LEKCIIA 1

Professional Competence of Foreign Language Teachers

1. Concept of teaching foreign languages in Ukraine.
2. The structure of foreign language teachers’ professional competence (European approach).
3. Professional competence of foreign Language teachers in Ukraine.

English Language Teaching (ELT) is one of the key subjects for language students and a long-lasting interest for language professionals. Nowadays the profession of a language teacher is becoming more and more prestigious. Our society is keen on studying foreign languages because it gives people, children first of all, a competitive educational and professional advantage.

The National Education Reform initiated by the 1991 Education Act formulates the aims and objectives of the development of the Ukrainian education system. Some of the basic principles of the national policy on education closely connected with foreign language teaching are the following:

- democratic tendencies in the teaching process;
- humanistic approaches to teaching, learner-centered methodology;
- life-long learning.
A Concept of teaching foreign languages in Ukraine based on these principles was adopted in 1994. According to the Concept each child is a unique personality whose positive attitude towards learning foreign languages can be achieved through providing real possibilities for spiritual development and emotional self-expression, through the feeling of personal success, moral comfort and joyful learning atmosphere.

The conceptual changes in FLT have revealed the desire to follow the progressive road of the world’s educational process and to work in accordance with all-European tendencies in teaching foreign/second languages. All the ideas and concepts have been implemented into some basic documents which regulate the educational process in Ukrainian secondary schools. First of all, it is the Program (Foreign Language Syllabus) and the National Educational Standard of FLT.

The second, which is in operation since 2005, follows the philosophy of humanistic pedagogy and based on the ideas of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEF).

The documents mentioned above provide teachers with understanding the aims, objectives and content of the educational process in secondary school and are the guidelines in teaching English.

Today the educational system of all the European countries is on the way of transition to the competence model of development. In order to understand the overall competence educational scheme it is very important to examine and analyze European experience in this sphere.

“Competence” or “competency” is: 1) the ability to do something well; 2) a skill needed to do a particular job; 3) a standardized requirement for an individual to properly perform a specific job (after Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English).

But in spite of the existence of great number of scientific works, articles, documents belonging to the problem of the competence approach in the system of teachers’ education in European countries, today there is no single unified classification of professional competences, essential for secondary school teachers to fulfil their professional functions successfully.

It was considered that European teachers’ professional competences should include such components as:
1. **European identity.** European teacher is conscious with his own national roots and general union of European peoples. Teacher’s values make it possible for him to teach not only in frameworks of the national programmes but far out of their limits. The key aspect of European identity is teacher’s readiness to accept the differences and to treat the whole world with respect.

2. **European knowledge** which comprises teacher’s outlook of educational systems peculiarities in different countries. Teachers respect their national educational system and correlate its quality with others. They know features of current world policy, history or regional countries and its influence on modern European development.

3. **European multiculturalism.** European teacher treats his national culture with respect and is ready to accept other cultures. He behaves confidently without domination over other cultures. He works in heterogeneous groups, respects differences and gives his pupils equal opportunities.

4. **European language competence.** European teacher knows more than one European language. Language skills he acquires in the system if life-long pedagogical education. It would be very important for him to spend some period in foreign environment to communicate with authentic language speakers.

5. **European professionalism.** European teacher has got his education due to which he can teach in every European country. He has “European” approach to the process of teaching of his specialised subject which helps him to treat educational material from the point of view of European perspective. He cooperates with European colleagues and takes the best pedagogical traditions. Modern practice of common teacher training programmes and confirmation of unified scientific Degrees in European universities helps to develop European level of professionalism.

6. **European citizenship.** European teacher must work and live as the citizen of Europe accepting such values as people rights respect, democracy, freedom. His critical style of teaching should form autonomous, active citizens of Europe.

7. **European quality measuring.** European teacher training foresees the existing of instruments for comparison of regional countries educational systems formal features. Means of comparability and transparency development, worked out in Bologna and
Copenhagen, influenced the process of obstacles elimination in the acceptance of pedagogical qualifications and in increase of teachers mobility.

8. **European teachers mobility** comprises possibilities of studying abroad, learning of foreign languages, getting acquainted with different national cultures, taking part in exchange programmes of students within the EU, individual job placement abroad. European teacher develops his pupils’ mobility too. Pupils exchange programmes within EU give additional opportunities for education and new understanding of European citizenship (Schratz, 2005; Sbrueva, 2007)

Analysis of European documents made it possible to formulate the model of a professionally competent European teacher ("Education & Training 2010" Work programme, 2004). This model is represented on the scheme 1. Judging from the scheme professional competences of European teachers may be divided into the following groups: *key competences; basic competences; specialised or subject competences.*

**Key competences** are necessary for performance of any professional activity. Thanks to them an individual feels comfortable in social and professional environment, solving professional tasks due to the correct use of information, communication, social and legislative norms existing in the society.

**Key competences** of teachers should include: 1) information-communicative competence: the ability of a teacher to look for, analyze and select the necessary information; the knowledge of information technologies, computer programming including communication through INTERNET; 2) social-labour competence: the ability to take the responsibility; the ability to combine personal interests with the social needs; willingness for independent professional decisions; 3) language competence: the ability for oral and written communication in different languages; teacher’s talent to inform his pupils clearly and obviously from the point of view of both the depth of subject context and the way of teaching; moreover modern teachers must carry out the information in such a way as to make the pupils to continue their work independently; 4) values of an individual: realization of a teacher’s role and destination in the modern society, in European and world environment; necessity and ability to self-perception; active life viewpoint; promoting of values of a democratic society and their use in everyday life and
professional activities; 5) cultural competence: profound knowledge of national, European and world culture; tolerant attitude to different ethnic cultures (Hutmacher, 1996).

**Basic competences** show the specific character of teaching profession. Basic competences for pedagogical activities are based on the abilities, knowledge and skills of the European teacher of the XXI century. They include: *Organizational competence*— the ability of a teacher to organize pupils effectively, to manage and control their educational activities and to plan and correct teacher’s own activity.

*Didactical competence* – the ability of a teacher to transmit knowledge to the pupils in the way that makes them interested in the learning subject so that they are ready to continue their cognitive activity independently by themselves. European didactically competent teacher can easily adapt or reconstruct teaching material taking into account mental, social, cultural and ethnic differences of his pupils using various methods and forms of personally-oriented teaching.

*Pedagogical thinking* – the specific reflexive capability of a teacher to realize his own personality in pedagogical reality, to foresee the results of his activity and to plan the pupil’s future educational trajectory. This ability in Ukrainian context is connected with positive and optimistic attitude to life and belief in people.

*Cognitive-creative competence* – the ability of a teacher to learn through understanding of what is necessary for a pupil. This competence is important when teachers formulate the aims of teaching process, plan and analyze cognitive activities of both his students and his own using creative skills.

*Psychological competence* – determination of a child individual as the dominant of education. Modern teacher must be psychologically ready to accept the inner life of a child, to understand his unique personality, to feel pupil’s psychological difficulties and when it is necessary to give psychological help for a child.

*Evaluitive competence* – the ability of a teacher to examine objectively the results of pupils achievements, the effectiveness of his own work and the professional work of his colleagues, positive and negative features in the system of education as a whole.

*Consultative competence* – the ability of a teacher to provide consultations and different forms of psychological-pedagogical assistance in the process of construction of pupil’s educational path.
Competence of lifelong development – the teacher’s talent to evolve his professional skills, knowledge and competences during all his life (Weber, 2001; European Commission, 2005).

Special competences demonstrate the level of subject component in teaching profession. They are considered by European scientists as abilities of a teacher to realize his basic and key competences in the process of teaching major subjects at school. Special competences include two components: 1) subject competence; 2) research competence.

In the process of formation of special competences the academic capabilities (subject competence) of teachers play a very important role. A teacher must have the ability to master and renew his knowledge of the subject he teaches at school.

As for Ukraine an effective teacher has to know his subject much deeper than the programme volume. Ukrainian teachers are given possibilities to form their own versions of curricula, analyze world prominent concepts and technologies in education, substantiate new approaches in teaching and upbringing and take part in reconstruction of all the spheres of pedagogical activities based on scientific research (Ogienko, 2008).

In such a way the subject competence of a teacher is closely connected with the evidence-based research competence. We must press the point that today all programmes of teacher education in European countries are aimed at developing of teacher’s research competences (Green Paper on Teacher Education in Europe, 2000).

Europe needs teachers-researchers who conduct their scientific work, organize and create their own styles of professional activities reasoning from the results of their research work.

Professional Competence of Foreign Language Teacher in Ukraine

Modern Ukrainian pedagogical education only begins to use the concept of competence in the sense that is used by European countries. Taking into account the character and peculiarities of pedagogical activities, Ukrainian scientists include the following components into the system of teachers’ professional competences:

- social block of competences combined with the environment, society, social activities of a teacher;
- motivational block of competences which involves internal motivation, interests and individual choice of a teacher;
· cognitive block of competences including total knowledge, abilities, skills of a teacher and his capacity to develop them continuously;

· functional block of competences is connected with the capacities of a teacher to use scientific knowledge and factual material effectively;

· research block of competences deals with realization of scientific research in the professional activity of a teacher.

The structure of a teacher’s professional competence includes the knowledge of the subject (foreign language), the methods of its teaching, pedagogy, psychology, high level of professional self-consciousness and professional skills (after I.Zyazyun).

According to the point of view of V.Slastjonin, professional competence of a teacher includes the unity of theoretical and practical preparedness for his professional activity.

Summing up points of view of some Ukrainian (T.Komarnytska, O.Berdychevskiy, T.Dolgova) and foreign (R.Arends, T.Crowl) scientists, we may distinguish 5 main components of a foreign language teacher’s professional competence: social, multicultural, autopsychological, cognitive and technological, personal.

**Social competence** includes the ability to take the responsibility; the ability to the possible ways of professional combine personal interests with the social needs; willingness for independent professional decisions.

**Multicultural competence** provides profound knowledge of national and world culture, tolerant attitude to different ethnic cultures.

**Auto-psychological component (competence)** was first introduced by N.Kuzmina. Modern scientists consider this component as one of the elements of a person’s professional development. Auto-psychological competence is considered to include such aspects as a person’s knowledge of possible ways of his or her professional self-perfection, adequate perceiving of personal self-evaluation, self-control and self-correction. Motivation plays here a very important role. In other words, the teacher should be professionally-conscious and ready to improve his or her professional skills.

**Cognitive-technological competence** includes professional knowledge, skills, abilities. Special role is given here to communicative competence which must be properly developed. Here we should mention some language-specific competencies that a language
teacher needs in order to teach effectively. These include the ability to do the following kinds of things:

- To comprehend texts accurately
- To provide good language models
- To maintain use of the target language in the classroom
- To maintain fluent use of the target
- To give explanations and instructions in the target language
- To provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations (e.g., of vocabulary and language points)
- To use appropriate classroom language
- To select target-language resources (e.g., newspapers, magazines, the Internet)
- To monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy
- To give correct feedback on learner language
- To provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty

Learning how to carry out these aspects of a lesson fluently and comprehensively in English is an important dimension of teacher learning for those whose mother tongue is not English. There is a threshold proficiency level the teacher needs to have reached in the target language in order to be able to teach effectively in English. A teacher who has not reached this level of proficiency will be more dependent on teaching resources (e.g., textbooks) and less likely to be able to engage in improvisational teaching.

Personal competence is connected with a teacher’s professional characteristics which may be influenced by his or her personal qualities. The scientists single out such professionally important qualities as interest and love for children, fairness, pedagogical power of observation, pedagogical tact, imagination, sociability, persistence, even temper, professional working capacity, self-evaluation, organizational skills.

Further reading:


Teacher Roles in Classroom Interaction

1. Teachers’ management skills.
2. Teacher roles in the class.
3. Grouping the students.
4. Ways of setting up the communicative activity.

Teacher is the head manager of the educational process. It is obvious that classroom management skills are important since they help to ensure the success of the teacher and of the activities used at the lesson. Gestures, facial expressions, teacher’s manner, position in the classroom, eye contact with students are those teacher's management skills which can serve as perfect tools for conveying the meaning of language, reinforcing instructions, cutting down on the amount of verbal explanations. They help teacher get across what he/she wants to say. Teacher‘s verbal skills – classroom language used, praise and criticism in evaluating learner's work – can hardly be overestimated as he/she serves as a model in using the target language and an expert in assessing students’ work.

There can be distinguished four main teacher's management skills:

- **physical** (gestures, facial expressions, voice, manner, position, eye contact);
- **verbal** (classroom language, evaluating learner's work);
- **organizational** (arranging physical environment, monitoring);
- **problem-solving** (recognizing options, making decisions and actions).

English language teachers may adopt different roles at various stages of the teaching process since different situations demand different solutions and different activities require different approaches. But the common feature of all teacher roles in the language classroom is that they should evolve gradually and develop in harmony with the needs of the class, leading to successful language learning.

As the aim of all teachers is to facilitate learning, it makes sense to describe different teacher roles in more detail and say what they are useful for.
Controller: when teachers act as controllers, they are in charge of the class and the activity taking place there. Controllers take the register, tell students things, organize drills, read aloud. Teachers who view their job as the transmission of knowledge from themselves to their students are usually very comfortable in this role. However, not all teachers possess this ability to inspire, and in less charismatic hands, transmission teaching appears to have less advantages.

Disadvantages: it doesn’t give students the possibility of their own experiential learning; it cuts down on opportunities for students to speak because when the class is acting as a whole group, fewer individuals have a chance to say anything at all; it results in a lack of variety in activities and classroom atmosphere.

Positive points: acting as a controller makes sense when giving explanations, organising question and answer work, lecturing, making announcements or bringing class to order.

Prompter: sometimes, when they are involved in a role-play activity for example, students lose the thread of what is going on, or they are “lost for words”. What should teachers do in these circumstances? They should support the students, but at the same way not take charge of the situation. This because we are keen to encourage the pupils to think creatively rather than repeat our every word. Often we have to prompt students in monolingual groups to speak English rather than use their mother tongue.

When we prompt, we need to do it sensitively and encouragingly, but with discretion. If we are too adamant, we risk taking initiative away from the student. If , on the other hand, we are too retiring, we may not supply the right amount of encouragement.

Participant: the traditional picture of teachers during student discussions, role-plays or group decision-making activities, when the teacher “stands back” from the activity and interferes only to offer feedback or correct mistakes. However, there are also times when we might want to join in an activity not as a teacher, but also as a participant. When it goes well, pupils enjoy having the teacher with them.

The danger when teachers act as participants, of course, is that they can easily dominate the proceedings. It takes great skill and sensitivity to avoid such a situation.

Resource: in some activities it is inappropriate for a teacher to take any of the roles we have suggested. Suppose that the students are involved in a group writing, or that they
are preparing for some presentation. In such situation the pupils may need their teacher as a resource. They might need to ask how to say or write something.

The teacher may meet some difficulties here. Firstly, no teacher knows everything about the language. What you should be able to offer, is guidance as to where pupils can go to look for that information. Instead of answering every question about what a word or phrase means, we can instead direct pupils to a good dictionary. Alternatively, we need to have the courage to say I don’t know the answer to that right now, but I’ll tell you tomorrow.

**Tutor:** when pupils are working on longer projects, such as some test or preparation for some debate, the teacher may work with some individuals or small groups, pointing them in directions they have not yet thought of taking. In such situation, the teacher combines the roles of prompter and resource – in other words, a tutor. When pupils are working in small groups or in pairs, the teacher can go round the class and, staying briefly with a particular group or individual, offer the sort of general guidance.

It is necessary to act as a tutor from time to time, as in this personal contact the pupils have a real chance to feel supported and helped, and the general class atmosphere is greatly changed.

The term *classroom management* refers to the procedures, strategies, and instructional techniques teachers use to manage student behaviour and learning activities. Effective classroom management is one of the most important and the most difficult skills the teacher has to master. The strategies teachers use to create classroom environment have been studied and developed for many years because effective classroom and behaviour management is one of the major concerns of ELT.

How to organize the classroom? Organizing the classroom teacher should create favourable *learning conditions*, both physical and emotional environment. Under *physical environment* some *physiological conditions* (noise, light, temperature) are meant, together with *equipment and educational aids* used by teacher in the classroom. An important constituent of physical environment is *seating arrangement* of learners, which in its turn depend on the character of the activities proposed and helps to create a special *emotional environment* of the lesson.
Experiments with seating arrangement on the one hand can help recreate new and unexpected situations, and on the other give some physical relax involving moving activities. Changing seating arrangement can help students interact with different people. In many pedagogical journals and teaching manuals language practitioners can find the ideas what grouping, seating, standing arrangements are most appropriate for each activity they do in class.

For example, traditional classroom setting (See: Fig. 1) can be successful in teacher-class interaction and pair work. However, the variety of activities in communicative classroom is hardly limited to these modes of interaction. Thus, traditional classroom setting can be improved in order to bring variety to language classroom, make it more motivated and funny. The most widely used mode, group work, needs appropriate seating arrangement (See: Fig. 3).

**FIGURE 1: Orderly rows**
The classroom should be prepared for group work either beforehand (with furniture moved for convenient group interaction) or the existing setting should be adapted for the purpose (e.g. students may interact face to face each other around one desk). Moving the furniture in a classroom might be too time-consuming. Nevertheless, if group work is used for the majority of activities in a lesson and the group members have to mingle and change the partners several times, then moving desks is desirable for successful implementation of teacher's ideas. Two more pictures (See: Fig. 2) show the variants of classroom
organization which are helpful for group discussions, exchanging ideas, brainstorming some problems etc.

**Group work and its organization.**

Acquisition of communicative competence presupposes interactive organization of teaching. Many scientists agree that interaction can be practically achieved through group work, which is the most effective way to maintain cooperation and communication. Group is not a random assemblage of independent individuals, but it is composed of individuals who interact verbally and nonverbally, who occupy certain roles with respect to one another, and who cooperate to accomplish a definite goal.

Different researchers in the field agree that group work is very important for organization of an interactive lesson and acquisition of communicative competence giving students greater opportunities to speak; developing their collaborative skills; giving students a feeling of security. Such mode of interaction promotes learner responsibility and autonomy, and contributes to individualized instruction.

The cooperative classroom where group work is actively used promotes social skills training, such as making sure everyone has a turn to speak, giving encouragement, being polite to other students, and listening when other group members are saying. Teacher should help students develop the abilities for social interaction, which are needed for effective collaboration. The abilities to coordinate work, make decisions, communicate and solve different problems are indispensable for long-standing group cooperation.

One more important advantage offered by group work is the security of a smaller group. As it is stated by psychologists, the main need of a human being is the need to feel safety. One of the most important ways of gaining safety is to join other people, to be part of a group, where each individual is not so starkly on public display. In small groups reticent students quite often become vocal participants in the process. The small group becomes a community of learners cooperating with each other in pursuit of common goals. Working in small groups (2-4 people) places responsibility for action and progress of the whole group upon each of its members. It is difficult to "hide" in a small group. P. Johnson and M. Johnson speak about the principle of individual accountability and explain that it is in effect when each child knows that he /she may bear full responsibility for the
information or the skills being learned by the group. There are no hitchhikers — only full participants.

So group work promotes learner responsibility and autonomy. One more positive side of group work is that it is a step toward individualized instruction, opportunity for teacher to take into account every student’s needs and abilities that are unique. Teacher can recognize and capitalize upon some individual differences (age, cultural heritage, field of study, cognitive style, etc) by careful selection of small groups and by administering different tasks to different groups.

Ukrainian scholars O. Pometun and L. Pyrozhenko, Americans P. Johnson and M. Johnson and British scholar Roger Gower also highlight such advantages of group work as positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction and group processing. Positive interdependence means that the efforts of every member of the group are useful and indispensable for the success of the whole group; every member brings a unique contribution into the work of the group due to either their abilities, knowledge, experience or their role in the group. Face-to-face interaction is personal cooperation that stimulates education and development of speech skills. Group processing is just as important to the classroom routine as are quizzes and other strategies for determining progress in the subject content. Teacher helps learners analyze what is working well in their group and what can be improved, offers suggestions when individual groups are having specific problems. Much of the group processing can take place in the target language, providing an additional area for meaningful communication within the classroom.

However, some teachers neglect group work, because they feel they will lose control and students will use L1 instead of practising the target language, their errors will be reinforced in small groups as teachers fail to monitor all groups at once. Furthermore, some learners prefer to work alone or problems may occur when students hardly know one another.

But the fears seem unreasonable if teachers are prepared for managing the class in a proper way. Group work needs strategic organization, planning and qualified monitoring students’ work, which requires a lot of attention and responsibility from teacher. Lack of organisation can cause serious problems in interactive classrooms. One more challenge that leads to poor and unsuccessful group work is dominance of some group members.
over others on the one hand and diffusion of responsibility of some participants on the other. This is where teacher has to motivate students who are reluctant to participate and encourage the shared responsibility. If group work is overexploited, used indiscriminately or too frequently, it may lose its effectiveness. Thus, teachers should use this type of work appropriately and according to the situation.

Groups can be organised on homogeneous or heterogeneous basis depending on teacher's objectives. An important issue to consider is the number of people in group. All groups are classified as those having even and odd number of people. Y. Polat says that groups of two people can share information and have low chances of disagreements. Groups of three people are the most stable ones but there is a risk of two people dominating over the third person. Groups of four-five are also the most stable ones. Such groups are big enough to stimulate work and to exclude dominance of some members over others. The group of more than six people seems ineffective because of limited contribution of every student into the group work.

In conclusion, group work as a type of classroom organisation is effective if students are motivated in obtaining certain knowledge or experience in a particular situation, when they have enough language practice and may evaluate the completed work and the contribution of everybody into the success or failure of the group.

There may be some other ways of setting up the communicative activities. They are:

**Buzz groups.** A problem is discussed in small groups for a few minutes before views or solutions are reported to the whole class.

**Hearing.** “Experts” discuss a topical question and may be interviewed by a panel of students who then have to make a decision about that question.

**Fishbowl.** All the members of the class sit in a big circle. In the middle of the circle there are five chairs. Three are occupied by students whose views (preferably controversial) on the topic or question are known beforehand. These three start the discussion. They may be joined by one or two students presenting yet another view. Students from the outer circle may also reply speakers in the inner circle by tapping them on the shoulder if they feel confident that they can present the case better.

**Network.** The class is divided into groups which should not have more than 5 students each. Each group receives a ball of string. Whoever is speaking on the topic
chosen holds the ball of string. When the speaker has finished he gives the ball of string to the next speaker, but holds on to the string. In this way a web of string develops, showing who talked the most and who the least.

**Onion.** The class is divided into two equal groups. As many chairs as there are students, who are arranged in a double circle, with the chairs in the outer circle facing inwards and those of the inner circle facing outwards. Thus each member of the inner circle sits facing a student in the outer circle. After a few minutes of discussion all the students in the outer circle move on one chair and now have a new partner to continue with.

**Star.** Four to six small groups try and find a common view or solution. Each group elects a speaker who remains in the group but enters into discussion with the speakers of the other groups.

**Market.** All the students walk about the room; each talks to several others.

Deliberate and well-considered classroom arrangements help the teacher organize the classroom, making lesson more vivid and emotional.

The teacher's manner to run a lesson and communicate with students; his/her personal interest in students' needs create trust and confidence in relations between teacher and students. It is a well-known fact that enthusiastic teachers have enthusiastic learners, so the teacher's own enthusiasm about their job, activities proposed and materials used encourage students' active participation and involvement.

Relaxed, supportive classroom atmosphere is also related to the variety of **activities** proposed by teacher during a lesson. The activity is lifeblood of language lesson. Proposing different activities in the classroom teacher should think over procedures and **techniques** for performing them in order to meet learners' expectations and create their positive attitude to the target language. Teachers should thus be prepared to develop fewer teacher-dominated activities and tasks, while remaining conscious of their students` need for guidance in setting objectives, for appropriate models of and feedback about the target language, and for constructive and supportive evaluation of their progress.
Further reading:


1. Task-oriented language teaching.
2. Global simulations, project work, case studies and Webquests as methods of task-oriented language teaching.

Great teaching is an art. The importance of language teaching and learning, and international exchange and cooperation has increased since the 1980s and 1990s when globalisation and communication in foreign languages became increasingly important. This has had a considerable impact on language teaching: after the domination of the grammar-and translation method in the language classroom in Europe during most of the 20th century, “communication” and “communicative competence” have become the keywords over the last thirty years.

But even the communicative method, in practice, often limits real communication in the language learning classroom to short role plays and drills. These are limited in time and are not related to other activities in the classroom, as they follow grammar and vocabulary activities or reading and listening exercises. The role plays are, in many cases, not linked to the status and experience of learners and are not very authentic. They simulate reality, but do not always correspond to this reality as learners take on roles that they would never play in real life.

Task-oriented language teaching tries to compensate for these deficiencies by giving the learner tasks which are focused on language and where the learner has to act, that is, to do something. The chosen situations and scenarios should be authentic, or at least as realistic as possible, and have close links to the background knowledge and competence of the learner on a specific topic and in a specific context. This means that every participant can play his/her part in the classroom situation and that the course is based on his/her personal knowledge and interests.

In this context, the students are more motivated to solve the tasks as they are personally addressed. In contrast to the role plays, the tasks are taken from the daily lives of learners. The students handle different tasks in the foreign language and improve their language competence in an indirect way, almost as a side effect.
Language acquisition becomes more efficient, as the students complete the tasks and do not work as half-heartedly as is often the case when a shallow approach is taken to the linguistic scenario.

Different methods can be used in task-oriented language teaching and learning, depending on the aims and opportunities of the teaching and learning situation. The teacher can use global simulations based on the learners’ knowledge and competences and stimulate their creativity. There is also project work, such as researching and developing a product that would be of use to themselves or to future groups of learners. And there are case studies that ask the students to analyse an authentic problem that is linked to their field of study, interest or work. Finally, there are Webquests, which make use of the Internet to solve a problem.

When using global simulations in the classroom, the teacher invites learners to create a fictitious world, that is, a village, a street, an island, a residential house, a company or a farm, and to fill it with life by inventing the people living and interacting within this framework. Instead of reading the stories of “Susan and Paul” in a textbook, learners invent the characters of their class themselves and have to invent, write and act scenarios, dialogues and stories that they believe could happen, instead of simply reading them or listening to them.

Although the whole situation is fictitious, it becomes more and more real to learners. Global simulations can be very easily combined with traditional teaching methods and traditional teaching material; that is, a specific grammar phenomenon can be introduced and explained as usual, traditional grammar exercises can be given, and in another step the grammar phenomenon can be applied in a specific situation within the global simulation framework by asking learners to use the grammar phenomenon in a dialogue they have to invent.

When using global simulation, the teaching starts with tasks and is based on the learners’ imagination and creativity, whereas existing texts are only used occasionally as models or reference material. The text is the result or the product of the course.

In typical project work in a language class, the students are given a specific project as a task. There can be a number of oral and written outcomes for this project. For example, they may be invited to develop a brochure, a poster or a website on a specific topic, and
to collect information on a specific aspect. The final product will be the brochure, which is of real use to the group of learners and to other groups of learners.

When using project work in language teaching, there is a high risk that learners will concentrate first of all on the product and will not pay enough attention to the language aspect. In many cases, learners will prepare nice brochures with poor language, as they forget that the main aim is to improve their language skills. In such a teaching and learning situation, linguistic aspects are not always covered with the necessary regularity and intensity.

In global simulations and project work, the main emphasis is on the production of an oral and a written text. In contrast, case studies are firmly based on the analysis and comprehension of written, and in some cases oral, material. Learners are confronted with a considerable amount of text, which they have to analyse in order to understand a given problem and to find information about the different aspects of the case. When working on a case study, learners get authentic, or “nearly authentic”, that is, lightly edited, material on a given situation and have to solve a problem by completing tasks, researching and investigating. The degree of authenticity of the tasks can be situated somewhere between global simulations, which have a strong fictitious element, and project work, which is very real as far as the task and the involvement of the learners is concerned.

The use of case studies helps learners to develop research skills, which they will almost certainly need in their future professional life. The receptive nature of the task is much stronger than with the two other methods mentioned before. In addition, case studies can require less class time for the teacher and the learner than project work or global simulations, and can be easily integrated into an existing syllabus.

When working on a case study, students are asked to analyse the material (receptive element) and then develop a solution to the problem, which they will have to present orally and in writing (productive element). Reading is an integral part of the activity and learners are trained in effective reading comprehension, for example, skimming and scanning, or “diagonal reading”, as they have to look for relevant information, using a fairly large amount of text. The learner will not search the text for unknown words as he/she very often does when reading shorter texts in language classes, but will analyse the content of
the text in order to be able to discuss the case in the group and to present his/her proposals and recommendations to the whole class.

With global simulations and project work, learners are given a productive task (“develop …”, “prepare a dialogue …”). The receptive part is also included as learners have to look for models or search for information they need, but it is less explicit and less developed.

A *Webquest* is a tool that can be integrated in all three methods mentioned above: when using Webquests learners have to search on the Internet for information they need to fulfil the task. Webquest activities use a questionnaire to guide the learner in his/her search on the Internet. These search activities can be limited to a given text corpus or can refer to any text on the Internet by using, for example, keywords.

Language Webquests normally include more merely linguistic activities (for example, vocabulary and grammar exercises) than the three methods mentioned above, which concentrate on realistic tasks and use language as a vehicle and not as an aim in itself. Webquests can be used as a tool in global simulations, project work and case studies in order to introduce the activity or offer more guidance to learners prior to the simulation/project/case study activity itself.

When Webquest activities are based on a specific problem and when they include a large number of Internet search tasks, they are very close to case studies, either to closed case studies (if limited to a specific text corpus) or to open case studies (if it is an open Internet search).

**Implications of MI Theory for Foreign Language Education**

There is probably no aspect of contemporary psychology that is more misunderstood by the general public than intelligence. There are several psychological perspectives on intelligence. For example, within modern psychology, the term intelligence can be defined in two ways. The first way is to use intelligence to refer to intelligent acts, such as writing a book or designing a new computer. The second way is to use intelligence to refer to mental processes (e.g., analyzing and synthesizing information) that give rise to intelligent acts. At one extreme, there is the proposal that each intelligent act is associated with a unique mental process.
The multiple intelligences theory was first published in 1983 in Gardner’s book, *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. Gardner derived his theory from extensive brain research, which included interviews, tests, and research on hundreds of individuals. Gardner's MI theory proposes an alternative definition of intelligence based on a radically different view of the mind. This view of intelligence states that some finite set of mental processes gives rise to a full range of intelligent human activities. This intelligence is most completely realized in the process of solving problems and fashioning products in real-life situations.

The problem-solving skill allows one to locate the appropriate route to reach a particular goal. Gardner identified seven intelligences and has since added an eighth. The list is not meant to be final or exhaustive. The point is not the exact number of intelligences, but simply the plurality of the intellect.

Each person has raw biological potential. We differ in the particular intelligence profiles with which we are born and the ways in which we develop them. Many people are surprised at some of the intelligence categories that Gardner has chosen because they never think of these areas as being related to "intelligence." They think of the categories more as talents or aptitudes.

The theory of multiple intelligences seems to harbour a number of educational implications that are worthy of consideration. Armstrong (1994) has synthesized these ideas into four key points that educators find attractive about the theory.

1. *Each person possesses all eight intelligences.* In each person the eight intelligences function together in unique ways. Some people have high levels of functioning in all or most of the eight intelligences; a few people lack most of the rudimentary aspects of intelligence. Most people are somewhere in the middle, with a few intelligences highly developed, most modestly developed, and one or two underdeveloped.

2. *Intelligences can be developed.* Gardner suggests that everyone has the capacity to develop all eight intelligences to a reasonably high level of performance with appropriate encouragement, enrichment, and instruction.

3. *Intelligences work together in complex ways.* No intelligence really exists by itself in life. Intelligences are always interacting with each other. For example, to cook a meal,
one must read a recipe (linguistic), perhaps double it (logical-mathematical), and prepare a menu that satisfies others you may cook for (interpersonal) and yourself (intrapersonal).

4. There are many different ways to be intelligent. There is no standard set of attributes that one must have in order to be considered intelligent. I remember a friend in high school who was completely awkward in the dance class and yet a marvel in building construction. Both activities required bodily- kinaesthetic intelligence.

There is no one way to use it in the classroom, and many teachers use it in a variety of ways very successfully. The multiple intelligences theory can be used to motivate and inspire students and provide variety in how we present information and lessons.

Gardner recognizes three main ways that his theory can be used by educators. These are by:
1. cultivating desired capabilities and talents in our students;
2. approaching a concept, subject matter, or discipline in a variety of ways;
3. personalizing education as we take human differences seriously.

The Multiple Intelligences

Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence involves ease in producing language and sensitivity to the nuances, order, and rhythm of words. Students who are strong in verbal-linguistic intelligence love to read, write, and tell stories. They have good memories for names, places, dates, and trivia. Professionals who use this intelligence include writers, public speakers, teachers, secretaries, business and office managers, comedians, poets, and actors.

Math-Logic Intelligence relates to the ability to reason deductively or inductively and to recognize and manipulate abstract patterns and relationships. Students who excel in this intelligence have strong problem-solving and reasoning skills and ask questions in a logical manner. They can also excel in science-related logic and problem-solving. This intelligence can be seen in such people as scientists, bankers, mathematicians, computer programmers, lawyers, and accountants.

Spatial Intelligence includes the ability to create visual-spatial representations of the world and to transfer them mentally or concretely. Students who exhibit spatial intelligence need a mental or physical picture to best understand new information; do well with maps, charts, and diagrams; and like mazes and puzzles. They are strong in drawing,
designing, and creating things. Professionals who use this intelligence include graphic artists, cartographers, draftspersons, architects, painters, and sculptors.

**Musical Intelligence** encompasses sensitivity to the pitch, timbre, and rhythm of sounds as well as responsiveness to the emotional implications of these elements of music. Students who remember melodies or recognize pitch and rhythm exhibit musical intelligence. They enjoy listening to music and are aware of surrounding sounds. This intelligence is seen in such people as singers and songwriters, rock musicians, dancers, composers, and music teachers.

**Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence** involves using your body to solve problems, make things, and convey ideas and emotions. Students who are strong in this intelligence are good at physical activities, hand-eye coordination, and have a tendency to move around, touch things, and gesture. Professionals who use this intelligence include actors, athletes, surgeons, mimes, musicians, dancers, and inventors.

**Interpersonal Intelligence** refers to the ability to work effectively with other people and to understand them and recognize their goals, motivations, and intentions. Students who exhibit this intelligence thrive on cooperative work, have strong leadership skills, and are skilled at organizing, communicating, mediating, and negotiating. (Remember that this intelligence relates to a person’s ability to understand other people but should not encourage overemphasis on cooperative learning activities and is not always found in extroverts. In fact, some extroverts I’ve known are weak in this area as they talk over, around, and alongside others on a regular basis). This intelligence is usually seen in such people as teachers, therapists, salespeople, counselors, politicians, religious leaders, and business executives.

**Intrapersonal Intelligence** entails the ability to understand one’s own emotions, goals, and intentions. Students strong in intrapersonal intelligence have a strong sense of self, are confident, and can enjoy working alone. They have good instincts about their strengths and abilities. (This intelligence is difficult to observe. The only way to identify it may be by watching students and analyzing their work habits and products. Also, it’s important to be careful not to automatically label students who enjoy working alone or who are introverts as being strong in this intelligence.) This intelligence is highly
developed in such people as philosophers, psychiatrists, religious leaders, and brain researchers.

**Naturalist Intelligence** is the latest intelligence added by Gardner. It includes the capacity to recognize flora and fauna; to make distinctions in the natural world; and to use this ability productively in activities such as hunting, farming, and biological science. Thomas Armstrong explains this intelligence as the ability to see the natural world from a larger perspective—an understanding of how nature interacts with civilization, the symbiotic relationships inherent in nature, and the life cycles of nature. Charles Darwin, John Muir, and E. O. Wilson are examples of people strong in this intelligence. This intelligence is seen in botanists, naturalists, and physicists.

Classroom that integrates multiple intelligences into the daily management is a unique and special place. Students are active learners who play a critical role in their own learning as they create projects, work with others, and use their own learning styles to succeed. It’s important to recognize the influence that the physical environment has on student learning. Students who walk into a classroom that is print-rich, and full of bright colours—will see their learning environment as a positive place. In the classroom that uses multiple intelligences strategies, students need to feel that talk and collaboration are acceptable behaviour. They need to feel that working alone in a private space is always an option. To create a classroom atmosphere where students feel safe, important, and free to explore and enjoy learning, you need to establish a set of rules of participation that guide your students’ behaviour. Some of the rules may include such points:

- Listen when the teacher or classmates are talking to you.
- Give your classmates a chance to talk.
- Ask your classmates for their ideas.
- Contribute your own ideas.
- Try to figure things out for yourself. When you can’t, ask your classmates first and then your teacher.
- Treat everyone with respect.
**Further reading:**


Foreign Language Teachers’ Self-development and Self-reflection

2. Ways of professional self-development.
3. European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (the structure and usage).
4. European Language portfolio.

A starting point in teacher development is an awareness of what the teacher’s current knowledge, skills, and attitudes are and the use of such information as a basis for self-appraisal. Teacher development means many different things to different people. For example, Paul Davis says that “as development comes more powerful, the role of the trainer will become less important”. Sandra Piai was extremely impressed to hear the participant in a teacher development workshop say “You can train me, and you can educate me, but you can’t develop me – I develop”.

The teacher must think about (or reflect on) what he/she is going to do and why. Reflection is not just simply thinking about what is happening in our lessons. There are different ways of provoking self-analyses and self-reflection on our teaching. They are:

- **Keeping journals**, in which the teacher records his/her thoughts about the lessons. This method is powerful for two main reasons. Firstly, the act of writing the journal forces us to try to put into words our thoughts. Secondly, the act of reading our own journals makes us engage again with what we experienced, felt or worried about. As a result we might come to conclusions about what to do next.

- **Making lists.** We might draw up a list of professional priorities. In the left-hand column we say what actually happens. Then, in the right-hand column we re-prioritize the items as we would like them to be. The difference between the reality and what we wish for gives us the beginning of a development plan.

- **Recording ourselves.** This will lead us to reflect on what happened and perhaps cause us to think of how we might do things differently in the future.

- **Using professional literature.** There is much to be learnt from various methodology books, journals and magazines produced for teachers of English.
- Interviewing students and colleagues.

**Ways of self-development:**

- taking part in seminars (it is a session or series of sessions in which a group of experienced people discuss an issue and exchange information and experience.

- exploration of new trends and theories in language teaching;

- submitting for workshops, which are one of the most powerful and effective forms of teacher-development activity, as workshops can provide input from experts, they offer teachers practical classroom applications, they can raise teachers’ motivation. Workshops can support innovations, they are short-term and workshops are flexible in organization.

- collaborating with other teachers in professional development (visiting the lessons of other teachers, discussing lessons, cooperative planning of the lessons)

- forming small teachers’ groups, where colleagues, usually working in the same school, meet together to discuss any issues and problems which may arise in the course of their teaching.

- joining teachers’ associations. Some of them are international (such as TESOL), some are country-based and regional. All of them provide two possible development opportunities: conferences and seminars, presentations.

In the process of professional self-development it is very important to analyse critically one’s real level of professional competence and have some motivation for further professional growth. For that reason the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe worked out the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (EPOSTL) and *European Language Portfolio* (ELP). It is a document intended for students undergoing their initial teacher education which encourages them to reflect on the didactic knowledge and skills necessary to teach languages, helps them to assess their own didactic competences and enables them to monitor their progress and to record their experiences of teaching during the course of their teacher education. The EPOSTL consists of three main sections:

• a personal statement section

• a self-assessment, which contains lists of ‘can-do’ descriptors relating to didactic competences
• a dossier, in which students can document progress and record examples of work relevant to their teacher education and their future profession.

The EPOSTL was developed for the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe by a team of teacher educators from five different countries (Armenia, Austria, Norway, Poland, UK). It arose from a project initiated by the ECML (European Council of Modern Languages), ‘A Framework for Teacher Education’, which had the overall aim of addressing the broad question of harmonising teacher education across Europe. It was decided by the project group members to build on existing documents already developed by the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe - Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and the European Language Portfolio (ELP) as well as the European Commission-financed project European Profile for Language Teacher Education – A Frame of Reference (Profile). These were used in the following ways:

**CEFR(Common European Framework of Reference):** The ‘can-do’ formulations and many terms and insights from the CEFR have been incorporated into the descriptors.

**ELP(European Language Portfolio):** The three-part structure of the EPOSTL( European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages ) (personal statement – self-assessment – dossier) bears some similarity to that of the ELP, as is its emphasis on reflection. An essential difference between the two documents is that while the ELP is concerned with language competences, the EPOSTL is concerned with didactic competences.

**Profile:** The initial idea of providing a ‘frame of reference’ came from this document. Insights from the Profile provided valuable input to the descriptors in the self-assessment section. However, whilst the Profile is aimed at teacher educators and curriculum designers, the target group of the EPOSTL is the student teacher.

The central aims of the EPOSTL are as follows:
1. to encourage students to reflect on the competences a teacher strives to attain and on the underlying knowledge which feeds these competences;
2. to help prepare students for their future profession in a variety of teaching contexts;
3. to promote discussion between students and between students and their teacher educators and mentors;
4. to facilitate self-assessment of students’ competence;
5. to help students develop awareness of their strengths and weaknesses related to teaching;
6. to provide an instrument which helps chart progress;
7. to serve as the springboard for discussions, topics for term papers, research projects etc.
8. to provide support during teaching practice and assist in discussions with mentors; this will help mentors to provide systematic feedback.

The EPOSTL is the property of the student teacher and is an instrument to promote professional growth through reflection and dialogue. As such it should be seen as a means of enhancing autonomous learning. This does not mean that the role of the teacher educator is not important: he or she will need to provide guidance as to when and how the EPOSTL might best be used.

The EPOSTL should be made available to students at the beginning of their teacher education and it should accompany them throughout their teacher education, teaching practice and into their profession.

It should be incorporated into existing course structures and relate to what is being taught and learned.

It should be used over a period of time, if possible throughout the teacher education programme. This will help to chart progress and growth.

Although primarily intended for students, the EPOSTL will assist teacher educators who are involved in curriculum design by providing a tool which helps to clarify aims and specify content and which thus points to strengths and weaknesses in teacher education programmes. It may thus play a useful complementary role to that of the European Profile for Language Teacher Education. Further, the EPOSTL can facilitate discussion of aims and curricula between teacher educators working within different national or European contexts.

Contents of the EPOSTL

The EPOSTL contains the following sections:

- An introduction, which provides a brief overview of the EPOSTL
- A personal statement section, to help students to begin their teacher education to reflect on general questions related to teaching
• A self-assessment section, consisting of ‘can-do’ descriptors, to facilitate reflection and self-assessment by student teachers
• A dossier, for students to make the outcome of self-assessment transparent, to provide evidence of progress and to record examples of work relevant to teaching
• A glossary of the most important terms relating to language learning and teaching used in the EPOSTL
• An index of terms used in the descriptors
• A users’ guide

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) has three obligatory components: a Language Passport, a Language Biography, and a Dossier. The Language Passport summarizes the owner’s linguistic identity and his or her experience of learning and using second/foreign languages; it also provides space for the owner periodically to record his or her self-assessment of overall second/foreign language proficiency.

The Language Biography accompanies the ongoing processes of learning and using second/foreign languages and engaging with the cultures associated with them. It supports goal setting and self-assessment in relation to specific learning objectives, and encourages reflection on learning styles, strategies and intercultural experience. Sometimes this reflection is a matter of filling in a form or recording one’s thoughts under a series of headings; sometimes it is entirely open.

The Dossier is where the owner collects evidence of his or her second/foreign language proficiency and intercultural experience; in some implementations it also has a strongly developed pedagogical function. There is no single version of the ELP.

The Council of Europe developed the ELP in order to serve two complementary functions. The first is pedagogical: the ELP is designed to make the language learning process more transparent to learners and to foster the development of learner autonomy; that is why it assigns a central role to reflection and self-assessment. The second function is to provide concrete evidence of second/foreign language communicative proficiency and intercultural experience.

The ELP’s pedagogical and reporting functions both depend on the so-called common
reference levels of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe 2001). These define communicative proficiency in second/foreign languages
- in behavioural terms, in the form of “can do” statements;
- at six levels arranged in three bands: basic user – A1, A2; independent user – B1, B2; proficient user – C1, C2;
- in relation to five communicative activities: listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, writing.

CEF (Common European Framework) presents agreed common reference standards, a broad description of what a user of a language can —do at six different levels of performance ranging from —"basic" (A1, A2) through —"independent" (B1, B2) to —"proficient” (C1, C2) and three sub-levels A2+, B1+, B2+ . The global scale of the Common Reference Levels which facilitate recognition of language proficiency, defining six levels of proficiency is purely descriptive in nature.

**Level A1 (Breakthrough)** is the lowest level of generative language proficiency which is established for beginners (early-school stage). The learner can interact in a simple way, ask and answer simple questions about themselves, where they live, people they know, and things they have, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics. The Program of Teaching Foreign Languages (2005) envisages the achievement of the level to the end of primary school (2-4 years of study).

**Level A2 (Waystage)** is the level (junior stage) where the majority of descriptors stating social functions are to be found, like the ability to use simple everyday polite forms of greeting and address; to greet people, ask how they are and react to news; handle very short social exchanges; to ask and answer questions about what they do at work and in free time; to make and respond to invitations; to discuss what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet; to make and accept offers. The sub-level A2+(Strong Waystage) represents more active participation in conversation given some assistance and certain limitations and significantly more ability to sustain monologues. Level A2+ has to be achieved by the end of secondary school (5-9 years of study).
**Level B1 (Threshold Level)** is categorised by two features. The first feature is the ability to maintain interaction and get across what you want to, in a range of contexts. The second feature is the ability to cope flexibly with problems in everyday life (**intermediate stage**). The **sub-level B1+ (Strong Threshold)** is envisaged to be achieved by high school leavers with the same two features present plus a number of descriptors which focus on the exchange of quantities of information.

**Level B2 (Vantage Level)** is focused on effective argument, the ability to converse naturally, fluently and effectively. The second new focus is a new degree of language awareness (**upper intermediate stage**).

More challenged and sophisticated performances such as **Level B2+ (Strong Vantage)**, **C1 (Effective operational proficiency)** and **C2 (Mastery)** need further study and can not be achieved in secondary school.

Many teachers get their students to keep portfolios of examples of their written work over a period of time. Portfolios are also used as a way of encouraging them to keep examples of what they have written.

**Further reading:**


