975) points out, it is more than just an inventory of items. In addition to specifying the content of learning, a syllabus provides a rationale for how that content should be selected and ordered (McKay, 1980). In Wilkins' view, "syllabi are specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring or ordering with the aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process" (Paulston and Purey, 1993 : 1 - 2).

From the above point of view, Prabhu (1983 : 1) adds by classifying syllabus into two major roles: (i) an articulation of what is intended to be taught; and, (ii) an indication of what is proposed to be done in the classroom. In its first role, the syllabus is an analysis of the objectives or content of teaching and may be said to be 'produce-based'. In its second
role, by contrast, the syllabus is a specification of the means envisaged for achieving those objectives and may therefore be said to be 'process-based'. This is essentially a form of guidance to classroom teachers and writers of course materials. It is possible to take the view that only the first role, viz. specification of what is to be done in the classroom is a matter of methodology but that assumes, rather than assures, compatibility between syllabus and methodology.

It should be said that, language teaching-learning syllabi have been organized according to the trends in language teaching-learning. The language syllabus thus can be classified into three major types: (1) the Structure Syllabus, (2) the Situational Syllabus; and, (3) the Notional-Functional Syllabus, each of which will be discussed in turn:

1. The Structural Syllabus

The structural syllabus or grammatical syllabus, which has predominated in many parts of the world in the last twenty-five years, "gives primacy to language form", and "reflects the thinking of structural linguistics" (Paulston and Furey, 1983 : 2). "The structural syllabus specifies structural patterns as the basic units of learning and organizes these according to criteria such as structured complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility, and frequency. Closely associated with
the structural syllabus has been the audio-lingual method which derives its basic tenets from both structural linguistics and an operant conditioning view of language learning" (Paulston and Furey, 1983:2). But it is important to note that the structural syllabus "is not geared toward communicative purposes" (Panmeechao, 1981:2); "it does not preclude the learning of meaning, but the emphasis has clearly been on the internal formal properties of sentences and the manipulation of structural patterns" (Paulston and Furey, 1983:3); thus, the student will not be able to use the appropriate form in a particular setting until he has had the whole code.

2. The Situational Syllabus

The situational syllabus is a learner-based for it takes the student and his needs into consideration as Wilkins (1983) points out that "it is possible for people to concentrate learning upon the forms of language that are most appropriate to their needs. It has emerged from attempts to make language learning 'content more relevant to student needs. It is assumed that language is used in a social context, so as a result it should be taught in such a context. The situational syllabus therefore is based upon predictions of the situations in which the student may need to perform in the target language. The choice of linguistic forms, either grammatical or lexical, is restricted according to certain features of the social situations.
On the contrary, Panmeechao (1981 : 2) criticizes that situational syllabus "leaves the learner short of adequate communicative capacity because it indicated only the most predictable forms for a given situation and provides no basis for reacting to unpredictable events where there is no one-to-one correlation between situational and language.

3. The Notional-Functional Syllabus

The notional-functional syllabus (sometimes called the notional syllabus, a communication syllabus, or a communicative syllabus) represents a shift in focus from the formal to the communicative properties of language, and while its proponents acknowledge the need to teach language structure and to take into account relevant situational factors in syllabus design, their central concern is with the teaching of meaning and the communicative use of patterns.

The theory of the notional-functional syllabus has been developed in three major sources. The first is the taxonomy of notions proposed by Wilkins (1978 and 1976). Then the modifications in the original framework by van Ek (1975; 1976; 1978 and 1980) in his attempt to apply this taxonomy to the specification of the Council of Europe's Threshold Level. Finally, the attempt by Munby (1978) to integrate the work of the Council of Europe into a coherent system for developing
ESP (English for Specific Purposes) syllabuses, whether for EAP (English for Academic Purposes) or EOP (English for Occupational Purposes).

In 1972, David Wilkins presented a report entitled "Grammatical, Situational and Notional Syllabuses" to the Third International Conference of Applied Linguistics in Copenhagen. In this paper, he refers to a grammatical syllabus as one that attempts to take the learner through the entire grammatical system of the language regardless of the fact that not all parts of the system will be equally useful for all learners. The situational syllabus regards language in a social context and is based upon predictions of the situations in which the learner is likely to operate through the foreign language. Wilkins relates the grammatical syllabus to 'how' things are said, the situational to 'when' and 'where' things are said, and the notional-functional syllabus to 'which' notions (or ideas) the learner is going to want to communicate (Selimbene, 1983: 3).

The notional-functional syllabuses also been called a meaning based syllabus and its consideration thus requires an analysis of the different types of meanings conveyed by language. Wilkins (1976) in his definitive 'Notional Syllabus', published in 1976, refers to the notional-functional syllabus as one in which notions are expressed
through communicative functions. He distinguishes three types of meanings that are communicated in an utterance: (i) conceptual; (ii) modal; and, (iii) functional.

i) Conceptual meaning has to do with expression of perceptions, processes, states, and abstractions and along with the meaning of lexical items, is the area with which semantics has been concerned. Conceptual meaning is essential referential meaning and is categorized by Wilkins in terms of 'semantico-grammatical categories such as time, duration, quantity, and frequency.

ii) Modal meaning, which is expressed through such devices in the language as mood, modal particles, and modal verbs, has to do with the attitude of the speaker and his degree of certainty. Scale of certainty, scale of commitment, and intention are among the categories of modal meaning which Wilkins includes in his classification of modal meanings.

iii) Functional meaning has to do with the use to which an utterance is put by the speaker. In communicating, individuals perform certain functions such as praising, assessing, estimating, suggesting and apologizing, and Wilkins' categories of communicative functions incorporate the various speech acts by which speakers express their intentions.
In notional-functional syllabus the point is made that, "we can have purely conceptual one, but to qualify as fully notional a syllabus must be based on conceptual, modal and functional units. A notional-functional syllabus incorporates these three types of meanings" (Paulston and Furey, 1983 :5).

In addition, van Ek (1976 : 6) states that in performing certain functions people "express, refer to, or — use a more general term - 'handle' certain notions". Furthermore he distinguishes between general notions which are appropriate to a wide variety of topics and refer to concepts such as time, space, and quantity, and specific notions which are topic related and tend to be more concrete - school, course, lesson, for example are items included under his notional category of education (Paulston and Furey, 1983 : 5 - 6).

Munby (1978) developed a model in communicative syllabus design which "specified syllabus content in terms of micro-skills or micro-functions derived from the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner" and he adds that, "my model has always dealt with text cohesion and discourse coherence..." (Munby, 1983 : 1).

Furthermore, Munby (1983:2), in his own words, suggests the principles and the characteristics of communicative approach which should underlie syllabus design that:
I suggest that a broadly acceptable way of describing the principles that should underlie a communicative approach to syllabus design is in terms of an integrative view of communicative competence that subsumes three constituent competencies: grammatical, sociocultural, and discoursal. Grammatical competence covers rules of morphology, syntax and phonology, and is concerned with referential meaning: its crucial characteristic, however, is its generative capacity. Sociocultural competence covers rules of use, communication needs of the learner and their derived communicative functions, and is concerned with the pragmatic basis of meaning: its crucial characteristic is its relational capacity. Discoursal competence covers rules of discourse, including the cohesion system and coherence features, and positional significance in the text, and is concerned with negotiated meaning; its crucial characteristic, then, is its interactive capacity.

Furthermore Munby (1983:2) suggests that the compensatory strategies, for coping with the breakdown of or interference in communication are appropriately handled under either grammatical or sociolinguistic competence.

According to the issues concerning the fundamental problem of the starting point for designing a language syllabus and relating to the methodology in syllabus designs, Munby (1983:3) points out that designing a syllabus involves a logical sequence of three stages: (i) need analysis; (ii) content specification; and, (iii) syllabus organization. In his words, Munby describes that:

i) Needs analysis is concerned to find out the learner's need in the use of the target language (i.e. who is communicating with who, why, where,
when, how, at what level, about what, and in what way). Hawkey (1983) suggests that the label 'objectives' is more appropriate here, allowing 'needs' to be used for the individual's inner requirements. I shall compromise by using 'needs' to cover both. Obviously the predictability of learner's needs varies across situations, and the more general the purposes for which the target language is required the less amenable it is to a detailed analysis of needs. But this is not to invalidate the point of needs analysis nor can its place in the process of syllabus design be denied. This claim is corroborated by Brumfit (1977):

"If we have a group, as in a secondary school in Europe, who are diverse in interests and whose language needs are unpredictable, we still need to predict them as accurately as possible, we still need to look at the interaction that they may eventually need to be experienced in, at the styles they may need to master, and so on, just as much as we do for the ESP course. The task is harder, because of the wide range of potential language use, but the principle is the same".

ii) Content specification. This stage is to specify the content to be taught. Now whatever the nature of this content, whether it is expressed as grammatical forms, communicative functions, language skills or discourse
units, it stands a much better chance of being relevant and appropriate to the particular learner or group if it is related to aprior analysis of his or their needs. The closeness of this relationship will vary from the checklist approach, check potential content against unordered needs variables, that may be suitable for a heterogeneous group of pupils in lower secondary school, to a direct derivation of the content from a systematically processed profile of needs, an approach possible with a basically homogeneous group of adult (though not only adult) learners whose needs are broadly predictable.

iii) Syllabus organisation. This stage is to organise the specified content into the teaching syllabus. It is here that decisions are made about the clustering or grouping of content into learning units about grading and sequencing, introduction and recycling, etc. This stage is also the bridge across the gap from syllabus specification to materials production.

It is worth noting that a communicative methodology can and should be applied to syllabus content specified by this model. The problem-solving approach to the development of micro-skills needed for activities involving reading comprehension is clearly facilitative in that it is learner-centered and
helps the learner to help himself to develop his reading skills, and engages the learner in real outcomes generalisable to the outside world.

In conclusion, it is important to note that notional-functional syllabus takes the desired communicative capacity as the starting-point. The language teaching is organized in terms of the content rather than the language forms. The content or 'what to teach' depends directly on the communication needs of a particular group of learners. Then the most appropriate forms for each type of communication are decided. This type of syllabus takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning together with grammatical and situational factors. It is superior to the grammatical syllabus, which emphasizes only the rules of grammar, because, ideally, it will produce communicative competence. Competence refers not only to grammatical competence but also to communicative performance. It is superior to the situational syllabus because it includes the most important grammatical forms and it can cover all kinds of language functions, not only those that typically occur in certain situation.

However, it may be worth considering another point of view of syllabus organization as Brumfit (1983: 7-8) suggests famous seven steps of Taba's model (Taba, 1962)
(i) Need analysis; (ii) Formulation of objectives;
(iii) Selection of content; (iv) Organization of content;
(v) Selection of learning activities; (vi) Organization of learning activities; and, (vii) Decisions about what needs evaluating and how to evaluate, as he states that "language syllabus discussion still follows the general model of Taba, originally developed during the Second World War".

In other words, as far as the syllabus organization is concerned, Brumfit suggests to put an emphasis not only on the content of the syllabus but on the 'process' -- teaching-learning activities, and on the evaluation of the learning outcomes which he considers "in the long run, much more important" (Brumfit, 1983: 8), for they are important as the practical parts of the syllabus design which requires to be careful in selecting, organizing and 'putting' into effective actual classroom activities. Paulston and Furey (1983: 22-23) adds that "the success of any syllabus depends on a large extent of how successfully it can be implemented in a particular setting, and its implementational aspects of evaluation".

Furthermore, in their words, Paulston and Furey (1983: 6-7) view that "although the syllabus is an important component
of learning, it is only one factor among many that constitute foreign language instruction, and it is difficult to isolate syllabus related variables without reference to other features of the teaching-learning process such as teaching methods.

In addition, in order to reach student goal, Brumfit (1983 : 8) suggests an integrated syllabus selection, regardless of the objections and the criticisms on "the lack of a principled means of ordering syllabus content" (Paulston and Purey, 1983: 16) of the notional-functional syllabus and "the inadequacy in providing the student with the means to acquire communicative competence" (Paulston and Purey, 1983: 15 - 16) of the structural syllabus and the situational syllabus, as it is agreed that each of the three types of language syllabus has its own strength and weakness in providing the student communicative competence in language study, and in addition, he suggests classroom 'interactional' activities in which 'integrated' language skills are more concentrated than the traditional separated 'four skills' for the former provide a more satisfactory way of communicative language goal. His suggested communicative activities are: (i) conversation/discussion; (ii) comprehension; (iii) planning; leading to (iv) extending writing; and, (v) extended speaking. However, Brumfit leaves the decisions of choosing the means by which
the goals are achieved to the teachers for they will not necessarily involve performance of these activities themselves only.

In addition, on the extension of discussion about 'integrated skills' language teaching process, Byrne and Rixon (1980) states that, "the process of integrating language skills involves linking them together in such a way that what has been learnt and practised through the exercise of one skill is reinforced and perhaps extended through further language activities which bring one or more of the other skills into use" (Pagulayan, 1981: 10). Byrne observes that the term 'integrated skills' is frequently used as a synonym of reinforcement.

The communication skills are so integrated that one grows out of another. For instance, an essay or a poem may be made a springboard to writing. A newspaper advertisement for a job may be a good topic for oral discussion and this may lead to a writing activity, with a letter of application as an output. A piece of interesting significant news heard over the radio may also be a source of oral discussion or may turn out into a writing session as the bits of information are pieced together into a writing news report. Taking down notes while a speech is delivered involves almost simultaneous listening and writing activities (Pagulayan, 1981: 10).
When one thinks of the integration of communicating skills one has to look at the matter in the light of how these skills normally occur in real life. The example given by Byrne and Rixon (1980) clearly exemplifies a rural life situation. One reads an advertisement for a job in a newspaper. He is interested in the job so he discusses it with someone or he may ring up to ask further information about the job. Then he writes a letter of application. The receiver of the letter reads it and writes a reply. A chain of activities involving different communication skills has taken place, with this nexus:

READING ---------- SPEAKING ----------
(+LISTENING) ------ WRITING------------
READING----------WRITING

There are a number of ways of achieving skills integration in a communicative approach. It is therefore, important to consider the implementation of this into teaching. For example, in teaching reading, other communication skills are involved. Hence, the teacher should provide a chain of activities to bring out the skills in situations that are close to the real world. Although there is no definite order at which these skills occur, at each point the students are provided with a reason for using the skill in the right situation. The teacher thus provides opportunities to bring different skills into plays as and when they are
appropriate" (Byrne, and Rixon, 1980). Byrne and Rixon (1980) stressed that it is the principle behind this approach that world seems to be especially important: that, in a communicative approach the learners are made to use the different skills not to reinforce one skill through another; but rather to knit the skills together so that they are used in a natural, meaningful and purposeful way (Pagulayan, 1981: 10 – 12).

It may be more interesting to turn an attention onto suggestions of actual classroom activities as Celce-Murcia (Bailey and Celce-Murcia, 1979: 4 – 6) views that, "given that a significant among of student-student interaction is necessary if communication is to achieve in the EFL classroom", and then she isolates four areas affecting classroom interaction that the teacher should attend to: (i) social climate; (ii) variety in learning activities; (iii) opportunities for student participation; and, (iv) feedback and correction.

1) Social Climate. Social climate is the most basic and fundamental of the areas. Without a good social climate, everything else that is discussed becomes meaningless. If students are not at ease and do not feel good about their language class, there will be no communication. It is the teacher's responsibility to establish the proper atmosphere so that the students can relate to the
teacher and to each other in positive and constructive way. To do this the teacher has to enjoy teaching and to like his/her students. Two other things that impinge on the social climate and that the teacher should attend to are (a) being fair; and, (b) making the class relaxed and enjoyable.

ii) Variety in Learning Activities. While providing social climate on the purpose of encouraging communication in the class is a form of 'internal' motivation, introducing variety into learning activities is an 'external' form of motivation. If the teacher can use some variety in each lesson to make the class more enjoyable and less routine, this will also motivate the students to learn EFL effectively. Variety can be introduced on many different levels. One way is to make effective use of all four skills (integratedly). Another way is to move as quickly as possible from manipulative drills to communicative activities which can include a variety of tasks (problem solving, role-playing, values clarification, skill competition, etc.). Finally, teachers should try to expose their students to a variety of native speakers. They
should hear many voices in addition to the teacher's. This can be done using tape recordings, videotapes, radio or television, or more effectively - with 'live' speakers who are class guests.

iii) Opportunity for Student Participation. The most direct way to facilitate communication in EPL class is to provide ample opportunity for student participation, which has as its correlated

(a) little or no teacher domination; and,
(b) minimal teacher talking time. At the most general level, student participation means allowed students to have as much input as possible into the class itself (i.e., syllabus, activities, assignments, grading, management, etc.). More specifically, the teacher can have the students work in pairs or groups whenever useful. This permits the teacher to be a resource person rather than the dominant figure. Communicative activities lend themselves well to work in pairs or groups. In pairs, students can carry out interviews, write or complete dialogues, and have one-to-one conversations or do role-plays. In groups, they can do problem solving, values classification, or role-playing, and can prepare
group outlines or compositions. In order for such activities to be fruitful, the activity must be carefully planned, the students must have a specific task, there should be a limited but reasonable period of time for completing the task, and there must be time allowed for feedback, i.e., correction, checking, and reconciliation of the various responses.

iv) Feedback and Correction. When a teacher allows for active student participation, his/her responsibility to provide useful feedback and correction to the student becomes even greater. Dealing with correction is an inherently delicate matter. Some research recommend that teachers ask each student how and when s/he wants to be corrected because this varies considerably from an individual to another (Cathcart and Olson, 1976: 6). Peer- and self-correction are also known more effective than teacher correction; thus a good teacher will enlist assistance from the class or ideally guide students in correcting their own mistakes rather than merely providing the correct form. Another important technique the teacher can do is to encourage self-correction.
It is also important to give positive as well as negative feedback, and to handle public corrections in such a way that no one in the class feels ridiculed because the teacher or a classmate has made a correction.

In addition, suggestions for making the structural approach more communicative have come from people like Byrne (1978), Johnson and Morrow (1978), Rivers (1972), and Paulston (1971). According to Johnson, whether or not the language teaching in communicative depends to some extent on the methodology, that is used. Thus the solution here must lie in: (i) making the drills more meaningful and communicative; and, (ii) "setting maximum amount of meaningful practice" (Byrne, 1978). And how (i) and (ii) goals may be achieved will be discussed in turn:

1) Meaningful and Communicative Drill. There seems to be sufficient evidence to indicate that, "students learn to communicate best when their oral language practice involves realistic, meaningful use of the language" (Joiner, 1977). Oller and Obrecht (1968) also found that the effectiveness of pattern drills is significantly increased when the language in the drill is related to communication. Paulston (1971) distinguishes among mechanical, meaningful and communicative drills. She maintains that all three types of
drills are necessary but suggests that more emphasis be placed on the meaningful and communicative drills. Rivers (1972 and 1973) outlines a similar approach to help students in their 'great leap' from pattern practice to communicative ability. Her main criticism of mechanical drills is that they involve students in making untrue, unreal or unnatural statements. Her suggestion then is to create situations which are relevant to students' lives and then forcing them to think about the meaning and consequences of what they say in such situations.

ii) Group Work and Communicative Activities. Students must be allowed to try out the language for themselves through activities in the classroom because no real learning can be assumed to have taken place until the students are able to use the language for themselves (Byrne, 1976). But, unfortunately, such opportunities to use the language freely, are often not provided in the traditional classroom for various reasons like production of errors, noise, etc. Thus, lessons often stop short at the practice stage of the learning process. The inclusion of activities in the production stage is only a natural completion of what is seen as the final stage
in the traditional teaching sequence. However, the activities used must provide for communication between two or more people. The followings are examples of the main types of communicative activities:

a) Consensus seeking activities. In such activities students are asked to reach a consensus on some problems.

b) Role-playing. This involves pretending or imagining that one is a certain person in a certain situation.

c) Problem solving tasks. However, if problem solving is done by students working alone, it will not involve communication which will only take place if there is interaction amongst the members of the group to solve a problem. Some tasks may require students to change information i.e., one student is provided with certain information and another student has to get this information to complete a set task.

d) Game-like activities. In these activities there is more freedom for discussion and players often have to cooperate rather than compete with each other (i.e., Maze and Arranging) (Honeyfield, 1979:9).
e) Traditional language teaching games. This game involves listening to and following instructions given by a student, i.e. Simon says.

In addition, it should be taken into consideration that one of the crucial aspects of language teaching-learning process, especially TEFL which involves with non-native learners, is the culture - one of the important social parameters which can help "one to be able to communicate effectively in a society" by being able to "understand the attitudes, values and belief underlying the target culture" (Rubin, 1982:1). Brumfit (1982:1), convincing Hymes' views (1972 and 1964), points out that, "the process of language use is to express a living culture". Di Pietre (1981:1) agrees with Richards (1981:2) and Rubin (1982:2) by stressing that EFL teachers can no longer ignore the cultural elements in the language teaching process. Failure to recognize the proper language use could result in negative and traumatic experience for learner. He insists that teachers/try to sensitize their pupils to cultural conflicts and give them a basis to use in their own lives (Aksornkool, 1983:1).

Aksornkool (1983:2) illustrates an example of communication breakdown due to opposite underlying values
about communication as follows:

When a Thai pupil was asked, in American English composition class, to write a piece of descriptive prose, he chose a most common chiché topic, i.e., to describe the sunrise in a generic sense. He started out by talking about the majestic mountains and the vast sea, the swaying coconut and palm trees, the birds and the flowers. And then the golden and silver lights of dawn. He then proceeded to describe the various every changing hues of the light colouring the sky using the language which as flowery as he could find. In the end, his essay looked like a huge piece of badly made custom jewellery. The American teacher, unfamiliar with such a style, is shocked, outraged. The paper was marked with not an F but 'rewrite'. The teacher thought the pupil mad. The pupil felt the teacher insensitive and, arose, untrustworthy. (For he had put so much care and thought into the essay). After such a negative experience, the pupil formed a strong dislike and luckily he found it. This story has since become a joke. But imagine how many of our students walk around with such misunderstandings. The sad thing about this is that we could help our students avoid such unfortunate incidence if we know how to sensitize them to the common conflicts between the two traditions.

The list of examples of such misunderstanding due to lack of common cultural background goes on. The one given here is only to indicate that, "Thais (according to the above example) do filter their communication in English through their own cultural background. In doing so, they often misinterpret the message resulting in potentially negative and traumatic experiences. This is manifest in the many biased stereotypes about members of certain nationalities. For instance, 'are stingy', 'is cold', 'is crazy', or 'inconsiderate'. The list continues. Until
the underlying values of communication of another culture is understood, one cannot expect to operate effectively with members of the other communicative tradition" (Aksornkool, 1983: 3).

Aksornkool (1983: 3), in conclusion, expresses that, "misunderstanding abounds when Thais communicate their failure to comprehend the semantic and syntactic structures of the language. Instead, it is their inadequate knowledge of the system of values which dictates how one fares successfully in verbal interaction in another social context quite different from one's own".

In conclusion, it is important to note that, "one of the most critical elements in considering the implementation of a syllabus is the teacher, in particular, his training and proficiency in the target language for different syllabus types require different sorts of linguistic knowledge and teaching skills" (Salimbene, 1983: 23). Indeed, the teacher knows what his class is like and how unique each is. The new trends of language syllabus and teaching-learning methodology which emphasize student communicative needs may imply that the teacher may be "to become a syllabus designer and material writer" (Salimbene, 1983: 6) of his own classroom for it is his responsibilities to implement the theoretical 'dream' underlying the syllabus
philosophy to become effectively 'true' in the practical 'real world' of the classroom situations. It is only the teacher, who can lead, his students to reach their communicative goal of EFL study. The important factor to be considered as the guideline to help the teacher implement such 'dream' of the teaching-learning objective depends mainly on his own abilities of transferring his 'knowledge' and 'performance' of the language subject-matter (Competency of knowledge and using the EFL for communication) to enable his students to effectively 'learn' and 'perform' (competency of TEFL for communication). In order to fulfil this goal, the teacher, has to shift his role as the 'knower' or the 'giver' of the knowledge into the 'receiver' of information by encouraging the student to do 'perform' the knowledge and skills he has learnt through his own communicative competence.

2.1.3 Teacher Effectiveness and Its Appraisal Procedures and Techniques

It is evident that the quality of education depends upon many factors, for instance, curriculum, educational administration, supervision, teachers, budget, buildings and equipment, background of the parents and the societal environments including the social, political, economic, and cultural aspects. However, it is agreed that the most potential factor of which is the teacher, for he influences
greatly upon the children’s learning efficiency (Chaikosri, 1970: 10) and, in addition, "the teacher as a major source of teaching profession plays an important role towards other members of the profession - the students and the community (Education, 1980: 33).

Adaval (1979: 1) echoes the above views by adding that, "the place and importance of the teacher in a society can never be over-estimated. As a person who imbibes integrets and disseminates the culture and traditions of the past, and as the matter of one and all, his position is unique and second to none. In the field of education, or in a specific teaching-learning situation, he is the ultimate agent who dispenses knowledge, frames the time schedule, selects reading materials, plays the role of subject specialist, evaluates learning outcomes, and helps pupils to overcome their difficulties and personal problems. It is he who sets the standard, builds up desirable attitudes, and approves or disapproves pupil behaviour. He influences his pupils by what he says, and even more by what he does. His attitude toward his pupils, toward his world of work and life in general, his philosophy of education put into practice, his interests, ideas and aptitude condition learning and are, therefore, important for pupil".
2.1.3.1 Teacher Effectiveness

At present, as teaching is considered to be a profession like medicine, architecture, law, dental science and so on for it is the education of children with a background of knowledge about children in general and knowledge of wide ranges in individual differences between them, teaching therefore, calls for intelligent selection from among various alternative possibilities. As a result, effective teaching depends upon highly qualified teachers with suitable types of competencies.

Borich and Fenton (1977 : 5-8) view toward defining teacher competencies by beginning with defining and differentiating the three related terms - behaviours, variables, and competencies as they represent complementary and progressively more specific ways of describing teacher performance which greatly involve in the assessment of teachers.

The term 'behaviour' involves the most general level of description. At this level, an educational psychologist might define the concept of, say, a teacher's 'warmth' toward children by describing the teacher's classroom behaviour as friendly, intimate, or affectionate. He or she thus conveys the idea of a behaviour by using synonyms. Because behaviours like these are described in such general terms, they therefore, must tied to specific variables and
competencies in order to be useful in the appraisal process. From behaviours, then, are variables and competencies derived.

The word 'variable' refers to the term in which a particular teacher behaviour is to be observed and recorded. A variable specifies a behaviour by stating explicitly the way in which the behaviour is to be measured. Variables redefine behaviours in terms of the operations that are necessary to observe and to measure them. These operations must express the behavioural concept in the form of a scale, which represents the level of differentiation at which the particular behaviour can be reliably observed and distinguished from other behaviours. In other words, a specific measurement scale is constructed in order to translate the behavioural concept into a continuum of gradations or levels. It should be noted that behaviours can be translated into variables using any number of different operations.

The next step in defining teacher performance involves the identification of teacher competence. Competencies, like variables, are characterized by a metric or scale. However, unlike variables, competencies include the specification of a desired quantity of behaviour, which is referenced in the metric. Competencies identify a single
level of proficiency, or range of levels, determined through theoretical or empirical processes; at which a teacher should perform. Unlike variables, competencies are either attained or not attained. It is the level of proficiency which is critical, not, as in the case of variables, simply the separation and differentiation of various degrees of behaviours.

It can be said that a competency can be described in terms of its form, which places it in a particular category of behaviour, and its structure, which places it in a sequence with other competencies.

There are three forms of teacher competencies: (a) knowledge competencies, specifying cognitive understanding the teacher is expected to demonstrate; (b) performance competencies, specifying teaching process the teacher is expected to demonstrate; and, (c) consequence competencies, specifying pupil behaviours that are viewed as evidence of teaching effectiveness.

It is noted that knowledge competencies are needed in order to attain performance competencies, and performance competencies are in turn needed to attain consequence competencies. Knowledge, performance, and consequence competencies are best viewed as a sequence of interrelated behaviours that work in partnership to build a comprehensive
array of both teacher and pupil outcomes in the classroom. The following is a brief discussion of the mentioned forms of teacher competencies:

(a) **Knowledge Competencies.** Since knowledge competencies can be derived from either teaching process or subject-matter content, they are divided into two types: (i) process; and, (ii) content. Knowledge competencies that involve the 'process' of teaching might include, for example, a teacher's ability to describe ways of effectively managing the classroom, or to identify specific teacher behaviours associated with, say, the "inquiry approach to teaching". On the other hand, knowledge competencies related to 'content' might include a teacher's knowledge of set theory, of the metric system, or of laws governing liquids and gases.

(b) **Performance Competencies.** Performance competencies refer to ongoing teaching behaviours as they are performed in the classroom.

(c) **Consequence Competencies.** The ultimate level of competence, and the form which has perhaps received most attention, is that of consequence competencies. Consequence competencies refer to pupil outcomes produced by the teacher's proper use of an array of knowledge and performance competencies. Like knowledge competencies, they can specify both content and process behaviours. Those that are
content-related involve the pupil's mastery of subject-matter.

It is agreed that efficiency in teaching increases with greater academic qualifications and training. Professional qualification in teaching enables a teacher to teach better; create interest in the students and the subject; secure the students' obedience and respect; mould the character of the students of the right lines; make the students industrious; and, help the development of the students' personality in all respects.

For further consideration, it is worth noting that at present, though the teacher training programme administration in Thailand has not much been changed, some of the important substance of the competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE) has been used and applied for the purpose of improving the training programme. Need assessment process has been used to clarify and stipulate the required teacher competencies. For instance, in 1977, Pasitwilitum (1977: 61 - 69) studied the needed competencies of the primary school teachers in Sakonnakhorn and Nakhornphanom Province and found that sixty-nine competencies, which could be categorized into five aspects: Teaching; Academic; Guidance and Class-Control; Human Relationship; and, Leadership Characteristics Competencies, were needed. Likewise,
Sucharitkun and others (1979: 13-16) studied the needed competencies for the standard criteria of teaching at the primary school level in Thailand and found that 131 competencies out of which could be categorized into four aspects: Academic; Teaching Skills; Attitude; and Educational Administration Competencies, were required. In addition, according to the Analysis of the Required Competencies of the Primary School Teacher Under the 1978 Curriculum (the National Education Committee, 1979: 1-18), the results revealed that 200 competencies under five major aspects: Community; Curriculum Implication; and, Evaluation Competencies, were needed.

Apart from the mentioned studies of the primary education level, Tell (1981: 3362-A) recently studied high school students' perceptions of the characteristics of the effective teacher and found that the teacher characteristics ranked highest by the students were: the effective teacher (i) explains assignments/gives examples; (ii) explains difficult materials; (iii) does not take personal problems out on students; (iv) grades fairly; (v) maintains control of the class; (vi) is friendly; (vii) listens when students speak; (viii) helps students with difficult materials; (ix) does not ridicule students; and, (x) is honest.
Furthermore, according to Maphuang (1977), the related factors of the effectiveness of the higher education instruction can be described as follows:

1. The relationship between the instructors and the students which comprises of the following aspects: the willingness and being at ease to be associated with the students both inside and outside the classroom; the optimism towards the students from the beginning of the first class; the encouragement to build the student confidence; the praise and fair criticism towards the student work; and, the willingness to help the students with both academic and curriculum supplementing activities.

2. The methods of teaching: clear exemplifying, precise and clear explanation on the subject including on the abstract content; well-planned lesson preparation; and, immediate improvement of the lesson after each instructional evaluation.

3. The teacher personality: the willingness to search for educational innovation and technology, especially in the subject being taught; self-confidence; creativity; possessing the leadership characteristics; and, being patient and gentle.

4. The positive attitude of the teacher towards the subject being taught: teaching the subject that is in
the area of the teacher's major or minor subject; and teaching the subject that is in the teacher's interest and that the teacher has been experienced in teaching for number of years.

5. Evaluation: immediate evaluation and feedback; fair and regular evaluation; and using different techniques of effective evaluation.

Similarly, Suwannachot (1981: 167-168) divides the teacher's basic competencies into three main types:

1. Knowledge Competency. Appropriate and modern academic knowledge including the knowledge concerning the teaching profession, e.g., general knowledge on teaching education; educational psychology; teaching pedagogies; and educational evaluation, can help the teacher succeed in his teaching profession.

2. Profession Competency. In developing his teaching profession, the teacher needs to improve the skills of teaching instructional materials, performing actual teaching by using different techniques or methods of teaching, assigning work or exercises to the students; evaluating the students' learning outcomes, and guiding and counselling; the skills of associating and building good relationship with the community; and, the skills of teaching innovation creation.
3. Teaching Attitude Competency. The major task of the teacher is teaching. It is not just a telling or lecturing task but a task of guiding; providing opportunity to perform and use in the students' real lives what they have learnt; encouraging the students to think, experiment and search for further knowledge; and, helping and motivating the students to learn successfully.

It is important to consider the other points of views of other educators towards the effective teacher competencies which can be grouped as follows:

1. Knowledge Competency. Sawadipanit (1974: 25); Athakorn (1971: 28); Sucharitkun (1977); and, Thasak (1979) agree that good teacher should possess both general and teaching profession knowledge, especially the subject-matter knowledge on which subject being taught aside from the knowledge of teaching and educational administration tasks. Sisa-at (1972: 5-6) supports the above views by stating that when the teacher is extensively competent in the subject he is teaching, he can teach it confidently and is able to discuss for further knowledge in different aspects which can greatly cause confidence to the students and gain positive attitude towards both their teacher and the subject they are studying.

that the academic tasks that the teacher must perform in order to develop his academic competency are:

- to study and clarify the curriculum;
- to prepare the lesson planning on both the whole course planning and the daily lesson planning;
- to select appropriate techniques of teaching accordingly to the level of the students;
- to prepare suitable evaluation techniques and use the results in improving his teaching;
- to select and prepare the instructional materials suitably to the teaching-learning activities;
- to select texts and supplementing reading materials; and,
- to perform the teaching activities effectively.

3. Teaching and Teaching Preparation Competency.

Sawadipanit (1974: 217 - 220) and Sornsiri (1972: 3 - 9) agree that good teachers must prepare the subject content according to the curriculum and be able to teach appropriately to the level and the ability of the students. Besides, the teacher should prepare the classroom atmosphere in order to motivate and encourage the students to learn effectively. According to the mentioned views, Thariwan and others (1977: 127) add that the needed skills for teachers are the skills of lesson presentation; questioning; lesson conclusion; instructional material using; chalkboard using; encouraging; thinking motivation; content explanation and story telling; and, exemplifying. Apart from these, the
competent teacher should, in addition, possess different teaching skill including knowledge transferring skill which is considered to be one of the significant teacher profession skills which obtained by regular trainings not by chance (Sripahon, 1972: 10). Sisa-at (1972: 5 - 6), Bausri (1972: 47 - 51), and the Educational Reforming Committee (1979: 25 - 27) echo the views by claiming that good teachers should be competent in teaching by selecting and using effective techniques of teaching; knowing other educational sources that can support and provide effective teaching, e.g., psychology of child development and learning theory; knowing the students well; creating interesting atmosphere in the classroom; motivating the students by giving related reinforcement to the state of each individual student; giving pre-testing for the purpose of measuring the students' pre-entry knowledge and their readiness before starting the lessons; paying close attention to the teaching task in order to fulfil the set objectives; changing his role as 'knowledge giver' or 'classroom leader' into the 'learning-activity guide' by providing opportunity for the students to perform the learning activities by themselves; helping the weak students and supporting the gifted ones; providing group-activities so that the good students can help the weaker ones and that they learn how to work together; and finally, the teacher should regularly measure
the students' learning progressiveness in order to analyse and solve the actual problems, and to prepare for the next lesson.

4. Moral Competency. Sucharitkun (1977), Methasima (1975 : 18-21), and Athakorn (1971 : 28) agree that good teachers need to have good moral including being polite, kind, honest, and patient. Besides, the teacher should have teaching-moral by being kind and paying attention to the children; putting their close involvement and cares to all students equally; having teaching ethics; and having confidence and positive attitude towards the teaching profession.

5. Human Relationship Competency. Good teachers are considered to possess good relationship with both the students and their parents, apart from being able to share and participate in the work with their peer teachers (Sornsiri, 1972 : 3 - 9). Furthermore, the teacher should participate in the community activities so that they can help and build good relationship between the school and the community (the Educational Reforming Committee, 1979 : 25-27).

6. Personality Competency. Good teacher should possess good personality, e.g., being confident, clean, and gentle, and they should develop their personality as good models of the students like being punctual, industrious,
cheerful, polite, patient, and kind; having sense of humour; and, taking full responsibility to their work (Sisa-at, 1972: 5 - 6). In addition, the teacher should have good habits on reading and studying-skills in order to search and experiment for the educational technology and innovation for the improvement and modernizing of their knowledge and teaching competencies. Finally, they should have good judgment, be careful in making decisions, and be confident to give opinions and propagate their knowledge and competencies to the society.

As the present study is involved with TEFL, it additionally is important to quote the following views of Altman (1981: 1 - 4) which conclude that an up-to-date, competent, enlightened second language teacher (which can be applied for foreign language teacher as well) is one who:

1. is an expert in dealing with the problem
2. is trained in psycholinguistics
3. is trained in sociolinguistics
4. is a drama coach
5. is a creative writing specialist
6. is a designer of communicative syllabuses
7. is a proficient oral interviewer
8. is a skillful developer of communicative competence in the classroom
9. individualizes instruction
10. is an expert on vocational education
11. is an authority on mime techniques
12. is a classroom researcher
13. utilizes (and develops) computer-assisted language instruction.
14. is an expert at "total physical responses" techniques
15. is a dialectologist
16. is a motivator
17. is an evaluator
18. is a skillful discourse analyzer
19. is a specialist in nonverbal communication
20. is a conference coordinator
21. is an expert on functional-notional teaching
22. is a statistician
23. is a specialist in teaching culture
24. is an expert on intercultural communication
25. is a builder of dyads in the classroom
26. is silent (the Silent Way)
27. is a specialist in simulation and gaming
28. is an authority on bilingual education
29. is an applied linguist
30. is an education programmer
31. is a master at error analysis
32. is a syntactician
33. is a specialist in cloze testing
34. is a values clarifier
35. is an expert in teaching scientific and technical language
36. is a connoisseur of translation
37. is a master of pronunciation techniques
38. is an authority on teaching listening comprehension
39. is a master at special-purpose language teaching
40. analyzes speech acts
41. advises language learners on employment possibilities
42. is a spelling coach
43. is a reading specialist
44. is a musician
45. is an expert on tone and register in language
46. is an authority on the hemispheres of the brain and their functions
47. is a grammarian
48. is a jazz chanter
49. is a hyphotizer
50. is a specialist in affective education
51. is a comédian
52. is a metalinguist
53. is a creolist and pidginist
54. is a team-builder
55. is an authority on confluent education
56. is a story teller
57. is a psychometrician
58. is a specialist in mixed-level classes (as well as heterogeneous and homogeneous classes)
59. writes successful grant proposals
60. develops materials
61. is a counselor
62. is an expert on language transfer
63. is an authority on communicative disorders
64. trains paraprofessionals
65. is a folksinger
66. is a public speaker
67. is a program administrator
68. monitors the "Monitor"
69. advises foreign students
70. is a drill master
71. supervises student teachers
72. is a film critic
73. is a cognitive psychologist
74. is a poet
75. is a photographer
76. is a language laboratory director
77. is a specialist in note-taking skills
78. is a master of role-playing techniques
79. is a curriculum evaluator
80. is a puppet-maker
81. personalizes instruction
82. is a multi-cultural specialist
83. is a specialist in the teaching of literature
84. is a lexicographer
85. is a communication catalyst.
From the previous studies and points of view, it seems that there are number of competencies needed for characterizing good teachers, especially good teachers in TEFL. However, though there are differences in details, it can be concluded that the teacher competencies can be grouped into three major categories: (i) Knowledge Competency which includes general knowledge, subject-matter knowledge, and the knowledge of teaching profession of the teacher; (ii) Teaching Competency which comprises of the abilities and skills of the teacher on implementing the curriculum and the educational objectives practically into effective actual teaching-learning activities in the classroom; and, (iii) Personality and Attitude Competency which includes the desirable teacher personalities and positive attitude of the teacher towards the teaching profession.

It is therefore, important to note, in conclusion, that the competent teacher is the one who is considered well-insighted in the knowledge of the subject-matter he is teaching apart from the knowledge and skills of the teaching profession; who is able to lead the students to successfully fulfil their learning objectives; and, who possesses good teacher moral and behaves as a good model of the students and the community. And in order to maintain such required competencies, the teacher should
regularly develop his good characteristics and competencies by searching for further knowledge and skills e.g., reading and participating in some in-service teacher training programmes.

2.1.3.2 Teacher Evaluation: Procedures and Techniques

It can be said that one of the forces providing impetus for the movement of the evaluation of the performance of teachers is the growing demand for educational accountability. The accountability demands of many schools automatically raised questions about the teachers who played a prominent role in their implementation. Consequently, teaching effectiveness and the administrative accountability of schools often became the focus of attempts to monitor and evaluate the national funded programmes.

Beginning in the United States, by 1970, community measures began to slowly but methodically bear down on the local schools often demanding accountability in terms of pupil outcomes per tax dollar spent. In some cases school administrators responded to these pressures by concentrating on the move obvious indicators of effectiveness, such as pupil performance on national achievement tests.

Influenced by federal accountability and widespread community concern about higher, but apparently unproductive, school expenditures, another force - state government -
began to enact legislation requiring the appraisal of school district personnel. A prime example of such state-enacted accountability legislation is California's Stull Act. The Act requires that school boards in that state evaluate their educators yearly and provide recommendations for improvement. The Stull Act gives local communities of mandate to develop procedures for appraising school district personnel, thereby raising the anxiety of the teachers who must be appraised.

It is noted that, though the evaluation procedures required by the Stull Act can vary from district to district, it implies that any appraisal system implemented must be comprehensive enough to evaluate multiple criteria (i.e., the teacher's content knowledge and teaching skills) using multiple methods (i.e., systematic classroom observation, peer supervisor, and self-appraisals, and indices of pupil achievements). Also, such plans must incorporate regular procedures for periodically reporting appraisal data to the teacher for diagnostic purposes - to assist the teacher in upgrading his or her performance through continuing professional development programme (Borich and Fenton, 1977: vii - ix).

In addition, it is noted that in recent years there have been many studies on the effectiveness of teachers and particularly the characteristics and behaviours of teachers that relate to effective
instruction. Reviews of these studies, such as those conducted by McNeil and Popham (1973), and Soar & Soar (1972), have helped to identify factors that consistently relate to student learning outcomes.

It, additionally, should be added for further consideration that in the 11th annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitude Toward the Public Schools conducted in May 1979 (Gallup, 1979: 39) the majority of those polled felt that education is worse today than in earlier times. Included in the mentioned survey were two questions about the testing of teachers:

In addition to meeting college requirements for a teacher's certificate, should those who want to become teachers also be required to pass a state board examination to prove their knowledge in the subject(s) they will teach before they are hired? After they are hired, do you think teachers should be tested every few years to see if they are keeping up to date with developments in their field?

There was widespread approval for such examinations, with 85% of those polls answering "yes, they should" to both questions. Teachers in the public's ideal school, as described in this poll, would be required to pass state board examinations not only before they were hired but also at regular intervals thereafter (Harris, 1983: 60).
Before proceeding to further discussion of teacher evaluation process, it should be worth noting in general that, "We make judgments all the time, judgments about ourselves and what we do and about others and what they do. And we, in turn, are being judged by others. And, in the context of teaching, the question is not whether to evaluate, but Who should evaluate? For what purpose? and, Using what means?" (Millman, 1983:12).

Teaching is too important to too many to be conducted without a critical inquiry into its worth. Besides, court cases have made it clear that students have rights, and schools and colleges have a responsibility to ensure the quality of their curriculum and instruction. The protection of rights and the fulfilment of responsibility require that teacher self-assessment be supplemented by evaluation by others.

Evaluated by whom? - other teachers, administrators, students, parents and the public, or, professional evaluators? All of these actors can have an important role in the evaluation of teachers. But all are not, however, suited to evaluate all aspects of teaching.
Considering the question - For what purpose?, over a dozen reasonable distinct purposes for teacher evaluation have been suggested, such as improving teacher performance, aiding administrative decisions, guiding students in course selections, meeting state and institutional mandates, promoting research in teaching, and the like.

Finally, when a brief consideration on the raised question - Using what means? is focused, it is obvious that the evaluator has many tools available. It is also noted that, although most authorities recommend multiple sources of evidence about teaching proficiency, more is not necessarily better. Techniques should be fair, accurate, legal, efficient, credible, and humane, but no technique fulfils these requirements completely. Further, the quality of a technique depends not only on its inherent characteristics but also on the context and manner in which it is implemented (Millman, 1983: 12 - 13).

It should be noted that since the appropriateness of teacher evaluation practices depends upon many factors, such as the purposes of the evaluation, one's concept of good teaching, and the context in which instruction takes place, and since these factors differ among institutions, no single set of procedures for evaluating teachers is always best.

It should be noted that many procedures are available for collecting data about a teacher's effectiveness, including interviews, testing of teachers, peer review of
teaching materials and other documentary evidence, classroom 
visitation, student ratings of their instructors, student 
achievement, teacher out-of-class activities and other 
indirect evidence, and the teachers' self-assessments 

With regard to some methods of deriving teacher 
competencies, Borich and Fenton (1977: 9-12) point out 
that the single greatest obstacle to the use of consequences 
competencies in teacher appraisal is the paucity of research 
evidence linking specific knowledge and performance competencies 
to pupil outcomes (consequence competencies). In the absence 
of such evidence, appraisers have, during the last two 
decades, relied primarily on four methods to derive knowledge 
and performance competencies: (a) professional judgments; 
(b) in situ observation of classrooms; (c) theoretical 
frameworks of teacher behaviours; and, (d) experimental 
studies:

(a) Judgment. Throughout much of its history, the 
field of teacher education has lacked adequate research 
methods and appraisal techniques to link specific teacher 
behaviours with specific pupil outcomes. Yet the performance 
of teachers has been appraised nevertheless, though often 
with nonempirical methods and criterial. Typically, the
appraiser has used his or her own personal judgment to
determine which teachers are "effective" and which are not.
It is noted that the judgmental approach is characterized
by qualitative ratings of the teacher, customarily completed
by the principal or supervisor.

(b) Observation. Among the alternatives to deriving
teacher competencies from personal judgments is in situ -
or in classroom - observation. In situ observation involves
systematically recording a variety of specific, discrete
teacher behaviours that are assumed, according to a theoretical
framework, to be related to pupil growth. After these
behaviours are observed and recorded, they are correlated with
indices of pupil change to validate their importance.

In situ observation has served important advantages
over the judgmental approach. For example, the behaviours
observed in situ are both prespecified and classroom-based.
The teacher is thus evaluated according to his or her
performance in the classroom, not in the community, or in
teachers' meetings, elsewhere. Furthermore, though an
observation instrument may to some extent reflect the
professional and personal judgments of its creator, the
behavioural categories to be observed are spelled out for
both the teacher and the observer. The teacher knows
which characteristics of his or her performance are being
studied and thus has an opportunity to react to the appropriate-
ness of the selected behaviours. Moreover, the use of a
specific set of predefined behaviours benefits the observer by sharpening his or her observational skills. Prespecified observation categories permit comparison among various observers, which can provide an estimate of the inter-observer reliability of the instrument, or the consistency with which different raters observing the same teacher record the same behaviour.

(c) Theory. A third procedure for deriving teacher competencies uses existing theory regarding the teaching-learning process to predict effective teacher behaviours. Since the researcher uses theory to plan his or her study, the development of a logical theory should precede the actual research.

A theory is a set of variables and a scheme for interrelating these variables. It is a symbolic construction designed to bring behavioural concepts and variables into systematic relationship. These behavioural concepts and variables are used to make predictions about behavioural events. Theories can be used to guide the researcher by identifying the most promising behaviours for observation and measurement. Therefore, theory exercises selective power, allowing the researcher to measure a relatively few, theoretically promising variables and to eliminate a large
number of behaviours which there is no reason to believe cause the desired pupil outcome. The relationship between theory, which identifies teacher competencies, and research, which validates these competencies, is crucial to the appraisal process.

(d) Experimental Studies. Experimental research is the most sophisticated method of deriving teacher competencies. While the correlational research associated with in situ observation typically relates teacher behaviours to pupil outcomes, experimental research assigns teachers with observably different styles to separate categories for observation and analysis. This approach, usually referred to as "true" experimental research, recognizes that pupils are randomly assigned to teachers of differing types, and provides a basis for comparing two or more potentially competing varieties of teacher behaviour.

The most valuable characteristic of the experimental approach in deriving teacher competencies is its capacity to give the investigator the opportunity to make cause-and-effect inferences. Using the experimental approach, the investigator may safely conclude that the teacher competencies being studied actually cause the pupil outcomes measured. A correlational or in situ study, on the other hand, allows the researcher to conclude only that teacher behaviours are associated with pupil outcomes. This is an important
distinction since certification of a teacher based on attainment of a specific competency clearly implies that the competency will cause desirable pupil outcomes. For this reason, teacher competencies must ultimately be derived from experimental rather than correlational studies, so that causation can be inferred.

Borich and Fenton (1977: 13 - 29), in addition, suggest stages of measurement in the appraisal process as follows:

If an appraisal system is to be used in making training and personnel decisions, it must measure a comprehensive set of teacher performance variables. Information must be gathered from multiple sources to assure the accuracy and usefulness of the instructional, administrative, and planning decisions which are to be based on the appraisal data. If the appraisal of teaching is viewed as a longitudinal process, with data collected at various points in time, four distinct and consecutive measurement stages are apparent. These are: (1) the preoperational stage, in which information about the teacher's attitudes, personality, aptitude, and experience is collected; (2) the immediate process stage, in which data about the teacher's ongoing classroom strategies, procedures and techniques are gathered; (3) the intermediate process stage, in which information about the teacher's summative classroom performance is collected; and,
(4) the product stage, in which information about the teacher's pupils is obtained. The following is a brief discussion of these stages.

(1) The Preoperational Stage of Appraisal. During the first stage of assessment, personality, attitude, experience, achievement, and aptitude variables are measured to provide a composite picture of the teacher at the beginning of the appraisal period. Though preoperational measurements do not involve the assessment of actual teaching behaviour, the information they provide — when valid — aids in understanding and interpreting performance data collected at subsequent stages of the appraisal process.

(2) The Immediate Process Stage of Appraisal. The second phase of the appraisal process is the immediate, or observation stage. In this stage, the teacher's actual classroom behaviour is recorded. He or she is observed applying procedures, strategies, and techniques in the course of teaching, and these observations are recorded on presumably reliable instruments with explicitly stated behavioural categories. These categories focus the observer's attention on either low-inference (i.e., discrete and specific) or high-inference (i.e., general and cumulative) behaviours. Three characteristics distinguish the various observation instruments: (a) the recording procedure; (b) the item content; and, (c) the coding format.
Tools for observing continuing classroom events may employ either of two recording procedures - sign or category. A sign system records an event only once regardless of how often it occurs within a specified time period. The behaviour is given a code which indicates merely its presence or absence within a particular block of time. A category system, on the other hand, records a given teacher behaviour each time it appears and hence provides a frequency count for the occurrence of specific behaviours, rather than a mere indication of their presence or absence. A frequency count may also be obtained using a modified sign system, called a rating instrument, which estimates the degree to which a particular behaviour occurs. For example, instead of simply noting the presence or absence of a behaviour, a rating instrument may suggest the frequency at which the behaviour occurs on, say, a 1-to-5 scale, with "5" indicating a high frequency of occurrence and "1" a low frequency of occurrence.

(3) The Intermediate Process Stage of Appraisal. The third phase of the appraisal process is the intermediate stage, in which the teacher's cumulative behaviour is rated on predetermined scales. These ratings differ in two ways from the coding of classroom behaviour which occurs during the immediate stage. First, intermediate appraisals are made after, not in conjunction with, classroom observation. Second,
these ratings are cumulative in nature, summarizing the frequency and quality of many behaviours in a single judgment. At the intermediate stage, for example, the appraiser may rate a teacher's attitude toward teaching, knowledge of unit or grade-level content, attitude toward particular tasks and lessons, or use of classroom management techniques. Such ratings are used primarily to fill the gap between observations of specific classroom events and various indices of pupil growth recorded on norm-referenced or criterion-referenced tests. Intermediate measures are thus, on the one hand, an attempt to summarize numerous, discrete classroom events and, on the other hand, an attempt to provide a global description of the teacher behaviour responsible for pupil growth. These summative ratings can be recorded on a variety of scales, using a number of techniques.

(4) The Product Stage of Appraisal. Although each stage of the teacher appraisal process involves specific measurement problems, a system that assesses behaviour at each stage - preoperational, immediate, intermediate, and product - provides a composite picture of teacher performance in which errors of measurement are counterbalanced and limited. The produce stage, considered by some the most important stage of appraisal, is therefore, best viewed as a single component within a larger network of evaluative criteria.
Product-stage assessments confirm observations and ratings made at earlier stages and at the same time contribute new data to the appraisal process.

Since the business of teachers is the promotion of pupil growth, the product stage of appraisal assesses teacher effectiveness by measuring changes in pupil achievement, both effective and cognitive, over prespecified period of instruction. This period may be as brief as the span of a single lesson or as long as a semester or a school year. The teacher's pupils are assessed at Time 1, the beginning of a unit of instruction, and at Time 2, the end of the unit. The difference between pre- and posttest pupil achievement is attributed to the performance of the teacher. Generally, either standardized (i.e., norm-referenced) or criterion-referenced tests are used (Borich and Fenton, 1977: 31-44).

It is evident that success in teaching, however, defined and assessed, is highly contextual. Therefore, if evaluation of teaching and teachers is to serve meaningful and useful purposes, it must not only identify and define all the mitigating contexts but must also take into account their influences, both constructive and negative, in determining success (McKenna, 1983: 23).

To discuss context as it applies to teacher evaluation in any definitive manner, one's concept of the purpose of
evaluation needs to be clear and his definition of learning articulated. For this discussion, the major purpose of teacher evaluation is aimed to be the improvement of instruction. As an extrapolation of that assumption, the improvement of instruction should be expected to improve learning.

The objectives served by appraisal data, can be said, fall into three broad categories - diagnostic, formative, and summative - roughly corresponding to the appraisal stages described in the previous discussion. Information collected at each stage is used by various school personnel to make diagnostic, formative, or summative decisions. The attitude, aptitude, and experience variables measured in the preoperational stage, for example, are generally applied by school administrators or teacher trainers to diagnostic decisions such as teacher selection, placement, and training needed prior to employment. Data from in situ observations made in the immediate stage are on the other hand, used by in-service teachers to meet formative objectives related to the improvement of specific classroom skills and instructional strategies. Finally, cumulative ratings of teacher performance and indices of pupil gain collected during the intermediate and product stages of appraisal, respectively, are applied by administrators and evaluators to summative purposes, including teacher certification in broad areas of competence, determination
of overall teaching effectiveness, and comparison of teachers across curricula or instructional programmes.

However, it is worth noting that appraisal data, whether applied to diagnostic, formative, or summative purposes, should serve not only to evaluate but also to improve teaching performance. Therefore, an appraisal system, regardless of its objectives, must incorporate training opportunities for in-service teachers, or alternative instructional resources for pre-service teachers, if it is to have any lasting effect in the classroom.

For final discussion concerning the appraisal of teaching, it is also worth noting that the appraisal process cannot be completed unless the development of a valid appraisal system is considered.

It is said that the development of a valid appraisal system should firstly comprise the identification of an underlying philosophy, or metatheory, in order to guide the development process. It is noted that a metatheory is a broad, overarching framework that specifies the rules by which a theory is formulated. In the appraisal of teaching a metatheory provides the philosophical undergirding from which relevant behaviours, variables, and competencies are generated.

A metatheory, intentionally or unintentionally,
reflects the values of the educational system. Appraisal systems may differentially value behavioural domains according to the metatheories that guide their development. The metatheory underlying an appraisal system represents the values and beliefs of parents, teachers, and educators and, therefore, determines the pattern of teacher behaviours and pupil outcomes to be evaluated.

Attempts to develop an appraisal system begin with the identification of cultural, social, and professional values that can be used to construct a philosophy of effective teaching for a given community or training institution. In any instructional environment, legitimate as well as illegitimate influences may effect the development of the appraisal system. Among the former are values of teachers, school administrators, and the community at large. Less-legitimate influences are pressures exerted by a minority of parents who believe teacher reemployment should be based solely on the cognitive achievement of their pupils, or by a small group of teacher trainers who emphasize a narrowly defined set of teacher behaviours. Minority opinions should be heard and considered, but their influence should not outweigh that of more representative community and institutional values.

The factors influencing the development of a metatheory may be described as internal (within the school and school
and school system), external (within professional institutions, the state, and the nation), and contextual (within the immediate educational environment in which the appraisal system operates). These sources of influences are discussed as follows:

(1) **Internal Influences.** Internal influences on the design of an appraisal system include the values and opinions expressed by teachers and administrators. Because these influences are most likely to produce explicit recommendations about the breadth of teacher behaviours to be measured, they are a valuable contribution to the development of the table of specifications. Questionnaires, interviews, and other polling devices can be used to determine which behaviours in instructional and administrative staff feel the appraisal system should measure and the purposes such measurement should serve.

For further discussion about the internal influences of the appraisal system, it is worth noting by considering McNeil's views on, "Politics of Teacher Evaluation" (McNeil, 1983 : 272 - 291), as he points out on each of the influences as follows:

1) **Teachers.** Teachers, it is said, fear evaluation. Appraisal usually arouses their anxiety. They want to feel that their worth as teachers is unconditional, not contingent
on how they score on someone else's scales of merit. Teachers believe that the standards for evaluating what is effective teaching are too vague and ambiguous to be worth anything, that appraisal techniques fall short of providing information accurately characterising their performance, and that judgments made about them depend more on the idiosyncrasies of the teacher rather than on the teacher's own behaviour in the classrooms.

In his survey of teachers' feelings toward evaluation, Wolf (1973: 280) found two kinds of teachers - those with positive concepts of evaluation and those with negative ones. Examples of positive concepts are views that (a) teachers welcome communication with parents, administrators, and peers about their own classroom programme; (b) teachers are the most important audience for the results of evaluation studies; (c) assessing the results of one's own teaching is important; and, (d) teachers want to take time to learn about how they can effectively evaluate their work. Examples of negative concepts are views that (a) there is no need for better communication with other groups about classroom programme; (b) the opinions of students are not valuable in evaluation of the classroom; (c) assessing the results of their teaching and the progress of the class is not important; and, (d) they cannot spare the time to learn more about how they can effectively evaluate their own programme.
Wolf concluded that if teachers are to develop more positive and broader views of evaluation, the threat of evaluation must be reduced. Threat might be reduced by working with parents, board members, administrators, supervisors, and individual teachers to show how evaluation can improve existing programmes. It is important that evaluation not just assign blame but that it identifies strengths and weaknesses. Also, it might be helpful to give rewards to teachers for participating in evaluation: systematic instruction, feedback from parents, and more teacher autonomy in evaluation.

ii) Principals. Principals are responsible for selecting, training, guiding, and evaluating the teachers in their schools. This responsibility is mandated by tradition - community acceptance of the principal's role - and by law. Principals are charged with ensuring that subject are well-taught. Principals get pressure for better quality teaching from board members, parents, students, community members, and teachers. An underlying assumption made by these groups is that the principals must present more demanding expectations for teachers than they set for themselves.

An acute dilemma for the principal is reconciling the two major functions of teacher evaluation. In order to fulfil the function of helping teachers, the principal must establish an open climate in which the teacher feels
free to show incompetence. How can such a climate exist when the teacher knows that the principals must assess the teacher's fitness?

Some principals divorce themselves from one of the roles. For example, to fulfill the function of helping teachers, the principal may establish an informal evaluation procedure for the purpose of diagnosing instructional problems and offering suggestions in which the principal does not participate. The teacher seeks help on a specific problem from an outsider - parent, coordinator, fellow teacher. In addition to the informal procedure, there may be a formal one in which the principal takes an active part by observing in the classroom at least three times a year, filling out an appraisal form, and commenting on work in different subject areas and on the teacher's relations with parents, other teachers, and children. Strengths, weaknesses, and observed difficulties are described, and the entire report, with a copy to the teacher, is filled in the personnel office to be used in consideration of tenure and other decisions.

iii) Faculty Colleagues. In higher education, faculty peers make judgments about teaching effectiveness. Peer judgments of the professor as a scholar are common and employ relatively well-defined criteria. Colleagues are often asked to assess their peers with respect to service, research and
publications, knowledge of subject, recognition by others in their profession, and ability to cooperate with other members of the department. Classroom activities are seldom the basis for evaluation. Peer judgments of the professor as a teacher can be improved by making observations with respect to the following:

1. Knowledge of subject - observing the candidate's discussions of recent development in a field, consulting with others, and assessing the candidate's sense of problems or idea;

2. Quality of teaching materials - observing the currency and appropriateness of the candidate's materials for course goals, including tests, syllabi, reading lists, and course outlines;

3. Student performance - observing the kinds of tests and the quality of projects and assignments and collecting evidence of what students have learned;

4. Departmental responsibilities - observing the quality of service on committees and the supervision of graduate students.

iv) Students. Student participation in the formal evaluation of teachers is a function of the maturity they have and the nature of the particular community. Usually, it is a privilege granted by higher powers and subject to
revocation. Student ratings are an important source of information in decisions about tenure and promotion in higher education. The political value of forwarding these ratings to administrative officers should not be overlooked. They are offered as proof to legislatures that the institution is interested in teaching, not just in research. In addition, they represent a convenient response to student desire for power.

In giving direct feedback to the instructor, students are influential in effecting changes in teacher behaviour. In evaluating teachers, students are concerned about knowledge of subject-matter and classroom interaction but lack insight about planning competencies such as assessment of student entry skills and evaluation of learning. Their ratings often measure student satisfaction, attitudes toward teachers in general, psychological needs of students, and the personality, popularity, and speaking quality of the teacher.

(2) External Influences. Sources outside of the schools, such as state organizations, professional groups, curriculum specialists, national trends in teacher training, and the nationwide implementation of a particular curriculum, can also influence the philosophy of the appraisal system. Experience has shown that these external influences often promote recommendations that differ from those suggested by
internal sources. Professional groups, for example, may feel that schools should perform functions which, though not contradictory to those espoused by local teachers and administrators, and nevertheless more expansive. These controversial functions often involve both curricular and extracurricular activities intended to produce both effective and cognitive pupil outcomes. The appraisal system's selection of teacher behaviours and pupil outcomes must, therefore, directly to classroom instruction.

(3) **Contextual Influences.** The appraisal system can also be affected by contextual influences. These include local needs assessments, pupil characteristics, and available training resources, all of which may demand the inclusion (or exclusion) of specific teacher behaviours in the appraisal system congruent with local conditions and needs by promoting inclusion of those teacher behaviours and skills most directly linked to available training resources and the characteristics of the ongoing instructional environment.

In conclusion, it is important to note that all three sources of influence, internal, external, and contextual, play an important role in establishing the metatheory, which underlies and guides the further development of the appraisal system. Each source is therefore critically examined in order to determine the legitimacy of its influence in relation to that of all other sources, the values implied by the behaviours and skills it promotes, and the consequences
of measuring those behaviours and skills.

2.1.4 In-service Teacher Training Education (ISTE)

To consider the theoretical framework related to in-service teacher training education (ISTE), the following topics need to be discussed: (1) the importance of ISTE; (2) the definition; (3) the principles; (4) the objectives; and, (5) suggested techniques and models of the ISTE programme.

(1) The Importance of ISTE

As it is evident that at present economic, political, social, and cultural factors have seen a rapid growth and change in the Thai ways of lives, this has greatly affected the educational system for one cannot deny that education is an agency of modernization. And, as a result, the content and the teaching-learning process have consequently been affected, and the teacher therefore has to improve his teaching techniques accordingly as well.

In order to provide a suggestion in helping the teacher to improve his knowledge and competencies, Amornwiwat (1978: 1) views that:

... An only pre-service training is not enough for a teacher; he needs to have some in-service guides and helps through his duty life, especially in teaching or evaluation. Regular trainings can effectively help the teacher learn and solve his real problems. The teacher colleges should take actions in solving this problem for they can be the most suitable teacher training institutions in guiding and helping those local teachers.
In addition, Milin (1979: 12) expresses his opinions accordingly to this point of view that, "Since 1975 or even before the period of time, the world teacher training circles have been trying to expand their tasks to cover the live-long education provision for teacher. The pre-service training which is provided by the teachers' college is counted only as the beginning part of teacher education for it is the training programme preparing for to-be-teachers. The teacher education must be carried on continuously through each teacher's teaching life. The teacher training institutions must take responsibility to this programme as one of their major tasks.

The Northeast Teachers' College Group, which is consisted of eight teachers' colleges namely Nakornratjasima, Loei, Buriram, Mahasarakham, Udornthani, Sakonnakhorn, Ubon Ratchathani, and Surin Teachers' College, has started the Community-Based In-service Teacher Education programme, under a well-cooperative plan in stipulating the policy of the programme administration and the goal of the programme gearing towards the development of the local education quality by means of emphasizing the developing and qualifying the teaching and working competencies of the teachers and the educational personnels, in the academic year of 1978 (the Northeast Teachers' College Group, 1978 : 1).
(2) **The Definition**

According to its definition, Sumit (1975: 1) states that, "In-service training education is a life-long teacher training needed for all teachers. It is continuously required for improving the teacher competencies."

Suwannachot (1978: 2) adds by defining the meaning of in-service education that, "it is a process of improving the products or organization personnel which have been sent to work for some time and later on have been called back for revision and modernization. The in-service teachers who have been teaching in schools or working in the educational institutes for some time need to have their knowledge and competencies been improved and expanded".

(3) **The Principles**

The Department of Teacher Education (1977: 5-7) summarizes that the principles of in-service education should be aimed at providing to:

1. control the members of unoccupied teachers
2. improve teaching-learning system in schools
3. provide opportunities for improving and expanding knowledge and competence to in-service teachers
4. up-grade the in-service teachers
5. solve the problem of leaving of absence in order to continue studying which is one of the major causes of lacking of teachers in some schools.
The Educational Reform Committee (1975: 127) suggests the principles of in-service education that, "because of a great amount of less-qualified in-service teachers, there is an urgent need to provide in-service training programmes for improving the competencies of those teachers. And it is significant to consider that the programmes should be more emphasized on qualifying their teaching performance than up-grading their educational standing, or gaining their incomes".

Echoing the major principles of in-service education stipulated by the Department of Teacher Education mentioned above, the Northeast Teachers' College Group (1979:3-5) concludes the main points of the Community-Based In-Service Teacher Education that the training programme:

1. should be emphasized on developing the competencies, knowledge, and experience of the teachers in order to apply to the practical work at their institutes, not on the degree or certificate provision.

2. is not the twilight-training programmes, but is the programme for training the in-service teachers or educational personnel in order to develop their competencies which administered at the time available for the teachers to conveniently participate the programmes in their free time (i.e., weekends or summer vacation).
3. is a cooperative administrative programme between the institution in which the participants of the training programme work and the local teachers' colleges.

(4) The Objectives

When considered the objectives of the in-service teacher training programme, Srihong (1978: 11-12) views his opinions that the programme should:

1. fulfil the needs of personnel development of the teacher organization employers

2. help the in-service teachers expand their world wide views and abilities of working tasks

3. help the teacher do their actual work appropriately and competently

4. provide suitable and effective working foundations for different situations to the teachers.

5. provide opportunity of close relationship with the local educational personnel and institutes which can effectively help develop the teacher training programme to the teachers' colleges.

In addition, UNESCO (1975: 7) claims that the in-service teacher training should be aimed at:

1. establishing the needed knowledge, skills and attitude of the performing courses to the teachers
2. encouraging the teachers to apply and put the learned or trained knowledge, skills and attitude into their actual classroom activities effectively

3. training and guiding the teachers on effective curriculum implementation

4. seeking for appropriate basic competencies that are needed for the new trained programme participants

5. preparing an important tool of self-development for the teachers.

(5) Suggested Techniques and Models of the ISTE Programme

According to the suggested techniques and model of the training programme, many educators including educational organizations have involved and viewed their opinions. Among them, UNESCO (1975: 28-31), once again suggests that in-service teacher training programmes should be divided into five types:

1. Remedial Programme. It is the training programme for solving some problems of the pre-service training or for establishing some basic knowledge and experience to some untrained or unqualified in-service teachers.

2. Upgrading Programme. It is the programme for upgrading qualifications or academic standing of the teachers.
3. Programme for Special Needs. It is arranged in order to help solve some special problems, for example, the education administered at the extreme wasted areas; the education for the minority groups; the counselling, the practical research and the other programmes that have not been provided on the pre-service training.

4. Curriculum Development Programme. It is the programme for training and modernizing the teachers to be able to implement the curriculum and put the new teaching-learning techniques effectively into their actual classrooms.

5. Instructional Leadership Programme. It is the programme for preparing the administrations to be ready and able to effectively perform the new jobs.

Finally, as the present study is directly involved with TEFL and the new trend of improving the teacher effectiveness in TEFL, the following suggestions of developing an effective model of in-service teacher training programme for teachers in TEFL is worth taken into account:

In "The Training of Non-Native Speaker Teachers of English: A New Approach", Willis (1981: 41 - 53) proposes a TEFL training course where methodology work and language work are integrated. The proposed training course is aimed at putting "a greater stress on the teacher's control and use of language than before; but always in conjunction with the methodology. The trainee teachers should be regarded primarily as English teachers and
only incidentally as language learners. All the activities they carry out should be seen as directly contributing to their role as teacher" (Willis, 1981:47).

Willis (1981: 47-48), in her own words, gives reasons why such training-course type is proposed:

One reason why newly acquired methods do not transfer easily to the teachers' own classrooms is that teachers are not only inexperienced still in setting up and handling the new teaching activities, but they lack the specialist English to do so confidently. If the necessary classroom language is taught in conjunction with the teaching activity, the language itself will reflect and underline the stages in the organisation of the activity and the activity will provide a meaningful context for the learning and practice of the classroom language. Thus the language reinforces the methodology so that the trainee teacher can perform more confidently. It seems unrealistic to divorce language from methodology and vice versa.

In planning such a course, the following steps are suggested: (i) planning the methodology component; and, (ii) integrating the language work.

It is advised that at least one of the course organizers should have visited representative schools or colleges and observed teachers at work, both in order to understand the constraints prospective trainees work under and to diagnose areas where acceptable practical guidance can be given.

Naturally, the content of the methodology component will vary according to factors like teaching conditions, resources available, experience of participants, needs of their students.
and so on; it cannot be dictated by an outsider.

Having planned the content of the methodology component and found suitable teaching materials to use when illustrating specific techniques (ideally materials that teachers already use or can use with their own students after the course), the programme is ready for the integration of the language work. The next step, then, is to specify objectives for the language component.

In the TEFL classroom where teachers teach mainly in English, there are two 'planes' (Sinclair, 1981: 48) of language in use: (1) the language the teacher uses to socialise with his students, to organise the class and to instruct through the use of language learning activities (this is sometimes achieved in L1 - first language). It is called 'English for teaching purposes' or 'specialist' classroom English; and, (2) the language that constitutes the actual subject-matter of the lesson, which is presented, repeated, practised - in other words, 'taught'. It is called 'general' English.

According to this point of view, Willis (1981: 49), once again expresses in her own words as follows:

Teachers of English need to be proficient at both if they are to produce students who can actually use English with some degree of competence by the end of their English course. The teacher-training course organiser needs to diagnose the specific language needs of the trainee teachers at each of these two levels. Their needs, in fact, will depend largely on two factors: their own students' language needs and the areas where teachers themselves are weakest linguistically.
For further consideration, it might be useful to consider each of these two 'planes' of language use in turn before discussing how they can be integrated with the methodology component.

1. English for Teaching Purposes. The EFL teacher can be seen as having three roles: (i) social or personal; (ii) organisational; and, (iii) instructional:

(i) Socialising with the class, teachers and students can use the kind of English that is appropriate outside the class, for example, "Did you have a good time at the week end? ... How did the football go?" or "What do you think can have happened to Mahmoud? He's late again!" They can also talk about real events that occur in the classroom, for example if a pupil arrives late; or topical events effecting their lives. Most teachers have enough English to cope well with such situations; it is just that many do not realize how useful this kind of genuine conversation can be for the students, and fail to take advantage of the opportunities the classroom offers for such talk. They need to be trained in the use of such language, so their students will be familiar with some of the social functions of English that will be useful to them later on.

(ii) The language of organisation can also be of use to students. Again it is generalisable, communicative language and can involve a range of language functions if teachers are shown how to exploit it to the full. Polite requests,
giving reasons, explaining sequences of events, giving instructions, requesting clarification are all functions that students will find useful outside the classroom, and, will therefore benefit by being exposed to them and perhaps being taught to use them for organising themselves, for example in group work.

iii) For instructional purposes, the language teacher needs to practise skills both of a productive kind and of receptive nature:

a) Productive skills include:
   - presenting new language naturally and in a contextualised way
   - giving examples on a similar structural pattern or of ways to express similar functions
   - eliciting particular forms or expressions of a function or a notion
   - giving examples of how new items are used interactively
   - acting out dialogues
   - asking questions for differing purposes, for example to check understanding or to promote discussion
   - correcting errors of various kinds, including appropriacy and use
- introducing a reading or a listening text
  (Willis, 1981: 50).

b) Receptive skills, needed for selection, evaluation and preparation of teaching materials included:
- recognising appropriate register
- isolating difficulties in a reading text
- evaluating textbook exercises
- selecting vocabulary for pre-teaching (Willis, 1981: 50).

Thus this part of the language component, accorded 'specialist' status, is more likely to be seen as acceptable by teachers. Once the specific 'specialist' language objectives have been decided on, the individual needs of the trainees should be specified and ways of improving their general English considered.

2. General Language Improvement. It is obviously vital that the English taught by teachers of English should be accurate in form and appropriate in use. It is therefore suggested that once the course organiser or tutors have diagnosed common errors and general areas in which participants need remedial help, the required language work can be slotted into the methodological component in the following ways:
- Grammar can be improved by linguistic analysis and lesson planning sessions focussing on participants' weak points.

- Written English can be practised by helping trainees to write model essays of the type their own students are required to produce, or various types of writing exercises for their students.

- Pronunciation practice can be achieved by asking trainees to select, rehearse and then record short dialogues for use in class.

- Extra oral fluency practice can be gained by ensuring ample time for group discussions on methodological or topical TEFL issues and by getting trainees to act out different versions of role-play situations they could use in class.

These are just a few examples of the kind of integration that can be achieved so that the trainee teacher is being accorded the status of language teacher rather than language learner (Willis, 1981:51).

It is noted that once the course organiser has decided on the specific methodological and language content
and worked out how they can be integrated effectively, there is still one more thing to consider before drawing up a course timetable. Thought must be given to the actual training methods to be employed. The major role of the teacher-trainer should be to create an environment in which trainees will question existing practices themselves and can evaluate the various solutions which they or their trainer subsequently offer. Work in small groups is vital for this; teachers must have the chance to discuss and evaluate ideas among themselves without feeling threatened by too large a group (Willis, 1981: 51).

Obviously, there must be some 'input' sessions on any teacher-training course, but these need not necessarily be in the form of a lecture. Very often a short tutor introduction sensitising trainees to a problem can promote constructive small group discussions; the advantage of this is that where the ideas come from participants themselves they will feel far more committed to them than if they had come from the trainer. A demonstration lesson can speak for itself and form an excellent basis for discussion and subsequent group workshops. Background reading assignments with work sheets or tasks like course book evaluation with report sheets can also be productive when done in pairs. By varying the style of the input
sessions, the trainer is additionally allowing the trainees to practise a far wider variety of language skills themselves, rather than just listening and note-taking.

There should also be practical group work. This needs to cover and integrate all three roles of the EFL teacher. For example, a peer or micro-teaching slot focusing on the opening phase of a lesson, should cover the social role, greeting and chatting to students, the organisational role, perhaps checking that students have brought the right books, and the instructional role, perhaps revising a language item. It is important that teachers are able to handle these three roles and to mark the transition from one to the other as clearly as possible.

Ideally, training methods should reflect as far as possible the teaching methods that can be used in the teachers' own classrooms; general principles, like introducing sufficient variety, staging, varying patterns of interaction, should certainly be followed in the training sessions. The trainer should definitely be seen to practise what he preaches, wherever possible. Valuable discussion can arise out of this, for example how a particular type of group work can be adapted for use in schools.
On an integrated course such as this, the timetable needs to be as flexible as possible, it is frustrating for participants if they do not have time actually to finish a set of writing materials, or to peer-teach the lesson they have planned or to report back to other groups on the work they have been doing. Just as in a language lesson, students need to reach a free production stage to put into use what they have practised earlier, or they are likely to forget it; teacher trainees also need to feel that they have produced something worthwhile by the end of a session. Trainers need to limit tasks set so that a production stage can be achieved. A timetable allowing slots as large as three hours or half days is far more realistic on this style of course. Shorter sessions can be more difficult to plan and less satisfactory for all concerned (Willis, 1981: 51-52).

In conclusion, it is important to note that training courses should among other things, be fun. The training methods should be aimed at leading to a high degree of satisfaction and enjoyment among participants. Such integrated courses should therefore have immediate and practical application besides the relaxed and informal atmosphere.
2.2 REVIEW OF THE RELATED STUDIES

It should be noted for early consideration that, due to the lack of relevant research studies related to the present study, the following studies were selected and will be presented chronologically and according to the sub-headings:

2.2.1 Related Studies Done in Local Area (Thailand)
2.2.2 Related Studies Done Abroad
2.2.3 Conclusion

2.2.1 Related Studies Done in Local Area (Thailand).

In 1980, Senarith (1980:84-87): Conducted, "An Assessment of the Implementation of Planned Curriculum Change in Elementary Schools in Bangkok, Thailand", in order to examine the degree of curriculum implementation of the B.E.2521 (1978) Elementary Curriculum of 423 grade 1 elementary school teachers and 134 administrators in Bangkok Metropolis. The results revealed that: fifty-five per cent of the samples agreed that the degree of their curriculum implementation was at the 'average' level, and 38.8 and 4.7 per cent rated it at the 'high' and 'very high' levels respectively.

It is interesting to note, in addition, that the results of the mentioned study indicated that the majority of the elementary teachers and administrators administered teaching-learning activities according to the guides suggested in the new curriculum at the 'average' level which appeared to be unsatisfactory to all concerned.
It is also worth noting, in conclusion, that according to the mentioned study, it was found that the following factors, which can be grouped into four major aspects, were the significant factors that affected the degree of curriculum implementation:

(i) Factors involving Teachers - Including attitude and intensity, teacher competencies, curriculum concept, educational background and age of the teacher;

(ii) Factors involving the curriculum - including complexity, source of instructional materials, and quality of curriculum presentation and training;

(iii) Factors involving Schools - including atmosphere, location, attitude and intensity of the principals, state of the schools, and qualification of the school staff;

(iv) Factors involving Students - including their readiness.

In the same year, Ratanapridakul (1980: abstract) investigated the opinions of the primary and secondary school English teachers in Bangkok, Thailand regarding: (i) the importance of the English subject, in general; and, (ii) the English teaching-learning situations.
The results of the study revealed that the major problems of the teachers were concerned with the curriculum implementation, and the other problems included the lack of effective instructional materials or lack of time for preparing such materials and for preparing good lessons; the teachers use the Thai language in the class in the more amount of proportion than the English language; and overloaded number of students in each class which were the main problems of the successful teaching-learning activities. However, regular meetings within the staff members of the department besides reading and knowledge searching of the individual teachers could sometimes help solve the problems. The teachers, therefore, are required to be trained in in-service teacher training programme.

Subsequently, in 1981, General Education (1981: 6-17) presented an analysis of the follow-up project of the implementation of the Primary School Curriculum of B.E.2521(1978) reported by the provincial supervisory staffs of fifty-one provinces. The major teacher problems found in the study which affected the low level of curriculum implementation of the teachers scores were: (i) lack of training accordingly to the objectives and the teaching techniques which effectively implemented the new curriculum; (ii) lack of comprehension in teaching techniques of the new curriculum; (iii) lack of moral support and encouragement; (iv) complexity of the curriculum conditions and tasks; (v) lack of instructional materials and educational sources; (vi) lack of cooperative administration
within and between school groups; (vii) lack of teaching competencies; (viii) lack of academic encouragement and support from the administrators; (ix) lack of parent supports; and, (x) lack of regular and appropriate supervisions.

Tanya (1981: abstract), in the same year, constructed an in-service teacher training curriculum in teaching competencies for elementary school teachers in Thailand.

The study was divided into three main parts. The first part was the investigation of the teaching competencies of the teachers which needed to be developed. In the second part, the researcher developed twenty-one sub-units of the curriculum which the main objectives of each sub-unit were derived from the results of the first part of the study and other components of the curriculum were developed from related work and research and specialists in each field. The structure of the curriculum was divided into six components (i.e., objectives, pre-requisite background, contents, activities, instructional materials, and measurement and evaluation). In the final part of the study, two set of questionnaires were distributed to seventy-five instructors of teacher training institutions to evaluate the constructed curriculum. Medium and interquartile range were then used in the data analysis.

The final results of the study was an in-service teacher training curriculum based on teaching competencies of the elementary school teachers. The curriculum was classified into four units according to the nature of the subject matter:
(i) the unit for improving competencies of understanding the nature of pupils; (ii) the unit for improving competencies of methodology and teaching-learning activities; (iii) the unit for improving competencies of instructional materials; and, (iv) the unit for improving competencies of educational measurement and evaluation. Based on the mentioned competencies different training programmes were also designed for improving the teaching competencies of the elementary school teachers at different professional qualifications.

Furthermore, Ganmanee (1981: abstract), in the same year, evaluated the try-out of elementary school English curriculum, prathom (grade) 5 including the occurred problems and the recommendations perceived by twelve teachers, eighteen administrators and 200 students regarding the new English curriculum.

The findings indicated that the teachers understood the objectives to a large extent and they can moderately fulfil their objectives. The teachers believed that the objectives suit the students' needs in using English to a certain extent. The teachers could carry out the learning activities and evaluate the students' achievement appropriately through the help of the teachers' books. The content satisfied most teachers and students. The students had positive attitude towards English and the learning activities.

The teachers' problems were mainly the lack of time to make instructional materials and to prepare the lessons
because of their heavy teaching load and some other school activities.

Some important recommendations were given that:

(i) the time spent on in-service training should be increased and the teachers should be trained in making instructional materials and great emphasis should be placed on the preparation of lessons; and, (ii) supervisors and curriculum follow-up specialists should observe the class and discuss the problems with teachers more frequently and regularly.

In 1982, Pasitwilitum (1982:abstract) evaluated the in-service teacher training project which provided the training services for the rural in-service teachers whether the project attained its objectives in achieving the quality of educational opportunity, especially the opportunity of recruitment, and the increment in teaching competency. The model used in the evaluative research was the goal attainment model.

The important findings revealed that: (i) the in-service teachers had almost equal opportunity in being recruited to participate in the project in all criteria except the teaching position. The teachers who had higher teaching positions tended to have greater opportunity to participate in the project; and, (ii) the analyses pertaining to the teaching competency gain revealed that all participants believed that those who participated in the training project gained more teaching competency than those who did not. However,
the comparison among the comparative groups showed that only the teaching knowledge, neither teaching skill nor teaching attitude, of those who participated in the project was significantly higher than the knowledge of the other teachers. The longer the teachers participated in the project, the higher was their teaching knowledge.

Similarly, in 1983, Sudmi (1983: 733-A) investigated the perceptions of the programme participants, administrators, and college faculty members about the In-service Teacher Education (ISTE) programme at Phra Nakhon Si Ayutthya Teachers' College, Thailand.

The study sought to answer questions relating to participants, administrators, and college faculty members' views of professional development, strengths and weaknesses of the ISTE programme, quality of the programme, the support service components of the ISTE programme, and the perceived reasons for enrolling.

The results of the study revealed that the strengths of the ISTE programme were its usefulness in helping teachers to improve their job performance and providing the opportunity for instructors and teachers to share their ideas. The major weaknesses of the ISTE programme were that deficiency in programme planning and somewhat irrelevant to the needs of teachers and schools. The overall ISTE programme was satisfactory. Advanced degree, instructional improvement, and increasing of knowledge and subject matter content were
the major reasons for enrolling as indicated by the participants.

In the same year, Khattiyasuwan (1983: abstract) studied the main discriminators of teachers implementation of the 1978 elementary curriculum and the order of contribution of those discriminators.

Thirteen research tools and techniques including checklists, curriculum tests, teaching observation forms, and various sets of questionnaires were employed to gather the obtained data from 224 teachers of forty elementary schools in the Sixth Educational Region in Thailand.

The result of the discriminant function analysis revealed that ten out of eighteen independent variables were the main discriminators contributed to the function. And when factor analysis was done among those ten discriminators; it was shown that they were nicely factorized into four groups as follows: (i) Group 1: Teacher Factor - including teachers' knowledge of the curriculum, and teachers' ability in teaching; (ii) Group 2: School Factor - including teachers' relationship in school, teachers' morale and school administration; (iii) Group 3: Curriculum Factor - including curriculum complexity, supervision by educational supervisors, and curriculum training experience; and, (iv) Group 4: Pupil and Parent Factor - including number of pupils with pre-school experience and parent aid.
It was recommended, finally, that knowledge concerning curriculum practices should be simplified and made available to all teachers throughout the country to facilitate their capability to correctly implement the new curriculum. And it was, in addition, further suggested that school administration should provide a desirable atmosphere to promote these correct practices through a good relationship among teachers (e.g., team building) to ensure high morale.

Phrommitasa (1983: abstract), in the same year, studied the desirable competencies of the English teachers in elementary schools in Chiang Mai, Thailand.

A set of questionnaire, including rating-scales which was concerned with two components of the English teachers' competencies: (i) teaching competency; and, (ii) knowledge and skills competency, was distributed to 150 principals, 150 primary school English teachers of grade 5-6, and 750 students of grade 6 of 150 schools of Chiang Mai Provincial Primary Education Office (PPEO).

The findings revealed that the top-four most desirable competencies of the primary school English teachers which the three groups of samples agreed were: (i) being confident in teaching and setting good examples for the students; (ii) having high responsibility on their teaching tasks; (iii) being trustworthy and reliable for the students; and, (iv) having clear concept of the English curriculum.
Furthermore, Ketwichai (1983: abstract) evaluated the English curriculum implementation of the B.E. 2521 (1978) of the lower secondary school level regarding its objectives, content, teaching-learning activities, measurement and evaluation, including any factors concerning such curriculum implementation.

The results of the study revealed that most of the English teachers in the sample groups considered the objectives and the content of the mentioned English curriculum including the texts and the teachers' guides at the 'good' level. Regarding the teaching-learning activity process, the teachers said they taught accordingly to the objectives of the curriculum and prepared the lessons, before hand, by using the suggestions of the curriculum and the teachers' guides as the major guides. The teaching performance they preferred the most were the four-language-skill drills; role-playing; and lecture. The teaching-learning supplementary activity the teachers used was language games, and pictures and real objects were the instructional materials they used the most. Most of the teachers evaluated the students by assignment-checking techniques, and they also considered the suggested evaluation techniques of the curriculum at the 'good' level. The problems most of the teachers pointed out were the lacks of students' texts and teaching-learning supplementary documents and budgets; and that the students did not select to study the subject according to their interests because the schools had arranged and provided the learning programmes according to their readiness.
Finally, Prasertpakdi (1984: abstract) conducted a research study under the title, "Inservice Education Needs of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Thailand". The purpose of the study was to determine the perceptions that Thai teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) and their supervisors have of the EFL teachers' needs for in-service education in the areas of Subject Matter Competence, Professional Competence, and Attitude, and the most needed and feasible means of meeting those needs.

Based upon the data analysed in the study, the major conclusions were made: (1) EFL teachers and their supervisors in Thailand felt a strong need for in-service training for teachers in all Subject Matter Competency and Professional Competence areas. (2) Few significant difference existed between perceptions of EFL teachers and supervisors in rating of in-service education need in Subject Matter Competence areas. Only Speaking Proficiency, Pronunciation Patterns, and Writing ability were significantly different, but no significant differences were found in the Professional Competence area. (3) There was a significant difference in mean levels of preference ratings for selected methods of in-service education between EFL teachers and their supervisors only in the attitude toward Travel in an English-Speaking Country as an in-service means. However, both groups expressed preference for every type of in-service education.
2.2.2 Related Studies Done Abroad.

In 1982, Al-Naggar (1982: 3564-A) constructed a performance testing in an in-service training for Egyptian teachers of English based on the assumption that research in teacher training underscores that the performance testing technique—which focuses on the learners' attainment of specified instructional objectives—may promote improvement in instruction and, therefore, may maximize pupil achievement. The study was concerned with validating the performance testing (P.T.) model in an in-service workshop designed to upgrade the knowledge and skills of nonspecialist teachers of English in Cairo, Egypt.

The results of the study were secured from a sample of twenty-two teachers: twelve in an experimental and ten in a control group. The experimental group received two weeks of instruction on the P.T. instructional model, while the control group were given a self-instructional hand-book on punctuation. A linguistic component focusing on the grammatical structures that the teachers would be teaching during the second half of the year was taught to both groups.

At the end of the training, teachers were observed teaching different lessons of an eight-lesson unit on possessive pronouns, and a criterion-referenced test was administered to their pupils based on that unit.
Teachers in the experimental group mastered the features of the P.T. model on both the verbal and performance levels, and both types of mastery related to pupil achievement. The experimental teachers applied the model in classrooms and their pupils achieved more than pupils taught by teachers not applying the model. The teachers' ability in English was found to be related to pupils' achievement; those with greater knowledge of the grammar taught to pupils were associated with great pupil achievement on that grammar.

It was concluded that non-specialists, who apply the P.T. model, achieve higher results with their pupils. Hence, this model was recommended as a useful tool to be utilized in designing future in-service programmes for language teachers in Egypt. Likewise, including instruction in the language skills that participants would be teaching as well as providing them with the materials directly related to the teaching tasks assigned them was also recommended.

In the same year, Peretz (1982: 1120 - 1121-A) developed a model for the preparation, in a non-English-speaking environment, of teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The model was based on an analysis of research in the fields of teacher preparation in general and teacher preparation in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language in particular. Linguistic and paralinguistic difficulties of non-native speakers of English were identified and their relation to teacher education programmes was examined.
Research in second language acquisition theory was discussed in relation to the adult.

A teaching competency survey was compiled and sent to 225 randomly selected full-time community college instructors in Kansas. Seventy instructors completed the survey and obtained student feedback in one of their classes. Statistical analysis of the data included criterion means of the importance scale on each teaching competency to determine those competencies thought to be of consequence. Significant differences were determined through the use of t-tests, Anova and Scheffé's tests between importance and usage of teaching competencies, utilization of teaching competencies and subsequent evaluation by students, and the demographic groups importance and usage rating of teaching competencies and student evaluation of instruction.

Based on the statistical analysis the following conclusions were made: (1) a majority of the teaching competencies selected for the survey were rated by community college instructors as important to highly important, (2) there was a significant difference shown between importance and utilization ratings of the teaching competencies with importance being rated higher than utilization, (3) instructors who utilized all of the competencies were rated as significantly more effective by students, (4) demographic variables significantly influenced student evaluation, (5) importance and usage ratings of the teaching competencies was significantly affected by the number of
education hours acquired by the instructor.

It is important to note in conclusion that a programme of self-evaluation to assure that teaching competencies are utilized at the same level as the rated importance would prove beneficial. Teacher training and in-service programmes could be established to encourage instructors to utilize these competencies for effective teaching. Further research and refinement should be done to identify a specific set of teaching competencies that if utilized would predict the outcome of an instructors evaluation.

In the same year Crenshaw (1983: 4408-A) investigated six instructional competencies (communication skills, positive regard, non-authoritarianism, pedagogic flexibility, socio-cultural knowledge, and self confidence) to determine the effectiveness of elementary bilingual education teachers. Supervisor/peer ratings of teachers' effectiveness were selected as the criterion of effectiveness for the study; the relationships between competency scores, supervisor/peer ratings, and background data were consequently examined and compared.

There was a significant correlation between teachers' pedagogic flexibility (the ability to provide a variety of methods and materials) scores and their ratings, although the remaining correlations between competencies and ratings were near zero. Correlations between background variables and competency scores were not significant, nor were correlations between background variables and competency scores,
With the exception of the significant relationship between the subjects' years of experience teaching limited English proficient students with their scores for the competency of positive regard.

There were minimal differences in the background data of teachers who had received the highest and lowest supervisor/peer ratings. However, the highest rated teachers scored higher on all competencies; their mean total competency score was almost double that of the lowest rated teachers and their mean pedagogic flexibility score was almost triple that of the lowest rated teachers.

The factor that determined a teachers' effectiveness rating seemed to be skill in pedagogic flexibility. If further experimental studies that deliberately train one set of teachers in pedagogic flexibility and deny such training to another set of teachers verify the findings of the mentioned study, the need for specialized training in ESL bilingual education would be substantiated and pre- and in-service training would need to be modified to emphasize the development of a repertoire of skills in pedagogic flexibility.

Furthermore, Abdulhamied (1983:2317-A) tried to ascertain the perceptions of faculty and administrators of the Indonesian teachers' Colleges regarding competency-based teacher education (CBTE) in relation to teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL).
The respondents, overall, perceived CBTE favourably. The only variable associated with a significant difference in CBTE perceptions was institutional types: the Institutes of Teacher Training and Education respondents perceived CBTE less favourable than the Faculties of Teacher Training respondents. The audio-lingual and cognitive approaches were selected to represent TEFL. On the audio-lingual approach the respondents revealed agreement with a slight tendency toward 'undecided'. A greater degree of agreement was shown on cognitive approach.

Significant differences were found in the audio-lingual approach perceptions when the respondents were categorized by highest degree, teaching experience, training abroad, academic rank, institutional type, and departmental student enrolment. Significant linear-relationships were also found between the combined personal, academic, and institutional variables and each set of CBTE and TEFL perceptions. Significant correlations did exist too among the perceptions of CBTE, the audio-lingual approach, and the cognitive approach.

It was implied that implementation of CBTE in the English programmes would run smoothly, that the audio-lingual and cognitive approaches would fit nicely in the English programmes based on CBTE, and that the approaches to TEFL should be accommodated in relative parity. The current status of the English departments needs to be investigated as to get readiness for coping with the potentially adaptable CBTE and TEFL principles.
Bolak (1983:1059-A), in the same year, conducted a research study under the title, "In-Service Training and Teacher Effectiveness", in order to constitute a follow-up study of a group of teachers based on the assumption that there were differences in the in-service training experiences of the group of teachers, prior to participating in an experimental graduate programme while employed at an urban educational center affiliated with an urban university. Teachers were exposed to three distinct in-service training models: the individualized in-service Training Model, the Team Consultant In-service Training Model, and the Required In-service Training Model. The research study documents many in-service training experiences that were perceived by the teachers to promote effective teaching. The correlation between the teacher's perceptions regarding effective in-service training and actual student standardized achievement test results were explored.

It was concluded that teachers engaged in in-service training experienced more frequently at the urban educational centre. Teachers perceived the Team Consultant In-service Training Model to be the most effective method of in-service training. (Teachers indicated a preference for assessing, planning, implementing, and evaluating topics prior to the in-service training experience.) There appeared to be a correlation between the teachers' perceived most effective in-service training experience and their students' standardized achievement test score results. Further study of the mentioned
relationship was recommended. Finally, in-service training should be a priority for every educational environment, due to the fact that in-service training directly influences the teachers' effectiveness as a skilled practitioner.

Tolbert (1983: 2971-A), in the same year, conducted "A Study on the Effectiveness of an in-Service Model for Elementary Classroom Teachers of English as a Second Language Students" which was aimed at preparing and testing the effectiveness of an in-service training model for elementary classroom teachers, of students of English as a second language. In addition, a relationship was established between what those in the field presently teaching English as a second language deem significant topics for an in-service programme and the effectiveness of training given on those topics.

The results of the study indicated that; (i) the participants did employ the strategies taught in component one of the in-service training; (ii) the participants did increase their understanding of the situation of the ESL students and did gain information through the in-service which would assist them in coping with these students in their elementary classrooms; (iii) the participants were able to identify the components of the in-service presentation most valuable to them; (iv) there was a relationship between what professionals currently teaching in the field of English as a second language deem significant topics for an in-service programme and the effectiveness of training given on those topics.
Ogilvie (1984: 816-A) designed and implemented a skills-based global education in-service training programme for secondary school teachers and to investigate its effects in three domains: (i) the teachers' knowledge; (ii) the teachers' skills; and, (iii) the teachers' attitude. The training programme was conducted through ten weekly, three-hour sessions.

Participants in the training programme plus members of a control group were administered the "Global Education Teaching Competencies Self-Assessment Evaluation", the "Knowledge" and "Attitude" and Background" components of the Measures of Global Understanding, and a course evaluation form. The data were gathered and analysed.

Analyses of the data indicated that the skills-based global education in-service training programme contributing to increase in the self-assessment of the teachers' global education instruction skills. Teachers participating in the training programme did not experience significant changes in their knowledge level and attitudes relative to global education. Further analyses indicated that the programme participants felt that the training was adequate in its content, delivery and impact.

The limitations of the study plus problems encountered in its implementation suggested that more work needs to be done informing teachers of the importance of global education and what is involved in its implementation. Because of its perceived importance and its anticipated growth as an educational
movement in the United States more research should be pursued in a variety of global education related topics.

Finally, Saludades (1984: 3592-A) created, "A Theoretical Staff Development Model Based on the Staff Development Needs of Teachers as Perceived by Teachers, Principals, and Supervisors of Manila Public Elementary Schools". The procedures for the development of the model involved the following steps: (i) a questionnaire survey of teachers', principals', and supervisors' perceptions of Manila public school teachers' staff development needs; (ii) a review of the work of leading authorities on adult learning and factors that contribute to effective staff development programmes; (iii) a review of theoretical models on staff development; (iv) a synthesis of data into a theoretical staff development model with a "growth" orientation.

One important finding of the study was the lack of congruence in the perceptions of the three respondent groups regarding most of the staff development of teachers.

Research data obtained from the literature and from the teacher survey were analysed and a theoretical framework was developed for interrelating the information derived from a wide range of sources. Adult learning principles and the findings from the questionnaire survey provided support for a growth oriented staff development model. An analysis of the factors that contribute to the success of in-service programmes revealed the importance of teacher involvement in identifying their own needs and the means of meeting those needs, and the
necessity for differentiated individualized experiences with supervised practice and follow-up. The growth-centered model is viewed as a cyclical process that meets those needs. In the mentioned model, provision was made for total teacher involvement in all stages of staff development, the utilization of teachers as trainers of other teachers, and follow-up which gives teachers opportunity to apply learned behaviours and skills from the programme to their classrooms with maximum support from peers and administrators.

The success of the model predicated on the positive attitude of both administrator and teacher - the supportive role administrators are willing to assume, the autonomy they are willing to grant to teachers, and the effort teachers are willing to exert toward their own continuous self-improvement.

2.2.3 Conclusion.

To conclude, the mentioned selected research studies both done in local and abroad areas can be categorized into three main groups as follows:

1. The studies involved ISTE (in-service teacher training education) - including: (i) the development of the training model (Tanya, 1981; Al-Naggar, 1982; Peretz, 1982; Tolbert, 1983; Ogilvie, 1984; and, Saludades, 1984); (ii) the evaluation of the training programme (Sasitwilitum, 1982; and, Sudmi, 1983); and (iii) ISTE need assessment (Prasertpakdi, 1984).
2. The studies involved EFL teacher evaluation.
(Ratanapridakul, 1980; Phrommitasa, 1983; and Crenshaw, 1983).

3. The studies involved curriculum implementation -
including: (i) English primary curriculum implementation
(Ganmanee, 1981; and, Ketwichai, 1983); (ii) overall primary
school curriculum implementation (Senarith, 1980; General
Education, 1981; and, Khattiyasuwan, 1983); and, (iii) English
curriculum implementation at other level (Abdulhamied, 1983).

According to the objectives and the procedures of the
mentioned related studies, it can be concluded that the
selected studies were mainly geared toward: (i) evaluating
teacher competencies aiming at developing effective ISTE
programmes for improving those needed competencies of the
teachers; and (ii) evaluating curriculum implementation; in
order to examine: (a) the degree of curriculum implementation;
and, (b) the occurred problems in the period of the curriculum
implementation.

Regarding the findings of the mentioned related
studies, it can be worth noting in addition that the following
results are essentially relevant to the theoretical framework
of the present study and, as a result, will be used as
important guides for further consideration and discussion in
the present study.

1. The teachers and other evaluators (i.e., principals,
and supervisors) felt a strong need of ISTE for the teachers
to improve all competencies including specific subject-matter competencies and professional competencies, positive attitude and curriculum implementation (Tanya, 1981; Prasertpakdi, 1984; Peretz, 1982; Abdulhamied, 1983 and, Tolbert, 1983).

2. The ISTE programmes provided by the teachers' colleges were effective and useful for improving local in-service teachers' teaching knowledge and subject-matter content besides gaining positive attitude toward their professional career and expanding their professional world wide views (Pasitwilitum, 1982; and, Sudmi, 1983).

3. There appeared to be a correlation between the teachers' perceived most effective in-service training experience and their students' standardized achievement test score results (Al-Naggar, 1982).

4. With regard to the new English curriculum of grade 5 try-out process, it was indicated that the occurred problems were lack of time of the teachers to make instructional materials and to prepare lessons because of their heavy teaching loads and some other school activities (Ganmanee, 1981).

5. The desirable competencies of the English teachers in elementary schools were; (i) being confident in teaching and setting good examples for the students; (ii) having high responsibility to their teaching tasks; (iii) being trustworthy and reliable to the students; and, (iv) having clear concept of the English curriculum (Phrommitasa, 1983).
6. The English teachers of other level (i.e., secondary school level) viewed that they taught the subject according to the curriculum objectives; prepared lessons by using teacher guides; preferred four-language-skill-drill teaching-learning activities for their teaching performance; used picture and real objects as the main instructional materials; used language games as supplementary teaching-learning activities; and used student-assignment-checking as a main evaluation technique (Ketwichai, 1983).

7. The problems in TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language), in general, in Thailand were involved: (i) the lack of effective instructional materials or lack of time to prepare them; (ii) the curriculum implementation; (iii) the high proportion of using the Thai language in the English class; (iv) overloaded numbers of students in each class; and, (v) inadequate curriculum presentation and curriculum implementation trainings (Ratanaprikakul, 1980).

8. The problems occurred in the 1978 primary school curriculum implementation, in general, were: (i) lack of adequate training effectively fulfill the curriculum objectives; (ii) lack of supports (i.e., from principals, supervisors, and parents); and, (iii) lack of clear concept of the curriculum (General Education, 1981).

9. The main discriminators of teachers' implementation of the 1978 elementary school curriculum could be categorized into four major groups: (i) Group 1: Teacher Factors-including
teachers' knowledge of curriculum and ability in teaching;
(ii) Group 2: School Factor - including teachers' relationship in school, teachers' morale and school administration;
(iii) Group 3: Curriculum Factor - including curriculum complexity, supervision and follow-up project and training; and, (iv) Group 4: Pupil and Parents Factor - including numbers of years the students experienced in pre-school and parent aid (Sanarith, 1980; and, Khattiyasuwan, 1983).