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مذكرة المرشحين للوظائف الإشرافية ــ وظيفة موجه فني

A Guideline For The Nominees For The Position of Supervisors

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The Role of The Supervisor

The Importance of the Role of the Technical Supervision

No doubt, the role played by the technical supervision is increasingly elevated day by day, in order to cope with the speedy progress and fast going up developments of educational objectives, construction, curricula and the upgrading of the professional standards of everyone concerned. These fast developments and progresses in the educational process were imposed upon it by the requirements of the new era, the revolution in knowledge, accumulation of information, the population influx, and the modern technological advancements.

According to the modern educational systems, the technical supervision is considered the controller of the qualitative quality of the art and science of instruction, and in consideration to its position in the field of education, its appropriates and reflects, not only a very accurate picture of the educational performance, but also the effectiveness of the curricula, the technology, and the educational methods through its awareness of the results of learning. Thus the technical supervision provides a feed back in the form of providing accurate data, depicted from the field, which have their direct impact on curricula development, and in-service training activities, and in reviewing the educational goals themselves. Consequently, the efforts exerted by the technical supervisors are appraised according to the significance of the information they make available, which have a direct impact on the processes of reform and development in the educational process as a whole.

🞤 The Technical Supervisor's Personal and Professional Characteristics Are:

- To be characterized by good conduct, resourcefulness, flexibility, straightforwardness objectivity, fairness, and to pay due respect of and adhere to the values, traditional, customs and ethics of the society.

- To be psychologically balanced faithful to his /her profession, capable of self-control, non-prejudiced, unbiased, and strictly adhering to sound values and viable educational norms.

- To have confidence in him/herself and in the others; and to make this confidence the bases of his/her proceedings with all teachers and the all personnel in the school community.

- To be also unassuming, modest diplomatic, optimistic, courageous, enthusiastic, assiduous, convincing, open-minded, permissive, wise and cute.

- To be fluent, cultured, fair, well versed in the art of teaching and supervision, too.

- To be well aware of the modern trends in teaching, supervising, the tenets of the comprehensive philosophy of education, educational planning and the perspective educational programming. as well.

- To be deeply rooted and knowledge in his/her major field work.

- To be well aware of the school curricula, their objective, and the most recent teaching methodology adopted.

- To be aware of the other school subjects, in a general way that enables him/her to achieve integrity between his school subject and the others'.

- To be adept in writing reports, conducting researches, running meetings, leading workshop, and running seminars.

- To be professionally affiliated to the assignments and commitments of education, and its norms and ethics.

- To be co-operative, and capable of providing the suitable atmosphere of co-operation and solidarity among all the teachers.

- To be characterized with impartiality, fairness, unbiasedness, uprightness, honesty, integrity, and probity in all his/her conducts.

- To be an able, capable, competent, skillful, efficient, and democratic in decision making and taking, in the right time, and the suitable way.

- To be able to encourage, motivate and entice the teachers to be creative, innovative, and demonstrative of their gifts.

- To be able to develop the teacher' performance, practically, artistically, professionally, technologically, and scientifically in order to enhance self-learning, self-enrichment and self-education.

🞜 **The Assignments of the Technical Supervisor: -**

The prevalent classification of the Technical Supervisor's job.

The person filling this post operates directly under the of the senior technical supervisor, and his mission is in relation with the teachers and the school principles, as he/she is entitled to shoulder both the technical and administrative responsibilities; he/she is an administrator, in the sense that he/she is leading a group of persons, for whom he is to plan the tactics of the work… and his/her technical job is mainly concerned with the educational methods of teaching the school subject concerned, and guiding his work team towards the best ways of achieving the objectives of the educational process, each in his/her school.

Therefore, according the prospective view, the technical supervisor's job will encompass the following roles:-

🞜 **The Technical Supervisor as A Leader Is To; (Innovate & Develop):**

This Role Entitles Him/ Her To:

- Be fully aware of and competent in the most recent methods of educational technology, and how to apply them accurately, relevantly and effectively in the educational process.

- Develop teachers' efficacies, practically, and professionally in order to upgrade and update their classroom purveyances.

- Be capable of developing and updating curricula.

- Experiment modern and recently adopted educational methods, as well as to pursue their results and impact.

- Design creative programmers to cater for the specific needs of the high achievers and remedy the slow learners' deficiencies in the best way possible.

♣ The Technical Supervisor as A Trainer.
This Role Entitles Him/ Her To:

- Properly classify and diagnose the training needs of teachers.

- Discretely plan the needed training courses to encompass different levels of training, in addition to drawing relevant plans for implementing and assessing each accordingly well.

- Hold specific training courses for the newly recruited teachers. These training courses must encompass ways of coping with their new educational environment.

- Train teachers in the art of utilizing, using and dealing with the modern educational technologies available.

♣ The Technical Supervisor as an Evaluator.
This Role Entitles Him/ Her To:

- Assess the school curriculum according to its ingredients, textbooks' contents, organization, objectives and practical implementations.

- Evaluate the educational situation from all its elements and dimensions.

- Objectively evaluate the school-subject teacher's performances on scientific and technical bases.

- Help the teachers to effectively assess their pupils by using different assessment techniques.

- Evaluate school performance with the help of different assessment techniques, in order to improve it.

♣ The Technical Supervisor as a Researcher.
This Role Entitles Him/ Her To:

- Pinpoint the problems and cases of the educational process by looking into them and thinking of relevant solutions to each.

- Provide the teachers with concise summaries of researches conducted in their field of work to benefit from and do their best to apply for improving their performances in their classes.

- Encourage teachers to conduct pilot studies and field researches to help them in solving the problems they face in their work as practical solutions to substitute the solutions that are not.

- Conduct educational researches related to field problems, to contribute in finding out practical solutions to them, and be a model to follow by the others in conducting procedural field researches and pilot studies.

5- The Technical Supervisor as Coordinator and a Motivator.

This Role Entitles Him/ Her To:

- Be initiative in solving the professional problems that might take place among the staff teachers in their departments or with the school administrations, or vice versa.

- To elevate teachers' morale and enlighten the feelings of desperation, hopelessness, and job dissatisfaction.

- Build up balanced relationships with the teachers.

- Facilitate communication channels between the different parts of the educational process, either in the same school, or with the other schools he/she is supervising.

- Encourage the teachers to work co-operatively as one hand, by exchanging modern educational technologies, participating in school activities, competitions, seminars, and conferences….etc.

The Relationship between the Technical Supervisor and School Administration:

- The technical supervisor represents the strong link between the supervision and the educational zone.

- The technical supervisor's job is complementary with the school principal as he/she represents the technical element in the educational process.

- The technical supervisor offers his/her recommendations concerning the distribution of school timetable based on each teacher's, qualities, experiences and efficiencies.

- The technical supervisor gives his/her say in solving the problems that might arise between any elements of the educational process, without any prejudice.

- The technical supervisor gives a clear picture of teacher's performance in classes and during school activities, duly.

- The technical supervisor gets the accurate data and information concerning the educational process from the school administration, now and then.

- The technical supervisor tasks part in planning, pursuing, and evaluating the school activates, relevant to his/her school subject, which are being organized by the school administrations.

➕ **The Relationship between the Technical Supervisor and the Senior Technical Supervisor:**

- The technical supervisor submits a comprehensive periodical plan of the tasks and activities to be achieved.

- The technical supervisor suggests suitable training courses for the teachers according to their needs.

- The technical supervisor participates in implementing the training courses.

- Prepares reports about the periodical test results and his/her suggestions for taking by the hands of the low-achievers therein.

- The technical supervisor suggests the titles of books and references needed for both the libraries of the schools and the educational zone's.

- The technical supervisor takes an active part in preparing teaching aids needed for his/her school subject.

- The technical supervisor submits reports about the teachers of low achievements to the administration of his/her educational zone.

- The Technical supervisor suggests transferences of teachers among school, and distributes the experienced ones equally according to class densities, in addition to distributing newly recruited teachers on different schools.

↓ **The Relationship between the Technical Supervisor and the School Curriculum:**

- The technical supervisor pursues the application of new curricula and the field reactions thereof.

- The technical supervisor fills in any gaps that might appear in the curricula during their application in the field.

- The technical supervisor participates in the committees of authorizing, modifying, or reviewing the textbooks.

↓ **The Relationship between the Technical Supervisor, His/ Her Colleagues, Educational Administrations and the Society:**

- The technical supervisor develops and strengthens human relations with his/her colleagues by coordinating and interacting with them in their different tasks, activates, and educational projects. These collaborations have positive effects on the whole educational process.

- The technical supervisor must be positive and co-operative in his/her dealings with different administrations.

- The technical supervisor has to be keen on attending all the meetings, seminars, and occasions to which he/she is invited, or those that might provide ample changes for improving his/her professional efficacy.

- The technical supervisor must Evaluate and respect all the traditions and values of the society and caters for reinforcing and highlighting them.

The Technical Supervision's Field Rounds

First: *The orientation round.*

Second: *The instructive round.*

Third: *The instructive evaluation round.*

☞ *First: The Orientation Round*

1) During this round, the technical supervisor visit all the schools under his/her supervision; the priority is given to the new schools or the schools with new administrations, or the schools that contain a large number of new teachers, or the schools without a senior teacher, or the schools in which the senior teacher is newly appointed.

2) The technical supervisor provides all the schools with the circulars issued by the Ministry of Education and relevant to the supervisor's school subject this year, like: instructions for teaching the school subject, or distribution of syllabuses on the school year …or…etc.

3) The technical supervisor takes notes of the data and information concerning his/her teachers, and introduces him/herself to the newly recruited teachers.

4) The technical supervisor gives his/her recommendations to the school timetable and its distribution on the teachers.

5) The technical supervisor holds a meeting with the senior teacher and staff teachers to discuss the new educational issues for the new school year, in general, and concerning his/her school subject, in particular, especially the issues that are urgent, and cannot be postponed to the next visit, like: changes in the teaching plan, distribution of curriculum on the school year, newly adopted textbooks…etc.

6) The technical supervisor investigates the, qualitative and quantitative school potentials concerning the teaching of his/her subject, like: the availability of textbooks, school utilities, teaching aids, teaching resources, in order to provide the school with any deficiencies therein.

7) The technical supervisor writes his observations in the supervisor's record of visits provided by the school administration.

☞ *Second: The Instructive Round*

1) During this round, the technical supervisor visits all the schools under his/her supervision; the priority of the visits given to the schools that need more visits than the others-in the light of the orientation round observations.

2) The technical supervisor, accompanied by the senior teacher and some teacher, pays visits to some classes for different teacher, and these visits contribute to the technical supervisor's meeting with all the staff, later on.

3) The technical supervisor holds a meeting with all the staff teachers, with the attendance of the senior teacher to discuss the foundations and methods of teaching, as well as any other issues relevant to the teachers' tasks, like:

• The objectives of teaching the school subject and their relation, not only with the general objectives of education in a particular stage, but also with the other study subjects.

• The different means of achieving the objectives of the school subject.

• The suitable educational activities that cater for achieving subject.

• The relevant teaching aids needed to implement these educational activities of the school subject, and how to use them effectively.

• The means of assessment and tests to evaluate pupils' developments towards achieving the stipulated objectives, and how to prepare them.

• The newly adopted trends in teaching and how to apply them.

• The newly applied curricula and the new modifications or authorization thereof.

• The available teaching aids and utilities, their suitability, quality, quantity, and the best methods of utilizing each.

• Field problems, school problems, subject matter problems…and how to deal with them.

• The subordinate activities-group activities.

• The school competitions concerned with the subject.

• The school journeys and trips related to the subject.

• The technical supervisor puts down the minutes of his/her meeting with the staff teachers in the special record for the technical supervisor's visits.

☞ *Third: The Instructive Evaluation Round*

1) The technical supervisor visits all the schools under his/her supervision; during this round.

2) The technical supervisor visits all the teacher of the school subject he/she is supervising, in their classes, taking into consideration to vary the classes, the objectives of visits, and to meet with teacher visited following each visit help him/her in analyzing his/her performance and class activities in a way that reinforces the positive sides, and overcome any week points therein then, the technical supervisors records the minutes of the visit and the meeting with the teacher in the special record for that purpose, in the school. Moreover, the supervisor can put down general remarks about teaching the school subject, for the benefit of all the staff-teacher. These remarks have to be in general from, purposeful, and relevant with the reports submitted by the technical supervisor about the teachers and the teaching process in that school.

3) Now and then, the technical supervisor holds meeting for all the teachers who teach similar grades to discuss the different issues concerned the teaching of his/her school subject, refer to (3items).

4) During this round, the technical supervisor caters for coordinating the efforts of the teachers, improving their interrelationship, raising their morale, encouraging them to be cooperative, innovative and creative. In addition, the technical supervisor helps the teachers to face their problems with the young learners, to identify their needs, and spare no efforts in satisfying these needs.

5) The technical supervisor, during this round, reviews all the registers of the school subject, which are concerned with teachers', senior teacher', and students' school works. And he/she writes his/her remarks on each's.

6) The supervisor gives the school principal remarks about his/her school visits, following each one, especially concerning the standards of teachers' performances, and pupils' achievements, as well as his/her suggestions to improve both.

7) By the end of this round, the technical supervisor collates his/her remarks during the different visits made, during this round, in the supervision record in the school, to be an incentive and guide for his/her task in the following round.

The General Technical Supervision's Programme

The round & their objectives   for the school year   /

The Round & their objectives	Orientation	Instructive	The first Instructive/ evolution	The second Instructive/evolution
Duration of the round.	*September. (From this first day of school work till the end of September)*	*October*	*November + December +January.*	*February + March + April + May. till the date of the final exams.*
Grade of the round	*1.Acquainting the schools and teachers with the recent educational issues for the new year in general, and the school subject in particular. 2. Identifying the problems facing the school end the school subject in the beginning of the school year and contribute in solve them.*	*Orientating The schools And teachers of the best teaching methods that achieve the educational goals aspired for. 2. Identifying the problems facing the school and the teachers during the school year and contribute in facing them.*	*1- Developing the teachers professionally. 2- Evaluating their performances. 3- Evaluating pupils' progress and help teachers to solve their problems. 4- Evaluating school curricula and suggesting their development.*	*The same objectives of the first Instructive/evaluation.*

✓ **The Prospective View of the Technical Supervisor's Assignments**

It is worthy to notice that the changes made in the tasks and assignments of the technical supervisor became an exigent necessity due to the transference of the educational thinking from emphasizing the subordinate thinking skills; which are represented by "convergent thinking skills" *, to underlining and highlighting the "sublime thinking skills" *, which are represented by "divergent thinking skills" *, and participating

In the provision of knowledge, in addition to persistent work to meliorate and improve the outcomes of the educational process under the umbrella of globalization, technological advancement, and the influx of the quality and quantity of information, in addition to putting into consideration that the technical supervisor is entirely responsible for the technical channels, capable of overcoming any technical obstacles, competent in solving technical problems, and efficient enough to actively participate in decision making.

• Convergent thinking that which depends on memorization, receptive and unilateral opinion.

• Divergent thinking that which depends on dialogue, debate questioning, perception of relations and plurality

▪ **The Technical Supervisor's Self Evaluation Sheet:**

By answering the following questions, the technical supervisor can assess and evaluate himself / herself.

1. Did you follow a specific work-plan during the school year?

2. Did you achieve what you had planned?

3. Did you introduce model lessons for the new teachers?

4. Did you contribute in training new teachers?

5. Did you read the recent trends in your job?

6. Did you motivate your teachers to read?

7. Did you provide your teachers with lists of useful references in their field of work?

8. Did you encourage group projects?

9. Are you interested in reviewing test results during the school year?

10. Did you take any part in any school occasions?

11. Did you contribute in any educational activity, like exhibitions or competitions?

12. Do you write educational circulars concerning you field of work?

13. Did you participate or contribute in organizing meetings between teachers of different schools together?

14. Did you submit to the responsible people any new suggestions for the benefit of the educational process?

15. Did you cater for transferring and translocation expertise among teachers of both sexes?

16. Do you encourage individual initiatives? Or experimenting new methods in teach

17. Did you acquaint yourself with the points of weaknesses and strength in the teachers you are supervising?

18. Are you keen on working punctually and accurately?

19. Are you keen on being an ideal to your teachers in practicing your duties?

20. Is fair enough id treating your teacher?

21. Do you notice any improvement in your teacher' performances following your instructive visits?

22. Are the supervision techniques you are following now suitable and sufficient?

23. Do you really practice what you say to your colleagues concerning your control, self-control, fearing, being punctual, productive, and fair?

24. Are you resourceful enough to convince the others?

25. Are you in the school pious and reformer?

26. Are you truthful, candid and faithful?

27. Do you give a good example of your educational administration?

28. Are you committed to your profession?

29. Do you always tell your superiors about your impressions and visions candidly and openly?

30. Can you explain the educational objectives accurately and convincingly?

☞ *__Notes:__*

1- The supervisions submit technical reports about the positive and negative (if there's any) sides in the educational field, supported by showing the measures taken to face and remedy the negative ones, as well as the results of these measures and the suggested procedures necessary to avoid such matters in the future.

2- Both the technical supervisor and teachers and coordinate their efforts to face any field problems and remedy them together.

3- The summary of the reports concentrates on two main parts of the educational process as thus:

I.   Teachers' performance standards.

II.   Students' development rates.

III.   The extent changes occurring from time to time, all school year long.

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Models of Supervision

Introduction:

Supervision is an essential part of language teachers' professional experiences. Daresh defined supervision as "a process of overseeing the ability of people to meet the goals of the organization in which they work". In language teacher education, supervision has been defined as "an ongoing process of teacher education in which the supervisor observes what goes on in the teacher's classroom with an eye toward the goal of improved instruction" (Gebhard, 1990, p. 1). C. Glickman also defined it, as "Supervision is assistance for the improvement of instruction. This definition allows supervision to be viewed as a function and process rather than a role or position."

- o **Roles and Models of Supervision:**

A supervisor is "anyone who has the duty of monitoring and improving the quality of teaching done by other colleagues in an educational setting" (Wallace, 1991, p. 107). Supervision may also take various forms. Gebhard (1984) devised five models of language teacher supervision (also see Gebhard, 1990). These models are direct supervision; alternative supervision, non-directive supervision, collaborative supervision, and creative supervision (see Table 1 for a brief summary). Likewise, Wallace (1991) suggests that language teacher supervision can be divided into two broad categories — the prescriptive approach and the collaborative approach. In the first approach, the supervisor is seen as an authority figure who judges the supervisee's teaching skills. On the other hand, in the collaborative approach, supervisor is seen as the teacher's colleague who listens attentively and attempts to help the teacher develop autonomy. Wallace (1991) further argues that a more collaborative approach should be the goal of supervision for both affective and long-term development reasons (also see Ali, 2007; Chamberlin, 2000; Stoller, 1996).

☞ **Table 1. Gebhard's (1984) Supervision Models**

Model	General description
Directive supervision	• The supervisor's role is to direct and inform the teacher, model teaching behaviours, and evaluate the teacher's mastery of defined behaviours.
Alternative supervision	• The supervisor's role is to suggest a variety of alternatives. The purpose of offering alternatives is to widen the scope of what a teacher will consider doing.
Non-directive supervision	• The supervisor listens attentively and non-judgmentally as teachers describe their work and reflect on their teaching.
Collaborative supervision	• The supervisor actively works with the teacher and attempts to establish a sharing relationship.
Creative supervision	• This model allows a combination of different models as supervisors see the need to switch roles during supervision.

As professionals, it is likely that most of us have experienced teacher supervision, either as a supervisor, as a teacher being supervised, or as an outside observer. If we were to describe the roles the supervisor played in these experiences, they would probably fall into one or more of the following categories:

- to direct or guide the teacher's teaching
- to offer suggestions on the best way to teach
- to model teaching
- to advise teachers
- to evaluate the teacher's teaching.

To decrease

- Decisions based on assumptions rather than data
- Directive leadership
- A lack of focus on instruction
- Supervisor as expert who knows what is best and how to fix it
- Little involvement in decisions regarding curriculum/teaching strategies

To increase

- Data-driven decisions
- Collaborative leadership

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- A focus on the learning of all students
- Supervisor as mentor/ facilitator who encourages self-direction among staff
- High involvement in decisions that impact student learning

These categories were elicited from many teachers and teacher educators in several countries and appear to be a representative sample. The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate that supervision can be much more than this as four models of supervision are presented and discussed:

1. Directive
2. Alternative supervision
3. Collaborative
4. Nondirective
5. Creative

Directive is considered the first supervision model, which offered to illustrate the kind of supervision that has traditionally been used by teacher educators. This model has some serious limitations, however. The other three models offer alternatives for describing ways that we can define the role of the supervisor and supervision.

1. Directive Supervision

In directive supervision the role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher, model-teaching behaviours, and evaluate the teacher's mastery of defined behaviours.

Most people would agree that good teaching means that learning takes place. However, how do we identify what specific teaching behaviours cause the students to learn? Many years of process-product research have failed to identify specific teaching behaviours, which are unambiguously linked to learning outcomes. Despite this, the ultimate aim is still to end up with something helpful to say to teachers and their trainers. For that, directive supervision behaviours are divided into two major sections. (A) Directive informational behaviours. (B) Directive control behaviours.

A: Directive Informational Behaviours

- Acts as information source for the goal and activities of the improvement plan, considers teacher feedback.
- Provides a range of alternatives for the teacher to choose one.
- Determines a clear classroom goal for the teacher and directs the teacher to those activities that will lead to the realization of the goal.
- Addresses the what, when, and how of implementing the activities, set criteria for improvement, and reinforce the understanding of what is to be done.

Directive Informational Continuum of Behaviours

Presenting	• Identify the goal / Review your observation and previous experience and present the goal
Clarifying	• Ask the teacher for input into the goal / Be careful not to move too quickly into a planning phase until you check to see what the teacher thinks of your interpretation and goal
Listening	• Understand the teacher's point of view/ Listen to determine if the teacher accepts the goal as an important one or if she needs to provide further explanation
Problem solving	• Mentally determine possible actions/alternative actions or suggestions
Directing	• Telling alternatives for teachers to consider / Give alternative actions as possibilities, based on her experience and knowledge, for the teacher to judge, consider, and respond
Listening	• Ask the teacher for inputs into the alternatives / Ask the teacher to react to the alternatives / The teacher has the chance to give the supervisor information to modify, eliminate, and revise before finalizing the choices
Directing	• Frame the final choices/ In a straightforward manner lay out what the teacher could do
Clarifying	• Ask the teacher to choose / Ask the teacher to decide and clarify which activities or combinations he will use
Standardizing	• Detail the action to be taken / Assist the teacher in developing the specifics of the activities and the criteria for success

Reinforcing	• Repeat and follow up on the plan / Conclude the conference by restating the goal, the activities to be taken, the criteria for success, and follow-up time for the next observation and/or conference

Issues in Directive Informational Behaviours

- Issues of confidence and credibility are crucial
- Supervisor must be confident that his or her own knowledge and experience are superior to and different from those of the teacher
- The teacher must believe that the supervisor possesses a source of wisdom that he or she does not have
- Teacher exercises some control in choosing which practices to use

When to Use Directive Informational Behaviours

- When the teacher is functioning at fairly low developmental levels
- When the teacher does not possess the knowledge about the issue that the supervisor clearly possesses
- When the teacher feels confused, inexperienced, or is at a loss for what to do, and the supervisor knows of successful practices
- When the supervisor is willing to take responsibility for what the teacher chooses to try
- When the teacher believes that the supervisor is credible
- When the time is short, the constraints are clear, and quick, concrete actions needed to be taken

B. Directive Control Behaviours

- Based on the assumption that the supervisor has greater knowledge and expertise about the issue at hand
- The supervisor knows better than the teacher what needs to be done to improve instruction

- The supervisor initially identifies the problem by gathering information from his own observations
- The supervisor then discusses this information with the teacher
- The supervisor later tells the teacher what to do and provide an explanation of why
- The supervisor later reviews the proposed action and reiterates his expectations for the teacher

Directive Control Continuum of Behaviours

Presenting	• Identify the problem / Make observations and gather information from other sources
Clarifying	• Ask the teacher for input into the problem / Gather direct information from the teacher / Use the teacher in an advisory capacity
Listening	• Understand the teacher's point of view / Attend carefully to what the teacher says
Problem solving	• Mentally determine the best solution / Process the information and think about an appropriate action
Directing	• Telling expectations to the teacher / Tell the teacher in a matter-of-fact way what needs to be done / Make statements based on your position, credibility and authority
Clarifying	• Ask the teacher for input into the expectations / Find out the possible difficulties associated with the directive from the teacher
Standardizing	• Detail and modify expectations / Build the necessary assistance, resources, time lines, and criteria for expected success
Reinforcing	• Repeat and follow up on expectations / Review the entire plan and establish times for checking on progress / Close the meeting by making sure the teacher clearly understands the plan

Issues in Directive Control Behaviours

- Power and authority, respect, expertise, line and staff relationships
- Tell the teacher exactly and honestly what is to be done
- Write word-for word the critical statement

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- Supervisor is convinced of practices that will improve instruction
- Supervisor is willing to assume full responsibility for the decision
- Measure of last resort when an immediate decision is needed
- Time – at a time of emergency a supervisor whether ultimately right or wrong, must be directive

When to Use Directive Control Behaviours

- When teachers are functioning at a very low developmental level
- When the teachers do not have awareness, knowledge, or inclination to act on an issue that a supervisor, who has organizational authority, thinks to be of critical importance to the students, the teachers, or the community
- When teachers will have no involvement and the supervisor will be involved in carrying out the decision
- When the supervisor is committed to resolving the issue and the teachers are not
- In an emergency, when the supervisor does not have time to meet with teachers

☞ **Comparing Directive Control and Directive Informational Statements**

Directive Control	Directive Informational
• It is essential that you improve your classroom management during your first-period English class	• I suggest the goal of improving your classroom management during your first-period English class
• One of my expectations is that you the classroom management workshops being offered by the district	• One alternative is for you to attend the classroom management workshop being offered by the district
• You need to have a written lesson plan prepared for each class. Each plan must include the following the major preparation elements.	• You could prepare more detailed lesson plans for this group. Each plan might include these major and additional elements.
• Do you have any questions concerning these new expectations	• Do you have any questions concerning with these new possible action?

2. Alternative Supervision

It was discovered in research on teacher attitudes to supervision that some teachers feel the need to be told what to do when they first begin to teach. This is attributed this to their insecurity in facing students without having the skills to cope with that situation.

Teachers from a number of countries have also pointed out that if the teacher is not given direction by the supervisor, then the supervisor is not considered qualified. The roots of directive supervision grow deep.

However, there is a way to direct teachers without prescribing what they should do. This way is through a model called alternative supervision. In this model, the supervisor's role is to suggest a variety of alternatives to what the teacher has done in the classroom. Having a limited number of choices can reduce teachers' anxiety over deciding what to do next, and yet it still gives them the responsibility for decision making. It is pointed out that alternative supervision works best when the supervisor does not favor anyone alternative and is not judgmental. The purpose of offering alternatives is to widen the scope of what a teacher will consider doing.

Non directive supervision

Suggestions are offered about how alternatives can be used to guide the beginning teacher. One way is to have teachers try the opposite of what they usually do. For example, if students usually read silently, the teacher can generate a lesson in which students read aloud to the whole class or in pairs. Another way is to duplicate inside the classroom what goes on outside of the classroom setting. For example, the teacher can have students stand up when conversing. He also trains teachers to be aware of "leaden" (as opposed to "golden") moments - to identify consistent problems - and to try alternative behaviours to resolve the problem. For example, if students always come late to class, the teacher could offer coffee or another reward to those who come on time, or simply talk with the students or write notes to them about the importance of starting class on time.

The aim is for teachers to try alternative Behaviours and to pay attention to the consequences. If teachers are provided with strategies that give them a way to

understand the consequences of what they do, teachers can gradually rely on themselves to make teaching decisions.

3. Collaborative Supervision

Within a collaborative model the supervisor's role is to work with teachers but not direct them. The supervisor actively participates with the teacher in any decisions that are made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship. It is believed that teaching is mostly a problem- solving process that requires a sharing of ideas between the teacher and the supervisor. The teacher and supervisor work together in addressing a problem in the teacher's classroom teaching. They pose a hypothesis, experiment, and implement strategies that appear to offer a reasonable solution to the problem under consideration.

Collaborative supervision can be used thus: Instead of telling the teacher what he/ she should have done, the supervisor can , "What did you think of the lesson? How did it go? Did you meet your objective?" This would be said in a positive, interested, and nonjudgmental way.

It is worth mentioning that although the ideals of equality and the sharing of ideas in a problem-solving process can be appealing, the ideal and the real are sometimes far apart. Not all teachers are willing to share equally in a symmetrical, collaborative decision-making process.

At the deeper philosophical level, we need to understand the importance of working with the "whole person" of the learner. Curran advocated such techniques as the nonjudgmental "understanding response" to break down the defenses of learners, to facilitate a feeling of security, and to build a trusting relationship between learners and the teacher. This trusting relationship allows the teacher and learners to "quest" together to find answers to each learner's questions.

- Frank exchange of ideas
- Supervisor encourages the teacher to present his or her own perceptions and ideas, but also honestly gives his or her own views
- Disagreement is encouraged, not suppressed

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- Supervisor and supervisee either agree to an action or wind up stalemated
- A stalemate will mean further negotiating, rethinking, and even possible use of a third-party mediator

Collaborative Continuum of Behaviours

Clarifying	• Identify the problem as seen by the teacher / Ask the teacher about the immediate problem or concern
Listening	• Understand the teacher's perception / Use nondirective Behaviours (e.g. eye contact, paraphrasing, asking probing questions) to gather as much information about the problem as possible before thinking about action
Reflecting	• Verify the teacher's perception / Check for accuracy by summarizing the teacher's statements and asking if the summary is accurate
Presenting	• Providing the supervisors' point of view / Become part of the decision-making process / Give your own point of view about the problem and give information the teacher might be unaware
Clarifying	• Seeking the teacher's understanding of the supervisor's perception of the problem / Ask the teacher to paraphrase the supervisor's perceptions
Problem Solving	• Exchange suggestions of options
Encouraging	• Accept conflict / Conflict between two caring professionals is productive for finding the best solution / Assure the teacher that disagreement is acceptable
Negotiating	• Finding an acceptable solution
Standardizing	• Agree on the details of plan
Reflecting	• Summarize the final plan / Conclude the conference by checking that both parties agree to the action and details

Issues in Collaborative Supervision

- Asking the more qualified person to make a decision (undemocratic)
- Two people can appear to make a collaborative decision, but one person will discreetly let the other know of his or her power
- When the teacher or group believes that the supervisor is manipulating the decision.

When to Use Collaborative Behaviours

- When teachers are functioning at moderate or mixed developmental levels
- When the teacher and supervisor have approximately the same degree of expertise on the issue
- When the teacher and supervisor will both be involved in carrying out the decision
- When the teacher and supervisor are both committed to solving the problem

Collaborative Supervision. In The Collaborative Orientation,

- The Behaviours of presenting, clarifying, listening, problem-solving, and negotiating are used to develop a contract between the teacher and the supervisor.
- With this approach the supervisor and teacher actively negotiate the plan of action. Neither the supervisor nor the teacher has a final plan that excludes the other's view.
- The final product of the supervisory process is a contract, agreed to by both and carried out as a joint responsibility.

4. Non Directive Supervision

The essence of nondirective supervision is captured in the following observation by a teacher-in preparation: "My supervisor usually attempts to have me come up with my own solutions to teaching problems, but she isn't cold. She is a giving person, and I can tell that she cares. Anyway, my supervisor listens patiently to what I say, and she consistently gives me her understanding of what I have just said." The same teacher also expressed the consequences of this type of supervision for her when she added, "I think that when my supervisor repeats back to me my own ideas, things become clearer. I think this makes me more aware of the way I teach - at least I am aware of my feelings about what I do with students."

According to those foreign and second language teacher educators who have discussed a nondirective supervisory approach if the supervisor had been more nondirective when supervising a teacher, the teacher could have had the freedom to express and clarify his/her ideas, and a feeling of support and trust could have grown between the supervisor and the teacher.

Nondirective supervision can also have a different result. Some teachers report that it makes them feel anxious and alienated. One reason for anxiety may be due to the inexperience of the teacher.

The way the supervisor understands nondirective supervision could also cause the teacher anxiety. Perhaps the supervisor has simply been using the surface techniques while ignoring the deeper philosophical principles. To borrow only certain outward features of the approach without understanding what its real power is would be like using an airplane only as a car or a sophisticated computer only as a typewriter.

- Based on the assumption that an individual teacher knows best what instructional changes need to be done and has the ability to think and act on his or her own
- The decision belongs to the teacher
- Role of the supervisor is to assist the teacher in the process of thinking through his or her actions
- Supervisor behaves in ways that keep the teacher's thinking focused on (observation, interpretation, problem identification and problem solutions)

Examples of Nondirective Behaviours Are

- Eye contact
- asking probing questions
- facial expressions
- paraphrasing

Nondirective Continuum of Behaviours

Listening	• Wait until the teacher's initial statement is made / Understand what they teacher is saying / Avoid thinking about how you see the problem
Reflecting	• Verbalize your understanding of the initial problem / Capture what the teacher is saying / Do not offer your opinion
Clarifying	• Probe for the underlying problem/additional information / Guide the teacher to reframe the problem / Clarifying is done to help the teacher further identify, not solve the problem / Avoid asking questions that are solutions
Encouraging	• Show willingness to listen further as the teacher begins to identify the real problems / Do not praise the teacher
Reflecting	• Constantly paraphrase the understanding of the teacher's message / Check on the accuracy of what you understand the teacher to be saying
Problem solving	• Ask the teacher to consider consequences of various actions / Have the teacher move from possible to probable solutions
Presenting	• Ask the teacher for a commitment to a decision / Have the teacher select actions that are do-able, feasible and concrete (accountable)
Standardizing	• Ask the teacher to set time and criteria for action
Reflecting	• Restate the teacher's plan

Issues with Nondirective Behaviours

- Can a supervisor really remain nonjudgmental and not influence the teacher's or groups decision?
- What happens if the teacher or group desires the supervisor's input?
- What does a supervisor do with a teacher or group that is reluctant or not capable of generating solutions?
- How exact or variable is the sequence of nondirective Behaviours?
- In what circumstances should nondirective Behaviours be used?

When to Use Nondirective Behaviours

- When the teacher or group is functioning at high developmental levels
- When the teacher or group possesses most of the knowledge and expertise about the issue and the supervisor's knowledge and expertise are minimal
- When the teacher or group has full responsibility for carrying out the decision and the supervisor has little involvement
- When the teacher or group is committed to solving the problem but the problem doesn't matter to the supervisor

5. Creative Supervision

The statement that "any particular way of looking at things is only one from among many other possible ways" serves as the basis of creative supervision. Each model of supervision presented thus far in some way limits our way of looking at supervision. The creative model encourages freedom and creativity in at least three ways. It can allow for:

1. a combination of models or a combination of supervisory Behaviours from different models,
2. a shifting of supervisory responsibilities from the supervisor to other sources,
3. an application of insights from other fields that are not found in any of the models.

Working with only one model can be appropriate, but it can also be limiting. Sometimes a combination of different models or a combination of supervisory Behaviours from different models might be needed.

A second way that a creative model of supervision can be used is to shift supervisory responsibility from the supervisor to another source. For instance, teachers can be responsible for their own supervision through the use of teacher centers. Teacher centers are places where teachers can go to find answers to questions, use resources, and talk about problems with other teachers or special "consultants" or

"supervisory experts." Rather than the supervisor going to the teachers, the teachers can go to the teacher center. Another way to shift responsibility away from the supervisor is to have peer supervision, where fellow teachers observe each other's classes. In this case there is no supervisor.

A third way that creative supervision can be used is through the application of insights from other fields which are not found in any of the models. For example, some teacher educators have adapted observation systems originally developed for research to help them observe and supervise practice teachers. Other teachers prefer because the five major categories and many subcategories within FOCUS can be used easily as a metalanguage to talk about teaching in nonjudgmental and specific terms.

The application of observation systems has been a valuable asset to supervisors. It allows them to describe rather than prescribe teaching, and observation systems provide a means through which teachers can continue to monitor and study their own teaching. However, why stop there? Why not apply yoga and meditation techniques to teacher supervision? Leadership training from business management? Ethnographic interviewing techniques? Storytelling skills used in Hawaiian folklore? Use of metaphors in counseling? We will never know the consequences of trying new ideas in the preparation of teachers if we keep doing the same things repeatedly.

Conclusion

Matching models of supervision to the Stages of Teacher development (growth) because in stage (I) concerned with teacher's survival, and might profit most by the directive model. In Stage (2) concerned with improving the learning environment for the students and the teaching approaches for the teachers, in this cause, the collaborative model will be helpful. In stage (3) concerned with helping other students and teachers and in this case, they need minimum influence of the non-directive model

Simplified Stages of Teacher Development

THOUGH	EGOCENTRIC	←————————→	ALTRUISTIC
CONCERN	SELF-ADEQUACY	CLASSROOM	OTHER STUDENTS AND TEACHERS
STAGE	I	II	III

Supervisory Behaviour Continuum

T ↑ S

LISTENING
CLARIFYING   } NONDIRECTIVE
ENCOURAGING

PRESENTING
INTERACTING   } COLLABORATIVE
COUNTERACTING

MODELING
DIRECTING   } DIRECTIVE
MEASURING

T ↓ S
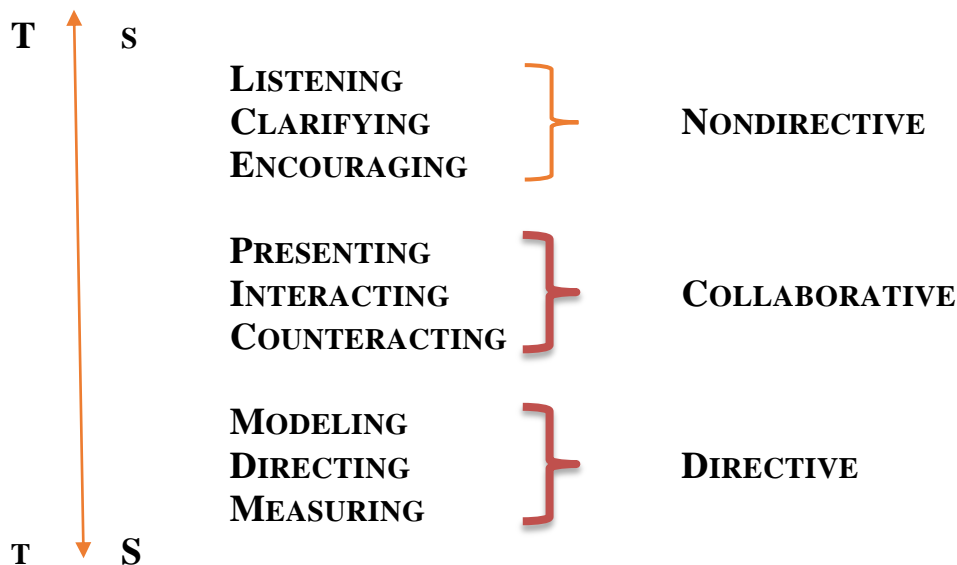
KEY: T = MAXIMUM TEACHER RESPONSIBILITY FOR DECISIONS
        T = MINIMUM TEACHER RESPONSIBILITY FOR DECISIONS
        S = MAXIMUM SUPERVISOR RESPONSIBILITY FOR DECISIONS
        S = MINIMUM SUPERVISOR RESPONSIBILITY FOR DECISIONS

Matching Models of Supervision to the Stages of Teacher Development

TEACHER STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT	Self-adequacy	Classroom	Other students and teachers
SUPERVISORY MODEL	Directive	Collaborative	Nondirective

	Modeling	Presenting	Listening
PREDOMINANT SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOURS	Directing	Interacting	Clarifying
	Measuring	Counteracting	Encouraging

Many second-language teacher educators seem to limit their approach to supervision and their choice of supervisory Behaviours. In doing so they risk restricting or, in the case of very directive supervision, even retarding teachers' progress in assuming responsibility for their own teaching and in developing their talents as professional teachers. This does not have to be the case, for there is a wide choice of supervisory Behaviours that teacher educators can select from. Each supervisor will have to discover which supervisory Behaviours work well. Unless we are willing to explore and use new Behaviours in our supervisory efforts, we will never know the consequences that these behaviours can have on the professional development of teachers. It is up to us to continually apply this and other knowledge in our development of more and more sophisticated and productive teacher supervision.

Directive Supervision is an approach based on the belief that teaching consists of technical skills with known standards and competencies for all teachers to be effective, the supervisor's role is to inform, direct, model, and assess those competencies. In directive orientation, the supervisor emphasizes:

- The behaviours of presenting, directing, demonstrating, standardizing, and reinforcing, in developing an assignment for teachers.
- The directive supervisor judges the most effective way to improve instruction by making standards clear, and by tangibly showing teachers how to attain such standards.
- It is a thoughtful, systematic-like approach, based on a careful collection of data.
- This approach implies that the supervisor is more knowledgeable about teaching, and that his or her decisions are more effective than the teachers are when seeking to improve instruction.

There are at least three problems with directive supervision. First, there is the problem of how the supervisor defines "good" teaching. Second, this model may give rise to feelings of defensiveness and low self-esteem on the part of the teacher. Third, there is the problem of assigning ultimate responsibility for what goes on in the classroom.

Collaborative Supervision is based on the belief that teaching is primarily problem solving, whereby two or more persons jointly pose hypotheses to a problem, experiment, and imp/omen t those teaching strategies that appear to be most relevant in their own surroundings. The supervisor's role is to guide the problem-solving process, be an active member of the interaction, and keep the teachers focused on their common problems. In the collaborative orientation, the supervisor emphasizes:

- The behaviours of presenting, clarifying, listening, problem-solving, and negotiating are used to develop a contract between the teacher and the supervisor.
- With this approach the supervisor and teacher actively negotiate the plan of action. Neither the supervisor nor the teacher has a final plan that excludes the other's view.
- The final product of the supervisory process is a contract, agreed to by both and carried out as a joint responsibility.

Non-Directive Supervision has as its premise that learning is primarily a private experience in which individuals must come up with their own solutions to improving the classroom experience for students. The supervisor's role is to listen, he non-judgmental, and provide self-awareness and clarification experiences for teachers. In the non-directive orientation, the supervisor emphasizes:

- The behaviours of listening, encouraging, clarifying, presenting, and problem solving, are used to create a teacher self-plan.

- This plan rests on the premise that the teacher is capable of analyzing and solving his/her own instructional problems.
- When the teacher sees the need for change, s/he is more ready to implement such change.

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Effective Communication Skills

Effective Communication

It sounds so simple: say what you mean. But all too often, what we try to communicate gets lost in translation despite our best intentions. We say one thing, the other person hears something else, and misunderstandings, frustration, and conflicts ensue.

Fortunately, you can learn how to communicate more clearly and effectively. Whether you're trying to improve communication with your spouse, kids, boss, or coworkers, you can improve the communication skills that enable you to effectively connect with others, build trust and respect, and feel heard and understood.

⬥ What Is Effective Communication?

Communication is about more than just exchanging information. It's about understanding the emotion and intentions behind the information. Effective communication is also a two-way street. It's not only how you convey a message so that it is received and understood by someone in exactly the way you intended, it's also how you listen to gain the full meaning of what's being said and to make the other person feel heard and understood.

More than just the words you use, effective communication combines a set of skills including nonverbal communication, engaged listening, managing stress in the moment, the ability to communicate assertively, and the capacity to recognize and understand your own emotions and those of the person you're communicating with.

Effective communication is the glue that helps you deepen your connections to others and improve teamwork, decision making, and problem solving. It enables you to communicate even negative or difficult messages without creating conflict or destroying trust.

While effective communication is a learned skill, it is more effective when it's spontaneous rather than formulaic. A speech that is read, for example, rarely has the same impact as a speech that's delivered (or appears to be delivered) spontaneously. Of course, it takes time and effort to develop these skills and become an effective communicator. The more effort and practice you put in, the more instinctive and spontaneous your communication skills will become.

✚ Types of Communication Verbal, Non-verbal and Written

Communication is a key to maintaining successful business relations. For this reason, it is paramount that professionals working in business environments have first-class communication skills. There are three basic types of communication: verbal, non-verbal, and written. If you want to succeed in business, you need to master each of these types of communication.

✚ Verbal Communication

Verbal or oral communication uses spoken words to communicate a message. When most people think of verbal communication, they think of speaking, but listening is an equally important skill for this type of communication to be successful. Verbal communication is applicable to a wide range of situations, ranging from informal office discussions to public speeches made to thousands of people.

Improving your verbal communication skills can help you to foster better relationships with your coworkers and maintain a large network of contacts that you can call on when necessary. Consultants are one group of professionals that need to pay particular attention to this area of communication, as they need to constantly meet with new people and quickly communicate large quantities of important information.

✚ Non-Verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication includes body language, gestures, facial expressions, and even posture. Non-verbal communication sets the tone of a conversation, and can seriously undermine the message contained in your words if you are not careful to control it. For example, slouching and shrinking back in your chair during a business meeting can make you seem under-confident, which may lead people to doubt the strength of your verbal contributions. In contrast, leaning over an employee's desk and invading his or her personal space can turn a friendly chat into an aggressive confrontation that leaves the employee feeling victimized and undervalued.

🔹 Written Communication

Written communication is essential for communicating complicated information, such as statistics or other data, which could not be easily communicated through speech alone. Written communication also allows information to be recorded so that it can be referred to at a later date. When producing a piece of written communication, especially one that is likely to be referred to over and over again, you need to plan what you want to say carefully to ensure that all the relevant information is accurately and clearly communicated.

Written communication must be clear and concise in order to communicate information effectively. A good written report conveys the necessary information using precise, grammatically correct language, without using more words than are needed.

By improving your verbal, non-verbal, and written communication skills, you can become more successful in all areas of business. Whether you are managing others or working as part of a team, the ability to communicate effectively can improve relations with your colleagues and help you all to work more effectively together

Building Rapport

Rapport is a state of harmonious understanding with another individual or group that enables greater and easier communication. In other words rapport is getting on well with another person, or group of people, by having things in common, this makes the communication process easier and usually more effective.

Sometimes rapport happens naturally, you 'hit it off' or 'get on well' with somebody else without having to try, this is often how friendships are built. However, rapport can also be built and developed by finding common ground, developing a bond and being empathic.

This page examines rapport and how it can be built, especially when meeting new people. Rapport is important in both our professional and personal lives; employers are more likely to employ somebody who they believe will get on well with their current staff. Personal relationships are easier to make and develop when there is a

closer connection and understanding between the parties involved – i.e. there is greater rapport.

The first task in successful interpersonal relationships is to attempt to build rapport. Building rapport is all about matching ourselves with another person. For many, starting a conversation with a stranger is a stressful event; we can be lost for words, awkward with our body language and mannerisms. Creating rapport at the beginning of a conversation with somebody new will often make the outcome of the conversation more positive. However stressful and/or nervous you may feel the first thing you need to do is to try to relax and remain calm, by decreasing the tension in the situation communication becomes easier and rapport grows.

☞ **Break the Ice**

When meeting somebody for the first time some simple tips will help you reduce the tension in the situation enabling both parties to feel more relaxed and thus communicate more effectively:

- Use non-threatening and 'safe topics' for initial small talk. Talk about established shared experiences, the weather, how you travelled to where you are. Avoid talking too much about yourself and avoid asking direct questions about the other person.

- Listen to what the other person is saying and look for shared experiences or circumstances - this will give you more to talk about in the initial stages of communication.

- Try to inject an element of humour. Laughing together creates harmony, make a joke about yourself or the situation/circumstances you are in but avoid making jokes about other people.

- Be conscious of your body language and other non-verbal signals you are sending. Try to maintain eye contact for approximately 60% of the time. Relax and lean slightly towards them to indicate listening, mirror their body-language if appropriate.

- Show some empathy. Demonstrate that you can see the other person's point of view. Remember rapport is all about finding similarities and '*being on the same wavelength*' as somebody else - so being empathic will help to achieve this.

- Make sure the other person feels included but not interrogated during initial conversations, as you may feel tense and uneasy meeting and talking to somebody new, so may they. Put the other person at ease, this will enable you to relax and conversation to take on a natural course.

☞ **Non-Verbal Rapport Building**

Although initial conversations can help us to relax, most rapport-building happens without words and through non-verbal communication channels.

We create and maintain rapport subconsciously through matching non-verbal signals, including body positioning, body movements, eye contact, facial expressions and tone of voice with the other person.

Watch two friends talking when you get the opportunity and see how they sub-consciously mimic each other's non-verbal communication.

We create rapport instinctively, it is our natural defence from conflict, which most of us will try hard to avoid most of the time.

It is important that appropriate body language is used; we read and instantly believe what body language tells us, whereas we may take more persuading with vocal communication. If there is a mismatch between what we are saying verbally and what our body language is saying then the person we are communicating with will believe the body language. Building rapport, therefore, begins with displaying appropriate body language - being welcoming, relaxed and open.

As well as paying attention to and matching body language with the person we are communicating with, it helps if we can also match their words. Reflecting back and clarifying what has been said are useful tactics for repeating what has been communicated by the other person. Not only will it confirm that you are listening but also give you opportunity to use the words and phases of the other person, further emphasising similarity and common ground

The way we use our voice is also important in developing rapport. When we are nervous or tense we tend to talk more quickly, this in turn can make you sound more tense and stressed. We can vary our voices, pitch, volume and pace in ways to make what we are saying more interesting but also to come across as more relaxed, open and friendly. Try lowering your tone, talk more slowly and softly, this will help you develop rapport more easily.

☞ **Helpful Rapport Building Behaviours**

- If you are sitting then lean forward, towards the person you are talking to, with hands open and arms and legs uncrossed. This is open body language and will help you and the person you are talking to feel more relaxed.

- Look at the other person for approximately 60% of the time. Give plenty of eye-contact but be careful not to make them feel uncomfortable.

- When listening, nod and make encouraging sounds and gestures.

- Smile!

- Use the other person's name early in the conversation. This is not only seen as polite but will also reinforce the name in your mind so you are less likely to forget it!

- Ask the other person open questions. Open questions require more than a yes or no answer.

- Use feedback to summarise, reflect and clarify back to the other person what you think they have said. This gives opportunity for any misunderstandings to be rectified quickly.

- Talk about things that refer back to what the other person has said. Find links between common experiences.

- Try to show empathy. Demonstrate that you can understand how the other person feels and can see things from their point of view.

- When in agreement with the other person, openly say so and say why.

- Build on the other person's ideas.

- Be non-judgemental towards the other person. Let go of stereotypes and any preconceived ideas you may have about the person.

- If you have to disagree with the other person, give the reason first then say you disagree.

- Admit when you don't know the answer or have made a mistake. Being honest is always the best tactic, acknowledging mistakes will help to build trust.

- Be genuine, with visual and verbal behaviours working together to maximize the impact of your communication.

- Offer a compliment, avoid criticism.

🔸 **Different Types of Barriers to Effective Communication**

For **the convenience of study the different barriers can be divided into four parts**:

(1) Semantic Barriers

There is always a possibility of misunderstanding the feelings of the sender of the message or getting a wrong meaning of it. The words, signs, and figures used in the communication are explained by the receiver in the light of his experience which creates doubtful situations. This happens because the information is not sent in simple language.

➤ **The chief language-related barriers are as under:**

(i) Badly Expressed Message**:**

Because of the obscurity of language there is always a possibility of wrong interpretation of the messages. This barrier is created because of the wrong choice of words, in civil words, the wrong sequence of sentences and frequent repetitions. This may be called linguistic chaos.

(ii)Symbols or Words with Different Meanings:

A symbol or a word can have different meanings. If the receiver misunderstands the communication, it becomes meaningless. For example, the word 'value' can have different meanings in the following sentences:

(a) What is the value of computer education these days?

(b) What is the value of this mobile set?

(c) Value our friendship.

(iii)Faulty Translation:

A manager receives much information from his superiors and subordinates and he translates it for all the employees according to their level of understanding. Hence, the information has to be moulded according to the understanding or environment of the receiver. If there is a little carelessness in this process, the faulty translation can be a barrier in the communication.

(iv) Unclarified Assumptions:

It has been observed that sometimes a sender takes it for granted that the receiver knows some basic things and, therefore, it is enough to tell him about the major subject matter. This point of view of the sender is correct to some extent with reference to the daily communication, but it is absolutely wrong in case of some special message,

(v) Technical Jargon: Generally, it has been seen that the people working in an enterprise are connected with some special technical group who have their separate technical language. Their communication is not so simple as to be understood by everybody. Hence, technical language can be a barrier in communication.

(vi) Body Language and Gesture Decoding: When the communication is passed on with the help of body language and gestures, its misunderstanding hinders the proper understanding of the message. For example, moving one's neck to reply to a question does not indicate properly whether the meaning is 'Yes' or 'No'.

(2) Psychological or Emotional Barriers:

The importance of communication depends on the mental condition of both the parties. A mentally disturbed party can be a hindrance in communication. Following are the emotional barriers in the way of communication:

(i) Premature Evaluation: Sometimes the receiver of information tries to dig out meaning without much thinking at the time of receiving or even before receiving information, which can be wrong. This type of evaluation is a hindrance in the exchange of information and the enthusiasm of the sender gets dampened.

(ii)Lack of Attention: When the receiver is preoccupied with some important work he/she does not listen to the message attentively. For example, an employee is talking to his boss when the latter is busy in some important conversation. In such a situation the boss may not pay any attention to what subordinate is saying. Thus, there arises psychological hurdle in the communication.

(iii) Loss by Transmission and Poor Retention: When a message is received by a person after it has passed through many people, generally it loses some of its truth. This is called loss by transmission. This happens normally in case of oral communication. Poor retention of information means that with every next transfer of information the actual form or truth of the information changes.

According to one estimate, with each transfer of oral communication the loss of the information amounts to nearly 30%. This happens because of the carelessness of people. Therefore, lack of transmission of information in its true or exact form becomes a hindrance in communication.

(iv) Distrust:

For successful communication the transmitter and the receiver must trust each other. If there is a lack of trust between them, the receiver will always derive an opposite meaning from the message. Because of this, communication will become meaningless.

(v) Ways To Improve Your Listening Skills

Listening skills are essential to leadership that's responsive, attentive and empathetic. Here's how to sharpen yours.

We tend to pay a great deal of attention to our ability to speak. From Toastmasters to an unlimited amount of courses, workshops, and training available we see that speaking, especially public speaking is a highly desirable, sought-after skill. "The most

basic of all human needs is the need to understand and be understood. The best way to understand people is to listen to them."- **Ralph G. Nichols**

☞ **Here Are Five Ways To Increase Our Listening Abilities:**

1. Be Fully In the Moment

Have you ever been speaking to someone and found that they are distracted by something and not really listening to you? You probably thought this was annoying, frustrating, and disrespectful. At that point you may have even become angry or shut the conversation down.

When someone is speaking it is vitally important to be fully present and in the moment with them. If something else is on your mind, like a call you have to make, or a text you need to answer, let them know, do what you need to do, and when you are finished let them know you are ready to listen.

When listening pay attention not only to the words but the tone of voice, facial expressions, and body language. This will give you information that will be as important as the words themselves.

2. Put Yourself in Their Shoes

Whether you agree with the speaker or even have an interest in what they have to say, what they are saying is important to them. Imagine yourself in their situation, wanting only to have someone listen to them. When they are speaking, make an effort to think of where they are coming from and why. Imagine what their life is like and what struggles they might be facing. People will appreciate that you made the effort to understand and really hear them.

3. Pick Up Key Points and Let the Speaker Know You Did

Many people have trouble focusing on what someone is saying especially if they speak for longer than a minute or so. It is easy for our attention to drift to something else that we might find more interesting. If that's the case, try to pick up a few key points in the conversation. After they finish talking, let them know that you heard them by mentioning the key points you heard them say and ask them to clarify anything that you did not understand. You will be forgiven for not being able to follow the whole conversation if the person talking believes that you made an honest effort.

4. Practice Active Listening

Most people are thinking of how they are going to reply when someone is talking. Instead of doing that, try to focus completely on what the person is saying. Pretend that you will be tested on how much of what they were saying you heard and understood. A good exercise to practice is to sit down with a family member or a good friend and practice simply giving feedback to them of what you heard them say. You will notice that it gets much easier to focus on their words when you aren't worrying about how you will respond.

5. Develop Curiosity, an Open Mind, and a Desire for Continuous Growth

People who are naturally curious see conversations as learning opportunities. They are always looking to discover or learn something new and see everyone they talk to as having the potential to teach them something. They are open to the idea that their own way of seeing things may not be the only, or necessarily the best, way and don't feel the need to always defend their own point of view or way of seeing the world.

These people are continuously looking for new learning opportunities and taking on new challenges. You will recognize these people as the ones who are signing up for courses, volunteering, and trying new experiences throughout their lives. For them, listening to others becomes an easy and natural way to continue on their self-development journey.

V) Improving Body Language

It's well known that good communication is the foundation of any successful relationship, be it personal or professional. It's important to recognize, though, that it's our nonverbal communication—our facial expressions, gestures, eye contact, posture, and tone of voice—that speak the loudest. The ability to understand and use nonverbal communication, or body language, is a powerful tool that can help you connect with others, express what you really mean, and build better relationships

⧉ <u>Types of Nonverbal Communication and Body Language</u>

There are many different types of nonverbal communication. Together, the following nonverbal signals and cues communicate your interest and investment in others.

✓ *Facial Expressions*

The human face is extremely expressive, able to express countless emotions without saying a word. And unlike some forms of nonverbal communication, facial expressions are universal. The facial expressions for happiness, sadness, anger, surprise, fear, and disgust are the same across cultures.

✓ *Body Movements And Posture*

Consider how your perceptions of people are affected by the way they sit, walk, stand up, or hold their head. The way you move and carry yourself communicates a wealth of information to the world. This type of nonverbal communication includes your posture, bearing, stance, and subtle movements.

✓ *Gestures*

Gestures are woven into the fabric of our daily lives. We wave, point, beckon, and use our hands when we're arguing or speaking animatedly—expressing ourselves with gestures often without thinking. However, the meaning of gestures can be very different across cultures and regions, so it's important to be careful to avoid misinterpretation.

✓ *Eye Contact*

Since the visual sense is dominant for most people, eye contact is an especially important type of nonverbal communication. The way you look at someone can communicate many things, including interest, affection, hostility, or attraction. Eye contact is also important in maintaining the flow of conversation and for gauging the other person's response

✓ *Touch*

We communicate a great deal through touch. Think about the messages given by the following: a weak handshake, a timid tap on the shoulder, a patronizing pat on the head, or a controlling grip on your arm**.**

✓ *Space*

Have you ever felt uncomfortable during a conversation because the other person was standing too close and invading your space? We all have a need for physical space, although that need differs depending on the culture, the situation, and the closeness of the relationship**.**

✓ *Voice*

It's not just what you say; it's how you say it. When we speak, other people "read" our voices in addition to listening to our words. Things they pay attention to include your timing and pace, how loud you speak, your tone and inflection, and sounds that convey understanding, " Think about how someone's tone of voice, for example, can indicate sarcasm, anger, affection, or confidence.

🔸 <u>**To Improve Nonverbal Communication, Learn To Manage Stress**</u>

Learning how to manage stress in the heat of the moment is one of the most important things you can do to improve your nonverbal communication. Stress compromises your ability to communicate. When you're stressed out, you're more likely to misread other people, send confusing or off-putting nonverbal signals, and lapse into unhealthy knee-jerk patterns of behaviour. Furthermore, emotions are contagious. You being upset is very likely to trigger others to be upset, making a bad situation worse.

If you're feeling overwhelmed by stress, it's best to take a time out. Take a moment to calm down before you jump back into the conversation. Once you've regained your emotional equilibrium, you'll be better equipped to deal with the situation in a positive way.

How Emotional Awareness Strengthens Nonverbal Communication

In order to send accurate nonverbal cues, you need to be aware of your emotions and how they influence you. You also need to be able to recognize the emotions of others and the true feelings behind the cues they are sending. This is where **emotional awareness** comes in.

Emotional awareness enables you to:

- Accurately read other people, including the emotions they're feeling and the unspoken messages they're sending.
- Create trust in relationships by sending nonverbal signals that match up with your words.
- Respond in ways that show others that you understand, notice, and care.
- Know if the relationship is meeting your emotional needs, giving you the option to either repair the relationship or move on.

Difficult Types of People and How to Deal With Them

We all have difficult people we need to deal with in our lives on a daily basis. While such characteristics may be exaggerations, you may find traits of them in a few of the people in your workplace, amongst your friends, or even a loved one. Psychological research has suggested several ways of coping with difficult people in your life, e.g. hostile co-workers or bosses, complainers, super-agreeable, know-it-all experts, pessimists, and stallers.

1. Dealing with hostile people requires both tact and strength. Since persons who feel they have been wronged are more likely to be belligerent and violent, you should first try to be sure they have been dealt with fairly.

In addition, it would be wise to help them meet as many of their needs as possible without reinforcing their aggressiveness or discriminating in their favor. Likewise, avoid interactions with them that encourage intense emotions or threats of violence.

In most cases, strong retaliation against an aggressive person is the worst thing you can do.

2. The Chronic Complainer

What about the chronic complainers? They are fault-finding, blaming, and certain about what should be done but they never seem able to correct the situation by themselves. Often they have a point — there are real problems — but their

complaining is not effective (except it is designed to prove someone else is responsible).

Coping with complainers involves, first, listening and asking clarifying questions, even if you feel guilty or falsely accused. There are several don'ts: don't agree with the complaints, don't apologize (not immediately), and don't become overly defensive or counter-attack because this only causes them to restate their complaints more heatedly. Secondly, as you gather facts, create a problem-solving attitude. Be serious and supportive. Acknowledge the facts. Get the complaints in writing and in precise detail; get others, including the complainer, involved in collecting more data that might lead to a solution. In addition to what is wrong, ask "What should happen?" If the complainer is unhappy with someone else, not you, you may want to ask, "Have you told (the complainee) yet?" or "Can I tell _____?" or "Can I set up a meeting with them?" Thirdly, plan a specific time to make decisions cooperatively that will help the situation…and do it.

3. The Super-Agreeable What about the persons who are super nice and smilingly agree with your ideas until some action is required, then they back down or disappear. Such people seek approval. They have learned, probably as children, that one method for getting "love" is by telling people (or pretending) you really care for and/or admire them. Similarly, the super-agreeable will often promise more than they deliver.

4. The Know-It-All Expert Know-it-all experts are of two types: the truly competent, productive, self-assured, genuine expert and the partially informed person pretending to be an expert. Both can be a pain.

The true expert may act superior and make others feel stupid; they may be bull headed and impatient with differing opinions; they are often self-reliant, don't need or want any help, and don't want to change. If you are going to deal with the true expert as an equal, you must do your homework thoroughly; otherwise, they will dismiss you. First of all, listen to them and accurately paraphrase their points. Don't attack their ideas but rather raise questions that suggest alternatives: "Would you tell me more?" or "What do you think the results will be in five years?" "It probably isn't a viable choice but could we consider…?" Secondly, show your respect for his/her competence but don't

put yourself down. Lastly, if the expert cannot learn to consider others' ideas, you may be wise to graciously accept a subordinate role as his/her "helper." True experts deserve respect.

The pretentious-but-not-real expert is relatively easy to deal with because he/she (unlike liars or cons) is often unaware of how little he/she knows. Such a person can be gently confronted with the facts. Do it when alone with them. Help them save face. They simply want to be admired.

5. The Pessimist Another "burden" to any group is the pessimist –the person who always says, "It won't work" or "We tried that." These angry, bitter people have the power to drag us down because they stir up the old pool of doubt and disappointment within us. So, first of all, avoid being sucked into his/her cesspool of hopelessness. Don't argue with the pessimist; don't immediately offer solutions to the difficulties predicted by the pessimist.

Instead, make optimistic statements — showing that change is possible — and encourage the group to brainstorm leading to several possible alternatives. Then ask what are the worst possible consequences of each alternative (this gives the negativist a chance to do his/her thing but you can use the gloomy predictions in a constructive, problem-solving way). Also ask, "What will happen if we do nothing?" Finally, welcome everyone's help but be willing to do it alone because the pessimist won't volunteer.

6. The Staller Every group has a "staller," a person who puts off decisions for fear someone will be unhappy. Unlike the super-agreeable, the staller is truly interested in being helpful. So, make it easier for him/her to discuss and make decisions. Try to find out what the staller's real concerns are (he/she won't easily reveal negative opinions of you). Don't make demands for quick action. Instead, help the staller examine the facts and make compromises or develop alternative plans (and decide which ones take priority). Give the staller reassurance about his/her decision and support the effective carrying out of the decision.

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Planning

➤ **How Do You Understand The Term "Educational Planning"?**

There are many definitions of educational planning. Educational planning first starts with a vision. A clearly articulated picture of the future you intend to create for yourself. It's a dream. A passion for what you want to do, and the benefit it brings others as well as yourself. However, if that vision (dream) does not have direction, it will always remain a dream and will never become a reality. Therefore, the vision comes first which also includes the will to change circumstances; your overall long-term career goals and objectives. Next, you must develop a road-map with short-term goals and objectives which will lead to your long-term career goal. The short-term goals and objectives will ensure you that you are moving in the right direction, and will serve as a catalyst giving you excitement and incentive to carry on. When creating a road-map, it should never be without the collaboration of a mentor, or we could say a coach, or reputable counsellor.

It is a process of finding the best solutions for a problem in the light of the available resources. This process should be purposeful and done carefully to achieve the aims.

- Acquire the will to change circumstances
- Acquire the vision (dream)
- Develop a road-map leading to the overall career goal and objective
- Just do it with 100% commitment and don't let go until it becomes a reality.

➤ **Why Planning?**

-Wherever a person works and whatever he does, his activity can be productive or effective only if it has a scientific basis. In industry, agriculture, and every other field we aim at scientific organization of labour and wish to work with knowledge of what we are doing.

- "An effective teacher plans, organizes, and keeps one step ahead."

Adams and Johnson

- "Good teaching cannot be reduced to technique; good teaching comes from the identity

and integrity of the teacher."   **Parker J. Palmer "The Courage to Teach"**

- The more prepared you are to provide prime learning opportunities for your students, the more confident you will feel in the classroom. Effective planning will assist you to reach this goal.

> **Pedagogical Labour:**

The work of teaching and education conducted by teachers at schools – also needs a scientific basis. For this reason the teaching of foreign languages must have its scientifically based technique. Language teachers should constantly strive to improve their techniques and work unremittingly or ceaselessly to improve both their linguistic and teaching qualifications.

> **Key Characteristics of Strategic Planning**

The strategic planning approach, which is supposed to remedy any shortcomings, can be defined as follows: **"A management tool to help an organization to improve its performance by ensuring that its members are working to the same goals and by continuously adjusting the direction of the organization to the changing environment on the basis of results obtained."** In line with this definition, some key characteristics of a strategic planning approach are worth highlighting. Strategic planning is guided by an overall sense of direction. Strategic planning is not just a cold technical undertaking that spells out future objectives to be reached and actions to be taken. It needs a global sense of purpose and direction capable of guiding implementers in making everyday choices about what actions should be taken in order to produce the expected results. Handbooks on strategic planning usually recommend starting with the formulation of a mission and a vision statement (Kaufman and Herman, 1991). A mission statement is a short paragraph summarizing:

  • The overall goal which the organization is trying to accomplish;
  • The main method it is going to follow to reach its goal; and
  • The basic principles and values that will guide the fulfilment of the mission.

➢ **Strategic Planning Is Sensitive to the Environment:**

Strategic planning is based on the belief that the successful development of an organization is the result of finding the right fit between its internal strengths and weaknesses and the external opportunities and threats stemming from the environment. The main assumption is that, in order to be effective, organizations must be responsive to their environment, which is continuously changing. They must place the emphasis on understanding the changes and adapting their decisions accordingly. Consequently, a careful scanning of the environment is important not only at the stage of making the initial diagnosis for preparing a plan, but also, and even more so, at the stage of monitoring the plan implementation.

➢ **Strategic Planning Is Result-Oriented:**

Strategic planning considers compliance monitoring as not good enough and prefers to concentrate on whether the expected results have been obtained. In other words, the main emphasis is shifted away from compliance monitoring to performance (or results) monitoring. The focus on results has important technical implications at the stage of the plan formulation. Indeed, in order to be able to measure properly the different types of results obtained, the overall broad policy goals will have to be translated into more precise objectives (expected results). Those objectives will have to be made SMART.

➢ **Strategic Planning Is a Mobilization Instrument**

Strategic planning cannot succeed without the commitment of the plan implementers and the different stakeholders. Commitment can only be obtained if people identify with the plan, so that they are motivated to produce the expected results. Strategic planning should therefore not be carried out in isolation by experts alone, but rather as an inclusive process in which the implementers and stakeholders are actively involved in one way or another. If organized in a participatory way, the preparation of a strategic plan in itself becomes a learning experience. It creates a privileged moment for opening new lines of communication and dialogue, for promoting understanding and ownership of what is being planned for and disseminating a spirit of strategic thinking throughout the whole organization.

➤ **Strategic Planning Is Flexible in its Implementation:**

Strategic planning is based on the belief that no neat, final plan can be prepared, simply because situations have become too complex and environments are too unpredictable, and because it is impossible to foresee every possible consequence of future decisions that will be made. An essential characteristic of strategic planning is, therefore, to proceed by 'intelligent trial and error' rather than by linear adherence to a detailed, polished plan document.

There are three kinds of plans:

    1- Long-term plan

    2- Short-term plan

    3- Daily-plan

1. Long Term Planning

- One of the responsibilities of a teacher is to complete a long term plan each year.

Long term planning assists teachers in preparing for the needs of their students. It enables teachers to ensure that the curriculum for their grade/subject is covered and assists the principal (people in charge) to monitor classroom activities.

- Long term planning can be completed by term / semester or for the whole school year. It can be written by the individual teacher, by team, by department level or by grade level. There is no prescriptive format to follow when creating your long term plan. Feel free to be creative and use whatever format that works best.

- A long term plan should include the following details:

- Teacher's name, grade, time frames used i.e., term / semester, etc.

- Expectations/strands covered in that time frame

- Specific topics used to teach the expectations/outcomes

- What the students will be doing. (Demonstrations, performances, products)

- How student learning will be assessed. (Assessment tools)

- Teaching strategies used to help students achieve the expectations.

2. Short Term Planning

Once a long term plan has been established, it is important to plan each topic/unit in detail. This is referred to as short term planning. Unit planning should include the content of the lessons in detail and the process that will be used to teach the lessons.

Once again, the format should include the following details:

1) Topics for individual lessons
2) classroom activities/strategies
3) Teacher directed
4) small group
5) Individual
6) assessment/evaluation tools
7) Student demonstrations
8) performance
9) product/tasks/tests
10) resources required

Short term planning helps focus the teacher on the expectations that are to be taught and avoids repetition.

3. Daily Plan

A daily plan provides a brief summary of what is to be taught on a particular day. It is wise to prepare the lesson day by day. A daily plan should include the following:

1) Day and date / class / period / unit and lesson
2) Resources needed (Materials)
3) Procedures
4) Evaluation.......................etc.

In setting a plan we have to put priorities into our consideration. We start with urgent needs.

> **Elements of Successful Planning: (Also Planning Stages)**

1- Think about a problem and its implementation
2- Collect data
3- Specify the aims
4- Specify the resources
5- Publicize the project
6- Implement, follow up and evaluate

➢ **Elements of Successful Administration:**

1- Planning

2- Organization

3- Implementation

4- Supervision

5- Follow up and evaluation

➢ **Kinds of Planning:**

A- Educational Planning

B- School Planning

C- Inclusive Planning

A-Educational Planning:

It is the rational orientation towards the future of education. It is the regulations that have been settled and agreed upon in the field of education to achieve the desired aims.

B- School planning:

It is the use of thinking in orienting the educational process at school.

➢ **Significant Works of the School Planning (Types of Plans):**

1- General school plan

2- Timetable plan

3- A plan for developing teachers' technical abilities

4- A plan for the low - high achievers

5- A plan for class visits

6- A plan for analyzing and developing a curriculum

7- A plan for extracurricular activities

➢ **The Importance / Value of Educational Planning in Points:**

1- It is necessary if organizational excellence is to be achieved.

2- It is the roadmap of the whole process.

3- It focuses the attention.

4- It helps identify where the pitfalls are over the short-term.

5- It helps achieve the overall objectives and goals.

6- It helps avoid confusion.

7- It saves time and effort.

8- It minimizes the cost.

9- It achieves coordination and cooperation among different administrations.

➢ **VISION**

The ELT General Supervision seeks that every learner should achieve at his or her maximum potential in an engaging, inspiring and challenging learning environment.

➢ **MISSION**

The ELT Supervision prepares learners to understand, contribute to, and succeed in a rapidly changing society, and thus makes the school a better and more attractive place. We will ensure that our learners develop both the skills and understanding education provides and the competencies essential for success and leadership in the emerging creative society. We will also lead in generating practical and theoretical knowledge that enables learners to better understand our world and improve conditions for local and global communities.

While the formulation of brief mission and vision statements is common practice when preparing school development plans, it is less common when preparing overall education sector plans. Though in some cases it is being done, it is generally found that preparing such statements is not so easy in the case of a big, complex organization such as the education system. Indeed, statements might become so general and vague as to be no longer very meaningful. However, this is not a real issue, since in any case a strategic plan should contain a much more explicit policy presentation (either as part of the introduction or as a special section) which clearly spells out the overall long-term goals and the broad strategies proposed for reaching these goals.

Designing an Operational Plan (Planning Stages) :

1- Thinking of the problem and all its dimensions.

2- Collecting all data related to the problem.

3- Specifying the aims that the planner seeks to achieve.

4- Specifying the resources and the manpower needed to accomplish the plan.

5- Publicize the project to stimulate others to take part and give opinions.

6- Setting up implementation procedures.

8- Implementation with ongoing follow-up and evaluation.

The Main ELEMENTS of Any Educational Plan:

1- Clear objectives/Aims: Specify the final aims that the plan will achieve.

2- Content of the plan and the implementation procedures.

3- Manpower: The staff members who are going to execute the plan.

4- Tools and equipment with which we execute the plan.

5- Time: Specify enough time for implementing the plan to achieve its aims.

6- The required educational technology (resources) to implement the plan.

7- Cost.

8- Ongoing evaluation.

The Main COMPONENTS of Any Educational Plan:

1- The Pupil

2- The Teacher

3- The Syllabus

4- The Teaching Aids and Extra-Curricular Activities

How To Set an Educational Plan?

1- Specify the general aims.

2- Study the status quo.

3- Specify the means with which you implement the plan.

4- Prepare a brochure for aims, policies and implementation procedures.

5- Estimate the cost.

6- Prepare a draft plan (aims – time - procedures – responsibilities)

7- Follow-up and evaluation.

C- Inclusive Planning:

Inclusion requires a large vision and specific competencies for all teachers. Now the teachers need to know that diversity is present in the classroom, and that they should attend to learners with a range of diverse needs. In this frame, it is imperative to prepare teachers for inclusion in all curricular plans for pre-service teachers, also for teachers in services, with the following professional aptitudes:

- Researcher: Always searches for explanations about their educative reality, has intellectual skills to propose diverse hypothesis, solve problems, generate innovation, and face challenges in the education field.
- Strategic: Is a professional with strong self- regulation, skills for planning, guiding and assessing, not only their own intellectual resources about the learning of curricular issues but also in their performance as a teacher. Always has an attitude to learn and improve and faces uncertainty with creativity.
- Resilient: Always moves towards the future, in spite of their difficult situations, by making healthy adjustments against adversity.

The knowledge, skills and attitudes for all inclusion teachers must emphasize that the purpose of all teacher interventions is the students' learning. They also need to have high expectations for all (inclusive vision), develop inclusive projects including diverse teaching strategies and support systems (inclusive practices) and participate in a collective work (inclusive language).

There are three important educational aspects that every teacher needs to be inclusive: *Equality*; promoting the same opportunities for all, *quality*; offering functional and meaningful learning and *equity*; responding to special educational needs.

➢ **Execution Of Plans (The Implementation Process) :**

Teachers are the key to success in inclusion. Here are seven essential components for Teacher Preparation Programmes:

FIRST: The Inclusive Teacher is a professional in education with a strong commitment to his/her community. The Teacher Preparation Programme should include subjects with **high social and community content** because they need to be sensitive to the needs of students and the environment; It is important to recognize the school as a point of encounter among different people, it promotes agreements among all the members of the community and meaningful relationships among the components that impact the learning of the students by removing barriers, promoting high expectations and a positive environment characterized by continuous improvement and values. The dialogue, participation and collaboration allows full awareness to all as a community and, in consequence ensures successful experiences in inclusion. For this reason the teachers need to be involved.

SECOND: The Inclusive Teacher **recognizes individual differences and implements learning strategies for all**. The educational intervention is oriented to diversity and promotes learning strategies for all (equality), for quite a few and for only one (equity). These are other essential aspects in the teacher Preparation Programmes. Quality, equality and equity concepts should be translated into specific actions of educative interventions.

Every inclusive teacher needs to move among these three realities in his/her classroom – seeing his/herself as being like all others, also like some others and finally, in some ways unique. Inclusion promotes co-operation in the classroom.

In inclusive education, the school and classrooms are very dynamic and have a lot of interactions and roles. The exchange and experience enrich individuality. Diverse contexts indicate diverse relationship and interactions.

THIRD: The collaborative work among educators, facilitates inclusion and needs to be promoted in the Teacher Preparation Programme. Inclusion is funded on a collective of teachers, a team sharing knowledge, making decisions, solving problems together and generating actions in order to improve the school and to increase the learning for all. In consequence, the collaborative work is a source of dialogue, co-teaching and updating. Information on the process of collaborative work now follows.

FOURTH: All programmes for pre-service teachers and in-service teachers must be based on the **interpretative and critical paradigms**. Allowing encounter with others, and the collective and interpretive insight into environments and circumstances and the development of research activities are fundamental. The inclusive teacher has strong skills in action research methods. This paradigm generates conditions for dialogue and collaboration. The dialogue needed for relationships and the essence of collaboration is the recognition of otherness. Recognizing that the other, is not a continuation of me, but has its own worldview that leads teachers to explain, interpret and act from their personal background. Collaboration takes the value of the other as implicit – this implies strengths, occupations and concerns. This vision then transforms from two ideas (you and me) to a new figure (us). Such dialogue and collaboration are key elements in inclusive education.

FIFTH: Contextual Preparation. Connecting with the educational services, allowing identification of diversity as an enriching element has three great steps outlined below. For teachers to promote inclusive education, their training should link directly with the educational services in so called contextual professional practice. This approach, in our experience, must be presented to all throughout the training process structuring with multi-directional flow between theoretical and experiences close to educational field. Three important steps are proposed:

a) *Re-Significance of Own School Experience of Future Teachers.*
This period of time is essential. Each future teacher should discuss his/her own experience as a student, analyse emotions and be aware of school and pedagogical theory made by teachers, allowing them to 'see' those components that were previously 'hidden' such as school's culture, school's type, teachers, uses and customs that marked the dynamic school and the values that predominated, characterizing the experiences from other angles and points of view. It certainly requires time to work individually and collectively, interchange coincidences and differences of experiences.

*b) **Approach to Various Contexts of School Children.***

This consists of visiting previously selected schools, taking part in observation activities and educational practices in three stages:

- Planning activities: after assessing the educational context, it is important to develop instruments of work; observation guides, questionnaires, interviews and to make teams to provide all aspects for implementing the planned approaches.
- Critical route implementation.
- Presentation of experiences: This is done in the classroom where all of the evidence and results are presented from the previous phase.

As a result of these activities, each student keeps a portfolio and checks research to support their actions. At all times they are accompanied by an experienced teacher. Certainly, they should include diverse environments, contexts, and educational services that characterize the educational system.

*c) **Professional Practices in Real Environments.***

In the teacher's training, the student must remain for a long period of time, in a school under the tutelage of a teacher.

This teacher must exert mentoring activities, to enrich their teaching experience with the knowledge of a mentor who attends and promotes inclusion activities.

At this time, the Faculty holds an agreement with diverse educational centres. Partnerships with the training institutions for teachers and schools are necessary. This enriching experience also enables the development of educational research in the corresponding professional options.

SIXTH: Cross Categorical Formation. Diversity needs a global and common vision; philosophy, values, legal frame, language and shared knowledge as learning theories, special educational needs, support systems, educational intervention; strategies for large and small groups and individuality, tutoring and curricular adjustments. Inclusive education must characterize all training teacher programs, offering skills and common benchmarks for everyone regardless of education level to be entered (e.g. Primary,

Secondary and High Education). This versatile training enables various teachers, regardless of their field or level of training, to collaborate and participate in the diversity of educational contexts together. The common reference on inclusive education frameworks that must be present in all Teacher Training Programs are:

a) *Common vision*. The philosophy of inclusion, legal frameworks that enable an education for all with quality and equity, educational policy that promotes attention to diversity, the historical evolution from marginalization to inclusion and conceptions among others, are fundamental aspects in educational programs.

b) *Language and common knowledge*. Emphasize the student's possibilities and support systems, with a clear vision that all children can learn. In this way the school needs to prevent the barriers and limitations for learning that could marginalize children and young people from their potential. It also includes learning conception, individual differences, the values of solidarity, respect, and collaboration. Cognitive and affective elements framed in the conception of collectively and community empowerment as well.

c) *Educational attention to diversity practices*. Includes strategies for large or small groups and one-on-one, mentoring, curricular adjustments, alternative support systems, diversity assessment actions, collaboration with other professionals and co-teaching, trans-disciplinary action, among others. They are essential for the development of the professional skills of attention to diversity.

SEVENTH: Mentoring. New teachers must participate with experienced teachers at least during the first two years. This includes dialogue sessions, reviews of situations, decision-making arrangements and work plans, among others to provide the following to the new teacher: intervention (**guidance**), facilitation (**advice**), and cooperation (**co-responsibility**).

The new teacher needs counselling and mentoring actions to consolidate his/her skills as an inclusive teacher. Whereas educational dynamic is intense and complex, it is necessary that new teachers participate under the accompaniment and mentoring of experienced teachers to enable consolidation of an inclusive vision in those teachers. It seems that this is essential to ensure the best results in the first years of teaching work. Many education systems face the phenomenon of 'burnout' among their teachers, often causing the abandonment of the teaching task, or loss of enthusiasm and commitment. This is a terrible loss to any education system or country.

Mentoring are actions carried out by a teacher, preferably of the same school, or networks of teachers that assume this important task. It requires a lot of creativity and a clear and definite plan for the monitoring of such actions. The time should be defined by each environment, however this task should be carried out at least in the first year very closely and the second year in a more distant way. Nieto (2004) identifies three models of advice that characterize actions of accompaniment and mentoring:

a) *Intervention*. The role of the experienced teacher is directive and assumes a leadership position, where instruction is given through interpersonal behaviour which provides materials and ideas to be adapted, and so dominates the transmission of information with an emphasis on the explanation and application of knowledge and skills.

b) *Facilitation*. The role of the experienced teacher is consulting. His/her interaction with the novice teacher provides advice and listens, encourages and clarifies. The experienced teacher provides materials designed for this purpose and promotes the discussion and review of diverse conceptions. The experienced teacher assumes a role of coordinator of decisions and is a strong observer. This model focuses on interactive work methodology and improves the quality of action processes.

c) *Cooperation*. A critical friend or colleague is the experienced teacher role and their relationship is interdependent and a source of mutual learning, shared responsibility,

experience or convergence of perspectives. Materials and ideas are developed together. There is an awareness of reaching agreements and reaching a consensus on courses of action. Cooperative research is promoted. Both input to the improvement plan. There is shared leadership and promotion of interdependence, reciprocity, collegiality and solidarity. The best features of accompaniment and mentoring are developed under the facilitation and cooperation approach.

Key Outcomes and Lessons Learned

The profile for the inclusive teacher should be as follows:

- ❖ The inclusive teacher is a professional educator committed to his/her community, who recognizes individual differences and considers them in his/her educational intervention actions. S/he participates in collective teaching because it is essential for collaboration and dialogue and is also creative in implementing education by facing the challenges of diversity in specific educational project interventions.
- ❖ The inclusive teacher has a holistic educational view with strong skills and experience in order to participate in diverse contexts. Some conclusions are:

a) Work together with other institutions to build a collaborative network, connecting colleagues and diverse professionals, interchanging knowledge and making new friends.

b) Promote educational research projects to develop innovation.

c) Participate in diverse social and educative programs in each community.

d) Support the collaborative work of all teachers because it is the best way to attend to the diversity of our schools. In this sense, the mentoring process has a transcendent role.

e) Choose the best student profile for teacher education.

f) Enrich the Teacher Preparation Programs, with transversal competencies along the curricular plan.

(Examples of plans):

In general we have *a daily plan*, a *weekly plan*, *a monthly plan* and *a term plan*.

 (NB: see appendix)

Appendix Suggested Plan for the First Term:

1- Distributing classes according to the number of classes and teachers' proficiency and needs.

2- Checking the available media.

3- Distributing syllabus sheets.

4- Assigning tasks and distributing extracurricular activities among staff members.

5- Giving the diagnostic test.

6- Preparing remedial exercises according to the feedback of the diagnostic test.

7- Preparing and following up written work exercises.

8- Preparing the first period test.

10-Analyzing tests results.

11-Low achievers and brilliant students follow up.

12- Class visits and inter-visitations.

13-Staff meeting topics according to the feedback from class visits, inter-visitations and the latest educational issues.

14-Preparing workshops, seminars and demo lessons.

15- Following up reinforcement classes.

16- Preparing the second period test (Primary-Intermediate) and analyzing their results.

17- Following up of newly recruited teachers or teachers who are old hand but rusty.

18- Preparing end of term exam. (Primary-Intermediate)

- <u>Suggested Daily / Weekly Plan:</u>

Day	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3	Period 4	Period 5
Sun.	*Checking preparation notes and preparing for the day's plan*	*My class*	*Getting ready for the meeting*	*Weekly Staff meeting*	*Extended discussion of the staff meeting topics with free colleagues*
Mon.	*Revising the items for the day's plan and collecting related work*	*Written work follow-up*	*My class*	*Class visit: class.....*	*Writing the report of the class visit and discussing it with the colleague*
Tues.	*Revising the items for the day's plan and collecting related work*	*Sub-Meeting with grade-nine teachers*	*My class*	*School Board Meeting*	*Writing the minutes of the administration board meeting in the specified register*
Wed.	*Revising the items for the day's plan and collecting related work*	*A class visit in class....*	*My class*	*Writing the report of the class visit and discussing it with the colleague*	*Preparing extra material and activities for brilliant students*
Thur.	*Revising the items for the day's plan and collecting related work*	*Written work follow-up*	*setting a new plan for the following week*	*Sub-Meeting with teachers of grade seven*	*My class*

References:

Lipsky D. K. and Garther, A., 1998. Factors for successful inclusion: learning from the past, looking toward the future. In S. J. Vitello and D. E. Mithaug (eds.) Inclusive schooling. National and international perspectives. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Website*s:*

(www.inclusive-education-in-action.org/051EN), the example reference number (051EN)

ELT Supervision Kuwait (Vision/Mission....)

http://www.inclusive-education-in-action.org/iea/index.php?menuid=25&reporeid=247

http://docplayer.net/13012981-Strategic-planning-concept-and-rationale.html

Report writing

Introduction:

Essentially, a report is a short, sharp, concise document which is written for a particular purpose and audience. It generally sets outs a situation or problem, often making recommendations for future action. It is a factual paper, and needs to be clear and well-structured. It is also a form of **communication** that will do one or more of the following:

- describes
- analyses
- summarizes
- criticizes or praises
- makes predictions about…

…a subject and is based on an analysis of current or past events or identifiable phenomena. The type of report written should be carefully selected based on the situation and should be identified in the title and introduction.

Writing Style

When writing a report:

☐ be simple and concise

☐ make sure of the meaning of every word

☐ don't fill your report with unnecessary detail.

☐ Use everyday words when possible. You will need to use some technical terms, particularly when describing or analyzing theories or models.

☐ Vary the length of your sentences. Aim for one clear point in each sentence.

An Effective Report

- The key to writing an effective report is in designing the skeletal framework or structure for it.
- Sub-headings will provide you with signposts for the preparation of the report and help your reader to understand easily and quickly its contents.

- The information presented in the report should gradually develop and **cascade** from one section to the next, so that the report grows in power and force of argument to its conclusion.

The Structure of a Report

The main features of a report are described below to provide a general guide.

Title Page

This should briefly but explicitly describe the purpose of the report (if this is not obvious from the title of the work). Other details you may include could be your name, the date and for whom the report is written.

Geology of the country around Beacon Hill, Leicestershire

Angus Taylor 2 November 2004

(Example of a Title Page)

Terms of Reference

Under this heading you could include a brief explanation of who will read the report (audience) why it was written (purpose) and how it was written (methods). It may be in the form of a subtitle or a single paragraph.

A report submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for Course GL456, Department of Geology, University of Leicester.

(Example of Terms of Reference)

Summary (Abstract)

The summary should briefly describe the content of the report. It should cover the aims of the report, what was found and what, if any, action is called for. Aim for about 1/2 a page in length and avoid detail or discussion; just outline the main points. Remember that the summary is the first thing that is read. It should provide the reader with a clear, helpful overview of the content of the report.

Contents (Table of Contents)

The contents page should list the different chapters and/or headings together with the page numbers. Your contents page should be presented in such a way that the reader

can quickly scan the list of headings and locate a particular part of the report. You may want to number chapter headings and subheadings in addition to providing page references. Whatever numbering system you use, be sure that it is clear and consistent throughout.

Introduction

The introduction sets the scene for the main body of the report. The aims and objectives of the report should be explained in detail. Any problems or limitations in the scope of the report should be identified, and a description of research methods, the parameters of the research and any necessary background history should be included.

Discussion

The main body of the report is where you discuss your material. The facts and evidence you have gathered should be analyzed and discussed with specific reference to the problem or issue. If your discussion section is lengthy you might divide it into section headings. Your points should be grouped and arranged in an order that is logical and easy to follow. Use headings and subheadings to create a clear structure for your material. Use bullet points to present a series of points in an easy-to-follow list. As with the whole report, all sources used should be acknowledged and correctly referenced.

Conclusion

In the conclusion you should show the overall significance of what has been covered. You may want to remind the reader of the most important points that have been made in the report or highlight what you consider to be the most central issues or findings. However, no new material should be introduced in the conclusion.

Appendices

Under this heading you should include all the supporting information you have used that is not published. This might include tables, graphs, questionnaires, surveys or transcripts. Refer to the appendices in the body of your report.

Bibliography

Your bibliography should list, in alphabetical order by author, all published sources referred to in your report. There are different styles of using references and bibliographies. Texts which you consulted but did not refer to directly could be grouped under a separate heading such as 'Background Reading' and listed in alphabetical order using the same format as in your bibliography.

Acknowledgements

Where appropriate you may wish to acknowledge the assistance of particular organizations or individuals who provided information, advice or help.

Types of Reports

Informational

      Such a report is mainly designed to …

▪ inform or instruct – present information

▪ help readers see the details of events, activities or conditions.

▪ avoid making analysis of the situation, giving conclusions and recommendations.

Descriptive

This kind of report constitutes an accurate description of certain activities that will eventually serve the objectives of the task wanted. This kind of report includes comments, suggestions and remarks on the subject of this report.

Analytical

This kind of report contains the actual assessment information.

▪ Written to solve problems.

▪ Information is analyzed.

▪ Conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made.

Persuasive

  This kind of report presents follow-up activities to use the assessment information for improvement purposes.

▪ An extension of analytical reports:

▪ Proposals are the most common type.

Curriculum / Textbook Evaluation

According to Worthen and Sanders, (1987) all curricula to be effective must have element of evaluation. Tuckman defines evaluation as meeting the goals and matching them with the intended outcomes. Curriculum evaluation may refer to the formal determination of the quality, effectiveness or value of the program, process, and product of the curriculum.

The most widely used is Stufflebeam's CIPP (Content, Input, Product, Process) Model. The context refers to the environment of the curriculum. Input refers to the ingredients of the curriculum which include the goal, instructional strategies, the learners the teachers the contents and all the materials needed. Product indicates if the curriculum accomplishes its goals.

Regardless of the methods and materials, evaluation will utilize a suggested plan of action:

1. Focus on one particular component of the curriculum.
2. Collect or gather the information.
3. Organize the information.
4. Analyze information.
5. Report the information.
6. Recycle the information for continuous feedback, modification and adjustments to be made.

Curriculum Approaches

Curriculum practitioners and implementers may use one or more approaches in planning, implementing and evaluating the curriculum.

Behavioural Approach- Anchored on the behaviourist principles, behavioural approach to curriculum is usually based on a blueprint. In the blueprint, goals and objectives are specified, contents and activities are also arranged to match with the learning objectives. In education, behavioural approach begins with educational plans that start with the setting goals or objectives. The change in behaviour indicates the measure of the accomplishments.

Managerial Approach- The principal is the curriculum leader and at the same time instructional leader who is supposed to be the general manager. The general manager sets the policies and priorities, establishes the direction of change and innovation, planning and organizing curriculum and instruction. Curriculum managers look at curriculum changes and innovations as they administer the resources and restructure the schools. Some of the roles of the Curriculum Supervisors are the following:

1. Help develop the school's education goals.

2. Plan curriculum with students, parents, teachers and other stakeholders.

3. Design programs of study by grade levels

4. Plan or schedule classes or school calendar.

5. Prepare curriculum guides or teacher guides by grade level or subject area.

6. Help in the evaluation and selection of textbooks

7. Observe teachers.

8. Assist teachers in the implementation of the curriculum.

9. Encourage curriculum innovation and change.

10. Develop standards for curriculum and instructional evaluation.

System Approach- The organizational chart of the school represents a system approach. It shows the line staff relationships of personnel and how decisions are made. To George Beauchamp, the systems theory of education see the following to be equal importance are (1) administration (2) counseling (3) curriculum (4) instruction and (5) evaluation

Humanistic Approach – This approach is rooted in the progressive philosophy and child-centered movement. The humanistic approach considers the formal or planned curriculum and the informal or hidden curriculum. It considers the whole child and believes that in curriculum the total development of the individual is the prime consideration. The learner is at the center of the curriculum.

Evaluating Your Textbook

Choosing a course book can be extremely difficult. We cannot get a good picture of the suitability of a book until we have been working through it for some time. The teacher's responsibility involves not only student assessment, but also the evaluation of the teaching and learning process itself. This means that the materials must be evaluated as well.

SPECIFIC APPROACHES FOR EVALUATING YOUR TEXTBOOK

A. Evaluate Your Program And Suggest Change.

- What kind of Grammar Focus does you textbook have?
- What kind of Vocabulary Focus does you textbook have?
- What kind of Listening Focus does you textbook have?
- What kind of Speaking Focus does you textbook have?
- What kind of Pronunciation Focus does you textbook have?
- What kind of Reading & Writing Focus does you textbook have?
- What kind of Cultural Focus does you textbook have?

B. Does your text have an Audio Program? What kind?

C. Does your text have a Video Program? What kind?

Criteria for Selection and Use of Course books.

a. The text makes clear the links between the classroom and the wider world.

b. The text fosters independent learning.

c. The text focuses our pupils on their learning process.

d. The text is easily available.

e. The text meets our pupils' needs.

f. The text can be used at more than one level of difficulty (heterogeneity).

g. The pedagogical objectives of the materials are clear.

h. The text is more attractive in appearance for the students than the teacher produced materials.

Points & Aspects to Consider When Selecting a Course Book:

1. Layout and design: we must judge whether the course book layout and design are appropriate and attractive for our pupils. How appealing is the material? Will it hold student's interest and satisfy them? Is it relevant, transferable, task oriented for maximum student involvement?

Activities:

Is there a balance of activities? There should be a substantial amount of aural language input and a wide variety of communicative activities.

Ask These Questions:

Does the course book provide enough recycling of input for our pupils?

What kind of practice activities is there?

Is there an appropriate balance between controlled and free practice?

Are they motivating and meaningful?

How much variety of activities is there?

Didactic Units should follow the same steps: introduction (presentation), controlled activities (practice) and free or less controlled activities (production).

Language Content: analyze of texts, exercises, activities and tasks in the text and ask yourself, "Are the activities sequenced logically, from simple to difficult, from mechanical to meaningful, from passive to productive and from accuracy to fluency".

Skills: Is there a balance of appropriate integrated skills for the level. For lower level and Elementary Education.

Language Type: Evaluate the realistic nature authentic, well simulated, and contrived of materials and activities. Authentic or simulated authentic Is the language is realistic and the right type? Relevant to our pupils' needs? Vocabulary should be relevant to our pupils' interests, close to their world and presented in a meaningful context. Is the progression adequate for the cognitive stage of development of our pupils?

Subject and Content: Subject and content should be relevant, realistic at least some of the time, interesting and varied. What topics are included and do they match up to our pupils' personalities, backgrounds and needs.

Guidance: Is there enough guidance not only for the teacher, but also for our pupils. We need to have clear explanations of how the material should be used to take the maximum advantage out of it. The materials should be clear, easy to follow and have well-defined objectives that the whole class can understand. The text fosters independent learning. The text meets our pupils' needs. What will be the learner's role? How will they manipulate the materials, complete tasks or exercises? How will the activities advance the learner's communicative competences?

Practical Considerations: Is the price of the materials suitable for our pupils? Are all the components of the course (tapes, worksheets, etc.) readily available?

Audience: for whom the text appears to be intended (age of learners, level of proficiency, purpose for studying English)

Authors beliefs about theory and practice in language learning and teaching.

10. What is the teachers role what does the teacher have to do in order to facilitate learning? Also describe the teacher's role in terms of controller, participant, and observer.

TESTS Describe how the text assesses the learners learning or attaining the goals set forth.

CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATION OF TEXTS

1. Authors include

a. Experts in Second Language Research?

b. Classroom Teachers?

c. Writers for Children?

2. Philosophy

a. Agrees to "no one best way" in teaching.

b. Believes in one specific methodology

c. Believes in an eclectic approach

d. Promotes positive attitudes

3. Appropriate for Audience:

Text appears to be intended for

a. Age of learners _____

b. level of proficiency _____

c. Purpose for studying English.

4. Physical Aspects

a. Books and Materials of appropriate size

b. Clear Type/Illustrations

c. Stimulates Discussion

5. Literary Quality

a. Style of writing is appropriate for student group

b. Quality of writing is native like

c. Variety, humor, adventure, action

6. Text Program

a. Sequential development of materials

b. Adequate explanations: directions easy to understand

c. Variety of activities

d. Provides for a range of English proficiency

e. Enrichment activities to provide practice for each skill introduced

f. Planned introductions of new words and concepts

g. Adequate repetition of new words

h. Analytical comprehension of reading material

i. Presentation of Alphabet and sounds

j. Systematic teaching of pronunciation and intonation

k. Sequential development of oral language

l. Oral language production

m. Encourages free oral expression

n. Exercises draw on students own experiences

o. Help w/ locating skills reading, (skimming, scanning, using titles, etc...)

p. Help with charts, maps, graphs, etc...?

q. Sentence formation

r. Sentence combining

s. Paragraph development

t. Review of previously acquired skill.

u. Follow-up activities correlate to original presentation

v. Provides regular assessments activities

w. Provides informal tests, checklists, vocabulary lists.

Teacher´s Manual

a. Range and variety of suggestions for lesson plan

b. Suggested activities to introduce new words and concepts

c. Review of previously acquired skill.

d. Synopses of student text for teacher convenience?

e. Suggestions for student activities at different levels of proficiency

f. Index of skills

g. Suggestions for extra enrichment activities

Any chosen text must be adapted to the particular requirements of the class. And there are always of materials that provide regular assessment activities or tools

**Does This Text Fit With Your Institutional Goals?**

a. length of the semester/course,

b. number of class hours

c. Covers what the curriculum says needs to be covered.

Finally, No course book will be totally suited to a particular teaching situation. The teacher has to find his/her own way of using it and adapting it if needed.

The materials for a specific lesson will fall into two categories:

1. Those associate with the textbooks

2. Authentic materials that the teacher incorporates into classroom activities. Authentic materials are usually defined as those which have been produced for purposes other than to teach language.

Understanding Your Exam Analysis Report:-

Exam analysis report includes two main elements:-

The score report

Evaluating Tests report
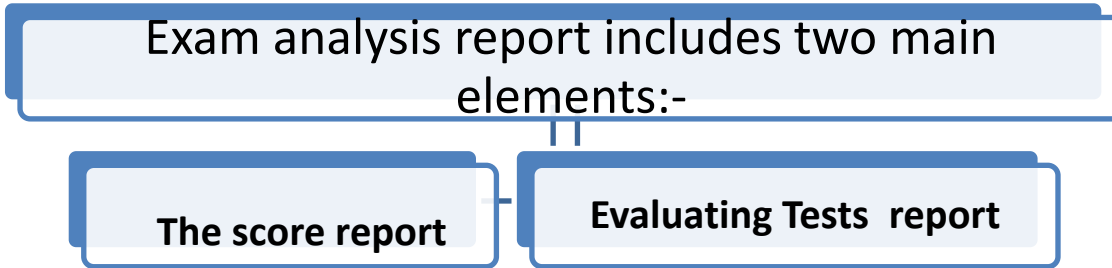
The score report is an important tool that will help you evaluate the effectiveness of a test and of the individual questions that comprise it. The evaluation process, called item analysis, can improve future test and item construction. The analysis provides valuable information that helps instructors determine:

- Which are the "best" test questions to secure and continue to use on future course assessments
- Which items need review and potential revision before a next administration
- Which are the poorest items which should be eliminated from scoring on the current administration

Using the score report can also point instructors toward content that may require clarification or additional instruction. The following describes what the numbers mean and how to use them.

Information below should be used with caution. The indices that are described are inter-related and must be interpreted in context.

KR-21

Test Score Reliability

Score reliability is an indication of the extent to which your test measures a single topic such as "knowledge of the battle of Gettysburg" or "skill in solving accounting problems." Measures of internal consistency indicate how well the questions on the test consistently and collectively address a common topic or construct. Students who answer one question on a particular topic correctly should also respond correctly to similar questions.

Scanning Operations uses the KR-21 (Kuder-Richardson 21). This coefficient provides reliability information about items scored dichotomously (i.e., correct/incorrect), such as multiple choice items. The KR-21 ranges from .00-1.00. Ideally, the KR-21 should be = .70 for classroom tests. If a single test is weighted heavily as part of students' grades, reliability must be high. Low score reliability is an indication that, if students took the same exam again, they might get a different score. Optimally, we would expect to see consistent scores on repeated administrations of the same test.

Item Difficulty

There are two numbers in the "item" column: The item number and the percent of students that answered the item correctly. A higher percentage indicates an easier item; a lower percentage indicates a more difficult item. It is good to gauge this difficulty index against what you expect. You should find a higher percentage of students correctly answering items you think should be easy and a lower percentage correctly answering items you think should be difficult.

Item difficulty is also important as you try to determine how well an item "worked" to separate students who know the content from those who do not (see item discrimination below). Certain items do not discriminate well. Very easy questions and very difficult

questions, for example, are poor discriminators. That is, when most students get the answer correct, or when most answer incorrectly, it is difficult to ascertain who really knows the content.

PBS (Item Discrimination)

Item discrimination is an indicator of how well a particular item effectively separates the students who know the test content from the students who do not. Calculated as a point bi-serial (PBS) correlation coefficient, item discrimination is an index of the degree to which students with high overall exam scores also got a particular item correct. Ideally, the discrimination (PBS) value should be >.20.

- An item with a negative PBS must be revised, as it may be an indication of an ambiguous question or a miskeyed correct response.

- A PBS of .00 results when all test takers choose the correct answer. (Recall that very easy items do not discriminate well. For some content, however, you may want assurance that all students know the answer to a particular item.)
- Items with a PBS between .00 and .20 should be examined as further refinement may improve item performance.

Response Options

Distractor Analysis

Beside each item are the response options (A-J). One is the key (correct response) and the others, the distractors (plausible, but incorrect, responses). The grey shaded option for each item indicates the key.

The TTL column indicates the number of students that selected that particular option.

The R column provides two pieces of information: the test mean and the standard deviation for the set of students who chose that particular distractor. For items that work well, we would expect the mean to be relatively high for the correct option and relatively low for the incorrect options. Conversely, incorrect response options that register a high mean should be carefully inspected to determine why the higher scorers on the exam (i.e., the better students) selected the incorrect answer.

The second value under the "R" column is the standard deviation, or the spread of scores, around the mean indicated for students who selected each option. Again, for the correct option (i.e., the key), we would expect to see a relatively high mean and relatively low standard deviation. In other words, the people who chose the correct answer are the ones with the overall higher test scores and there is relatively little variance among them.

Questions To Ask When Evaluating Tests

Lawrence M. Rudner,

ERIC Clearinghouse on Assessment and Evaluation

This article identifies the key standards applicable to most test evaluation situations. Sample questions are presented to help in your evaluations. When writing a report about exam analysis there must be some Questions to be asked:

TEST COVERAGE AND USE

There must be a clear statement of recommended uses and a description of the population for which the test is intended.

<u>Questions to ask:</u>

1. What are the intended uses of the test? What interpretations does the publisher feel are appropriate? Are inappropriate applications identified?

2. Who is the test designed for? What is the basis for considering whether the test applies to your students?

APPROPRIATE SAMPLES FOR TEST VALIDATION AND NORMING

<u>Questions to ask:</u>

1. How were the samples used in pilot testing, validation and norming chosen? How is this sample related to your student population? Were participation rates appropriate?

2. Was the sample size large enough to develop stable estimates with minimal fluctuation due to sampling errors? Where statements are made concerning subgroups, are there enough test-takers in each subgroup?

3. Do the difficulty levels of the test and criterion measures (if any) provide an adequate basis for validating and norming the instrument? Are there sufficient variations in test scores?

RELIABILITY

The test is sufficiently reliable to permit stable estimates of the ability levels of individuals in the target group.

<u>Questions to ask:</u>

1. How have reliability estimates been computed? Have appropriate statistical methods been used? (e.g., Split half-reliability coefficients should not be used with speeded tests as they will produce artificially high estimates.)

2. What are the reliabilities of the test for different groups of test-takers? How were they computed?

3. Is the reliability sufficiently high to warrant using the test as a basis for decisions concerning individual students?

4. To what extent are the groups used to provide reliability estimates similar to the groups the test will be used with?

CRITERION VALIDITY

Questions to ask:

1. What criterion measure has been used to evaluate validity? What is the rationale for choosing this measure?

2. Is the distribution of scores on the criterion measure adequate?

3. What is the overall predictive accuracy of the test? How accurate are predictions for individuals whose scores are close to cut-points of interest?

CONTENT VALIDITY

Other questions to ask:

1. Is there a clear statement of the universe of skills represented by the test? What research was conducted to determine desired test content and/or evaluate content?

2. What was the composition of expert panels used in content validation? How were judgments elicited?

3. How similar is this content to the content you are interested in testing?

CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

Questions to ask:

1. Is the conceptual framework for each tested construct clear and well founded? What is the basis for concluding that the construct is related to the purposes of the test?

2. Does the framework provide a basis for testable hypotheses concerning the construct? Are these hypotheses supported by empirical data?

TEST ADMINISTRATION

Questions to ask:

1. Will test administrators understand precisely what is expected of them?

2. Do the test administration procedures replicate the conditions under which the test was validated and normed? Are these procedures standardized?

Questions to ask:

1. How are test results reported? Are the scales used in reporting results conducive to proper test use?

2. What materials and resources are available to aid in interpreting test results?

TEST AND ITEM BIAS

Questions to ask:

1. Were the items analyzed statistically for possible bias? What method(s) was used? How were items selected for inclusion in the final version of the test?

2. Was the test analyzed for differential validity across groups? How was this analysis conducted?

3. Was the test analyzed to determine the English language proficiency required of test-takers? Should the test be used with non-native speakers of English?

General Tips for Good Writing

Here are a few tips for good writing.

• Keep it simple. Do not try to impress, rather try to communicate. Keep the sentences short and to the point. Do not go into a lot of details unless it is needed. Make sure every word needs to be there, that it contributes to the purpose of the report.

• Use an active voice rather than passive. Active voice makes the writing move smoothly and easily. It also uses fewer words than the passive voice and gives impact to the writing by emphasizing the person or thing responsible for an action. Here is an example: Bad customer service decreases repeat business.

• Good grammar and punctuation is important. Having someone proofread is a good idea. Remember that the computer cannot catch all the mistakes, especially with words like "red, read" or "there, their."

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Theories of language and learning

Theories of Language and Learning

Theories and methods of foreign language teaching have always developed in a field of tension between linguistic and psychological theories of learning on the one hand, and pedagogical aims and the exigencies of classroom teaching on the other hand. Pure theories hardly ever proved solid and complex enough to be transposed without comprises into foreign language teaching. However, they always were and continue to be quite influential.

We here outline the characteristic traits of three prominent theories of language acquisition:

Behaviourist, **cognitivism**, and **constructivist theories**.

The Background of the Behaviourist Theory

Behaviourist theory, which is basically a psychological theory in its essence, founded by J.B. Watson, is actually a theory of native language learning, advanced in part as a reaction to traditional grammar. The supporters of this theory are Leonard Bloomfield, O.N. Mowrer, B.F. Skinner, and A.W. Staats. Behaviourism was advanced in America as a new approach to psychology in the early decades of the 20th-century by making a particular emphasis on the importance of verbal behaviour, and received a considerable trust from the educational world.

The major principle of the behaviourist theory rests on the analyses of human behaviour in observable stimulus-response interaction and the association between them. E.L.T. Thorndike was the first behaviourist to explore the area that learning is the establishment of associations on particular process of behaviour and consequences of that behaviour.

Basic Tenets of Behaviourist Theory

The following principles illustrate the operating principles of behaviourism:

1) Behaviourist theory dwells on spoken language. That is, primary medium of language is oral: speech is language because there are many languages without written forms, because we learn to speak before we learn to read and write. Then,

language is primarily what is spoken and secondarily what is written. That's why spoken language must have a priority in language teaching.

2) Behaviourist theory is the habit formation theory of language teaching and learning, reminding us the learning of structural grammar. Language learning concerns us by "not problem-solving but the in-formation and performance of habits" (Nelson Brooks, 1960; 46-47). In other words, language learning is a mechanical process leading the learners to habit formation whose underlying scheme is the conditioned reflex. Thus it is definitely true that language is controlled by the con-sequences of behaviour.

3) The stimulus-response chain, Response, is a pure case of conditioning. Behaviourist learning theory "emphasizes conditioning and building from the simplest conditioned responses to more and more complex behaviours" (David S. Palermo, 1978; 19-20). This comes to mean that clauses and sentences are learned linearly as longer and longer stimulus-response chains, produced in a left-to right series of sequence as probabilistic incidents, which are basically Markov's processes. Each stimulus is thus the case of a response, and each response becomes the initiator of a stimulus, and this process goes on and on in this way.

4) All learning is the establishment of habits as the result of reinforcement and reward. Positive reinforcement is reward while negative reinforcement is punishment. In a stimulus situation, a response is exerted, and if the response is positively augmented by a reward, then the association between the stimulus and response is itself reinforced and thus the response will very likely be manipulated by every appearance of stimulus. The result will yield conditioning. When responses to stimuli are coherently reinforced, then habit formation is established. It is be-cause of this fact that this theory is termed habit-formation-by-reinforcement theory.

5) The learning, due to its socially-conditioned nature, can be the same for each individual. In other words, each person can learn equally if the conditions in which the learning takes place are the same for each person.

Counterarguments on Behaviourist Theory of Language Learning

Needless to say, language teaching anticipates certain theories on language learning because language learning as a fruitful area that em-bodies the working of human behaviour and mental processes of the learners. Each theory may not be complete model for the investigation of language learning. The following counter-arguments can be made upon the working principles of behaviourist theory:

1) Basic strategies of language learning within the scope of behaviourist theory are imitation, reinforcement, and rewarding. However researches made on the acquisition of learning have demonstrated that children's imitation of structures show evidence of almost no innovation; moreover children "vary considerably in the amount that they imitate" (L.M. Bloom, L. Hood, and P.L. Lightbown, 1974; 380-420). Since children do not imitate such structures like words, phrases, clauses and sentences at the same rate they will naturally learn at different rates. Though it must be admitted that imitation is very useful in the acquisition of new vocabulary items. As for reinforcement, "Unfortunately this view of learning receives little support from the available evidence" (Herbert H. Clark and Eve V. Clark, 1977; 336), for the parents only correct the sample structures, and complex structures are occasionally corrected.

2) In behaviourist theory, the process of learning relies more on generalization, rewarding, conditioning, three of which support the development of analogical learning in children. But it can be argued that a process of learning or teaching that encourages the learner to construct phrases, clauses and sentence modelled on previously settled set of rules and drills is thought to obstruct the instinctive production of language. Then, habit formation exercises may not naturally promote intrinsically-oriented language learning.

3) Obstructions made on instinctively-based learning will doubtlessly harm the creative way of learning. It takes a long time to be capable enough to master a language at least a bit intrinsically.

There is a threshold level in language learning, this means that learners must learn consciously supported by repetition and drilling to build up an effective linguistic intuition, acquisition of which marks the establishment of threshold level. Before obtaining the threshold level, the language learner is not creative, cannot use the language properly in new situations in a real sense. It is, then, obvious that the intrinsic learning will be delayed, owing to the late acquisition of threshold level because of previously settled set of rules and drills.

4) The rate of social influence on learning is not satisfactorily explained. To what extent and rate, does the social surrounding promote language learning? This question remains unexplained.

5) It is highly unlikely for learning to be the same for each individual; that is, each person cannot learn equally well in the same conditions in which learning takes place, for the background and the experience of the learners make everybody learn differently. In addition, according to Chomsky, there must be some innate capacities which human beings possess that predispose them to look for basic patterns in language.

6) The main strategies of the behaviourist theory can only be true for the early stages of learning which takes place when the kids are in infancy and in early childhood periods. Moreover, this theory is fruitful for the most part on animal experimentation and learning.

7) Many of the learning processes are mostly too complex, and for this reason there are intervening variables, which cannot be observed between stimulus and response. "That's why, language acquisition can-not take place through habit formation, since language learners are thrown between stimulus and response chain, for language is too far complicated to be learned in such a matter, especially given the brief time available.

The Cognitivism Theory

As a reaction to behaviourism, the "cognitive revolution" in the 1950s combined new thinking in psychology, anthropology and linguistics with the emerging fields of computer science and neuroscience.

Cognitive Learning Theory emphasized the learner's cognitive activity, involving reasoning and mental processes rather than habit formation.

Cognitive Language Theory emerged from the Chomskyan Revolution which gave rise in Language Method to Cognitive Code Learning, etc.

Cognitive learning goes beyond the behaviourist learning of facts and skills, adding cognitive apprenticeship to the learning process. Learners are encouraged to work out rules deductively for themselves. It focuses on building a learner's experiences and providing learning tasks that can challenge, but also function as 'intellectual scaffolding' to help pupils learn and progress through the curriculum. Broadly speaking, cognitive theory is interested in how people understand material, and thus in aptitude and capacity to learn and learning styles (see Atherton). As such it is the basis of constructivism and can be placed somewhere in the middle of the scale between behavioural and constructivist learning.

Chomsky

Noam Chomsky is identified with the *Innatist* or *Nativist theory*. As seen in the discussion under the age factor, Chomsky claims that children are biologically programmed to acquire language, as they are for other biological functions such as walking, which a child normally learns without being taught. While the environment supplies people who talk to the child, language acquisition is an unconscious process. The child activates the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), an innate capability or blueprint that endows the child with the capability to develop speech from a universal grammar.

Cognitive Code Learning

With the Chomskyan revolution in linguistics, the attention of linguists and language teachers was drawn towards the 'deep structure' of language and a more cognitive psychology. Chomsky's theory of Transformational-generative Grammar focused attention again on the rule-governed nature of language and language acquisition rather than habit formation. This gave rise in the 1960s to **Cognitive Code Learning**

where learners were encouraged to work out grammar rules deductively for themselves.

| Deductive Learning | Grammatical explanations or rules are presented and then applied through practice in exercises |
| Inductive Learning | Learners are presented with examples. They then discover or induce language rules and principles on their own |

Cognitive code learning achieved only limited success as the cognitive emphasis on rules and grammatical paradigms proved as off-putting as behaviourist rote drilling.

The Constructive Theory

General Overview	
Summary	Constructivism as a paradigm or worldview posits that learning is an active, constructive process. The learner is an information constructor. People actively construct or create their own subjective representations of objective reality. New information is linked to prior knowledge, thus mental representations are subjective.
Originators &important contributors	Vygotsky, Piaget, Dewey, Vico, Rorty, Bruner
Keywords	- Learning as experience, - activity and dialogical process; - Problem Based Learning (PBL); - Anchored instruction; - Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD); - cognitive apprenticeship (scaffolding); - inquiry and discovery learning

In the constructivist classroom, the focus tends to shift from the teacher to the students. The classroom is no longer a place where the teacher ("expert") pours knowledge into passive students, who wait like empty vessels to be filled. In the constructivist model, the students are urged to be actively involved in their own process of learning.

In the constructivist classroom, both teacher and students think of knowledge as a dynamic, ever-changing view of the world we live in and the ability to successfully stretch and explore that view - not as inert factoids to be memorized.

Key assumptions of this perspective include:

1. What the student currently believes, whether correct or incorrect, is important.
2. Despite having the same learning experience, each individual will base their learning on the understanding and meaning personal to them.
3. Understanding or constructing a meaning is an active and continuous process..
4. Learning may involve some conceptual changes.
5. When students construct a new meaning, they may not believe it but may give it provisional acceptance or even rejection.
6. Learning is an active, not a passive, process and depends on the students taking responsibility to learn.

The main activity in a constructivist classroom is solving problems. Students use inquiry methods to ask questions, investigate a topic, and use a variety of resources to find solutions and answers. As students explore the topic, they draw conclusions, and, as exploration continues, they revisit those conclusions. Exploration of questions leads to more questions.

There is a great deal of overlap between a constructivist and social constructivist classroom, with the exception of the greater emphasis placed on learning through social interaction, and the value placed on cultural background. For Vygotsky, culture gives the child the cognitive tools needed for development. Adults in the learner's environment are conduits for the tools of the culture, which include language, cultural history, social context, and more recently, electronic forms of information access.

In social constructivist classrooms collaborative learning is a process of peer interaction that is mediated and structured by the teacher. Discussion can be promoted by the presentation of specific concepts, problems or scenarios, and is guided by means of effectively directed questions, the introduction and clarification of concepts and information, and references to previously learned material.

Role of the Teacher

Constructivist teachers do not take the role of the "sage on the stage." Instead, teachers act as a "guide on the side" providing students with opportunities to test the adequacy of their current understandings

Theory	Implication for classroom
The educator should consider the knowledge and experiences students bring to class	
Learners construct their knowledge through a process of active enquiry	
'Discovery' is facilitated by providing the necessary resources	
Knowledge is actively constructed & learning is presented as a process of active discovery	
Provide assistance with assimilation of new and old knowledge	
Learning programme should be sufficiently flexible to permit development along lines of student enquiry	
Due to its interpretivist nature, each student will interpret information in different ways	
Create situations where the students feel safe questioning and reflecting on their own processes	
Present authentic tasks to contextualize learning through real-world, case-based learning environments	
Support collaboration in constructing knowledge, not competition	
Encourage development through Inter-subjectivity	
Providing Scaffolding at the right time and the right level	
Provide opportunities for more expert and less expert participants to learn from each other	

Role of the Student

The expectation within a constructivist learning environment is that the students plays a more active role in, and accepts more responsibility for their own learning.

Theory	Implication for classroom
The role of the student to actively participate in their own education	
Students have to accommodate & assimilate new information with their current understanding	
One important aspect of controlling their own learning process is reflecting on their experiences	
Students begin their study with pre-conceived notions	
Students are very reluctant to give up their established schema/idea & may reject new information that challenges prior knowledge	
Students may not be aware of the reasons they hold such strong ideas/schemata	
Learners need to use and test ideas, skills, and information through relevant activities	
Students need to know how to learn or change their thinking/learning style	
Because knowledge is so communally-based, learners deserve access to knowledge of different communities	
For students to learn they need to receive different 'lenses' to see things in new ways.	
Learners need guidance through the ZDP	
In social constructivism tutors and peers play a vital role in learning	

Social Constructivism in the Classroom

Reciprocal Teaching

Where a teacher and 2 to 4 students form a collaborative group and take turns leading dialogues on a topic. Within the dialogues, group members apply four cognitive strategies:

1. Questioning
2. Summarizing
3. Clarifying
4. Predicting

This creates a ZPD in which students gradually assume more responsibility for the material, and through collaboration, forge group expectations for high-level thinking, and acquire skills vital for learning and success in everyday life.

Cooperative Learning

More expert peers can also spur children's development along as long as they adjust the help they provide to fit the less mature child's ZPD.

Situated Learning

As early as 1929 concern was raised (Whitehead) that the way students learned in school resulted in a limited, 'inert' form of knowledge, useful only for passing examinations. More recently several theorists have argued that for knowledge to be active it should be learned:

- In a meaningful context
- Through active learning

The general term for this type of learning activity is situated learning. Situated learning proponents argue that knowledge cannot be taught in an abstract manner, and that to be useful, it must be situated in a relevant or "authentic" context (Maddux, Johnson, & Willis, 1997).

Anchored Instruction

The anchored instruction approach is an attempt to help students become more actively engaged in learning by situating or anchoring instruction around an interesting topic. The learning environments are designed to provoke the kinds of thoughtful engagement that helps students develop effective thinking skills and attitudes that contribute to effective problem solving and critical thinking. Anchored instruction emphasizes the need to provide students with opportunities to think about and work on problems and emphasizes group or collaborative problem solving.

Other things you can do:

- Encourage team working and collaboration
- Promote discussion or debates
- Set up study groups for peer learning
- Allocate a small proportion of grades for peer assessment and train students in the process and criteria

- Show students models of good practice in essay writing and project work
- Be aware of your own role as a model of 'the way things are done...'be explicit about your professional values and the ethical dimensions of your subject

Assessment

Constructivists believe that assessment should be used as a tool to enhance both the student's learning and the teacher's understanding of student's progress. It should not be used as an accountability tool that serves to stress or demoralize students. Types of assessment aligned to this epistemological position include reflective journals/portfolios, case studies, group-based projects, presentations (verbal or poster), debates, role playing etc.

Within social constructivism particularly there is greater scope for involving students in the entire process:

1. Criteria
2. Method
3. Marking
4. Feedback

Brooks and Brooks (1993) state that rather than saying "No" when a student does not give the exact answer being sought, the constructivist teacher attempts to understand the student's current thinking about the topic. Through nonjudgmental questioning, the teacher leads the student to construct new understanding and acquire new skills.

A reaction to didactic approaches such as ***behaviourism*** and ***programmed instruction***, constructivism states that learning is an active, contextualized process of constructing knowledge rather than acquiring it. Knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences and hypotheses of the environment. Learners continuously test these hypotheses through social negotiation. Each person has a different interpretation and construction of knowledge process. The learner is not a blank slate (*tabula rasa*) but brings past experiences and cultural factors to a situation.

NOTE: A common misunderstanding regarding constructivism is that instructors should never tell students anything directly but, instead, should always allow them to

construct knowledge for themselves. This is actually confusing a theory of pedagogy (teaching) with a theory of knowing. Constructivism assumes that all knowledge is constructed from the learner's previous knowledge, regardless of how one is taught. Thus, even listening to a lecture involves active attempts to construct new knowledge.

The PROS and CONS of Constructivist Strategies in the Classroom

PROS	CONS
Active، hands-on،	Good strategies require a great deal of planning،organization and resources
Authentic and relevant tasks	Initial planning and accurate assessment of learner skills is vital
Collaborative and interactive with others	A child may be active but not necessarily learning
Teacher is the guide and facilitator	According to Piaget the child only becomes developmentally prepared for certain cognitive tasks so instructional demands must consider developmental stage of learner
Based on individual's prior knowledge and experiences	No vice learners don't necessarily have thementalschemasorcognitiveskillstointegratenewlearningandrequire support and guidance.
Emphasizes self--- motivation، choices in learning tasks based on interests	Although scientific and mathematical learning is quite compatible with discovery learning and project -based learning–the'everyday'concepts of learners need support for the transformation to scientific schemas.
Research، exploration and experimentation	Leaving learning too'unguided،'too learner driven، can often do more harm than good-constant feedback and learner assessment is needed.
Problem--- based and project---based learning	Problem based learning requires a great deal of scaffolding and guidance for novice learners.
Learning is organized،logical،Sequential and scaffold	Althoughresearchshowsthattechnologyisagoodsupportforconstructiviststrategies،again scaffolding is required.
Supports higher level critical thinking and problem solving skills	
Encourages self--- confidence and presentation skills	
Technology skills can be	

developed as learners research‹organize and share	
Learners as teachers maximizes knowledge construction	
Suggests real--- world problems and simulations	
Learners are challenged based on their current skills and knowledge	
Students interact with peers‹teacher and environment	

Resources

List of learning theories and how they apply to practice:
http://icebreakerideas.com/learning-theories/
List of models and good info on each:
http://carbon.cudenver.edu/~mryder/itc_data/idmodels.html
Outline of learning theories:
http://www.learning-theories.com/

Kuwait National Curriculum

Curriculum Design

An Overview

Curriculum design can be seen as a kind of writing activity and as such it can usefully be studied as a process. The typical sub-processes of the writing process (gathering ideas, ordering ideas, ideas to text, reviewing, editing) can be applied to curriculum design, but it makes it easier to draw on current curriculum design theory and practice if a different set of parts is used. The curriculum design model in Figure 1.1 consists of three outside circles and a subdivided inner circle. The outer circles (principles, environment, needs) involve practical and theoretical considerations that will have a major effect in guiding the actual process of course production. There is a wide range of factors to consider when designing a course. These include the learners' present knowledge and lacks, the resources available including time, the skill of the teachers, the curriculum designer's strengths and limitations, and principles of teaching and learning. If factors such as these are not considered then the course may be unsuited to the situation and learners for which it is used, and may be ineffective and inefficient as a means of encouraging learning. In the curriculum design process these factors are considered in three sub-processes, environment analysis, needs analysis and the application of principles. The result of environment analysis is a ranked list of factors and a consideration of the effects of these factors on the design. The result of needs analysis is a realistic list of language, ideas or skill items, as a result of considering the present proficiency, future needs and wants of the learners. The application of principles involves first of all deciding on the most important principles to apply and monitoring their application through the whole design process. The result of applying principles is a course where learning is given the greatest support.

Some curriculum designers distinguish curriculum from syllabus. In the model, both the outer circles and the inner circle make up the curriculum. The inner circle represents the syllabus.

The inner circle has goals as its centre. This is meant to reflect the importance of having clear general goals for a course. The content and sequencing part of the inner circle represents the items to learn in a course, and the order in which they occur, plus the ideas content if this is used as a vehicle for the items and not as a goal in itself. Language courses must give consideration to the language content of a course even if this is not presented in the course as a discrete item. Consideration of content makes sure that there is something useful for the learners to learn to advance their control of the language, that they are getting the best return for learning effort in terms of the usefulness of what they will meet in the course, and that they are covering all the things they need to cover for a balanced knowledge of the language.

The format and presentation part of the inner circle represents the format of the lessons or units of the course, including the techniques and types of activities that will be used to help learning. This is the part of the course that the learners are most aware of. It is important that it is guided by the best available principles of teaching and learning.

The monitoring and assessment part of the inner circle represents the need to give attention to observing learning, testing the results of learning, and providing feedback to the learners about their progress. It is often not a part of commercially designed courses. It provides information that can lead to changes at most of the other parts of the curriculum design process.

It is possible to imagine a large circle drawn completely around the whole model. This large outer circle represents evaluation. Evaluation can involve looking at every aspect of a course to judge if the course is adequate and where it needs improvement. It is generally a neglected aspect of curriculum design.

The shape of the model in Figure 1.1 is designed to make it easy to remember. The three-part shape that occurs in each of the outer circles (the "Mercedes" symbol) also occurs in the large inner circle, and also occurs in the way the three outer circles connect to the inner circle.
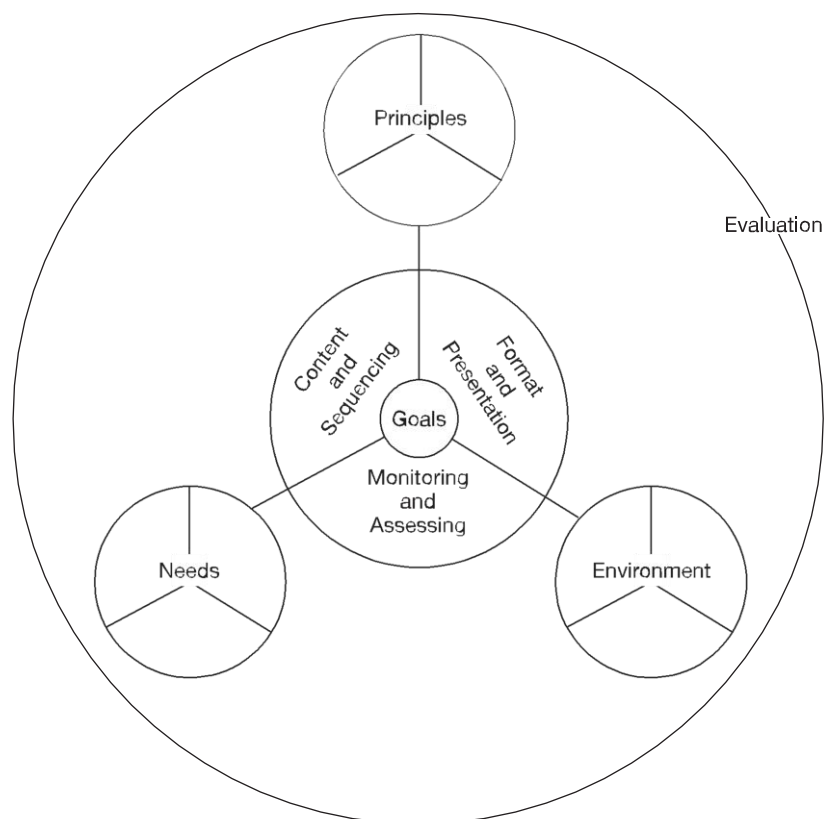
Figure 1.1 A model of the parts of the curriculum design process

Parts of the Curriculum Design Process:

Considering the Environment

Environment analysis involves considering the factors of the situation in which the course will be used and determining how the course should take account of them. Here are some of the top factors decided on by several teachers designing different courses for different learners.

- The small amount of time available for the course
- The large size of the classes
- The learners' lack of interest
- The wide range of proficiency in the class
- The immediate survival needs of the learners
- The lack of appropriate reading materials
- The teachers' lack of experience and training
- The learners' use of the first language in the classroom
- The need for the learners to be more autonomous

Discovering Needs

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) make a useful division of learners' needs into necessities (what the learner has to know to function effectively), lacks (what the learner knows and does not know already) and wants (what the learners think they need). These are discovered by a variety of means: by testing, by questioning and interviewing, by recalling previous performance, by consulting employers, teachers and others involved, by collecting data such as textbooks and manuals that the learners will have to read and analysing them, and by investigating the situations where the learners will need to use the language.

Following Principles

Research on language teaching and learning should be used to guide decisions on curriculum design. There is considerable research on the nature of language and language acquisition which can guide the choice of what to teach and how to sequence it. It is very important that curriculum design makes the connection between the research and theory of language learning and the practice of designing lessons and courses.

Goals

The curriculum design model in Figure 1.1 has goals as its centre. This is because it is essential to decide why a course is being taught and what the learners need to get from it. Goals can be expressed in general terms and be given more detail when considering the content of the course. Having a clear statement of goals is important for determining the content of the course, for deciding on the focus in presentation, and in guiding assessment.

Content and Sequencing

The content of language courses consists of the language items, ideas, skills and strategies that meet the goals of the course. It is important for the curriculum designer to keep some check on vocabulary, grammar and discourse to make sure that important items are being covered and repeated.

One way to provide a systematic and well-researched basis for a course is to make use of frequency lists and other lists of language items or skills. A list may be used as

a way of checking or determining the content of a course. Working from lists makes sure that what should be covered is covered and is not left to chance. Typical lists include:

Frequency-based vocabulary lists.

Frequency lists of verb forms and verb groups.

Lists of functions and topics.

Lists of sub skills and strategies.

There are lists of tasks, topics and themes that curriculum designers can refer (Munby, 1978; Van Ek and Alexander, 1980; Prabhu, 1987), but it is better for curriculum designers to develop their own lists taking account of the background factors of their learners and their needs.

Needs analysis can play a major role in determining the content of courses, particularly for language items. As well as using needs analysis to set language goals, it is useful to decide the basis for the ideas content of the course.

Finding a Format and Presenting Material

The material in a course needs to be presented to learners in a form that will help learning. This presentation will involve the use of suitable teaching techniques and procedures, and these need to be put together in lessons. Some lessons might consist of an unpredictable series of activities, while others might be based on a set format, where the same sequence of activities occurs in all or most of the lessons.

There are several advantages to having a set format for lessons. Firstly, the lessons are easier to make because each one does not have to be planned separately. It also makes the course easier to monitor, to check if all that should be included is there and that accepted principles are being followed. Finally, it makes the lessons easier to learn from because the learners can predict what will occur and are soon familiar with the learning procedures required by different parts of the lesson.

The sources of the material used as a basis for the lessons will have decisive effects on the ease of making the lessons and of the possibility of future distribution or publication of the course. A shortcut here is simply to take suitable material from other courses, adapting it as required.

Monitoring and Assessing

The aims of curriculum design are to make a course that has useful goals, that achieves its goals, that satisfies its users, and that does all this in an efficient way. An important recurring part of the design process is to assess how well these aims are achieved. Assessing generally involves the use of tests. The information gained from such tests can be useful in evaluating the course.

But testing is only one way of gaining information about the progress of learners and the effectiveness of the course. Other ways include observing and monitoring using checklists and report forms, getting learners to keep diaries and learning logs, getting learners to collect samples of their work in folders, and getting learners to talk about their learning. Curriculum design can include planned opportunity for this kind of data gathering.

Basic terminology

National Curriculum Framework	The document that defines the aims, vision and concept of the new curriculum, its structure, as well as expected student learning achievement at different education levels.
Teaching Plan	The plan includes a reduced number of weekly periods from 35 to 30 plus a more rational balance between different subjects
Subject-based Curriculum and Standards	This document defines the various competences and levels of achievement students are expected to attain; the subject curricula cover the content to be learned and offer examples of learning activities and guidance on classroom assessment and the use of teaching and learning resources
Subject-based teacher guides	A guide to provide teachers with concrete instructions, instruments and approaches for implementing it in the classroom. These include: (a) guidance for understanding components of the subject curriculum; (b) guidance on curriculum-based planning which replaces content-based planning; (c) guidance on how to conduct competence-based teaching and learning activities; (d) guidance on how to carry out classroom assessment; (e) information on school-based professional development and (f) guidance on using ICT in the learning process.
Curriculum	In the simplest terms, 'curriculum' is a description of what, why and how students should learn. The curriculum is therefore not an end in itself. The objective of the curriculum is to provide learners with the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to be successful in their lives. (*Source:* UNESCO IBE2011).

Textbooks	The core materials for a course. Providing as much as possible in one resource and are designed so that they could serve as the only material learners necessarily use during a course.
Standards	They are statements about what is valued in learning. They describe expectations and are used to judge the level of performance in a field or domain.
Competences	Within the European Union area a competence is defined as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context. Competence indicates the ability to apply learning outcomes adequately in a defined context (education, work, personal or professional development). Competence is not limited to cognitive elements (involving the use of theory, concepts or tacit knowledge); it also encompasses functional aspects (involving technical skills) as well as interpersonal attributes (e.g. social or organizational skills) and ethical values. (CEDEFOP 2011). Competences can be domain-specific, e.g. relating to knowledge, skills and attitudes within one specific subject or discipline, or general/transversal because they have relevance to all domains/subjects. See also 'Key competences/competencies or skills'..
Competency-based curriculum	A curriculum that emphasizes what the learners are expected to do rather than mainly focusing on what they are expected to learn about. In principle such a curriculum is learner-centred and adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and society. It implies that learning activities and environments are chosen so that learners can acquire and apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes to situations they encounter in everyday life.
Content standards	Statements describing what learners are expected to know and be able to do within a particular subject area or discipline at different grade levels, ages, or other criteria
Range of realities	Knowledge (cognitive domain)
Range of connections	Relations to other subjects(Transfer domain)
Range of operations	Skills and strategies(proficiency domain)
Range of attitudes	Personal and social responses (Affective domain)
Key competences	They represent a transferable, multifunctional system of knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, and personal/social attributes that all individuals need to acquire for their personal development. They are supposed to be achieved by the end of the Secondary Education period. They are cross-curricular

General competences	They define the most general subject-based knowledge, skills and attitudes/values embedded/integrated in students' expected outcomes by the end of Grade 12.
Specific competences	They define more specific systems of integrated knowledge, skills and attitudes/values. They can even cover specialized, topic-based competences students are supposed to display by the end of each grade.
Performance standards	They refer to the quality level to be achieved by students in performing their general competences by the end of each of the school stages –(national summative assessments)
Curriculum standards	They refer to the quality level to be achieved by students in attaining the specific competences. They describe to what extent the specific competences should be achieved by the end of each grade. They are a matter of school- and class-based formative and summative assessment.
Subject curricula	Are official documents that define why, what, how and with which kind of final expected results students learn in a certain subject from Grades 1 to 12. They fully reflect the conceptual foundation and the provision of the key curriculum statements as defined by the Kuwait National Curriculum Framework.
School-based Continuous Professional Development	SbCPD) is one of the key forms of Continuous Teacher Professional Development (CTPD). SbCPD is a complementary and continuous system of actions and learning opportunities based on school and teachers' needs, organized and managed at school level. This professional development model is taking place within a school where the teachers on a regular basis and in a more appropriate time participate in the range of learning activities aimed to improve their professional knowledge and skills and to implement the best educational practice
Assessment	The process through which the progress and achievements of a learner or learners is measured or judged.
Assessment for learning	Assessment of learner's progress and achievement, the primary purpose of which is to support and enhance learning by adapting the educational process to meet the learner's needs whenever required.
Basic skills	The fundamental skills needed for learning, work and life. Within the curriculum, literacy and numeracy are normally considered as foundational, essential or basic skills. The term can include a range of skills that individuals need to live successfully in contemporary society
Lifelong learning	All learning activity undertaken throughout life, which results in improving knowledge, know-how, skills, competences and/or qualifications for personal, social and/or professional reasons.

	(*Source*: CEDEFOP 2011).
Learning outcomes	The totality of information, knowledge, understanding, attitudes, values, skills, competencies or behaviours an individual is expected to have mastered upon the successful completion of an education programme. (*Source:* UIS 2012).

References

www.marquette.edu

www.ericdigests.org

KNC Document

Training Vs. Professional Development

Introduction

Teacher training may be defined as preparation for professional practice usually through formal courses at colleges or universities. It usually results in some kind of recognized accreditation, granting successful candidates a certificate.

Teacher development, on the other hand, usually refers to professional learning by teachers already engaged in professional practice, usually through reflective discussion sessions based on current classroom experience.

So the first, basic difference is that teacher training implies pre-service learning, and teacher development in-service. But it is not so simple. A further very basic and far-reaching distinction implied in the above definitions has to do with their different underlying theories of the nature of professional learning.

Models of Teacher Learning

One "way in" to this distinction is to define it in terms of Wallace's (1991) three models of teacher learning: the *applied science, craft,* and *reflective* models. According to the applied science model, teachers learn to be teachers by being taught research-based theories, and then applying them in practice: The implication is that the most important professional knowledge is generalizable theory. The craft model means learning teaching in the way apprentices learn crafts like shoemaking or carpentry: The novice watches and imitates a master teacher, and obeys the latter's directions for improvement. Here the implication is that teaching is mainly a practical skill. Finally we have the reflection model, according to which teachers learn by reflecting on their own experience and applying what they have learned in order to develop their professional abilities further.
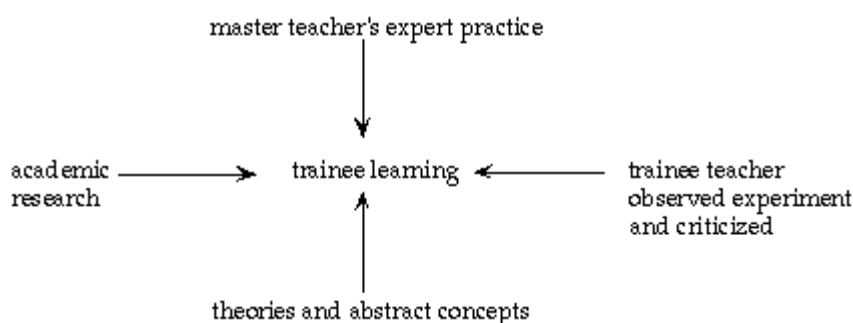
Figure 1: Teacher training

Note that the trainee is on the end of all the arrows: He or she is essentially receptive, being taught by the master teacher's model or criticism (craft model) or by the trainer's input on research and theory (applied science). There is very little place for his or her own initiative in creating new output, thoughts, or practical ideas.

Wallace's third model (learning derived from reflection on practice), corresponds with "teacher development." It can be represented through the model of experiential learning provided by Kolb (1984) (See Figure 2).
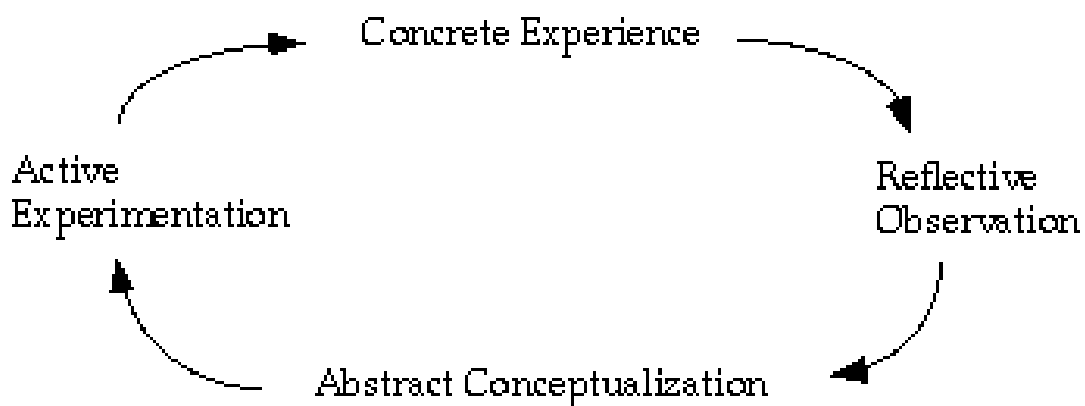

Figure 2: "Teacher development" (after Kolb, 1984)

In contrast to the previous diagram, the teacher-learner is active: experiencing, reflecting, conceptualizing, and experimenting. External sources of input, on the other hand, do not appear as a significant contributor to learning.

Teacher Development Sessions

The contrasting lists below are based on articles by Bolitho (1986), Edge (1986), Freeman (1990), McGrath (1986), Tangalos (1991), and Underhill (1987).

TRAINING	DEVELOPMENT
Imposed from "above"	Initiated by "self"
Pre-determined course structure	Structure determined through process
Not based on personal experience	Based on personal experience
Externally determined syllabus	Syllabus determined by participants
External evaluation	Self-evaluation
Input from "experts"	Input from participants

Unthinking acceptance of information	Personal construction of knowledge
Cognitive, cerebral	Cognitive and affective, "whole person"
Isolated	Collaborative
Stresses professional skills	Stresses personal development
Disempowers individual teacher	Empowers individual teacher

The first six items here clearly correspond with the "reflective" versus "applied science/craft" diagrams previously shown. Items seven to ten add a fresh dimension: that of the "person-centred" approach. Many writers emphasize that the function of "teacher development" is to develop the teacher's own potential as a "whole person" through collaborative interaction with colleagues. There is a clear association here with the humanist methodologies in language teaching and with the ideas behind "collaborative development" (Edge, 1991), where colleagues help each other develop through non-judgmental listening and response. Item eleven -- teacher empowerment -- is a key one.

Teacher Training Versus Teacher Development: A Conclusion

The distinction between teacher training and teacher development is an interesting one, and, like Krashen's *learning* versus *acquisition* of language it has given rise to some useful and productive thinking about the nature of professional learning. But, also like Krashen's dichotomy, the distinction ceases to be a useful one if the two concepts are considered to be completely separable or mutually exclusive. They are of optimal value when they come together.

Neither model of teacher learning is satisfactory on its own. Teacher training as described in Figure 1 leaves no scope for the teacher's own reflection and initiative. This is contrary to our intuitions about effective learning, and contrary to the experience of most competent teachers who will tell you if you ask them that the single most important contribution to their present expertise was reflection on their own experience. It is also contrary to the fairly widely accepted social constructivist, or Vygotzkian, conception of the nature of learning, according to which we learn by

constructing our own understanding of reality through interaction with others (parents, teachers, peers).

The model of teacher development as presented in Figure 2 does the opposite. It respects the teacher's own experience as a major source of learning, and allows full rein to their own thinking and initiative. But it does not appear to take into account the enormous amount of knowledge, practical and theoretical, that has been amassed by other practitioners, thinkers and researchers, and of which the teacher-learner can take advantage. Taken to an extreme, it implies that the incoming teacher has to "reinvent the wheel" on their own.

Surely a proper model of professional learning would need to take into account both sources, both external and internal.

I-   <u>Design and Teach Your Course</u>

Many of the decisions affecting the success of a course take place well before the first day of class. **<u>Careful planning</u>** at the course design stage not only makes training easier and more enjoyable, it also facilitates any problematic situations that may arise. Once your course is planned, teaching involves implementing your course design on a day-to-day level.

To design an effective course, you need to:
Consider timing and logistics / Recognize who your trainees are / Identify the situational constraints / Articulate your learning objectives / Identify potential assessments / Identify appropriate instructional strategies / Plan your course content and schedule / Write the content / Teach Your Course
Here you can find information on how to make the most of the first day of class :

- *Implement effective instructional strategies (lectures, discussions, labs, studios, case studies)*
- *Create a productive and inclusive learning environment*
- *Manage your course (on-line and off-line)*
- *Assess your teaching effectiveness & student learning*

Sample Course Outline

This sample course is divided into three phases:

The first phase consists of sessions on effective teaching and introduction to Competence Based Learning ; skills and subskills of listening, speaking, reading and writing; grammar; vocabulary, classroom management, educational technology and assessment.

The second phase is peer teaching, where trainees teach sections of their prepared lessons to their fellow colleagues who act as students.

The third phase is 'real teaching' where participants teach a lesson with a group of proficiency course learners, and the lessons are observed by a trainer and followed by a feedback session.

Factors to take into consideration when designing a trainer training course

- Eligibility criteria for entering 'trainer training' programme should be established, including:

➢ teaching experience of not less than 4-5 years

➢ previous participation in awareness-raising in-service teacher training courses

- The design of teacher trainer programmes should be cognizant of the experience of the trainees and build on it in the following way by factoring in:

➢ Proficiency building components to raise awareness and encourage reflection on the participants' knowledge and experience.

➢ Professional competence/development components dealing with training the trainer, the human or affective elements of the educator's role; understanding and utilizing learning and teaching theory; how to use frameworks such as the ADDIE instructional design model and analyzing elements of both the training and teaching practicum, amongst other topics.

- Based on professional development:

➢ The 'human side' of the training process also needs to be addressed.

➢ An appropriate focus for a trainer training programme would be to distinguish clearly between the theoretical concepts of teaching and learning processes.

➢ A focus on instructional design models and principles would also have been appropriate.

The ADDIE instructional design model

The ADDIE model is at the very core of instructional design and is the basis of instructional systems design (ISD). There are various adaptations of the ADDIE model but it generally consists of five cyclical phases—Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation. These processes represent a dynamic, flexible guideline for building effective training and performance support tools .

Analysis

In the analysis phase, the instructional problem is clarified, the instructional goals and objectives are established and the learning environment and learner's existing knowledge and skills are identified.

Design

The design phase deals with learning objectives, assessment instruments, exercises, content, subject matter analysis, lesson planning and media selection. The design phase should be systematic and specific.

Development

The development phase is where instructional designers and developers create and assemble the content assets that were blueprinted in the design phase. In this phase, storyboards are created, content is written and graphics are designed. If e learning is involved, programmers work to develop and/or integrate technologies.

Implementation

During the implementation phase, a procedure for training the facilitators and the learners is developed. The facilitators' training should cover the course curriculum, learning outcomes, method of delivery, and testing procedures .

Evaluation

The evaluation phase consists of two parts: formative and summative. Formative evaluation is present in each stage of the ADDIE process. Summative evaluation consists of tests designed for domain specific criterion-related referenced items and providing opportunities for feedback from the users which were identified.

II- <u>Training Programme Evaluation :</u>

Training and learning evaluation, feedback forms, action plans and follow-up

Training evaluation to be truly effective, the training and development itself must be appropriate for the person and the situation. Good modern personal development and evaluation extend beyond the obvious skills and knowledge required for the job or organization or qualification. Effective personal development must also consider: individual potential (natural abilities often hidden or suppressed); individual learning styles; and whole person development (life skills, in other words). Where training or teaching seeks to develop people (rather than merely being focused on a specific qualification or skill) the development must be approached on a more flexible and individual basis than in traditional paternalistic (authoritarian, prescribed) methods of design, delivery and testing. These principles apply to teaching and developing young people too, which interestingly provides some useful lessons for workplace training, development and evaluation.

A vital aspect of any sort of evaluation is its effect on the person being evaluated. Feedback is essential for people to know how they are progressing, and also, evaluation is crucial to the learner's confidence too. And since people's commitment to learning relies so heavily on confidence and a belief that the learning is achievable, the way that tests and assessments are designed and managed, and results presented back to the learners, is a very important part of the learning and development process.

People can be switched off the whole idea of learning and development very quickly if they receive only negative critical test results and feedback. Always look for positives in negative results. Encourage and support - don't criticize without adding some positives, and certainly never focus on failure, or that's just what you'll produce.This is a much overlooked factor in all sorts of evaluation and testing, and since this element is not typically included within evaluation and assessment tools the point is emphasized point loud and clear here.

So always remember - evaluation is not just for the trainer or teacher or organization or policy-makers - evaluation is absolutely vital for the learner too, which

is perhaps the most important reason of all for evaluating people properly, fairly, and with as much encouragement as the situation allows.

For effective training and learning evaluation, the principal questions should be:

To what extent were the identified training needs objectives achieved by the programme؟

To what extent were the learners' objectives achieved؟

What specifically did the learners learn or be usefully reminded of؟

What commitment have the learners made about the learning they are going to implement on their return to work؟

And back at work،

How successful were the trainees in implementing their action plans؟

To what extent were they supported in this by their line managers؟

To what extent has the action listed above achieved a Return on Investment (ROI) for the organization, either in terms of identified objectives satisfaction or, where possible, a monetary assessment.Organizations commonly fail to perform these evaluation processes.

III-   Tracking Teachers Performance

The ADEPTS benchmarks

Advancement of Educational Performance through Teacher Support' (ADEPTS) seeks to ensure:

☐ Improved teacher performance (i.e. what teachers actually do in the class)

☐ Under ADEPTS, performance has been understood as what a person actually does as part of his professional requirements, in keeping with his context and abilities.

☐ The benchmarks identified comprise of performance statements (which spell out the performance desired) and indicators (which provide specific manifestations of the desired performance

☐ A critical aspect is that the indicators for each performance statement are categorized according to four levels of difficulty (in terms of implementation). This

provides a ready reckoner, or a means of assessing the level of teacher performance as well as the desired next improvement.

☐ The benchmarks for teachers cover the four broad dimensions (or 'environments') that cover her ambit of work: cognitive, social, organizational and physical. Used together, the performance statements, indicators and levels enable the 'benchmarking' of performance to be implemented.

1. Implementation of ADEPTS

* ADEPTS is designed to encompass and build upon on-going activities, sharpen their focus in terms of classroom outcomes and improve their effectiveness.

* It is expected that the outcomes of recurrent in-service teacher training will be in terms of performance benchmarks actually attained by teachers inside classrooms. This would require that all trainers providing in-service training themselves attain benchmarks as trainers. ADEPTS specifies these clearly, with the indicators being categorised into three levels of performance.

* The state can implement ADEPTS through the following four stages on a yearly basis:

a. Planning

b. Preparation

c. Implementation

d. Performance tracking and ongoing improvement.

Planning

1. Identify the performance benchmarks / indicators to be focused on for the coming year.

2. Review the present performance of teachers, trainers and support institutions.

3. Incorporation of benchmarks, strategies for implementation and performance assessment in teacher training modules for the year and ensure follow up meetings.

Preparation

1. Hold consultations ,workshop، meetings, discussion with teachers etc.), so that teachers and administrators personnel are well versed with performance benchmarks and performance assessment.

2. Form and orient teams at the district, block and cluster levels and orient them.

3. Develop the materials needed for teachers and support institutions that would enable implementation.

Implementation Strategies

1. In-service Teacher Training

☐ The various inputs (whether workshops, school based interactions or other inputs) should clearly highlight the expected outcomes in terms of teacher performance in the classroom. This will serve as a basis for assessing and improving effectiveness of training.

☐ The training of trainers would specify its outcomes in terms of trainer performance and prepare trainers to attain the benchmarks needed to conduct the training of teachers.

☐ Finally, on-line assessment of training (i.e. while it is being conducted) will include assessment of trainer performance.

Performance Tracking and Ongoing improvement

☐ Ongoing school visits and monthly meetings will serve as a basis for tracking performance against the agreed upon indicators. Record keeping will use a simple format that will enable consolidation, analysis and decision-making with regard to nature and focus of future inputs on a monthly basis.

IV- Professional Development: Running a Team Meeting

No doubt meetings have achieved a sour reputation, but at the same time there's a great deal of power emerging from a meeting that's run well, including effective group decisions, solid action points, **professional development**, team cohesion, and steps towards crafting an even better school. How then can we get the most out of our meetings?

What Makes <u>Professional Development</u> Meetings Necessary?

In this era we possess dozens of ways to send messages and share ideas with one another. But meetings – the act the meeting physically in the same room – create a space where we can speak directly to one another at the same time, read each other's body language, share notes and materials, and generally have concord and unity in a way that other forms of communication just can't replicate. It's difficult to put a quantitative value on face-to-face communication, but being together greatly impacts our ability to communicate and build positive relationships with one another.

<u>The Must-Dos for Teacher Meetings</u>

You're busy. Your <u>colleagues</u> are busy. We do not want to add one more element to our schedule unless we sense there is inherent value in what we're meeting for. Follow all of the recommendations below to ensure that you are maximizing the use of yours and your colleague's time if you're in the position of organizing a meeting for a team.

Do not love meetings. Meetings should be enjoyable experiences, but not valuing the process over the product.

Have an objective. Every meeting should have a rock-solid goal.

Are there alternatives? If alternatives – like sending e-mails, working with shared documents, or scheduling short one-on-ones – work better, than ditch the meeting.

Have an agenda. If an objective is your destination, then an agenda is your roadmap.

Be organized. The better equipped you are, the better prepared your team is to move forward.

Encourage voices. Make sure that everyone feels comfortable sharing their perspectives, and even directly ask some quieter participants what they're thinking.

Have an outcome. You should have your tangible outcome achieved by the time the meeting is dismissed.

Keep records. Keep a record of the items that are discussed and the courses of action. Even keep track of who was present or absent.

Respect the clock. Set a finishing time for each meeting, and make sure that you end on or before that time.

After the Meeting

After the meeting, try some of the following to make sure that your team stays on the same page after they leave the conference room:

- **Send out notes/minutes.**
- **Communicate results to interested parties.**
- **Touch base with participants one-on-one.**
- **Send out follow up e-mails or notes.**
- **Schedule another meeting.**

  After all, as teachers we're responsible for running our classrooms in a positive and productive manner; it only makes sense that when it comes to working together, we'll employ the techniques most conducive to helping us achieve those desired outcomes.

The Foundation for Effective School Faculty Meetings

Either prior to or at the beginning of the school year, you must

- Communicate the purpose of faculty meetings.
- Collaborate with staff on developing norms for expected behaviour.
- Create faculty "base teams."

Faculty Meeting Roles

The following are the three most common roles at faculty meetings:

- **The facilitator**
- **The recorder**
- **The timekeeper**

Whether these roles are permanent or rotate is up to you.

Developing the Meeting Agenda

A quality meeting agenda should include the following:

- The overall purpose of the meeting in one or two clearly written sentences
- A note on who is required to attend
- The projected time span of the meeting
- The location of the meeting
- Any special resources that participants should bring
- Any advance preparation that is required
- The names of the recorder and timekeeper for the meeting
- Agenda items, preferably including questions to encourage advance reflection along with the projected time span for discussing each item

Effective Team Meetings Require Effective Team Members

"Knowing is not enough; we must apply. Willing is not enough; we must do."—*Goethe*

On a team, leadership is shared. Members rotate roles and everyone takes responsibility for accomplishing shared goals. Members lead one another and improve the meeting's quality when they:

- Establish **mutual goals.**
- **Communicate** ideas and feelings accurately and clearly.
- Encourage other members to **actively participate**.
- **Influence each other**.
- Match **decision-making** procedures with needs of the situation.
- Engage in **constructive controversy.**
- Adopt a "we instead of me" approach.
- Stay aware of the team's **task goals and time**.
- Establish **interpersonal relations**.

Conclusion

The skills of managing team meetings are fundamental to productive teamwork and usually easy to learn and simple to adopt. The way to a well-facilitated meeting that promotes open communication, creativity, and consensus-building among its members is "Practice, practice, practice!"

Localization of Training & School Based Professional Development

Recent efforts to improve educational quality in many countries have focused on improving teacher quality. But what is teacher quality? How do we recognize and define it? And, most importantly, how are the conditions created that encourage teacher quality to grow? Here we are discussing an important aspect of quality of teachers and teaching and presenting a perspective on why in-service teacher professional development programs that take place primarily at the local level—in schools and clusters of schools—are increasingly favored and implemented by many countries.

The argument is made that the changing structure and location of many in-service programs is driven by two fundamental paradigm shifts within the education sector:

(i) The shift in approaches to both student and teacher learning from passive to active learning.

(ii) The shift to more decentralized forms of authority, activity, and agency. Several elements have come together in recent years that have created the environment for change and led to a greater awareness of the critical importance of effective and motivated teachers. They include :

- ƒ Widespread curriculum reforms that emphasize active learning.
- ƒ Accompanying necessity of rapid and effective teacher change.
- ƒ Growing realization of the central role of teacher quality in educational quality.
- ƒ Career-long ongoing teacher professional development increasingly viewed as a necessity to improve teacher quality and therefore educational quality.

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- *ƒ* Rapid expansion of student enrollments requiring much larger numbers of teachers and the necessity of finding ways to prepare and support relatively inexperienced or "unqualified" teachers.
- *ƒ* Declining quality as a consequence of rapidly expanding quantity of education in the absence of sufficient resources.
- *ƒ* Consequent necessity that governments and donors to invest in increased teacher quality.

Within this context, policy makers in education are searching for ways to ensure that teachers

(i)   understand the meaning of reforms

(ii)   know the (often new) subject matter they teach

(iii)   engage students in a range of appropriate new learning experiences.

(iv)   work with increased professionalism and high morale.

In response to this challenge, many countries are turning to ongoing localized school and cluster-based in-service programs as the primary means of professional support for teachers. These teacher in-service programs follow a wide variety of patterns such as groups of teachers working together to improve their practice at single schools, teachers working together in clusters of several (or many) schools, or combinations of the two. Frequency of meetings varies widely. In some programs teachers meet only a few times a year. In others teachers meet weekly.

Localized programs often exist side-by-side with traditional centralized in-service programs that often focus on upgrading of qualifications, while localized programs focus on updating with new information and skills. School-based and Cluster Teacher Professional Development Programs conducted at the school or cluster level are usually highly practical and participatory. Facilitation is most frequently carried out by the teachers themselves, with the support of materials or modules that combine information on new approaches with suggestions for reflection and action.

The content of programs is often based on experience sharing among teachers combined with core content based on a country's curriculum reform program and required new approaches to teaching and learning. Programs are supported by a variety of teacher-learning materials and facilitation guidelines including printed materials, multimedia kits, and sometimes Internet-based programs. Programs are most frequently organized and supported by district offices working together with colleges of teacher education and local supervisors.

School-based and cluster in-service programs tend to be very popular with teachers who are accustomed to receiving little professional attention and working in isolation. Teachers welcome information on how to understand and implement reforms for which they have no practical preparation and no available models. Teachers react positively to the opportunity to learn and to the regard for their professional worth that such programs signal. Active Learning for Teachers The shift towards school-based and cluster approaches is fundamentally related to shifts that have taken place over the last two decades in the way we think about student learning and teacher learning. The tables below compare general trends in previous and present thinking and approaches to student learning (Table 1) and teacher learning (Table 2)

Table 1 - Student Learning

Previous approaches	Present approaches
Passive learning	Active learning
Rote memorization	Use of higher-order thinking skills
Teacher centered	Student centred
Positivist base	Constructivist base

Table 2 - Teacher Learning

Previous approaches	Present approaches
• Goal is teachers who are competent in following rigid and prescribed classroom routines. • Teachers are "trained" to follow patterns.	• Goal is teachers who are reflective practitioners who can make informed professional choices. • Teachers are prepared to be empowered professionals.

• Passive learning model. • Cascade model – large centralized workshops or programs . •"Expert" driven . • Little inclusion of "teacher knowledge" and realities of classrooms. • Positivist base	• Active and participatory learning model. • School-based model in which all teachers participate. • ƒ Teacher facilitated (with support materials) • Central importance of "teacher knowledge" and realities of classrooms. • ƒ Constructivist base

As the tables above illustrate, approaches to teacher learning have changed in ways that are similar to the changed approaches to student learning. Previously the primary goal was to produce teachers who were competent in carrying out prescribed classroom procedures and in "transmitting" or "delivering" knowledge to students. The knowledge base of teacher learning was often defined and delivered in large scale workshops by teacher training "experts" with minimal inclusion of teachers' own knowledge and experiences of their school and classroom realities

Finally, for a professional development activity to be effective, teachers have to be convinced it is going to benefit their pupils' learning. '… teachers, in particular, and heads tend to operate based on the 'practicality ethic' - does it work for my pupils in my classroom, or for my pupils in my school?' Teachers described good and bad CPD in the following terms:

- good CPD: learning, co-constructing, internal, interactive, challenging, optional, ongoing, individual/ group needs-based

- bad CPD: teaching, judging, external, passive (esp. PowerPoint), patronizing, forced, mass needs based, one-off.

Recommendations and suggestions

1. The changing of attitudes of the educationalists towards the concept of School Based Teacher development.

2. Autonomy and support for successful school based management efforts.

3. Empower schools to develop the ownership

4. Implementation of School Based Teacher Development Programmes.

5. Establishment of "Teacher Professional Development Committee. (TPDC)

6. Appointment of "School based teacher developers"

7. Enforcing and implementation of the "Principal Service" and "Teacher Service" Acts.

8. Develop and expand "Quality Circles"

9. Selection of best practices from teachers at school level

V_ What is Action Research?

"A comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action" that uses "a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action". Action research process embarks on a problem finding, and then formulating possible actions for the problem, applying an action, and finally evaluating on the outcome of the action. These activities go round in a circle. Sometimes, we should repeat the process until we can get the desired behaviour.

Action research can be done in any situations, including a classroom. Action research can range from a small-scaled research to a very meticulous one. It can either apply a quantitative or a qualitative approach, or both. The result of the research can be anything (a success or a failure of the action). The methods of gathering data can be as simple as an observation to more complex one like a questionnaire.

Why Action Research?

Maybe the answer is; "Why NOT?". It is very advisable for teachers that they know how to conduct action research. By doing action research a teacher is actually developing him/herself. Why so? As suggested in Lewin's definition about action research, the research is done in a series of planning, execution, and evaluating the feedback of action. Therefore, a teacher have to explore in his or her knowledge about how to act to solve a classroom problem. In other words, he or she will make a quest to find out the answer.

What is the relation between doing action research and professional development?

Not many teachers are likely to know what to do in classroom especially when they are faced with a problem or problems. They mostly will turn to more senior teachers for help. It does solve the problem. However, the solution given by others can not be personalized in a particular class sometimes. The teacher has to find out what was wrong and how to get it right.

In addition, doing action research can help improve the teacher's self esteem. Documented action research can be one source of solving problems. It also helps develop the teacher's repertoire. Finally, the teacher can use action research he or she has done to help others whenever they have difficulties. In short, when we help others, we help ourselves.

The Action Research Process

Educational action research can be engaged in by a single teacher, by a group of colleagues who share an interest in a common problem, or by the entire team of a school. Whatever the scenario, action research always involves the same seven-step process. These seven steps, which become an endless cycle for the inquiring teacher, are the following:

1. **Selecting a focus**
2. **Clarifying theories**
3. **Identifying research questions**
4. **Collecting data**
5. **Analyzing data**
6. **Reporting results**
7. **Taking informed action**

Step 1—Selecting a Focus

Selecting a focus, the first step in the process, is vitally important. Selecting a focus begins with the teacher researcher or the team of action researchers asking:

What element(s) of our practice or what aspect of student learning do we wish to investigate?

Step 2—Clarifying Theories

The second step involves identifying the values, beliefs, and theoretical perspectives the researchers hold relating to their focus. For example, if teachers are concerned about increasing responsible classroom behaviour, it will be helpful for them to begin by clarifying which approach they feel will work best in helping students acquire responsible classroom behaviour habits.

Step 3—Identifying Research Questions

Once a focus area has been selected and the researcher's perspectives and beliefs about that focus have been clarified, the next step is to generate a set of personally meaningful research questions to guide the inquiry.

Step 4—Collecting Data

Professional educators always want their instructional decisions to be based on the best possible data. Action researchers can accomplish this by making sure that the data used to justify their actions are *valid* and *reliable*. Lastly, before data are used to make teaching decisions, teachers must be confident that the lessons drawn from the data align with any unique characteristics of their classroom or school. To ensure reasonable validity and reliability, action researchers should avoid relying on any single source of data.

Step 5—Analyzing Data

During this portion of the seven-step process, teacher researchers will methodically sort, sift, rank, and examine their data to answer two generic questions:

- *What is the story told by these data?*
- *Why did the story play itself out this way?*

By answering these two questions, the teacher researcher can acquire a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation and as a result can end up producing grounded theory regarding what might be done to improve the situation.

Step 6—Reporting Results

It is often said that teaching is a lonely endeavor. It is doubly sad that so many teachers are left alone in their classrooms to reinvent the wheel on a daily basis. The loneliness of teaching is unfortunate not only because of its inefficiency, but also because when dealing with complex problems the wisdom of several minds is inevitably better than one. Faculty meetings and teacher conferences are among the most common venues for sharing action research with peers.

Step 7—Taking Informed Action

Taking informed action, or "action planning," the last step in the action research process, is very familiar to most teachers. When teachers write lesson plans or develop academic programs, they are engaged in the action planning process. What makes action planning particularly satisfying for the teacher researcher is that with each piece of data uncovered (about teaching or student learning) the educator will feel greater confidence in the wisdom of the next steps. Although all teaching can be classified as trial and error, action researchers find that the research process liberates them from continuously repeating their past mistakes.

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Classroom Observation

The Role of Classroom Observation in Professional Development

Preparing teachers for their new jobs is impossible without observation as the core for professional development. On the behalf of the trainee teachers, observation by peers helps in pinpointing areas of need for development; and on behalf of students, the teacher needs observation to observe and trace their performance and achievement of activities. Turn taking, pair teaching and team working are possible applications for observation in classroom. Observation is the powerful tool for fact-finding of events in the class room on the level of teacher-performance and students' performance. Observation is really helpful to pre-service teacher as well as in-service teachers, in addition to supporting the role of the supervisor as a teacher-trainer. All in all, the main purpose of classroom observation is developmental, not judgmental.

There is a consensus among all educational figures and decision makers on the importance of improving educational systems. They also agree on the importance of finding systems for collecting data about all educational related issues from teachers, students, parents, and the community. Among and most important of these issues is finding a system for enhancing and implementing the qualitative development in this educational process inside classrooms, which is through a system of constructive progressive feedback about educational practices inside classes. This system or set of practices are called classroom observation. So, Classroom Observation is a process of measuring classroom behaviours including classroom sessions, teacher's performance, and student's reactions. This process is not limited to the class session itself or class sessions, but extends from before the class session at the preliminary meeting to post-class session and final meeting. The data that is collected from this process is a reflection of what is going on in the educational process. All the data and information gathered, analyzed or interpreted have one role to play in the educational process: Professional development.

✚ <u>Purposes of Classroom Observation</u>

There are many benefits for the classroom observation process. It can "(1) permit researchers to study the processes of education in naturalistic settings; (2) provide more detailed and precise evidence than other data sources; and (3) stimulate change and verify that the change occurred".

Classroom observation has many important purposes. The most important among the many purposes is the development and enhancement of teachers' performance and techniques based on the feedback and collected data during observation sessions. Besides that, observation helps the teacher in forming a better understanding of the educational process and of language teaching, whether he acts as the observer or the observee.

Classroom observation helps in describing the reality of a school or classroom, so that the collected data can be used in several ways: When gathered in conjunction with performance testing, classroom observations can add to the interpretive power of the statistical analysis. The collected data can be a pointer to the achievement of goals. It can also play a role of finding out the wrong practices that prevent achieving the expected outcomes; at that time, it is possible to find remedies to improve outcomes.

One of the essential roles of classroom observation practice is to enable teachers learn to observe. When they are the observees, they can learn from the constructive feedback of the visitor or observer as he/she is supposed to be more knowledgeable and experienced. In cases of peer-observation, the observer and observee are working on exchanging views and data for improving performance. While taking the role of the observer, the teacher watches the teaching process from a different perspective and learns how to observe from outside. This in turn will enable him/her learn how to observe oneself during one's own classes and performance.

While performing, a teacher might not be able to point out defects in his/her performance. Another pair(s) of eyes would help a lot in pinpointing those defects and might suggest more methods for improvement and development. In this way, the teacher refines his/her preparation of materials and methods of teaching. Then, this will reflect on the educational process and the outcomes at large.

There are so many purposes and benefits for the observational process of classroom performance; however, the mentioned ones above are the most important and relevant ones to the teaching / educational process in Kuwait. Therefore, the focus is put on the professional-development-related aspects of classroom observation.

To ensure the best outcomes and advantages of the process, it is advisable to be objective and collaborative, not subjective and judgmental. There are many things to take into consideration while implementing this process, which will be covered in more details below. Yet, the process should be clarified at the beginning for clarity of view.

Context of Classroom Observation:

No one can blame a newly recruited teacher for his/her incompetency if he/she hasn't obtained the suitable training. In order to achieve the proper context of teacher preparation for classroom observation and development, he/she should undergo three stages:

1) Pre-service training.
2) In-service training.
3) Post-service training/ development.

Pre-service training takes place prior to graduation of the student from college or directly after graduation and before joining work. While during service is meant for appointed teachers who are either newly recruited or having a defect in their performance that needs modification and improvement. Post-service training is meant for teachers or teacher trainers in special centres in the aim of providing professional development for them

Observational Process:

The classroom observation is a multi-session process. It is not only limited to the class visit and data collection during that visit; otherwise it is futile and no longer developmental. The process, as it is supposed to be implemented, starts at the pre-

observation stage. It continues during observation sessions or visits till it reaches the final stage of follow-up.

The pre-observation stage is a meeting between the observer and observe plays an effective role in the observational process. It has great benefits on both sides, such as:

1. It helps the observee to get rid of his/her fear of observation and the observer.

2. It provides the observer with information about the class he/she is going to attend and what to focus on during the visit.

3. The pre-observation discussion allows the observee to request and benefit from the feedback on certain areas of performance that he/she feels need for improvement.

4. It gives a sense of cooperation between the observer and observee.

5. It is considered an opportunity for the observee to talk about the class, the students, areas of need, teaching methods he/she adopts…etc.

6. On the other hand, it enables the observer to have a prior understanding of the observee, the class and the process of teaching taking place.

7. When settling the points of focus for the visits, both - the observer and observee- will concentrate on the items required and to skip the minor weaknesses for the more important issues.

That's why pre-observation conference is highly evaluated and recommended.

🔶 During Observation Visits/Sessions:

The observer should take notes of what happens in the class including teacher's performance, student's response, teaching methods, and the learning environment. An observer should keep in mind the stage that the observee teaches, because the elements to focus on differ from one stage to another. In the primary stage, the observer can't focus on some silly behaviour from pupils as you might take it into consideration in the secondary stage. During the visit, the observer should collect information and write notes about the following:

Organization of the lesson, time management, students' performance, procedures, students' interaction, teacher's questions, students' responses, teacher's language,

teacher's explanation and presentation, teacher's interaction with learners, pair/group-work activities, class control, use of textbook and other teaching aids, learning environment, teacher's personality, command of the language, class management, integration of the four skills, and many other aspects.

♦ **Follow-Up/Post Observation Stage:**

The observer, at this stage, should review the notes before finalizing them, to ensure authenticity and accuracy. He/she should point out areas of excellence and the ones that need improvement. Here, there should be a meeting between the observer and observee to discuss the notes. The observer might ask the observee about his/her own opinion of the lesson he/she introduced. The observer might ask questions like:

1. From your own perspective, how did your class go?
2. What are the areas of good performance in your class?
3. What are the things that you would like to modify?
4. If you're given the chance, what things would you focus on?

Then, they should try to find the bases for agreement on areas of need to improve and the ones of good performance to assess. Then a summary of all the process should be written and signed by both: The observer and observee. They might agree as well on the best ways of performance development and suggest new ideas for improving conduct.

♦ **Types of Observers:**
- Teachers.
- Teacher trainer (Supervisor).
- Trainee teacher (Novice).
- Trainee trainer (Trainee supervisor).

✚ __The Advantages of Types Of Observers:__

- Advantages Regular Observation:

It is the type of observation that takes place when a new pre-service recruit or a new in-service teacher observing the senior teachers' classes. The most important advantage of this type of observation is that it creates a certain formal relationship and neat concern for picking out all process elements. That's why it might be judgmental. However, the observer here is provided with models of teaching and training, a lot of sessions and experiences.

- **Advantages of Peer Observation:**

Peer observation takes place between peer teachers, mostly teaching the same stage. They might relatively have the same professional experience. It is a very good chance for exchanging views, experience and feedback. It helps in creating a strong relationship with no formalities. Thus, they are able to discuss all ideas and evaluative comments freely.

- **Advantages of classroom observation:**

☞ Develop self-awareness.

☞ Think critically of classroom performance.

☞ Grow professionally.

☞ Build self-confidence.

☞ Learn from peers.

☞ Improve personal teaching methods.

☞ Improve classroom practice and performance.

☞ Evaluate teaching.

☞ Learn to observe.

☞ Focus on one's own areas of need for improvement.

☞ Collect data to be able to describe, analyze & interpret classroom interaction..

☞ Gain insight of the teaching process and one's own performance.

☞ Develop research skills.

☞ Offer Teachers feedback.

☞ Offer Teachers an extra pair of eyes.

☞ Encourage collaboration and exchange of ideas.

☞ Encourage better lesson preparation.

☞ Provide support.

Tips for Observers:

Observers should be very careful about the way they deal with observees and their own feelings towards their performance. They'd better adhere to the following recommendations:

a- Be objective, not subjective.

b- Be supportive, not judgmental.

c- Build a bridge of trust with the observee.

d- Look for positive items to assess first.

e- Bring about negatives in a decent smooth way.

f- Suggest alternatives and make discussions about areas for improvement.

g- Be careful not to be inconsiderate, or unhelpful.

h- During the first visit, monitor personal impressions.

i- Don't get involved in extensive data collection immediately upon arrival.

j- Don't play the role of an evaluator.

k- Keep a diary to record your own impressions.

What Types of Teaching Practices Should Observational Tools Assess?

There is now strong empirical evidence regarding a variety of teaching practices that can, and should, be the focus of classroom observations intended to measure and enhance teacher performance. A key ingredient of any classroom or school environment, with regard to learning and development, is the nature and quality of interaction between adults and students. Although other factors, such as curriculum, teacher planning, and parent involvement, are important – it is students' daily experiences in the classroom, with teachers and peers, that have the greatest influence on how much they are able to learn. There are three broad domains of teaching practice that are linked to positive student outcomes: social/emotional support, organization/management support, and instructional support. Mounting empirical

evidence suggests that attending to each of these domains of teaching helps to fully understand the impact of classroom experiences on student performance. The descriptions provided below are derived in large part from one particular observational tool, the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS), but they reflect the types of teacher behaviours and practices measured in many classroom observation systems. Importantly, empirical evidence suggests that when teachers use these types of practices, students learn more.

Key Concept – Content of Observations

Be intentional about your choice of content of observations. One possible conceptualization directs observers to focus on the nature and quality of teacher practices within three broad areas: Social/Emotional Support, Management/Organizational Support, and Instructional Support.

Social and Emotional Supports: As a behavioural setting, classrooms run on interactions between and among participants. It is not an overstatement to suggest that most children and adolescents live for their social relationships. Students who are more motivated and connected to teachers and peers demonstrate positive trajectories of development in both social and academic domains. The types of teaching practices that may be observed under this domain include:

• Classroom Climate – In classrooms with a positive climate, teachers and students are enthusiastic about learning and respectful of one another. Teachers and students have positive relationships with each other and clearly enjoy being together and spending time in the classroom.

• Teacher Sensitivity – Teachers are sensitive when they consistently respond to students and are effective in addressing students' questions, concerns, and needs. Teaching sensitively includes having an awareness of individual students' academic and emotional abilities in a way that allows teachers to anticipate areas of difficulty and provide appropriate levels of support for all students in the classroom.

 • Regard for Student Perspectives – Teachers who value student perspectives provide opportunities for students to make decisions and assume leadership roles. They make

content useful and relevant to students, make sure that student ideas and opinions are valued, and encourage meaningful interactions with peers and opportunities for action.

Organizational and Management Supports: In the education literature focused on teaching and teacher training, perhaps no other aspect of classroom practice receives as much attention as classroom management and organization. Management of time and of students' attention and behaviour is an area of great concern to new and experienced teachers; teachers often request that observations and feedback focus on this aspect of their practice. Classroom organization and management is an indicator of teacher competence in that well-organized and managed classrooms facilitate the development of students' self-regulatory skills. These skills are a necessary component of building academic competence - students must learn how to regulate their own attention and behaviour in order to get the most out of instruction and activities. The types of teaching practices that contribute to effective management/organization include:

• Behaviour Management – Students are most likely to behave appropriately in the classroom when rules and expectations are clearly and consistently communicated. Behaviour management works best when focused on proactive intervention and efficient, positive redirection of minor misbehaviours. High-quality behaviour management provides students with specific expectations for their behaviour and repeated reinforcement for meeting these expectations.

• Productivity – Productive classrooms provide clearly defined learning activities for students throughout the day. The classroom looks like a "well-oiled machine" where everyone knows what is expected and how to go about doing it. Little to no instructional time is lost due to unclear expectations for students, lack of materials, time spent waiting around, or unnecessarily lengthy managerial tasks (e.g., inefficient checking of work, extended directions for a group project that take more time than the project itself).

• Strategies for Engaging Students – In effective classrooms teachers provide instruction using many modalities (e.g. visual, oral, movement), look for opportunities

to engage students in active participation, and effectively facilitate student learning during group lessons, seat work, and one-on-one time with well-timed questions and comments that expand students' involvement. Effective teachers also use strategies such as providing advanced organizers and summations to help students recognize and focus on the main point of lessons and activities.

Instructional Supports: Instructional methods have been put in the spotlight in recent years as more emphasis has been placed on the translation of cognitive science, learning, and developmental research to educational environments. It may be important to differentiate between general and content-specific instructional supports. General instructional supports are those that are relevant and observable across content areas. Content-specific instructional supports, in contrast, describe strategies for teaching students particular skills and knowledge such as reading, math, or science. For the purpose of brevity we will focus here on generalized instructional supports. The types of teaching practices that may be observed under this domain include:

• Strategies that Foster Content Knowledge – Effective teachers use approaches to help students comprehend the overarching framework and key ideas in an academic discipline. At a high level, this refers to an integrated understanding of facts, concepts, and principles rather than memorizing basic facts or definitions in isolation.

• Strategies that Foster Analysis and Reasoning Skills – Effective instructional approaches engage students in higher order thinking skills, such as reasoning, integration, experimentation (e.g., hypothesis generation and testing), and metacognition (i.e., thinking about one's own thinking). When teachers effectively foster reasoning skills, the cognitive demands of these activities rest primarily with the students, as opposed to situations when the teacher presents information, draws conclusions, etc. At the highest level, students are expected to independently solve or reason through novel and open-ended tasks requiring them to integrate and apply existing knowledge and skills.

• Strategies that Foster Knowledge of Procedures and Skills – When teaching procedures (such as mathematical algorithms, steps in the writing process or in doing

historiography, decision trees for diagnosing a medical condition, or the steps utilized in the scientific method), effective teachers clearly identify the steps of the procedure or skill, the context in which to use it, and the rationale for using it in terms of students' perspectives. They consistently present procedures and skills by anchoring them to and building on students' existing knowledge. They also provide multiple, varied, correct, age-appropriate examples to illustrate or demonstrate the use of a procedure or skill, as well as potential alternative approaches. Finally, effective teachers regularly and effectively incorporate opportunities for supervised practice prior to independent practice of new procedures and skills.

• Quality of Feedback – Students learn the most when they are consistently given feedback on their performance. Feedback works best when it is focused on the process of learning, rather than simply on getting the right answer. High-quality feedback provides students with specific information about their work and helps them reach a deeper understanding of concepts than they could get on their own. Teachers delivering high-quality feedback don't simply stop with a "good job." They engage in ongoing, back-and forth exchanges with students on a regular basis.

• Instructional Dialogue – Effective teachers intentionally provide support for the development of increasingly complex verbal communication skills. Teachers facilitate language development when they encourage, respond to, and expand on student talk. High-quality instructional dialogues also include purposefully engaging students in meaningful conversations with teachers and peers. Teachers using high-quality language modeling strategies repeat students' words in more complex forms, map actions with language, and ask follow-up questions. Students are consistently exposed to a variety of language uses and forms and are explicitly introduced to new vocabulary.

Conclusion

Teacher training is an essential aspect in developing the teaching process. This can be achieved through peer observation or regular one. The optimum benefit can be achieved through constructive, systematic classroom observation. The cornerstone in

the process is to know what you do want from classroom observation as an observer and observee.

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مع تمنياتنا لكم بالتوفيق Good luck