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EFFECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING:
A GREEK CASE STUDY

BY

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*To
My Family*

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ABSTRACT

The subject of this thesis is to investigate the classroom practices which are typically judged as effective by professionals, and to what extent Greek EFL teachers are using them effectively. This is attempted first of all through a review of the general literature on teacher effectiveness, related to current theories of language teaching.

Recent theories of language acquisition and the nature of communicative competence have important implications for classroom practice, and provide the basis for developing a 'normative' model of effective teaching (conceptualised as 'communicative' language teaching).

A number of case studies of Greek EFL teachers were conducted. Classroom observation was the main element of each case study, and COLT as a systematic observation instrument was revisited and employed as the main classroom data gathering procedure for the study of CLT, supplemented with teacher interviews and contextual data, which was collected from pupils and institutions.

Given the dearth of descriptive studies of EFL teaching in Greece, the main concern of this project is to present and discuss the extent to which the typical classroom practices of these teachers, judged as 'effective' by their fellow professionals and superiors, conforms to the CLT model, and what the professional influences are which have contributed substantially to greater and lesser degrees of 'effectiveness', as well as what the contextual factors are which have shaped their classroom behaviour.

Finally, conclusions relevant to teacher education, training, and the upgrading of more teachers to 'effective' levels of practice are drawn, and suggestions are presented and discussed to assist policy makers in their decisions towards this direction.

In spite of the fact that very little research is at present taking place in Greece, it is hoped that the results of this study will be the starting point to further empirical research.

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CHAPTER 1: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING: AN EFFECTIVE APPROACH?

1.1. Introduction

The aim of the present chapter is to define the concept of "teacher effectiveness" as used in the study, as well as to discuss about Communicative language teaching as an effective approach.

In recent years a growth of interest has appeared in the study of "effective" approaches and "teacher effectiveness". As according to Brophy and Good (1986) what constitutes "teacher effectiveness" is a matter of definition, our first attempt will be to clarify this area.

The research literature on "teacher effectiveness" offers two contrasting paradigms: a)the pragmatic or correlative, and b)the normative paradigm (Shulman, 1986).

The first defines "effective" performance as that which correlates with desirable outcomes. It is mostly used in process-product-oriented studies, especially in science (Brophy and Good op. cit).

According to the second, a given exemplar of instruction is compared to a model or conception of good teaching derived from a theory or ideology. This criterion has been used to assess the correspondence of process studies to particular models or conceptions subscribed under a particular theory or ideology (Shulman op. cit).

There are good reasons for the selection of the normative criterion in the present study.

At present, for foreign language teaching, we lack clear process-product findings which would allow us to adopt a correlative approach to defining "effectiveness". However, theories of language learning, language acquisition, and the nature of communicative competence provide the basis for developing a "normative" model of effective teaching (conceptualised here as "communicative" language teaching). There is no product to be assessed as the present study is process-oriented. Its main concern is to investigate the extent to which "effective" teachers, as judged by professionals, actually conform to the model of communicative language teaching.

Our main concern in the rest of this chapter is to study the normative model selected for the present study, i.e. communicative language teaching.

Communicative language teaching is an umbrella term, a label which characterizes a "set of ideas" (Johnson, 1982:4-5), neither having the status of a method nor the coherence and the unity of an approach, but being acceptable as a type of instruction in recent years.

It is the product of developments due to the discontent of language teachers with the previously existing methods and the effort to find a new method, serving the present needs of language teaching. All these developments have one thing in common; they intend to bring the learner into closer contact with the target language community. According to methodologists, this can only be successful through communicative language teaching.

If, according to Brumfit (1984a:23), methodology in teaching "is an attempt both to understand and to intervene in the process of language learning", communicative language teaching is a type of instruction which is in the position to support such a claim. This approach aims at understanding what people do with language forms when they communicate, and as Littlewood (1981:viii) claims, it gives an account of what learners need to learn, a piece of information needed to serve as a basis for the selection and the organization of language items and thus leads to intervention in the process of language learning through this type of instruction.

Apart from this, communicative language teaching (CLT in short) is a student-centred type of instruction, a revolutionary approach in comparison to other types of approaches through which many generations have been taught a foreign language.

So far, the discussion on CLT has been an attempt to give a global idea of what perspectives this approach opens upon language teaching. It is at this point that a number of questions start arising.

- 1) What is CLT about?
- 2) What is this approach to foreign language (FL) teaching?
- 3) What are its principles shared by professionals?
- 4) Is it a new approach?
- 5) Which are the developments that influenced this approach?
- 6) Do FL teachers use it (as they claim) in their classrooms?
- 7) If yes, how effectively is it taught?
- 8) What is the evidence given through research?

The first five questions are the concern of this chapter, whereas the last three questions are the concern of Chapter 2 and of the present research, focusing on communicative foreign language (CFL) teaching (specifically English as a foreign language) in secondary schools in Greece.

1.2. What is Communicative Language Teaching about?

It seems that theorists cannot define this term clearly so far. There have been different attempts towards a definition, but there has been no consensus leading to clarification of the terminology problem.

A serious attempt which is worth mentioning is offered by Johnson (1982). According to his point of view, there are two approaches to CL teaching: the "separationist" and the "unificationist".

The first focuses on both form and meaning, and language features are explicitly taught before being communicatively practised. The second focuses directly on

meaning and message practice, ignoring completely any presentation of linguistic forms or practice.

A key concept, generally accepted, appears to be that language teaching should not only focus on language forms, but also on "notions" (different kinds of meaning) which the learner wants to express, and "functions" to which the language can be applied (Brumfit, 1980b).

CLT is interpreted in different ways and there are many of its proponents who look at it from different angles.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) give their own interpretation, contrasting it with the audiolingual method. The major distinctive features for CLT that derive from this contrast are:

1. Meaning is paramount.
2. Dialogues, if used, centre around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
3. Contextualization is a basic premise.
4. Language learning is learning to communicate.
5. Effective communication is sought.
6. Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8. Any device which helps the learners is accepted-varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
10. Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
11. Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
15. Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.

16. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.
17. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18. Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
19. Fluent and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
20. Students are expected to interact with people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
21. The teacher cannot know exactly what language students will use.
22. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(Adapted from Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983:91-93).

The above interpretation gives a clear picture of what CLT is about, and what it offers to language teaching and learning. The fact that this approach is broadly accepted in different educational contexts and interpreted and applied in various ways, gives the practitioner a feeling of identification with it. However the existence of different interpretations (Richards and Rodgers, 1986) partly explains the confusion that exists in the area. How much do practitioners know about CLT in every educational context, so as to be able to give the right interpretations? How much can the educational context give support to such approaches and adjust them to its needs? This is one of the problems that the present research tries to explore and resolve in the Greek context.

What seems to be common for all versions of CLT is a theory of language teaching based on a model of language and language use, which tries to translate it into a design of an instructional system, taking into consideration all its parameters, such as teacher and learner roles and behaviours, classroom activities and techniques, and materials (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

According to the same source, one problem is that very little has been written by CLT advocates about learning theory, though one can draw conclusions about prin-

ciples through some communicative practices, such as real communication, meaningful tasks, and meaningful language, which it is argued can promote learning.

Thus, some theorists of second language acquisition favour the communicative use of language rather than the practising of language skills.

Others however propose an alternative theory, involving both a cognitive and a behavioural aspect, and encourage practice as a way of developing communicative skills.

There are still a lot of questions to be answered about CLT. One has to investigate whether this type of approach suits an educational system, and to what extent, as well as whether the teacher training system is effective in promoting it. Should ESL (English as a second language) and EFL (English as a foreign language) be treated in the same way? Does CLT equally suit native and non-native teachers? Are the materials appropriate to CLT? Are the students evaluated according to the approach they are instructed in?

These are questions concerning the present study which will investigate what happens in the Greek context, but they should equally be the concern of every educational context.

Since the concern of the present study is CLT in a FL context, and not an L2 context, it gives one the opportunity to attempt an answer to the question of what this approach consists of when applied to FL teaching in particular.

1.3. What is this Approach to FL Teaching?

CLT offers the potential of a renewal as it concerns FL teaching and learning. If the classroom can become "an area of cooperative negotiation, joint interpretation, and the sharing of expression" (Breen and Candlin, 1980:95), then the teacher gives

the students the opportunity for spontaneous, unpredictable, exploratory production of language (Brumfit, 1980a:95), when involved in classroom activities. If this is combined with "the opportunity of making mistakes" and the teacher's tolerance, a crucial factor in the FL classroom, the student can interact with his peers conveying his messages, without being afraid of over-correction "in the interest of developing fluent production and comprehension" (Brumfit, 1980a:126) . What is really the main point here is that if a teacher creates the appropriate conditions in the FL classroom in a communicative way, that is the student has "someone to talk to, something to talk about, and a desire to understand and to make himself understood..." (Howatt, quoted in Mitchell, 1986:5), then learning can take place in a natural way, and teaching can be effective.

The contribution of this approach to FL teaching is a shift of the focus of attention from the grammatical forms (a concern of previous approaches) to the communicative properties of the language, that is an attempt to move from an exclusive concern with grammatical forms to an equal concern with rhetorical functions (Allen and Widdowson, in Brumfit and Johnson, 1979:124). This does not mean that accuracy is to be sacrificed for the sake of fluency (a position clarified by Brumfit, 1980 a:126), but it must not inhibit the natural use of language which takes place in the classroom as students interact.

Even if there are different theoretical positions as concerns this approach, there must be some kind of consensus on basic principles. This leads to an attempt to give an answer to the next question.

1.4. What are the CLT Principles shared by Professionals?

Although professionals concerned with FL teaching interpret CLT from different perspectives, they still share in general certain broad principles:

- a broadening of the stated goals of FL teaching and learning to encompass not merely linguistic knowledge, but communicative proficiency,
- the analysis of learners' presumed FL "needs", and the specification of language learning objectives compatible with these, in behavioural terms,
- organisation of the FL syllabus at least partly on functional-notional rather than structural principles,
- a concern for a degree of individualisation of the FL syllabus, and for "learner autonomy",
- a commitment to open-ended, message-oriented use of the target language in the classroom (through the use of instructional activities such as games, problem solving, and role play, as well as through the use of the target FL for classroom communication).

(Mitchell, 1986: 5).

Although this can serve as a dogmatic basis to the Communicative Approach in the FL teaching field, and is a great support to the so called "communicative revolution", it seems to bring into memory concepts from the past. The question that arises is: are these ideas new or are they a product of the past?

This has to do with the communicative movement and its history, and it is there that one should try to find a valid answer.

1.5. Is CL Teaching a New Approach?

The history of the communicative movement may be seen as starting in the United States in the later nineteenth century, initiated by Sauveur and systematized and developed by Berlitz (Mitchell, 1986:5). According to the same source, it seems that its precursor has been the Direct Method, which dealt exclusively with adult learners and

did not find any ground in public schools, in contrast to the contemporary "communicative approach" which is dealing with both aspects of education.

Movements are always supported and influenced by theoretical developments, and the Communicative Approach has felt such influences since the first days of its life, in the mid 1970's, and it has been influential in its turn in foreign language teaching.

Communicative ability has always been the goal of FL teaching, and situational language teaching as well as the audiolingual method have been based on this idea (Littlewood, 1981:viii). It is a more thorough and explicit exploration of this goal, as well as a combination of the traditional structural view with the newer functional view of language (op.cit), which can make the Communicative Approach appear as new. This assumption leads to a further investigation of the perspectives which it derives from.

1.6. Which are the Developments that influenced CL Teaching?

A historical glance back to the few past decades gives a diversity of viewpoints on language matters.

In linguistics, the structural school of the 1940's and 1950's gave way to the generative school in the 1960's (Brown, 1980:9). The latter was influenced by the social sciences (anthropology, sociolinguistics and social psychology), towards a better understanding of language (Brumfit, 1984:25).

It was in the same period of time (the 40's and 50's) that psychologists were committed to a "behaviouristic" or even "neobehaviouristic" way of thinking, but were led further to cognitive psychology in the 60's and 70's (Brown, 1980:9).

The communicative approach to FL teaching is supported by these two theoretical positions, which have been developed in parallel and have influenced the goals and

concepts of proficiency in FL teaching. Sociolinguistics, especially, answered the question of what is to know a language with the notion of "communicative competence", whereas psycholinguistics offered the notions of "first and second language acquisition" (Mitchell, 1988:1).

The first theoretical position found a fertile ground in Europe with the work of Wilkins's Notional Syllabuses (1976), incorporated in the Threshold Level of the Council of Europe (Van Ek and Alexander, 1980) (a first-level communicative language syllabus), which has had an influence on textbooks and the design of communicative language programs in Europe. The Notional/Functional Approach is one branch leading to CLT (for a detailed and thorough discussion see Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983).

The second theoretical position created another approach, the so-called Psychological or Pedagogic (Stern, 1981), which found a fertile ground in Montreal, Canada and led to the French immersion programs.

These two approaches in a synthesis are the base for the creation of the CLT which researchers elaborate nowadays, aiming at providing L2 teachers and learners with an improved tool for creative teaching and learning.

Stern (1981:141) presents the distinction between the above approaches to CLT. According to his opinion, the first is more objective and analytical and it involves deliberate study and systematic practice. The latter emphasizes the ego involvement of the learner and his use of the language in his interaction in real life situations.

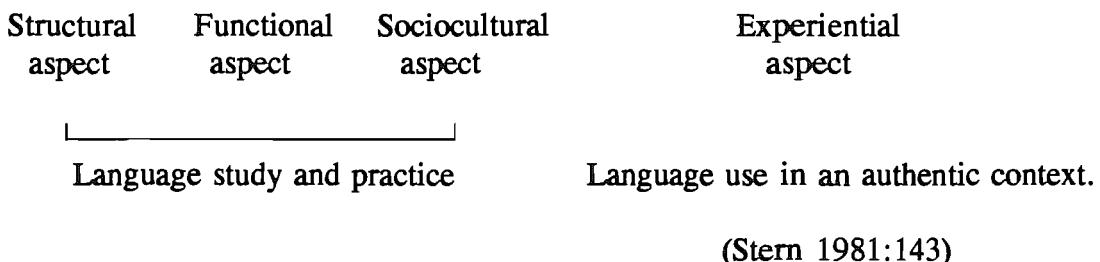
At this point the question that arises is: how can these two approaches to CLT be most effectively combined?

Allen (op.cit:142) attempts a synthesis using three aspects operating simultaneously (three levels of Communicative Competence in L2 education, see a thorough discussion on this subject in the next section):

- a) the structural (focus on language - formal features),
- b) the functional (focus on language - discourse features), and
- c) the experiential (focus on the use of language).

The two first levels present us an analytical view of language learning, whereas the third is a renewed emphasis of authentic participation in language use in a real-life context.

Taking into account the above mentioned proposal Stern (op.cit.) modifies Allen's three-level scheme, trying to interpret what we call communicative competence and presents us with his vision of the contemporary language curriculum as follows:



(Stern 1981:143)

He claims that since language operates in a sociocultural context, the latter has to be integrated in language teaching. If excluded, it seems that advances in sociolinguistics and cultural anthropology are totally ignored. This has always been a controversial issue among linguists, and there has not been any consensus. For example, there are those who claim that English is not always used in its sociocultural context, therefore there is no need for this element to be taken into consideration (debate at IATEFL Conference, University of Edinburgh, 1989). There are also those such as Stern, who claim the opposite for the above reasons. If we take into consideration the first position, we are going to agree partially, but we would ask them the question: how can for example polite forms be understood, if the user has no idea about what has been the necessity for them to be formed in this way, why this operates like this and not the other way round, and why this creates this reaction and not the other? We think that before this element is excluded, one has to answer such questions, and so, a general theory incorporating communication and culture is what a language needs to flourish.

So far our attempt has been to present a general picture of the two theoretical positions which support CLT.

Since the goal of this research is to investigate whether the communicative approach is implemented in the FL classroom and how effectively it is taught, it is necessary to go through these different theoretical positions in some more detail, so as to have a principled basis to the understanding of FL teaching and learning.

1.6.1. Communication and Communicative Competence: a Historical Development

A version of the competence/performance construct is first given by Ferdinand de Saussure in the 1916 under the terms "langue" and "parole". He claims that they are two separate phenomena independent of each other (Brown, 1980:10).

"Langue exists in the form of a sum of impressions deposited in the brain of each member of the community....Parole is... an individual act, ... wilful phonational acts." (Brown, 1980:28).

The terms "competence" and "performance" are introduced in modern linguistics by Noam Chomsky who likened competence to the knowledge of an idealized speaker-hearer, who does not display such performance variables as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, errors and hesitation phenomena such as repeats, false starts, pauses, omissions and additions. Thus, "linguistic competence is the innate knowledge of the ideal speaker-hearer which permits him to create and recognize the grammatical sentences of his language" (Chomsky, 1965, quoted in Brown, 1980:28).

In this respect, this knowledge of the system, event or fact is the non-observable, idealized ability to do something, to perform something whereas performance is the observable and concrete manifestation or realization of competence.

Chomsky refers to linguistic competence which raises the question of "the extent to which something is formally possible, feasible, appropriate, and actually performed" (Chomsky, 1965, in Brumfit, 1984a:25. See also Brumfit and Johnson, 1979:14, and Coulthard, 1985:33).

It is between 1964 and 1971 that Dell Hymes analyses the components of particular "speech events" in order to explore how appropriate they are to specific social contexts, and it is through his ethnographic approach that he is led to the development of the concept of "communicative competence" (Brumfit, op.cit.).

This is a more comprehensive view of the essential nature of speech which marks a turning point in American linguistics.

Apart from America, in Europe and especially in Britain, Firth and Halliday had taken a more semantic and social view of language that enabled its application to language teaching. (Their work can be linked to Austin and Searle's linguistic and philosophical theory of the "speech act", and especially on the sociosemantic view of language which they express (Stern, 1981:133-144). Their work also helped in the development of approaches to CL teaching).

The phenomenon of the structurally competent but communicatively incompetent student, was quite familiar to teachers of those days (see the example given by Jerome K. Jerome in 1900 about the incompetent school-leaver, quoted in Swan, 1985:39:2:76). That is, the ability to manipulate the structures of the language correctly, is only a part of learning a language. Hymes argues that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar are useless" (Brumfit, 1984a:25; Brumfit and Johnson, 1979:50; Swan, 1985: 39:1:7; and for Canale and Swain, 1980:1:1 and vice versa). He suggests that communicative competence depends on the recognition of two aspects: tacit knowledge and ability for use. That means that he makes a distinction between communicative competence and performance, and he defines Communicative Competence as the speaker's ability to produce appropriate utterances, not grammatical sentences (Coulthard, 1985:33).

From the sociolinguistic perspective Hymes's contribution has been the provision of a descriptive framework, but there is still the problem of lack of concern in showing how such rules can be realized for communicative purposes as use through empirical observations (Brumfit, 1984a:26; Widdowson, 1978:4; Crystal, 1985:59-60; Brumfit and Johnson, 1983:50).

This theory has given an insight as it concerns the distinction of competence/performance, and influenced the viewpoint on language in schools, concerning the nature of both L1 and 'L2 competence.

1.6.2. Communicative L2 Competence and its Problems

At this point, the question that arises and needs to be clarified is: what is Communicative L2 Competence?

Canale and Swain (1980) can see it as the relationship and interaction made up of three major strands:

1. grammatical,
2. sociolinguistic, and
3. strategic competence.

Canale develops this framework three years later (1983), and presents it with the following four components:

1. Grammatical competence (including phonology, orthography, vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation) is the mastery of the language code. It focuses directly on "the knowledge and skills required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances", and it represents the traditional, narrow concept of language competence, concerning the grammatical syllabuses.

2. Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to produce and understand utterances which are appropriate (in meaning and form) in terms of the context in which they are uttered. This involves a sensitivity to factors such as attitude, degree of formality, status, purpose, social convention, role and so on.
3. Discourse competence is the ability to combine meanings with unified and acceptable spoken or written texts in different genres. (By genre he means the different types of texts, that is casual conversation, scientific report, argumentative, news broadcast, narrative, newspaper articles and so on). It is concerned with cohesion (grammatical links) and coherence (appropriate combination of communicative functions), that is knowledge of different speech events and the rules for relating form to function.
4. Strategic competence consists of "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies" which learners may need either to handle breakdowns in communication and their own lexico-grammatical inadequacies or to enhance the effectiveness of communication. These are ways of coping with grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and performance difficulties.

As it concerns discourse competence, Widdowson (1978) claims that it is a different category from the previous ones, whereas some writers include it under grammatical or sociocultural competence. Canale and Swain (1980) for example, admit that it is not clear to them if discourse competence can be a different strand or that they have to consider cohesion under grammatical competence and coherence under sociolinguistic competence.

Recent research by Guo Jian Sheng (Maley, 1986) consisting of the analysis of Chinese undergraduate students' compositions gave proofs of failure in the strand of discourse competence.

As a conclusion to the communicative competence problem, it can be said that professionals are doubtful if it can be taught to learners. The reason is multidimensional, for example, theories and approaches are inconsistent, the results of researches are most of the time conflicting because of the multidynamic nature of the process of learning and the large number of variables involved in it, it is not known how learners learn a language, what their linguistic proficiency is, their motivation, their intelligence, their psychology, what they actually need to learn and so on.

All these problems and many others arise from the lack of clarity in the theoretical ground. Nevertheless, the concept has contributed a lot to FL teaching as it concerns syllabus design and classroom methodology.

1.6.3. Syllabus Design

Syllabus design is also an area of competing models as its definition is concerned with something that has only recently attracted attention. Not until 1970, had there been a substantial literature on second/foreign language syllabus design.

In Britain "syllabus" refers to the content or subject matter of an individual subject, whereas "curriculum" refers to the totality of content to be taught and aims to be realized within one school or educational system. In the U.S.A. both terms tend to be synonymous.

Generally, however, the term "syllabus" deals with the content to be taught and its arrangement. It is typically characterised by considerable stability as it concerns its principles, in contrast to the continuous development of methodology.

As Wilkins (1983:82) points out, the traditional principle of exposing the learners to one part of the grammatical system at a time (grammatical syllabus), that is its focus on structures, was argued to be the cause for lack of communicative competence, although there are writers (Swan, 1985:77-78) who claim that it is false to

accuse older courses of concentrating on form at the expense of meaning. Nevertheless, they admit that grammatical syllabuses fail to provide the necessary conditions for the acquisition of communicative competence.

Another view on the organisation of language courses which followed the previous grammatical one, is the situational syllabus. It is based on the concept that language occurs in a social context and thus, cannot be separated from it when taught. It is a learner-based syllabus, and according to Wilkins (1983:83), it is based on predictions of the situations in which the FL learner is going to operate.

The central idea in CLT is probably that of a semantic syllabus, where meanings are given priority over structures, and items are taught together if they belong together semantically, even if they are structurally quite diverse (Swan, 1985:39/2: 78). In such syllabuses, semantic or notional principles guide the selection of the grammatical means by which the relevant notions are expressed (Wilkins, 1983:85).

How can one design the appropriate course for the appropriate students? Which are the factors to be taken into account so as to come up with the result of an effective decision-making for FL teaching?

The view has developed in recent years that before such decisions can be made, it would be better to try towards a specification of objectives and an analysis of the learners' needs.

1.6.3.1. Objectives and the Principle of Needs Analysis

The development of communicative syllabuses led towards a concern for behavioural objectives.

Johnson (1982) points out the necessity of an identification of notions and functions, useful to particular groups of learners. This can only be achieved by analyzing their needs.

Richterich (Johnson, 1982) defines "language needs" as "the requirements which arise from the use of a language in the multitude of situations which may arise in the social lives of individuals and groups".

In the early seventies, the Council of Europe Modern Languages (MLs) Project consisting of applied linguists from different European countries started working on a project that deals with the diagnosis of the language needs of learners in order to create a curriculum of notions, functions and discourse features (Stern, 1981).

Through the production of the "Threshold Level" and "Un niveau-seuil", the English and the French school versions for a minimum level of foreign language competence, there has been an effort to apply these ideas in school language learning (Mitchell, 1986). Later, "Waystage" appeared as a lower level to the previous one. Nevertheless, since 1975 the most complete and complex needs analysis framework has been developed by Munby (Johnson, 1982).

This process has not been without problems however. Thus, it is difficult to predict which notions or functions the FL learner is going to be in need of using in his everyday communication. The risk of creating a long list of uneven value is always apparent, and according to Brumfit (1987), it can only stand as a substitute for a syllabus.

1.6.3.2. The Fundamentals of Syllabus Construction

According to Dubin and Olshtain (1986), general goals (curriculum) must be translated into objectives (syllabus or instructional plans). Thus, it is clarified that a curriculum provides a statement of policy, while a syllabus specifies details of course

content. Language content, process and product constitute the three basic components of any instructional plan. Once the content of the syllabus has been selected, the next step is to select a suitable format as linear, modular, cyclical, matrix or story-line format.

The communicative approach alters and expands the components of existing syllabuses in terms of language content, course products and learning processes (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986).

1.6.3.3. Notional-Functional Syllabuses

This type of syllabus presents a set of lessons organized around certain functions, acts, or rules of conversation, with the aim to establish the communicative competence of individuals (Brown, 1980).

It appears under the term of "notional" or "notional-functional" and it is a recent form of a content-based syllabus, conforming to the traditional definition of a syllabus being an organized statement of content of things to be learnt.

Substitution of functional for structural content has created the necessity of needs analysis in syllabus design which contributes information before and during the course. Since the principles of needs analysis are sociolinguistically based, procedures involving the user community and the learner have evolved, a great number of which overlap with evaluation procedures. There are many similarities between needs analysis and evaluation procedures. They both are concerned with informing decision-making about the aims, objectives, content and method of a learning programme. According to White's opinion (1988), needs analysis is not a pre-course stage but an on-going process providing feedback to both learners and teachers according to which succeeding stages of the programme can be modified and thus needs analysis can make provision for an important aspect of education, the unexpected outcomes.

Is this type of a syllabus better than the structural one?

This seems to be the case, because the latter has its focus on grammar without any practical application of the grammatical features in real situations. It is supposed that grammar has to serve notions or functions and not the opposite, because the purpose of language is functional communication among human beings.

It is claimed that this type of a syllabus develops communicative competence within the actual design of the syllabus itself. The truth is however that it presents language as an inventory of notional rather than structural units, but still isolates elements of language (Brown, 1980).

Widdowson, quoted in Brown (1980:204), notes that: "Communicative competence is not a compilation of items in memory but a set of strategies or creative procedures for realizing the value of linguistic elements in contexts of use, an ability to make sense as a participant in discourse, whether spoken or written, by the skilful deployment of shared knowledge of code resources and rules of language use".

This enables one to draw the conclusion that this syllabus may not deal with discourse itself, though it surely deals with the components of discourse, and promotes an understanding of how learners can acquire the ability to manipulate the discourse features of a second language.

Maybe the functional-notional syllabus is not the final solution to the problem, but it contributes a lot to solving the problem of communication, being according to Brown (1980), qualitative and infinite, whereas a structural syllabus is quantitative and finite.

What does this kind of a syllabus give us?

An organization of language content by functional categories and a means of developing structural categories through the functions of language. This kind of a

syllabus, as well as other communicative syllabus types, tries to solve "the problem of closing the gap between theory and classroom practice" (Yalden, 1983:239), and multi-dimensionality containing different orientations such as functional, setting and topic suggested by Johnson (1982), leads to changes of the focus of the teaching materials, which is an advantage of such syllabuses when not frequently changed.

This approach too is not without its critics, however Swan (1985) argues that it is false to create a dichotomy of a structural versus a functional syllabus, and that the integration of eight syllabuses, i.e. functional, notional, situational, topic, phonological, lexical, structural, skills (p.80), into a sensible teaching programme can lead to successful results, and Brumfit (1981:73) accepts the fact that knowledge about functions, notions, problem-solving operations and discourse strategies is not as clear as that about grammatical systems. Therefore, the teaching of functions and notions cannot replace the teaching of grammar.

"The point about the grammatical system is that a limited and desirable number of rules enable the learner to generate an enormous range of utterances which are usable, in combination with paralinguistic and semiotic systems, to express any function. To ask learners to learn a list instead of a system goes against everything we know about learning theory". (Brumfit, quoted in Swan, 1985:39/2:79).

It seems that a syllabus is not a device for the description of language, but one that assists effective teaching (Brumfit, 1981:72). As a communicative framework it is quite helpful, but one cannot forget Yalden's worry as to what comes first when interaction starts in the FL classroom, "the chicken or the egg?" (Yalden, 1983:241). It seems there is a lot of confusion in the syllabus design area and it is reinforced by the fact that no evaluation has ever been done on any approach in actual operation except the Bangalore experiment, although research, according to White (1988) is growing into the effects of procedure on language learning in tutored settings.

The "Bangalore project", the "Bangalore-Madras Project" or the "Procedural Syllabus Project", names given to the above referred experiment because of some

comments which have appeared in the literature (the name given by Prabhu and his team is "Communicational Teaching Project"), has got as its stimulus the pedagogic intuition that the development of competence in a second language requires the creation of conditions in which learners engage in an effort to cope with communication. The focus of the project is on grammatical competence itself, which is hypothesized to develop in the course of meaning-focused activity, and the methodology which developed is a task-based teaching (Prabhu, 1987). It is stated by Prabhu himself that a simple syllabus is preferred to a sophisticated one because the more enriched as it concerns the content a syllabus is in the sense of "detail", the less exposure to language the learner is likely to get.

Teachers competence plays an important role in task-based teaching but while most of the teachers are non-native speakers of English, and there is a variation in their competence, pedagogy has more to gain by seeking to benefit from what competence teachers have than by trying to safeguard against teachers' competence (Prabhu, 1987).

This experiment alone is not enough, and more research is needed in the syllabus design area.

Meanwhile, the most important point to start safely with seems to be clarification of teaching aims, a broad view of language teaching with the selection of a good syllabus and the devotion of an excessive amount of time and effort to the selection and ordering of the content, as well as the principles and procedures of curriculum studies, and the application of principles of effective management (White, 1988).

Yalden (1983) agrees on the seeking for principles and their importance for the organization of programs, as well as the necessity for procedures, consistent with the theories to which they subscribe.

Criteria for the selection of a syllabus must be the age, the educational background and learner's expectations, apart from the fact that language policy has an effect on

what language is taught, to whom and for what purposes. Empirical research is also expected to give a clear picture of what syllabus is the appropriate in different circumstances. For the moment, syllabus design offers the teachers a flexibility of methodology during the program, something that Yalden (1983) calls a "segmented" syllabus offering a pragmatic solution until theoretical advances which are going to lead towards new insights.

1.6.3.4. Communicative Competence and its Influence on FL Teaching Methodology

Communicative competence has had a great influence on language teaching and learning and there is no need for other proofs than the changes made in the educational beliefs and teaching methods. CLT is claimed by its advocates to be an effective approach, and communicative competence can serve as a basis for its development, as already pointed out at the introduction of this chapter. Classroom practices can be compared to this "normative" model of effective teaching (that is CLT), and remedial work can follow, based on the evaluation of the process, which is the concern of the present study for EFL in the Greek context. After all, if communicative competence cannot be taught, it can at least be promoted.

First of all, the teacher's communicative competence in the second language must be of a very high level. (It is however doubtful if teacher training nowadays provides for high levels of communicative competence or "stresses the components of communicative competence and the view of language emphasis on use" (Canale and Swain, 1980).)

Then responsibility must be given to learners because learning becomes more effective in this way, motivation increases through problem-solving and engages the cognitive and affective resources of the learners (Maley, 1986). There must be a serious selection of textbooks supporting the learner's conscious effortful learning, as well as their unconscious learning without effort.

The learner's errors must be treated with tolerance and be considered as a normal part of language learning (Brumfit and Roberts, 1983). The learners will improve towards this direction through communication, not by constant corrections.

A holistic processing must be adopted, taking meanings first as "wholes" and later analyzing them into parts, that is from top down (Maley, 1986), and not as it used to be in the past from bottom up.

The adopted methodology will be the communicative one (tasks designed through structures and functions) and the texts authentic or modified-authentic.

It would be better to adopt a variety of tasks and activities in order to have the ability to promote all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), to hold both analytical and creative thinking and cater for the right and left hemisphere, according to Slobin (1979), increase the learner's interest with "elegant, economical and aesthetically pleasing materials" (Maley, 1986), and using a relevant and not a transfer language (for eventual and hypothetical use later on).

Lastly, communicative competence can be promoted through tasks and activities beginning with the learner working alone, then engaging him in peer work and in the end making him work in groups where the social context provided for promoting learning "allows for the combined competence and skills of individuals" (Maley, 1986).

Thus, communicative competence and learning are promoted, and the learner acquires self confidence, based in the improvement of his relationship with the teacher and his fellow students.

Apart from this, language must not be used by government policy as "a means to control people" (Rosen, 1973), but a means to promote human relationships and the human spirit.

CLT is an approach that includes all the above principles, taking into consideration all the social interactions and thus, giving important insights into behaviours of both parties, that is between teacher and students. As a result, the FL classroom is rewarded with the promotion of communicative competence and learning.

1.6.4. CLT: a View through a Psycholinguistic Perspective

Another theoretical position supporting a better understanding of CLT and learning in the FL classroom is based on psycholinguistics. It offered an insight on how the individual uses and learns language, a basis which forms an essential part of a language teaching theory. Watson's classical behaviourism (a present stimulus calls forth a response) as well as Skinner's neo-behaviourism (behaviour follows a response which reinforces it, strengthening the association and leading to the learning of a habit) are theories of learning (Ellis, 1986). These theories as well as cognitive psychology (the discovery of psychological principles of organization and functioning), along with the contribution of structural linguists (Brown, 1980), contributed to the development of L1 and L2 acquisition theory in earlier decades, but have now attracted strong criticism among researchers, and a range of alternative theories have developed. It is necessary to go through L1 acquisition first, because it is has been the precursor of L2 acquisition research which is important to the present study.

1.6.4.1. L1 Acquisition: The Innateness Hypothesis

The L1 is acquired through natural exposure to the native language. In their everyday interaction with adults and under different situations, children receive a certain amount of input which they come to understand, without being necessarily able to reproduce it fully or correctly from the very beginning.

By the age of between three and a half and five, all the basic structures of their language are internalised (Littlewood, 1984, p.6), and by this stage the child is in the position to engage fully in spoken discourse.

The old belief about the child being brought into the world as 'tabula rasa', is a claim which is not any more supported by modern linguists and psychologists. Leibnitz (quoted in Chomsky, 1965, pp.51-52) claimed that truths, ideas, inclinations, dispositions, habits (this is a contradiction to behaviourism), and natural potentials are all innate. Current theories of L1 acquisition recognise that the child is in the position to understand and acquire the knowledge of a code, which he/she uses progressively more correctly. The ancient Greek philosophical position that the infant is a " $\zeta\omega\nu\lambda\sigma\gamma\omega\nu\epsilon\chi\omega\nu$ " and " $\zeta\omega\nu\pi\omega\lambda\iota\tau\iota\kappa\omega\nu$ " (a creature carrying word and concept and being social) (Klein, W. 1986, p.4), strengthens this position, as well as the importance of the interaction that takes place in the child's environment.

In the 1960s, Chomsky (Chomsky, 1965; Brown, 1980; Slobin, 1979; Smith and Wilson, 1979) created a debate with his strong nativist hypothesis according to which the child is innately predisposed to learn a language by natural exposure. This genetically determined property, called the "Language Acquisition Device" (LAD), is universal in all human beings, and is proposed to explain the complex phenomenon of acquisition. Apart from this, the claim that all languages are based on "linguistic universals", that is cut to the same pattern, supports the Language Acquisition Hypothesis. The argument in here is that languages have got their own linguistic idiosyncrasies, but at the same time they do not vary without limit, they fall into universal patterns.

Littlewood (1984, pp.6-7), tries to list some of the characteristics of the LAD:

- "1. It is specific to the human species and never fails to operate in normal human beings, from infancy to about the age of eleven.,

2. It gives children a means of processing the speech in the environment so that they can construct its underlying system.,
3. To enable it to operate so quickly, it may already contain some of the "universal" features which are found in all known languages, such as the use of word order to signal meaning, or basic grammatical relationships like that between subject and object".

Even if the universals of language support the Language Acquisition Hypothesis, it seems that this area is not still clear enough. As Ambrose Bierce says in his Devils Dictionary, "The doctrine of innate ideas is one of the most admirable faiths of philosophy, being itself an innate idea and therefore inaccessible to disproof." (in Clark and Clark, 1977, p.517), and the LAD is still not fully explained. However, the debate between nativism and empiricism has shifted in recent years towards the argument of what kind of nativism is involved in language acquisition.

Chomsky's claim about language as a syntactically organised system and nothing more than this, and the discontent that was created from this position, as well as concern with the relationship between language and general cognitive development (Macnamara, 1977), created an interest towards the pragmatic meanings and the way children acquire discourse (Clark, 1977) . This interest operated as a "reaction or antidote" to Chomsky's claim (Levinson, 1983:35), apart from the fact that as pragmatics offered a lot to developmental psychology dealing with language acquisition, in the same respect the latter started now contributing information about contexts of language acquisition and their crucial role in what is learned when (op. cit., 1983:375).

Halliday is among the first researchers to use a functional approach, studying his own child's first language. In his diary study, he deals with the development of routines of the first stage. This language of the first stage which he names "proto-language" (Halliday, 1975, p.25), has to do with the child's efforts to maintain interaction. The set of functions he suggests is:

- 1) Instrumental (dealing with the child's needs e.g. "I want")
- 2) Regulatory (controlling the behaviour of others e.g. "Do as I tell you")
- 3) Interactional (interacting with others important to him, "me and you" e.g. "Hello", "Pleased to see you", "Yes?"- Initiation to responses).
- 4) Personal (expressing his own uniqueness, "here I come" e.g. feelings of interest, pleasure, disgust, participation, withdrawal etc.).

Another two join the first set later. These are:

- 5) Heuristic (exploring the environment e.g. "Tell me why").
- 6) Imaginative (creating an environment of his own e.g. "let us pretend").

At a later stage, six months from the last two, another one is added to the existing set, characteristic of the adult's language. This is the so called,

- 7) Informative. (communicating information to someone e.g. "I've got something to tell you").

(Halliday, M.A.K. 1975, pp.19, 20, 21).

Wells (1981), in a research review into first language acquisition, points out that the child initially combines his limited linguistic resources with non-linguistic strategies, in order to communicate about objects and events that come into his own attention. After getting a good experience through frequent repetition, the child comes gradually to the point of mastering the linguistic system and all the interpersonal and ideational meanings it encodes.

Wells (1985) studied the child's L1 development and his quality of linguistic interaction, through a large-scale longitudinal study in Bristol University. He used radio microphones worn by children during a whole day in their own homes, to

record all the interaction taking place between them and the other people around them. This "limited exploration" (Mitchell, 1986, p.22), led him to findings which support the view that the adult's input facilitates the child's progress in picking up the language (Wells 1985, Hudson, 1980, p.217) . What is important is that the more the mother uses communicatively relevant input, the faster the child's speech develops. Wells argues that while children's rate of L1 learning varies greatly, the route of L1 development is very similar. Insofar as he notes differences in their speech, he claims that they "relate to more stable and long-term attributes of a kind that might better be described as differences of personality", and as such, they cannot be considered as purely developmental (op.cit., p.394) . Here he is not very clear about his claims:

".....the nature and extent of the differences relevant to first-language learning is poorly understood at present. One dimension on which children differ is in general learning ability, however that is defined. But it is not clear whether this calls for any concomitant variation in the relative emphasis given to the various functions associated with the interactions attributed to adult speakers", (op.cit., p.403).

Another kind of difference he admits may exist is in learning styles, but he bases his assumptions on L2 learning, because there is no research concerned with L1 learning towards this direction.

Carroll (1986) points out another kind of difference in L1 learning, which has to do with the linguistic structure of the L1. He bases his claim on Slobin's work, according to which Turkish e.g. is simpler than Serbo-Croatian, because the first uses inflections to express meanings, and the second uses a combination of inflections and word order. English and Italian are seen as more difficult, because of the word order they use. These differences among L1s affect children's strategies towards learning their mother tongue to some extent. What Carroll tries to pinpoint however is that "cognitive development is necessary, but not sufficient for advances in language development" (op.cit., p.335).

It seems that interaction is important for L1 acquisition, and while, as Wells (1985, p.415) claims, the child learns to communicate because of his/her predisposition, the model of language which he/she is provided with, and the feedback he/she receives on his/her own communications after these are provided by the caretakers. The parent's contribution is very important to the child's linguistic development, because they try to help him/her through different strategies to participate successfully in conversations, thus, increasing his/her motivation to communicate and find out the means to fulfil his/her intentions effectively (1985, pp.415-416). This view is supported by Carroll (1986), who through a research review agrees on the fact that "a typically shorter and grammatically simpler [speech] than speech to adults or older children" (p.341), is an "input [which] can influence development" (p.338).

Clark, J. and Clark, E. (1977, pp.320-321), refer to three things influencing the way parents talk to children.

First, they have to make sure that the utterances they use, are understood by their children as being addressed to them, and not to anybody else.

Second, after attracting the child's attention, they have to choose the right words and sentences, in order to help the child understand their message.

Third, they can use different ways in expressing what they intend to express.

They conclude by saying that children are presented with a "specially tailored model of language use, adjusted to fit, as far as possible, what they appear to understand" (op. cit., p.321).

So far, our concern has been to understand the process of L1 acquisition and the importance of interaction with fluent speakers in language development. Our understanding of L2 acquisition can be promoted if we find out that both processes resemble each other, and in particular, we can understand why interaction is one of the main features on which CLT is based on in a FL situation.

1.6.4.2. L2 Acquisition: a Different Process?

As we have seen, interest in L1 has been the precursor of L2 acquisition studies, and this seems to be what one should expect to happen from both aspects, theoretical and research.

There have been many attempts by researchers to develop a scientific theory of L2 Acquisition (or SLA for short), drawing their hypotheses from different disciplines, such as: linguistics, social psychology, sociolinguistics (including discourse analysis), psychological learning theory, and neurolinguistics (Lightbown 1984, pp.242-245), with linguistics being predominant, following the same path as L1 Acquisition.

Research on the acquisition of syntax in English (Dulay and Burt 1974, Bailey, Madden, and Krashen 1974), using as subjects learners of different ages, belonging to different L1 and L2 instructional backgrounds, has led to the view that L2 universals also exist, as it concerns syntactic development. This type of studies were product-oriented, "though strong statements about process were made on the basis of results" (Hatch 1980, p.178). The above type of research was followed by research on other linguistic characteristics such as pragmatic, discursal and interactive ones, and the so-called "interlanguage" studies started by Selinker (Corder 1981, Lightbown 1984, Mitchell 1986).

The study of interlanguage is the study of the language systems of language learners (a mixed or intermediate system of mother tongue and target language), or the study of language learners' language (Corder 1981, pp.66-67). The term "interlanguage" is thus fairly precisely defined, unlike the pre-theoretical term Second Language Acquisition.

"Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is the product of many factors pertaining to the learner on the one hand and the learning situation on the other", (Ellis 1986, p.4).

One of the most prominent theories on SLA, the so-called Monitor Model, is highly influential in CLT. The reason is that this theory has to do with the process of language acquisition and learning, that is competence and performance, as well as fluency and accuracy. The Monitor theory, evolved by Stephen Krashen in the late 1970s in the U.S.A., combines both the sociolinguistic and the psycholinguistic aspect, and attempts to answer questions on what processes of second language teaching and learning are mostly effective. CLT is based on communication through interaction, it gives attention to fluency without ignoring accuracy. Krashen favours competence and fluency, and gives a secondary, less important role to performance and accuracy, as it will be seen in the discussion that follows on his theory. Nevertheless, the Monitor theory carries important implications for effective language instruction, and the latter is the concern of this project, claiming that CLT is an effective approach. This approach was influenced by the above theories, that is why it is necessary to go through Krashen's theory as well, so as to be able to draw conclusions on what it was taken up of all these theoretical positions.

1.6.4.2.1. The Monitor Model: a Composite View of L2 Acquisition?

Krashen's Monitor Model (Krashen 1980, 1985, 1987, 1988), has been one of the most prominent theories in SLA research. It is an overall theory of SLA, according to its advocate, and it deals with the process of language acquisition, not the product. It is very comprehensive, but it has been criticized by many writers as ambitious, naive, restricted (see McLaughlin 1987, Ellis 1986, Brumfit 1984, Stern 1983), or even not a model (Klein 1986, p.29) . Krashen himself calls it a model and agrees on the point that it is easily understandable. Nevertheless, the Monitor theory created a lot of debate and raised important questions, which if receiving a valid answer, carry important implications for effective language instruction.

The whole theory is based on a set of five basic hypotheses, which try to answer questions such as: are less deliberate processes of learning more effective, and to what extent is language learning under conscious control? (Stern 1983, p.331).

1. The Acquisition - Learning Distinction

According to this hypothesis, which seems perhaps to be the most fundamental, there are two inter-related means for performers (adults) to use, in order to internalize rules of an L2: language acquisition and language learning.

L2 acquisition is subconscious and intuitive, similar to child's construction of L1 language system. The "Acquired" L2 knowledge is stored usually in the left hemisphere in the language areas, and used automatically in actual performance, where the focus is on meaning and a natural communication is taking place (Krashen 1981b, 1987, 1988).

L2 learning is the conscious construction of rules in a pedagogical context, it is usually stored at the left hemisphere (for most of the users) though not necessarily in the language area, and it is available for controlled processing.

The first is central because fluency in L2 derives from this means, the latter plays a smaller role, used only as a Monitor (mental editor) for the creation of accuracy (alterations of the output before or after the utterance has been produced).

It seems that for Krashen L2 acquisition and learning are two autonomous means of internalizing the L2 rules, and rules learned under the first or the second process can never be learned the other way around.

2. The Natural Order Hypothesis

"The acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order" (Krashen 1987, p.12), which means that some of them are acquired earlier and some others later, "irrespective of (the acquirer's) L1 background or age" (Kellerman 1984, p.99) . There are similarities between the order of acquisition in L1 and in L2, but

this order is not quite the same. The order appears to be "independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes" (Krashen 1985, p.1).

3. The Monitor Hypothesis

"Acquisition" and "learning" are used in very specific ways in L2 performance. Acquired competence, deriving from subconscious knowledge, enables us to produce utterances, and is responsible for our fluency. Learning (conscious knowledge) serves only as an editor or Monitor, and it is used to correct the output of the acquired system before oral or written production takes place, or after it (self-correction). The latter plays a limited role in L2 performance and it is responsible for accuracy. There is always the risk of disrupting communication in conversation when focusing on form. It is only necessarily under three conditions that monitoring can be used, and the case of not being fully used can be a possibility. These conditions are:

- a) the performer needs enough time to access conscious rules and use them effectively in performance,
- b) he/she needs to be focused on form or thinking about correctness (not only what to say but how to say it), and,
- c) the performer needs to know the appropriate grammatical rule.

Krashen claims that over-users (grammar victims) or under-users (non-grammar users) of monitoring are problematic cases. An optimal use of the Monitor, where conscious L2 knowledge will increase accuracy and will not interfere with communication, is desirable. This hypothesis has important implications for language teaching.

4. The Input Hypothesis

The role of the Input Hypothesis is to answer the question of how L2 can be acquired, and it has nothing to do with learning. It seems the way is only one:

"We acquire by understanding language that contains structure a bit beyond our current level of competence ($i+1$). This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information". (Krashen 1987, p.21). By "understand" he means that, "...the acquirer is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message", (op.cit., p.21).

It seems that for Krashen the route to acquisition is comprehensible input, and when this input is understood, then information about grammar in the L2 is automatically available, when the caretaker is involved in conversation. Yet, not all the input (that is more than $i+1$) is processed for acquisition. Fluency in speaking emerges from competence built up via exposure to input, when the acquirer is ready. The time needed for speech varies from individual to individual. Speech cannot be taught, deep down language is the product of the mental organ for this purpose. On the surface, there are practical variations as it concerns different sources of comprehensible input, different messages, different strategies towards obtaining input, and different languages.

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

This hypothesis deals with the relationship of affective factors to SLA. The Affective Filter controls how much input the learner has received and how much of it was converted into intake.

Personality characteristics such as high motivation, self-confidence and low anxiety, operate as affective variables promoting success in L2 acquisition. If this is the case, such acquirers will obtain more input for L2 acquisition through interaction,

because of their low filter. These affective variables if negative, can operate as a barrier to acquisition, because they block the input to reach the LAD and become acquired competence, being as such high filters. Thus, "a low or weak affective filter [allows] the input "in"", (Krashen 1987, p.33). The Affective Filter does not affect the route of acquisition, but it influences its rate of development.

1.6.4.3. The Monitor Model and its Problems

Since the Monitor theory has been the best known of all theories of L2 acquisition, it was reasonable for it to attract the researchers' attention and lead to a lot of criticism.

According to McLaughlin (1987), Krashen has reached his assumptions based on no testable hypotheses, basing them on morpheme acquisition studies and introspection. Brumfit (1987) points out that Krashen downgrades learning at the expense of acquisition. Since the case is as such, the study of these criticisms on the one hand, and the separate study of learning on the other hand, would contribute a lot towards our understanding of SLA. This kind of study would support the claim that CLT is an effective approach, since the latter engages the learner in naturalistic, experiential learning. The role of learning does not seem to be a secondary one, and an evaluation of Krashen's theory is necessary before conclusions are drawn on its implications for CLT.

1.6.4.3.1. Evaluation of the Acquisition/Learning Distinction

What is important here to point out is that Krashen (1987, p.83) states that learning does not "turn into" acquisition. Acquisition can happen where learning does not occur, input stimulates acquisition (a potential found in all human beings), and learning plays the role of a "corrector" of errors in the output, without necessarily preceding acquisition. Learning does not play a lead role in SLA, it operates like a

mental editor, a Monitor. McLaughlin (1987, p.56) claims that the distinction between acquisition and learning is not clearly defined and as such, nobody knows which of them takes place in a particular case. Krashen himself (1987, pp.86-87) accepts that learning may precede acquisition and may not even help directly. If learning does not help directly, why do we kill ourselves to improve L2 methodology for L2 classrooms and spend a lot of time on indirect methods and not on direct? Why must acquisition necessarily be separated from learning (a position not accepted by Brumfit 1984, p.318), when learning can contribute to fluency (extensive discussion in Brumfit 1987), and not learning be a developmental stage of SLA, that is one process under different stages? Why can learning not become acquisition, since there is no empirical evidence to prove the opposite? These are questions that have to be answered so as to resolve the mystery of the "black box", leading us to valid conclusions about Krashen's first hypothesis.

As from the point of view of the FL classroom where the FL is institutionalized, and which is our concern in this study, it seems that methods such as CLT are based on the interaction of fluency and accuracy. The teacher's effort to create a natural situation in the classroom, similar to the one that the FL learner was going to face if visiting the country of the target language, and the learner's effort to convey his/her messages and receive the messages of others, has not received much research attention, as proved by the literature. Krashen's descriptions cannot serve as explanations and as such, cannot help practice for the moment. To use Krashen's words, we need to relate the "theoretical model to practice" in order to "confirm aspects of practice for many teachers, aspects that were previously not linked to any theoretical work in language acquisition" (1980, p.186).

1.6.4.3.2. Problems of the Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1985) tries to draw evidence through research in support of his "input" hypothesis. He claims that "simplified" caretaker speech is not necessary for

acquisition, but he admits that simplified speech can be helpful to language acquisition.

We have already seen input modifications occurring when referring to L1, under the name "motherese". In L2 learning, this can appear through "foreigner talk" (the native speaker adjusts his/her language to the non-native learner's potentialities), or "teacher talk" in the FL classroom context.

Krashen (1981, 1985, 1987) highlights three input characteristics, which can foster language acquisition when input is provided: comprehensibility, being interesting/relevant, and not grammatically sequenced. He adds to the previous list the claim of sufficient quantity of input.

This hypothesis raises a lot of criticism, because first of all, it is unfalsifiable, and then, he seems to favour the view that "we need not teach speaking directly because speech, rather, "emerges" after the acquirer has built up sufficient competence via input"! (Krashen 1981, p.101). But learners are different in their strategies of learning and they do not need necessarily to go through a "silent period", receiving "input" passively, so as to be able to interact with others later (Swain, 1985). We do not claim that the learner does not need some time to put his/her sentences together. What we would like to point out is that if learners do not get involved in communication whenever the chance is offered to them, they are never going to be able to communicate! We should add that one cannot test if the input was comprehensible, unless taking the output into consideration. The output is tested through production which can give feedback on the success of the learner's attempt, and it is "the whole corpus of the infant's or learner's output [which] is relevant data for the description of his language systems at any point in his learning career" (Corder 1981:31).

In the FL classroom, input cannot be controlled exclusively by the teacher or by the learner himself/herself, due to different types of factors (Gaies 1983:195) either psychological (cognitive), affective or social. Krashen takes into consideration these other factors, (the Affective Filter being the affective variables as self-confidence leading to success in SLA), but he fails in giving answers to questions as to what he

defines as "comprehensible input", how much grammaticality is intuitive (not consciously learned) since there is no "elimination of incorrect intermediate forms" (McLaughlin 1987:56) in the Input Hypothesis, which method can effectively provide the learner with comprehensible input, and how intake influences language development. Guthrie (1984:38) points out that intake has to be comprehensible, but it demands active effort on the part of the learners in order to "identify and use the linguistic clues to meaning". This leads inevitably to interaction, something that Krashen seems to underestimate.

Seliger's findings (1983) support social interaction in L2 as affecting the quality and rate of SLA. The learner ("High Input Generator") who gets involved in interaction whenever he/she is given the opportunity, shows a lower percentage of errors, and is in the position to form and test hypotheses, comparing the feedback he generates by his/her interaction with his/her output. Thus, he/she can reject false hypotheses about the L2 which derive from his/her L1 influence (transfer) and develop an independent set of L2 hypotheses.

Does the learner necessarily have to attend to input in order to be able to produce language, and is input really a factor in second language development?

Ellis (1986) comes to the conclusion that even if research in this area has been of mixed success, there are strong theoretical grounds that quantity and quality of input are important, and feedback through interaction can facilitate SLA, the input being provided by all interlocutors, not excluding the learner himself/herself.

Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975:307) point out that "we should not neglect the relationship between language and communication if we are looking for explanations for the learning process".

Long and Sato (1983:283) refer to the fact that even if there is no direct evidence that communicative L2 use in the FL classroom contributes to the development of SLA, there is always indirect evidence that this is the case.

1.6.4.3.3. Implications of The Natural Order Hypothesis

There has been a confirmation of a variety of structures in child L1 acquisition with studies of morphemes, and the same has happened for English as a second language (ESL).

Dulay and Burt (1980) refer to a series of studies undertaken by them in different parts of the U.S.A, having as subjects children with different L1s (Chinese and Spanish), acquiring English as an L2.

The result was that acquisition sequences for the morpheme studies were similar to the ones of children acquiring the L1. This does not mean that the order of acquisition for L1 and L2 is exactly the same, but it is admitted that there are some similarities.

Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) argue that adults use of strategies and process of linguistic data is fundamentally similar to that of children in L2 learning. They conclude that: "We are thus faced with an interesting conclusion: adults seem to profit from instruction, an instruction that often presents the grammatical morphemes in an order different from that implied here. An interesting and testable hypothesis is that the most effective instruction is that which follows the observed order of difficulty, one with a "natural syllabus".", (op.cit., p.243).

Krashen (in Krashen and Terrell 1983:29, and Krashen 1987:14) claims that he bases his Natural Order Hypothesis on a comparison of "many empirical research studies of grammatical morpheme acquisition".

However, first of all, nine is not a satisfactory number of empirical studies (five investigating L2 learners and four investigating FL learners, commented in Ellis 1986), so as to serve as a solid basis of support for the Natural Order Hypothesis. The same happens with the very few longitudinal studies that exist for classroom SLA.

Second, the claim is based on morpheme studies only, because they are easy to study (Gregg 1984:85), their focus is on final form, and the information they provide on the acquisition process is very limited (McLaughlin 1987).

The questions that arise are:

- 1) Shall we take into consideration the order of difficulty?
- 2) Should we base our syllabuses on the order found in the studies above?

Krashen (1987:14) answers the question negatively, urging teachers to "reject grammatical sequencing in all cases where our goal is language acquisition". Since language acquisition is the target, this rejection must exist on a permanent basis. Moreover, a "grammatically-based syllabus reduces the quality of comprehensible input and distorts the communicative focus".

This reflects Krashen's current position, and in order to be able to understand why we should not follow the natural order, apart from the fact that we cannot, we have to move into his Input Hypothesis, so as to have an explanation of the learners' progress.

What it seems to be important is interaction, which generates $i+1$ for the learners to use according to their needs in all circumstances. Given the fact that there are individual differences among the learners as it concerns the rate of acquisition (affective filter and amount of input, as well as contact with the language outside the classroom), a natural order based grammatical syllabus will not provide the learners with the needed input.

Another point that Krashen argues is that the recycling of a rule which is already "internalized", is inhibited by a grammatically based syllabus. A rich comprehensible input on the contrary, permits an additional natural practice of such rules.

Lastly, learners will lose their interest for the learning of a language, presented through a grammatical syllabus, because teachers will focus on models of structures, neglecting comprehensible input and shifting from the main target, that is communication.

"The Natural Approach" (Krashen and Terrell 1983) is an effort to translate all Krashen's arguments referred above into practice, advocating its flexibility as it concerns simplicity in use, adaptation to different situations, modification for different types of learners with different cognitive styles.

The same arguments are adopted in the Bangalore Project (discussed in Brumfit 1984, pp.101-109), where instruction tries to maximize the potential of the classroom as an environment for "natural" language development.

Krashen (1987) reviewed studies on learners' classroom interlanguage, in order to be able to establish the claim for a "natural order". The result was that these studies were "at pains to point out that they find no significant difference between instructed and uninstructed learners" (Allwright 1984). (For a review and commentary of interlanguage studies see Allwright 1984, Lightbown 1984, Ellis 1986).

Towell (1987) summarises the general idea of the Natural Order Hypothesis as considering that L2 learners create a series of interlanguages, regardless of their language background and age, pre-determined to a degree by an innate ability, and being neither L1 or L2, but independent linguistic systems.

As concerns the teaching or not of syntax in the FL classroom, Ellis (1984:151) found out that it did not subvert the "natural" order of development, and Towell (1987:92) referring to recent studies on FL "formal" classroom teaching, points out that the "interlanguage" created in the classroom tends to use similar forms to those of naturalistic acquisition, and when it comes to spontaneous language use, becomes resistant to the influence of teaching.

The question that then arises is: what is the contribution of the classroom to FL learning?

Krashen (1976:167) characterizes it as:

"...a formal linguistic environment, providing rule isolation and feedback for the development of the monitor, and, to the extent language use is emphasized simultaneously as a source of primary linguistic data for language acquisition".

Another question to raise would be: do syllabi promote or inhibit language acquisition in the FL classroom, and are they necessary "recipes" for FL teaching?

Towell (1987:98) claims that if they are designed purely around routines and patterns and/or formulae on the basis of their predictability they may improve communication in certain situations, but they are not sufficient as a "well-balanced diet of wholesome food" to use Krashen's expression (1987:70). Grammatical syllabi can only be a "single or even multiple vitamin therapy".

If, according to Edmondson (1985:166), the focus of the FL teaching is on segments of language which have been or are going to be communicatively acquired, and have in this way a place and function in the learner's interlanguage system, then syllabi fulfil their role. On the contrary, if syllabi or textbooks deal with the conscious scrutiny of segments of language outside the learner, one does not need to comment on the result of such an imposition.

CLT was influenced by Krashen's theory, but the impact of this theory on it takes a different dimension. Krashen insists on rich input in classroom interaction, but he forgets that input can only be tested through output, and that the latter can be tested in the FL classroom during the learning process! CLT is an approach based on interaction and influenced by the acquisition theories, but its difference with Krashen's theory is that it does not underestimate learning. It offers the potential for both fluency and accuracy to flourish in the FL classroom, and does not draw a line

between acquisition and learning. After all, the existence of methods is to serve teaching and learning purposes, and this justifies the existence of CLT as an approach. A glance into teaching and learning can give support to our claims about the unity of acquisition and learning.

1.6.4.3.4. Language Learning and Language Teaching

Our point of view about "learning" being a developmental stage of language acquisition and as such non-separable, leads us to deal with it in this section, because as de Saussure said, "It is the point of view which creates the object" (Corder 1973:137).

Apart from this, our interest in this study is focused on the teacher, and the latter always suffers from questions such as: "what to teach" and "how to teach"?

Moreover, SLA research comes to make the teacher's life difficult. Researchers are divided in those who take the natural order as proven (like Krashen), and others who recognize its existence, but are sceptical about universality (like Lightbown) (Ellis 1986:286). Explaining language acquisition to teachers is not possible, when there are such great differences among researchers. The only way to persuade them about claims is to give them evidence from their everyday practices. Hatch's (1978) suggestion is very close to practice when saying that the learner "learns how to do conversation, how to interact verbally and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed" (p.404) . This is exactly what CLT tries to offer in the FL learning process. The teacher engages the learners into interaction focusing on the message (fluency), and during this process he/she can deal with language appropriateness (accuracy), as well. According to our beliefs, learning occupies a more important place than the one it is given by Krashen. His judgement about learning, working only as a monitor to achieve accuracy, is contradictory to his claim about focusing on the input. Our position is that "learning" is not separate from "acquisition", but a developmental stage of the same phenomenon, something drawn out of our

experience, without further proofs. After all, neither Krashen nor anybody else has been in the position to prove the opposite. We shall stick to this belief, unless we are proved wrong by new findings.

For the moment, we think it should be advisable to draw from our experiences of L1 and L2 acquisition, so as to be able to follow the safe path to L2 teaching and learning in the classroom and elsewhere. It is obvious that L2 teaching is closely related to L2 learning, and the latter has got a lot of different parameters to be taken into consideration. It takes a different dimension in front of our eyes, because of its complex nature as a stage of acquisition, that is why we gave it its proper position in this study, to use Krashen's term.

1.6.4.3.5. Psycholinguistics Conclusion

Theories of SLA in either instructional or naturalistic settings are at present numerous and competing, and as such not able to convince us about the processes of L2 learning.

Our conclusion is that there is no shift from this position in the grounds of research since the debate started in the late 1970s. There is still the puzzle of L2 acquisition in front of our eyes, waiting for the moment to become a complete and meaningful picture.

On the one hand, however, of all the theories appearing in the research arena, Krashen's Monitor theory attempted to integrate many disparate phenomena, and create hypotheses which are in need to be investigated.

On the other hand, Krashen's distinction of "acquisition" and "learning" creates an opposition from our part.

In addition, it is doubtful if communicative competence can be taught to learners.

Apart from this, the multidynamic nature of the process of learning and the large number of variables it involves, give a thorough account of the conflict that exists among researchers.

All the above problems are gathered under two theoretical foundations, which changed our views about language teaching methods: sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics.

The first is based on theories of communicative competence, giving the range of what language is, and the second is based on a more balanced range of acquisition, not giving up accuracy, attempting to answer the question of how people learn a language.

The above theories changed the existing views about language teaching, and influenced all teaching approaches, not excluding CLT, towards an attempt to achieve a high degree of effectiveness in meeting the needs of practitioners and learners.

The understanding of the theoretical rationale is that effective learning can take place when learners are involved in language functions, and appropriacy is developed as interaction progresses. There is a general agreement that CLT is an effective approach because it is based on this rationale. Moreover, it involves authentic materials, it offers different learning opportunities, it supports the use of the foreign language in classroom talk, and learning becomes naturalistic, experiential, and thus effective. Our belief is that it can serve FL teaching effectively, because theoretically (as an umbrella term), as well as practically (with its activities and the participants' engagement into meaningful interaction), it takes into consideration the main parameters and promotes active involvement of participants in a message-oriented classroom. We do not claim that it is not problematic. How could it not be when it takes into consideration all those uncertain and still obscure theories? Nothing is explicit to the practitioner, for the good reason that nothing is explicit to the researcher. For the moment, it seems to be the only approach which stands closer to theoretical guidelines and research findings, and thus claimed to be effective.

De Saussure (1965) speaking about language has written:

"La linguistique a pour unique et véritable objet la langue envisagée en elle-même et pour elle-même", (The only true object of linguistics is the language considered in itself and for itself.)

We think that this applies to pure linguistic grounds, but not to applied linguists who are supposed to respond to the needs of practitioners, and offer them real help and guidance. We believe that having been in their territory and being familiar with their problems and needs, we have got the potential through this research to help them being effective as professionals.

1.7. Conclusion

This chapter has gone through current theories of both perspectives, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic, which influenced language teaching for the past two decades. This theoretical rationale was related to CLT as the most effective approach to FL teaching in message-oriented classrooms. Effective approaches are in need of effective teachers in order to be implemented on the basis of a well-designed national curriculum in every educational system, and a model of the effective EFL teacher is what the present study attempts to develop. However, the assumptions which derive from the literature review are the following:

- CLT engages teacher and students into meaningful and social interaction, promoting effectively communicative competence in the FL classroom.**

- Effective CLT involves fluency as the central goal, although accuracy is not neglected, but checked within the context.**

- **Adequate preparation with the use of authentic materials and encouragement towards unpredictable language maximise teacher effectiveness in the FL classroom.**
- **Mastery and constant use of the FL in a natural like atmosphere are elements of effective teaching.**
- **Flexibility in the choice of activities so as to create different learning opportunities can motivate EFL students towards effective learning.**

It is on these assumptions that the empirical study is based, trying to identify the professional influences and contextual factors that contributed to Greek EFL practitioners' effectiveness. This thesis is hoped to inform about effective practices and assist innovations in teacher training, given the fact that very little research was carried out concerning EFL teaching in Greek schools so far. Before we move into the research project itself, it would be helpful to consider the findings deriving from research undertaken in connection to CLT. This will be the subject to discuss in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 2: PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

2.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss previous research undertaken into Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the subject chosen to be investigated in this project. The problem of definition that CLT appears to have on theoretical grounds, along with the "separationist" and the "unificationist" approaches to CLT (Johnson, 1982) or the "strong" and "weak" versions of this approach (Howatt, 1984:279), makes difficult the choice of that part of the research literature which refers to CLT. However, previous research undertaken on CLT was considered to be valuable for two main reasons:

- First of all, it was felt necessary to study and evaluate the research methods used in previous studies. As we shall see, a variety of educational research methods have been followed by different researchers, such as ethnography or action research. Our review considers the first of them to be too deep, and the second intervenes into cases in order to change them. This leads to a decision about the research methodology to follow. It will be argued that systematic observation among other methods appears to be the most appropriate for the present project, as it offers the potential of a thorough description and a deep understanding of the Greek case.
- Second, as there is lack of information about the Greek context in the literature, findings about other communicative contexts similar to the Greek one would serve as a basis towards an understanding of how easy or difficult such an enterprise can be. Previous findings about what goes on in CLT classrooms, including the problems teachers seem to have in other places around the world in implementing the various aspects of CLT, would serve as a context to compare with the Greek one, in order

to evaluate on a comparative basis how effective Greek EFL teachers are as practitioners of CLT.

For the above reasons, and also because it was recognised at an early stage that not much research has been done specifically on CLT, the literature review which will be presented in this chapter will not refer only to studies explicitly concerned with CLT, but to a broader selection of studies. A historical review of methods which have been used to study CLT and foreign language teaching more generally will be the concern of the first part of this chapter, including the influence and criticisms of various past approaches, as well as a review of contemporary approaches to classroom research, in order to justify the researcher's decision to use systematic observation as the most useful approach for the purposes of this project. The second part will focus on relevant findings of L2 classroom research, with respect to the principles of CLT, which will be useful in later comparisons with relevant findings deriving from this research project (see Chapter 8).

2.2. Product and Process Research in Communicative Language Teaching

This section presents a historical review focusing mostly on the evolution of classroom process research, as already mentioned above. This will serve as a basis for our discussion in relation to the selected approach to study CLT for the purposes of this project.

A very early research method for the evaluation of educational programmes was product-oriented. Successful programmes were those giving evidence that students' learning abilities had increased through a particular type of instruction. For example, learners' achievement in two different programmes would be compared, and measurable differences in achievement would determine the effectiveness of a process. In the late 1960s four large-scale product-oriented studies came up with confused results. (For a review of these studies see papers written by Long 1980, Allwright 1983,

Bailey 1983, Chaudron 1985, as well as a review by Spada 1984, Chapter 2). The four studies known as the Scherer-Wertheimer investigation, the Pennsylvania Project, the GUME Project in Sweden, and the work of Chastain and his team in the United States (in Spada 1984), compared the FL achievement of students taught by a behaviouristic (audiolingual) approach with that of a cognitive-code (grammar-translation) approach. According to Long (1980), the diversity of teaching and the complexity of life in FL classrooms failed to be controlled through this type of research methodology. The criticism was that no information was provided about the processes through which students were taught so as one can make sense of the relationship between process and product, and the reasons leading to certain outcomes (Allwright 1983, Spada 1984, Chaudron 1985, Mitchell 1985, Mitchell 1987).

The failure of large-scale research methodology was followed by a failure of small-scale studies. Here, researchers were interested in describing precisely small units of processes, and understanding why for example teachers explain grammar before a drill or not, or what makes them think that one drill is better than another (Spada, 1984). The subjects' attitudes towards FL teaching and learning and the sociological, psychological, and linguistic factors which affected and formulated those attitudes were not taken into consideration. Even if this small-scale research failed to give evidence on what techniques trainers should recommend their trainees to use in their classroom practices, Bialystok (in Allen et al. 1983, p.232) points out that teachers' behaviours vary when implementing a programme or presenting a lesson. If such differences are significant, no quick generalizations deriving from observations can be drawn for the relationship of process-product. Allwright (1983) points out that there is something below methods and techniques that has to be studied. He implies that it is necessary to give similar attention to linguistic and sociological factors in classroom interaction, and also to move from a prescriptive to a descriptive approach to classroom processes.

Once attention shifted to the description of classroom events, a need for observational instruments became apparent in L2 process-oriented research. The problem was that as there were no instruments specifically designed to serve L2

systematic observation purposes, general educational instruments were modified. The most well-known among such modified instruments is FLint (Moskowitz, 1971), which is a modification of Flander's FIAC instrument (1970, in Moskowitz 1971, 1976), intending to observe systematically and code her pre-service trainees' behaviour, and give them feedback on the quality of their skills and the degree of their effectiveness. This type of instruments were negatively criticized however, as we shall see in the next subsection of this chapter.

2.3. Systematic Observation Systems in L2 Classroom Research

FIAC, an American observation system developed by Flanders, is the best known of all classroom observation research systems over the last thirty years (Allwright 1983, Mitchell 1985, Chaudron 1986, Croll 1986). It has served as a basis for the development of L2 classroom-oriented instruments, where language is not only the content but also the medium of instruction. (For a review of twenty-two schemes see Long 1980).

The best known as an adaptation and slight extension from the FIAC system is the Foreign Language Interaction Analysis System (FLINT), developed by Moskowitz (1971). Its target was to provide information on good teaching processes, as well as to help teachers to analyze and modify their own behaviour. However, those early FIAC-based instruments received criticism by a number of researchers (Long 1980, Mitchell 1985). Among the criticisms, Mitchell (1985) collected and listed those which mainly appeared in the research literature as follows:

- a) failure to take account of the distinctive character of L2 classroom interaction (in which the medium of instruction is itself an object of study);

- b) failure to provide a clear theoretical rationale for the selection of dimensions of classroom life to be studied, or for the set of categories proposed for the classification of events on each dimension;
- c) failure in some cases to define comprehensive and mutually exclusive category sets;
- d) the unsatisfactory character of the basic unit of analysis (FIAC-derived schemes normally use an arbitrary time unit, e.g. three seconds, rather than any "natural" unit such as a speech turn);
- e) failure to conserve the overall structure of the interaction being analyzed (FIAC-derived systems merely tally occurrences of particular events within categories, and do not reflect relationships between events).

(Adapted from Mitchell 1985, p. 331).

All these criticisms led to the rejection of the above systems for one additional reason. Teacher trainers did not care about refinement and validation of observational instruments as researchers did, for the reason that they were in need of crude instruments to be taught easily and quickly to their trainees (Allwright, 1983). Research maybe moved away from teacher training for all these reasons, but its main target kept on being the attempt to design one day the appropriate tools for this purpose. However, few of the existing systematic classroom observation schemes have been validated by process-product research. Categories relevant to current theories of L2 acquisition have been one of the weak points of the above systems (Long, 1980).

2.3.1. Classroom Language Analysis through Systematic Observation: a Good Example for CLT

In 1984 two new systems appeared in the Modern Language Centre in Toronto, Canada, which were developed to include such types of categories. These instruments are concerned with the impact of teaching on L2 learning and the theoretical issues of L2 pedagogy which underpin them. These systems are TALOS or The Target Language Observation Scheme (in Ullmann and Geva 1984), and COLT or The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (Allen et al., 1984). The purpose of TALOS is to inform about process variables observed in L2 classrooms during the implementation of L2 programmes (Ullmann and Geva, 1984), whereas that of COLT is to examine the effects of L2 instruction on the acquisition of the target language (Allen et al., 1984). TALOS is based on high inference, low inference, and general information sections which validate the instrument to measure what is intended, whereas COLT describes essential differences of features among L2 teaching approaches. Apart from theoretical issues and relationships between process and product, both systems are good examples for measuring the strong and weak aspects of CLT in FL classrooms.

Between the two instruments, COLT will be the kernel of interest in our discussion as it was chosen to be applied in this project. Main reason for this selection is that lack of the potential to recover the actual process data on which high inference judgments are drawn, makes TALOS an impossible instrument to use for those who seek for a better understanding of L2 classroom processes (Mitchell, 1985). Unlike this rating scales system, COLT reveals the frequency of variations in classroom discourse structure through a sequence of events, which are represented by coding procedures in a time line (op. cit.). One minute as a unit of time measurement, as well as the analytical character of the system through its different categories, makes COLT strong enough as a system in the hands of a researcher who intends to correlate frequencies of different categories, in order to make sense of L2 classroom processes and comment on them. Its advocates claim that it can collect and quantify the different degrees of communicative orientation of different L2 and FL

programmes (Fröhlich et al., 1985). In addition to this, Spada (1987) claims that the same purpose is served by the instrument within CLT programmes.

All the above reasons justify the selection of COLT in the study of the communicative orientation of FL teaching in the Greek context which is of interest to the researcher. (For a thorough description and discussion on its operational problems and limitations see Chapter 4). However, it seems that there is nowhere in the literature reference to the statistical reliability of the system.

2.3.2. Systematic Observation Instruments and their Limitations

Regardless of the degree of validity that the above described systematic observation instruments meet satisfactorily, there are still limitations when it comes to their use in the study of CLT. Firstly, general education researchers have been negative to the fact that the structure of the system is highly arbitrary and thus, very unrealistic. All the units of analysis and the categories through which classroom processes are coded reflect their advocates' decisions and the definitions offered are also not always clear. Is it a speech turn to be coded for example in COLT Part B, or is it a smaller unit? This is quite unclear in the available documentation, and nothing is known about the principles on which segmentation of speech turns into smaller units would be based (Mitchell, 1987).

Also, low-inference categories in these systems may provide detailed information about classroom talk during the interaction, but they do not enlighten questions such as why interlocutors used language this or the other way round. If for example the intention in this project was to study why Greek is persistently used in certain EFL classrooms, this would not be possible to study as more focused procedures are needed. This means that this type of restriction safeguards the researcher's position in attributing intentions to his/her subjects, but it does not contribute to theoretical problems as happens with data collected through high-inference categories. The

advocates of COLT themselves recognize this kind of weakness, and that is why in studies like Spada (1984), Part B is excluded.

Apart from the validity limitations, there are other interesting points for one to raise with low-inference categories. The question of how classroom talk can be the product of co-operation between two parties (that is teacher and students) cannot be seen and understood for reasons of de-contextualization of data (Croll, 1986), that is separate coding for teacher and students.

Lastly, teacher-centred classrooms can be studied through systematic observation instruments, whereas most of them cannot cope with individualized instruction (Mitchell, 1987). Approaches to FL teaching which are based on small group work, individualisation, and learner autonomy as CLT is, are difficult to study as the creators of COLT admit (Fröhlich et al., 1985). (For a thorough discussion on the limitations of all areas in COLT see Chapter 4). However, there are no instruments in the L2 literature focusing on the study of verbal or non-verbal individual classroom behaviour.

In any case it has to be admitted that in spite of the above discussed limitations, systematic observation instruments as research tools have contributed a lot in programme evaluation, as well as in the study of CLT through descriptions of communicative processes. This research technique is very promising with process-product studies like the one undertaken by Spada (1987), where differences in descriptive accounts of three communicative classes in their processes were related to differences in students achievement, measured through a range of language tests. Whatever the nature of criticisms has been, the position and value of systematic observation as a technique, and the exploratory role of instruments like the above are safe, as they can contribute a lot to our understanding of CLT. COLT for example can give an insight on what processes are more effective than others, and how teachers should teach in order to achieve a high degree of effectiveness according to CLT principles. Lastly, empirical findings from different classrooms combined with theories of SLA, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics analysis, cognitive and

affective factors of L2 learners, and L2 teaching and learning strategies, are necessary elements in order to draw conclusions, and give the appropriate answers to such vital questions.

2.4. Ethnography and CLT Research

There has been an argument about systematic observation as a quantitative method versus qualitative method of empirical research. Strong criticisms against systematic observation were raised by researchers favouring mostly the traditional type of ethnography as an approach to classroom-centred research. (For this research tradition see Mehan in Trueba et al. 1981, as well as papers by Walker and Adelman, and Delamont and Hamilton 1986, in Hammersley 1986). Those belonging to the systematic observation tradition passed in their turn to the defence of this approach (McIntyre and Macleod (1986), and a critical review of Delamont and Hamilton (1986) by an ethnographer such as Hammersley, in Hammersley 1986).

The idea to use ethnography for the study of FL learning and teaching was first initiated by Long (1980) in his review article, who was influenced by writers such as Mehan (in Trueba et al., 1981). Long's suggestion influenced in its turn all those researchers engaged in the general area of language teaching, but it was only applied at all frequently in bilingual education, and the education of cultural minority groups (Trueba et al., 1981). This type of approach was never used for research in CLT in foreign language classrooms. Although there are ethnographic studies in CLT like those of Balet (1985), and Montgomery and Eisenstein (1985), the first with negative attitudes of learners towards CLT in contexts having faith in traditional methods of teaching and learning, and the second with positive change of attitudes and acceptance of CLT by others, it seems that nobody was persuaded to promote research in other areas of CLT through ethnographic approaches, apart from those concerned with cultural minority groups.

There are researchers like Mitchell (1987) who consider the biased attitude of researchers belonging to both traditions as inhibiting the development of research on CLT, and they support the use of ethnography as a technique that would offer insights in studies of groups taught through CLT. The conclusion that one can draw through the debate between both traditions seems to be that ethnographers overlook the risks inherent in ethnographic orientation of classroom research. According to Hammersley (1986), any type of classification involves risks, unless one is interested only in similarities and differences of the case under study. No paradigm can be taken as self-contained and exclusive, especially when there is no clarification about what it is and what it does, as happens to be the case with ethnography. (See Hammersley and Atkinson 1983, Walker 1986, Lutz 1986, Evans and Davies 1990). To the present researcher it seems to be an umbrella research method, and as such not unproblematic. The moral of the whole story is that no research method can survive at the expense of another, but all of them can contribute in giving insights when appropriately selected.

Apart from the traditional ethnographic techniques, microethnography as a new sociolinguistic dimension, offers a very detailed, descriptive, and refined methodology in the study of classroom life and teacher self-evaluation, education and classroom attitudes. (For a thorough representation of microethnographic studies see a collection of North American papers in Trueba et al. 1981). However, this type of research has not been used so far in the study of CLT.

2.5. CLT and Action Research

It has been advocated in CLT as in other areas of education that classroom practitioners should get involved in action research. This would offer the teacher the potential of testing theoretical hypotheses, improving his/her practices, and generalizing them if possible to other situations. Due to the variety of problems teachers face in their everyday practices and the number of decisions they have to make, however, confidence must be sustained in their actions. As Mitchell (1987) points out,

there are obstacles in the teacher's transformation into a researcher, as he/she has been prepared towards a practice-oriented role which along with the working conditions lead into a routinization of reasoning in order to survive in the job. Very few are the practitioners who can usually get involved in empirical classroom-based research, and equally few are the studies applying such principles in the literature of CLT.

In the early and mid-1980s a series of small-scale studies in action research were undertaken by Mitchell et al. (in Mitchell 1987) at the University of Stirling, funded by the Scottish Education Department. The plan for those studies was: for the first group of them the identification of methodological problems of concern to the teachers, developed by the teacher and a member of the university research group; for the second group implementation of the innovation undertaken by the teacher him/herself, the university researcher acting as an observer and collector of data, and the experimental lesson jointly evaluated by both of them. The institutions were Scottish secondary schools, and the purposes of the studies were: for the first group to test ideas promoting "message-oriented" target language use through a variety of activity types; for the second group to assess oral interview test formats, and how the latter could allow pupils to display their FL communicative proficiency in a balanced way. The researchers drew the conclusion that in short term projects it is impossible for individual teachers to sustain a cycle of innovation and reflection without a continuing external support, and therefore CLT is in need of a model to establish a stable cycle in action research.

2.6. Research Methods in the Present Project

All the issues discussed above led the researcher to make a decision about the methodology to follow in the present project. The possible options seemed to be ethnography, action research, and systematic observation. It was decided that systematic observation was the most appropriate approach to use, because we needed to offer a broad description of the Greek case, using communicative principles as a set of crite-

ria, aiming at finding out if they happen in the Greek context. Finally, a definition of the 'effective teacher' was expected to derive as a result of this effort. Ethnography was rejected because the goal was to describe and evaluate the Greek case according to pre-set criteria (the principles of CLT).

Action research was also rejected, because our goal was to understand the Greek situation, not to intervene in order to change it.

In order to cover more ground and be able to observe more teachers/subjects, and provide a broad description and understanding of CLT in the Greek situation, systematic observation seemed to be the most appropriate approach. COLT, as a research instrument, consisting of a wide range of variables, would offer a clear picture of effective processes and effective teachers, and would give an insight on what one can suggest towards an improvement. For all the above reasons, the choice of systematic observation and COLT is fully justified.

Drawing conclusions so as to give answers to vital questions cannot be achieved only through justification of research methods and instruments. Empirical findings deriving from previous research projects are equally important, and this will be the concern of the next section.

2.7. Findings of L2 Classroom Research

Apart from a sociolinguistic focus which emphasises the contextual variables affecting the L2 teaching and learning processes (Chaudron, 1988, pp.103-104), there has been a psycholinguistic aspect in classroom-centred research which is equally significant for CLT.

The L2 classroom has been looked at as the context in which second language acquisition (SLA) takes place, emphasising crucial variables among which the most significant is Krashen 's (1988) comprehensible input discussed in Chapter 1. Here,

classroom language and in particular teacher talk along with classroom organisation has been of special interest to researchers (see the studies of Long 1981 for native-speaker/non-native speaker modified classroom interaction, as well as Pica and Doughty 1985 for negotiation of meaning through group work). This research does not make explicit reference to CLT, but it is significant for CLT because it is based on small group organisation such as group work and pair work, as well as meaningful interaction. Other studies (Seliger 1983, Brock 1986) point out that when students are engaged in social interaction, and teachers use inferential questions in the classroom, then L2 is not far away from real life interaction and thus, L2 acquisition is promoted. In particular Long and Porter (1985) argue that a FL cannot flourish in a classroom where the learners' role is restricted to that of students replying to display questions.

Psycholinguistic research of this type stresses the artificiality of FL classrooms, and discourages anyone who would intend to undertake research on this subject matter. On the other hand, other studies (Mitchell and Johnstone, in Mitchell 1988, Ullmann and Geva 1984) include sociolinguistic and pedagogic views in their descriptive FL classroom research. The systematic observation instruments that they developed, the first at the University of Stirling in Scotland, and the second at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, were used in both traditional and communicative FL classrooms. Their aim was to give through this type of research technique a descriptive account of activity types taking place in FL classrooms, as well as to use it for the evaluation of FL programmes.

Other empirical studies focus on very diverse aspects of L2 classroom processes. For example, Faerch (1986) investigates teaching behaviour through rules which teachers formulate about language in CLT classrooms, and Mitchell (1985) studies the learning process of language through teachers' beliefs. Other researchers as Allwright (1980) investigate the participatory nature of language learning and teaching in the L2 classroom and the way it contributes to them. Lastly, Bailey (1983) reviews a number of diary studies, aiming at describing the relations between teacher and student, as well as the affective factors which influence SLA.

Lastly, there are empirical studies on degree of implementation of CLT as a process, as well as learning outcomes deriving from L2 instruction using CLT in the same programme and context.

As it concerns the degree of implementation of CLT, there are studies in the literature such as Spada (1984, 1987), which describe the Canadian teachers' ability to put CLT ideas into practice. The findings show that L2 instructors teaching in the same programme do not implement CLT in the same way. For example, the majority of teachers follow the 'separationist' position (Johnson, 1982), but there are also others who focus on functional practice. There are activity types focussing on grammar, and others based on function. Some of the teachers adjust their input in order to aid the learner in the eventual comprehension of unadjusted input, and others expose the learner to unadjusted input from the very beginning. Lastly, those of them who follow the 'separationist' position believe in the contribution of grammar towards discourse improvement, whereas those following the 'unificationist' position feel that grammar does not necessarily improve their learners' discourse, both positions supported by findings in the above studies. The picture that arises from the Canadian context is that of an uneven implementation of CLT, which is an interesting aspect to investigate in other contexts. The present project will attempt an answer to this descriptive question, investigating the profile of Greek EFL teachers and comparing it to that of their Canadian colleagues.

Apart from teachers' ability to put CLT principles into practice, studies undertaken by Allen et al. (1983, 1984), Spada (1984), and Allen and Carroll (1987) feed the literature with information on CLT effectiveness. COLT, a capable observation scheme, is used to describe features of interactional behaviour as well as other types of features, and information is provided on instructional input and learning outcomes of traditional and communicative classrooms. Thus, it offers a clarification of a number of issues concerning the advantages of communicative L2 approaches versus traditional structure-based ones. For example, all the above studies revealed that the 'separationist' approach to CLT (instructional focus on both form and function) (Johnson, 1982) was mostly beneficial to the learners, as they showed a considerable

improvement in oral communicative abilities, especially when they tried to use the target language outside the classroom setting. Comprehensible input through a variety of techniques, explicit instructions and understanding of the purposes of communicative activities that teachers offered to their learners helped the latter to clarify their own learning objectives, and led them to significant improvement.

However, a wide variety of different teaching styles is labelled as CLT in current literature. The above researchers estimate that generalisations cannot be easily drawn unrelated to a specific context, as patterns of classroom interaction are extremely complex, access to native speakers is very difficult, exposure time is constrained, and opportunities for practice are limited for school contexts to apply. Nevertheless, further empirical investigation is needed to answer important questions raised by the CLT theory.

2.8. Conclusion

The overall picture projected through research in CLT is that more descriptive work is needed in order to enable us to understand relationships between the degree of implementation of CLT principles and factors such as different settings, FL communicative competence, different learner styles and attitudes, and different teacher attitudes drawn from classroom experiences. The research approach chosen for this purpose in this study was systematic observation, complemented by interviews and questionnaires, and the research tool considered to be based on the best theoretical grounds in order to select detailed material on CLT was COLT, which was previously tested and used in the Canadian context.

Previous research findings showed that there is artificiality in the application of CLT, teachers find difficulty in creating message-oriented classes, they like to explain grammar, and there is very little group work going on in their classrooms, according to information provided by researchers such as e.g. Pica and Long (see previous section), which need to be investigated.

For all the above reasons, it is necessary to examine process variables within the Greek context, and assess the effect they have on the attitudes and behaviour of different parties. This will help us to evaluate the rightness of existing educational programmes, teacher education and training, and will enable us to compare Canadian and Greek teachers' attitudes and problems in the application of CLT, based on findings of Spada et al. (op.cit.), as well as our findings discussed in the present project.

Having established a solid ground through theoretical and empirical accounts in Chapters 1 and 2, the focus of the next chapter is to initiate the design and the research procedures followed in the present project, concerning the study and evaluation of Greek EFL practitioners' effectiveness.

CHAPTER 3: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN GREEK CLASSROOM CONTEXTS

3.1. Introduction

The focus of the present chapter is to present the research design and the problems the researcher had to face during the research procedure. The issues of the context in which the project has taken place, EFL in Greece, the subjects, as well as the main elements of the present study are fully presented and discussed.

Before one starts dealing with the project itself, it seems reasonable to look at the reasons for which this project was undertaken, as well as the expectations as to what it might come up with.

The necessity and the decision which led to the present research are due to the following reasons:

- a) The thought that a well-designed curriculum cannot be implemented nor good learners produced, unless effective teachers are involved in the whole procedure.
- b) Taking into account the important role that the effective teacher plays in the educational system, it is important that the proportion of effective teachers is increased.
- c) Teacher training in Greece is in a state of transition. An increased understanding of effective teaching will inform and assist innovation in teacher training. And

- d) very little research has been carried out concerning EFL teaching in Greek schools.

All the above listed reasons derive from a study focusing on EFL/TT (Teacher Training) and Educational Policies in Greece (see Zotou, 1989).

Recent theories on language acquisition and the nature of communicative competence have important implications for classroom practice, as already pointed out, and provide the basis for developing a "normative" model of effective teaching (conceptualised as "communicative" language teaching). (See Introduction).

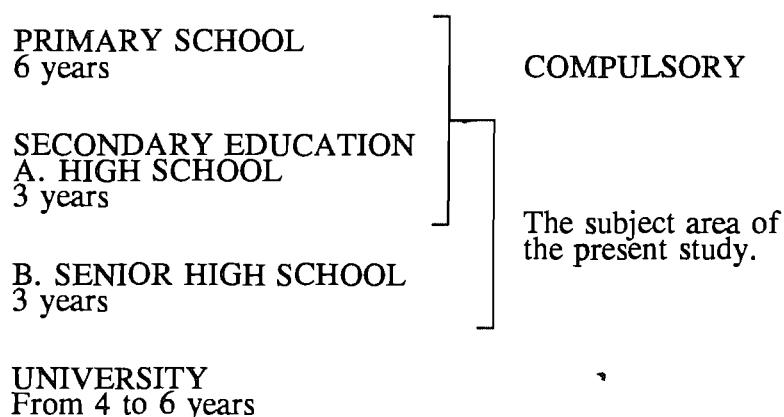
Given the dearth of descriptive studies of EFL teaching in Greece, the present study is the first in its kind in the rank which will hopefully continue. Its concern is to discover the extent to which teachers judged "effective" by their fellow professionals and superiors conform to this model, and what the factors are which have shaped their behaviour.

Before we move into the organisation of the research design, it is reasonable to get familiar with the Greek Educational system and the area to be investigated.

3.2. The Greek Educational System and Foreign Language Teaching

What has initially to be mentioned is the fact that all levels of education are offered free to Greek citizens, from the kindergarten to the Ph.D level. The aim is to give equal opportunities to all citizens.

The three different levels of the Greek Educational System are as follows:



Senior High School and High School were selected as the focus of the present study, as shown in the figure.

This particular area has been selected not because it is the sole interest of the researcher or because it is the most problematic in the whole educational system. The reason for this is that the area of secondary education is the backbone of the foreign language, since students are mainly offered and learn a FL during a period of six years, three compulsory and three non-compulsory. This does not mean that FL is not offered at the other two levels, that in elementary and tertiary education. FL in the former is offered for the last three grades, but not all over the country since this is still operating on an experimental basis (Zotou, 1989 p.24). It is only recently, in winter 1993 that teachers were recruited by the state to teach exclusively in elementary education, but only in cities.

In the latter, one would expect FL to be offered at an advanced level, but this is not the case either. This is due to the fact that all the university students, who have previously graduated from the secondary education, were offered either English or French as a foreign language. Thus on entry to tertiary education, some have no knowledge at all of the FL to be taught, whereas others are of an advanced level. Thus, the FL is offered at a beginners level to help the former and frustrate the latter! The latter are allowed to be absent from the sessions and participate only in the exams, if they are able to prove their proficiency in the FL through a valid

certificate, otherwise they have to go through a boring experience and a loss of valuable time, as well. This means that these students are deprived of the chance to improve or simply practice the FL they have learnt. For all the above referred reasons, FL learning really takes place only during the three or six years of secondary education, a fact that justifies our interest in this particular subject area.

One FL, as a subject, is compulsory in the Greek National Curriculum. There has been the thought of increasing the FLs offered in all schools to two, that is both English and French, but this remains only on paper for the moment, as it involves a lot of programming, staff, buildings, and skilful teams to work towards this direction, as well as strong financial support so as to be operational. Greece, as a monolingual country and an EEC member, is in need of promoting FLs for communicative purposes, so as to protect itself from isolation. Therefore, effective teachers are needed in order to promote FL knowledge in a pleasant and less painful way. In order to be able to identify these effective teachers, one has to see them in action when they apply their practices, that is to pay close attention to what teachers actually do in the classroom. For this purpose the researcher had to think thoroughly how to investigate an area such as the FL classroom, and then plan carefully the research procedures to follow. The whole enterprise seemed to be quite difficult from the experimental and the administrative point of view, but as we are going to see in the next section, its organization has been feasible.

3.3. Organisation of Research Procedures

Teaching has been viewed as a simple concept in the past, but as we saw in Chapter 2, it was realised in the 1970s that new methods are not usually implemented in a straightforward way. This encouraged the growth of interest in classroom - oriented research, and challenged the present researcher, as others in the past, to enter into Long's "black box" (1980). The decision taken was that different EFL cases had to be observed in the Greek context and studied closely. It was thought that systematic observation was going to provide information only on what happens in the

EFL classroom, which maybe is Long's sole interest but not the sole one for the present researcher. Systematic observation combined with different kinds of data, reflecting the teachers and students' views, the students' achievement, as well as information on the context, that is the selection of case study as research method, would help the researcher to make fuller sense of the situation. The belief on solid theoretical grounds that CLT gets better results, combined with the understanding of why Greek EFL teachers are teaching through this approach or not, would enable one to suggest further improvements. For this reason two pilot and eleven main case studies were selected, including Senior High Schools and High Schools in different regions, so as to have a global picture of secondary EFL education within the country.

The first question that arose at this point was: how was the researcher going to select her case-studies, and how much would they be helpful in drawing conclusions representative of what happens with CLT and teacher effectiveness in the Greek educational context?

As it concerns the selection of teachers regarded as "effective", the researcher had to address herself to EFL advisors working for the Ministry of Education. This has not been difficult as the researcher is on a leave of absence, working for the same Ministry. Apart from this, most of the regions all over the country receive advice on EFL by a very small group of advisors, each one of them having to advise from four or five to seven or eight regions! Thus, the researcher had to choose from a list of regions which she was provided with, the regions she wanted to visit, as well as contact through the advisor the teachers she was going to select. The advisor's help has been really valuable, as the researcher's intention was not to impose her presence on the teachers, but to inform the teachers in advance about what it was all about, creating in this way a relaxing atmosphere and their participation on a volunteer basis, as we are going to see later on. This has not been difficult either, as the teachers proved to be highly interested and very co-operative.

As it concerns the second part of the question above, the researcher had to take into consideration different parameters which contribute to the picture of every region such as educational, sociocultural characteristics and their geographical position. The aim was not to choose regions which were going to be more convenient to the researcher, but those which would be able to be representative of the whole country as far as this was practicable. This resulted in a satisfactory but very tiring schedule on the researcher's part.

In the meantime, the researcher came up with a decision on her data gathering procedures as follows:

- 1. Systematic Observation (COLT)**
- 2. Teacher Interviews**
- 3. Pupil Questionnaires**
- 4. Student Achievement Data**
- 5. Sociocultural Information**

Classroom observation was a main element of each case study. From the range of FL research instruments we have already reviewed, COLT, a systematic observation instrument developed for the study of CLT, was employed as the main classroom data gathering procedure. (For a detailed analysis and a justification of COLT, see Chapter 4).

The observations were supplemented with teacher interviews (see Appendix 4) seeking:

- a) their views on the nature of effective teaching, and contextual factors promoting/inhibiting it,
- b) accounts of practice and

- c) accounts of major influences on their own professional development.

In addition contextual data were collected from pupils and institutions, including achievement data ("product") (see Chapter 6), as well as sociocultural information, so as to take into account all the factors believed to influence "effective" teaching.

It can be expected that a group of teachers selected in this way will vary considerably in degree of conformity to a normative model of communicative EFL teaching. If so, within-group comparisons will be necessary, in trying to establish what the typical classroom practices are of the most "effective" sub-group, and what professional influences and contextual factors have contributed substantially to greater and lesser degrees of "effectiveness". Finally, it is hoped to draw conclusions relevant to teacher training and the upgrading of more teachers to "effective" levels of practice.

It is clear enough that the teachers for the pilot, as well as for the main case studies, were chosen so as to offer a good representation of teachers and regions at the same time. At this point one would ask: who were these teachers and what kind of materials they use in their classrooms? Before we go into further details about the project, it is useful to get some information about their identity and their means of instruction.

3.4. Teachers' Identity and Means of Instruction

One of the two teachers of the pilot case studies had an experience of nine years at High School, and the other fifteen years at the Senior High School.

Those in the main case studies between one and eighteen years of experience in state school secondary education. Apart from that, all teachers had an experience varying from two to ten years work in private education.

As it concerns their qualifications, all of them were B.A degree holders from the university (four years of study), which is necessary for somebody who intends to join the state education. Apart from this, none of them was holder of any postgraduate degree, and none of them has ever received any training in either of the two teacher training courses of the country (in Athens and Thessaloniki). Three of them had received a short training offered by the British Council (main case studies), some years before the start of the present project. One of them (main case studies), received a short training course at the International House in London, England and then spent two years working in the same country on different jobs, aiming at language improvement. Four of the teachers had received two training seminars, each of fifteen days' (Pilot and Main Study), held by the Ministry of Education. (The last one took place four years ago, when this project was at its first steps). Finally, all of the teachers have been attending short seminars throughout their career.

The atmosphere the researcher created between herself and each one of the teachers was very relaxing, and most of them became everlasting friends. They were mostly aware of their needs, and they were eager to learn more things, as well as to receive a strong critique and evaluation on their work, so that the researcher had to make efforts sometimes not to forget the purpose of her presence in their regions. This was due to the fact that she integrated herself into her new environment easily, because she was familiar with their problems and worries. This was one of the main reasons for the success of this project.

Another reason for success was the time she spent on an everyday basis with them, that is a whole month with each one of them, following them into their classrooms and even sharing with them quite a lot of their personal life out of the school context, and listening to their personal problems. This operated as a strong link between the researcher and the teachers, but it did not inhibit her work. On the contrary, it gave her insight into the human aspect of each one of her subjects. Besides it taught her that a well planned research project, as well as a good knowledge of the research context matched with other capacities such as good

scientific knowledge and a warm and strong personality, cannot make a project successful unless they are accompanied by the consideration of the human factor.

As it concerns the equipment used by the teachers, it was mostly chalk and board, some photocopied exercises for the students, and a cassette recorder with dialogues and oral exercises, as well as the coursebook and a teacher's guide. In very few cases they used an overhead projector which usually had to share with colleagues of theirs teaching other subjects than English. In one case only the teacher created a room for slides to support her English lessons. In all cases, the teachers declared they were spending their own money to buy different kinds of materials from the market, which are always very expensive due to the fact that they are imported from abroad. The Senior High Schools are only provided with cassettes by the state, and teacher and students have to buy their books and whatever else they intend to use from the market. It seems that High Schools receive more help, since both the students' and the teacher's books are provided free by the state, as well as cassettes, flannel charts etc.

The textbooks used by the Senior High Schools were mainly Developing Strategies by Abbs, B. and Freebairn, I. (1980), Longman, and when this was coming to an end, it was followed by Studying Strategies of the same series. In two cases only, the researcher found Kernel Lessons Plus by O'Neil, R. (1974) towards the end of the book being taught by two teachers.

As it concerns the textbooks used in the Senior High Schools, they are always selected by the teachers from a list which they are provided with by the Ministry of Education. A committee responsible for such decisions has worked on this selection.

The High School textbook series are a Greek product of six years of work, one experimental in certain schools taught by selected teachers and one of national application for each one of them. For both years of each textbook, the teachers' comments were expected to reach the Ministry. Four of the teachers who took part in this project were selected and worked in this experiment.

The working team of the writers of these series under the title Taskway English 1, 2 and 3 (1987), consisted of an Associate Professor from the University of Athens as the head of the team, and of four other people, one Senior Lecturer of the same University, two Advisors of English and one from the Institute of Research.

The target of the working team, was to produce an EFL series written especially to meet the needs of Greek High School students, their interests, experiences and expectations. Their aim was the production of pleasant books promoting problem-solving, thinking and mental development, offering at the same time linguistic, societal and cultural experiences. The idea of co-operation, responsibility and decision making by the students on their own EFL learning are emphasized by the team. These are difficult targets to achieve in a mostly teacher-centered educational system as the Greek appears to be, as it concerns instruction in the other subjects. The authentic materials they try to use are according to the latest methodology, as well as the ideas which influenced them, and they remind us of the principles on which CLT is based. All these, as well as the exposure of the series to an open critique can be very constructive, since they help towards a further improvement. It is not the researcher's task to attempt an evaluation. Another researcher has already undertaken the task to evaluate the above series in her Ph.D thesis in a U.S.A University, and it is only at the end of her project that we are going to be able to know how much these materials have contributed to methodological changes in Greece.

As it concerns this project, it is expected to promote CLT principles, and encourage teachers to be involved with the communicative orientation of language teaching.

So far, we have been trying to take into consideration all the parameters of the Greek context which are of a high interest to our project. At this point, the reader's expectations would be that the researcher's concern has to be the straight implementation of her organisation procedures into the Greek context, but as there is always the possibility of weak points due to the human factor, her decision was first of all,

to try her instruments and go through the necessary modifications, before applying them to the main cases.

3.5. The Pilot Case Studies

The researcher selected for her pilot two secondary schools in central Greece, one High School and one Senior High School. The main reason for this selection was the fact that she happened to be well known in that area as a professional, most of the teachers knew her or had heard of her and her new work, and the very strict time limits she had to face were leading her to fast and safe decisions. This is how she selected the two teachers she needed to observe, one in each school, teaching different grades within the school.

The selection of grades was another decision for the researcher to make. It was impossible to go into six grades altogether for both schools or observe all groups of students of the same grade. To give a reasonable spread, she decided to deal with the first and the third grade of the High school, and the second grade of the Senior High School.

The groups of students to be observed were chosen for practical reasons. The classes which were finally observed were three from each of grades 1 and 3, that is six, and two from grade 2 of the Senior High School, that is eight in total. Among them, the six classes of the High School were offered EFL by the same teacher, whereas the two classes of the Senior High School were taught by the other.

The number of students was thirty per group, a big number for CLT or any other type of instruction. This resulted in the end with a rich amount of pilot data, however that is 240 questionnaires and 240 students marks.

Two teacher interviews were audiorecorded, and sociocultural information was gathered, as well.

The amount of time devoted to the pilot was one whole month, which gave 72 hours (12 for each group) of observation for the High School, and 16 (8 for each group) for the Senior High School. This is because English is offered one hour less per week in the Senior High School, according to the Greek National Curriculum.

It is necessary to say here that all the lessons observed were recorded. A professional cassette recorder connected with an extremely sensitive microphone has been able to capture all the activities taking place in the classrooms. This was helpful to the researcher when she started revising her codings.

All this amount of data was more than enough to lead the researcher safely towards the necessary modifications of her research instruments, as well as the development of further ideas about the whole project.

Another problem the researcher had to face was to be licensed by the Institute of Research, a division of the Greek Ministry of Education. This means that she had to submit in detail not only her intentions for the schools and the areas to visit, but everything that concerns her work from the scientific point of view. This happens for every researcher (once and for all for the pilot and the main study, as well), even for those who work for the Ministry of Education, as the case of the present researcher happens to be. At the end of the project, every researcher has to submit the results to the above Institute.

After the pilot case studies were accomplished, the researcher attempted an analysis on the results, in order to find out the degree of success her instruments achieved, before starting to apply them in her main case studies.

Before embarking on her main case studies, the researcher found out that, among her instruments, the teacher interviews as well as the students questionnaires needed minor, slight modifications to operate, whereas the student data achievement was an unproblematic mechanical procedure, since it had to do with copying the students' marks from school records. The sociocultural information was easily gathered from

the school itself, general directors of the regions and other factors within the regions. The only instrument that seemed to be in a way problematic and need some kind of substantial modification was the systematic observation instrument, COLT. (For further discussion on COLT, see the next chapter).

The administrative problem was already sorted out, before even the start of the pilot cases. It is worth mentioning that the Institute of Research decisions were delayed in reaching their destination officially in time, something that has nothing to do with the high degree of interest that the Institute views all research projects. Nevertheless, the present researcher did not find any difficulty in being accepted in the chosen educational institutions, due to the fast and effective telecommunication of the Institute with each one of them.

3.6. The Main Case Studies

The decisions concerning the selection of the regions, the schools, the teachers, as well as the grades and the groups of students to be observed in the main study, followed exactly the same procedure as for the pilot, as has already been mentioned.

The materials used and the approach to observation of classes were identical to the pilot. Thus, there is no different point to be raised.

The difference lies in the number of regions included in the project, and the large amount of data that the researcher gathered through the application of all her instruments, as well as the total duration of the main case studies.

The selected regions, representative of the country, were in total four. A combination of different geographical characteristics, such as capitals of regions, rural areas, towns in the mountains, urban areas, as well as towns with ports at the sea were included, each one of them presenting a different cultural aspect of the country.

The number of schools the researcher visited was nine in total, one High School and one Senior High School in every region with the exception of one, in which two Senior High Schools were visited. The reason for this was the fact that in one of them, the researcher found out that there was a change of the foreign language offered from French to English, due to the equal proportion of both languages offered in different state schools throughout Greece that the Ministry of Education tries to maintain. The shift from French into English that the Ministry imposed to the students, affected the students' motivation towards the new foreign language in this particular school. Moreover, one cannot disregard the problems faced by the teacher, who did not have much practical experience in teaching and classroom management, but who was equipped with a good theoretical knowledge and a zeal for the profession, an interest for innovations and a lot of courage. The additional problem for this particular teacher was the fact that she was used as a teacher assistant in such a position, where an experienced teacher is needed, and apart from the Advisor's interest and her own personal efforts, she was going to remain for a long time as teacher assistant recruited by the regional prefecture up to the time she was going to be offered a recruitment by the Ministry of Education. (For an extensive discussion of this educational problem see in Zotou, 1989). The researcher decided to include this case in her project, because as her main interest lies in the teachers, she had to include even this category of very young people so as to be able to represent all the range of teachers working throughout the country.

In one of the regions, it was the case that one teacher was teaching the first grade of the High School and another the third grade of the same school. In another region, the same teacher was teaching the first grade of the High School and the second grade of the Senior High School, whereas the third grade of the High School was taught by another teacher. Finally, the teachers who participated in the main cases are eleven in total.

There is a variation as it concerns the groups of students the researcher observed, because she was trying to have the same number of observations for each grade in each region, and this has been a painful task to achieve. This was due to the fact that

the schools are institutions which consist of living human beings, a real microcosm reflecting the macrocosm of society. In this respect, they were involving extra curricular activities in their timetable, and as such the researcher was missing observations which she had to decide how to add up in the next steps. This type of flexibility was something that was finally achieved.

Every lesson was of a duration of forty-five minutes approximately, and the classes which were observed were mostly of a mixed ability type. Nevertheless, "level" type lessons were also included, so as to give a clearer picture on every aspect concerning EFL classes in Greece.

The duration for every school visit was one month, as for the pilot, but due to the big number of schools the main study lasted six months in total, with a break of one month and twenty days. The researcher needed this break to evaluate the steps that were achieved, as well as to prepare the next ones to follow. Apart from this, the physical factor was needed to be taken care, as the researcher had mostly to drive to different areas of the country, and follow a very strict and overloaded timetable to cover the needs of the project.

The main cases started in October 1989 and they stopped for Christmas holidays. Then, there was the already mentioned break, before starting the next phase in February 1990 and ending in April 1990 for Easter holidays. Thus, the whole project covered the academic year 1989-1990. Some teachers and groups were observed at the beginning of the year and others at the end of it. This has given the researcher the potential to include possible variation due to time of year in the project, as well as to be able to achieve data reflecting all the six grades of the secondary education in Greece, something that is already explained above.

All the problems listed so far would never have been able to be sorted out if both teachers and researcher were not committed to the project, and very supportive to each other. Besides, the belief that the project has to be as accurate as possible reflecting the real situation of EFL teachers and teaching in Greece, as well as the

eagerness to see the problems surfacing and being sorted out, has been inspiring both sides up to the end of the data collection phase of the project.

We think that the huge data base can be more meaningful than any further discussion. This is in total as follows:

- **4 regions sociocultural information**
- **9 schools (5 Senior High Schools and 4 High Schools)**
- **11 teacher interviews**
- **1800 students marks**
- **1800 students questionnaires**
- **162 hours of systematic observation.**

All this data had to be classified according to its nature, so as to facilitate the researcher in the work to follow. Then, the researcher started working on the systematic observation data. However, not all the samples referred above were used in the study.

The problem that had to be faced here was that this procedure was taking a lot of time, months of work, maybe more than one whole year. Apart from this, reliability tests had to take place, and this time two people had to work on the codings at the same time, spending additional time to that previously mentioned. If the fact is taken into consideration that each lesson is of a duration of **45 minutes**, one can easily estimate the amount of time needed to be devoted to reliability tests so as to be able to see how valid this information can be. Ambitious plans were left for the future, and it was agreed that a selection had to be made as it concerns the amount of observations to work on. This led to the selection of **5 lessons per grade for each teacher, which gave the amount of 64 hours of observations to work on.** (One hour was missed from one of the teachers of a Senior High School, due to extra curricular activities, as already mentioned above).

It is worth saying here that video-recording could help towards gathering important information for both teachers and researchers of visual, non-verbal signals, such as gestures, direction of gaze etc., if they were offered the chance to interpret such information and act upon it. This has been impossible to achieve in Greece, as this, even if known about, is not used even in teacher training courses because it seems to be costly, and one would claim that there are other needs to cover before reaching a decision as such. This of course is debatable as all matters are, concerning teacher training.

As a result of the above, this project refers to the recorded 64 lessons already mentioned, each one of 45 minutes of duration. The results reached a very satisfactory level of reliability. (The analysis of the results is thoroughly discussed in a following chapter).

Before we enter into a detailed presentation, analysis, and discussion of the observation instrument itself, it is necessary to get familiar with the context which fed the research project with data. In the next section, sociocultural information gathered from the four most representative regions of the country will be thoroughly presented.

3.7. The Sociocultural Context

As it is already said, the regions were selected so as to include all possible variations within the Greek context. The researcher thought that differentiations in context might be factors inhibiting or promoting FL teaching, that is why parameters such as educational, sociocultural characteristics, as well as the geographical position of the regions had to be taken into consideration.

The region used for the pilot case studies was different from those of the main cases. As it concerns the latter, the researcher resulted in the selection of four regions in total. We shall attempt to present all of them in the following sections.

3.7.1. The Pilot Region

The researcher was familiar with this region, because she had worked in some of the schools in the past. The area was rural, and there was lack of libraries, theatres or any type of entertainment. Sources of information were only newspapers and T.V., apart from the three school libraries (Primary, High school, and Senior High school), which were equipped with a limited range of books. However, the area was considered to be among the rich and privileged ones, because it happened to be 20 minutes only away from the capital of the region. Thus, the students' needs could be easily met at the capital, as there was regular transportation by bus.

As it concerns the staff of both schools, they were also staying in the capital of the region. They informed the researcher that they were coming to school in their cars or in colleagues' cars everyday. They pointed out that the small society within which the schools are operating, think that education is an important factor for the improvement of their children's life. The schools contribute to the children's interests through the extra-curricular activities they organize.

3.7.2. The Main Case Studies Regions

These regions were four in total, as it is already mentioned. In order to facilitate our task, we shall use the first four letters of the alphabet to name them, that is A, B, C, and D.

3.7.2.1. Region A

This is the region that was first visited by the researcher when she started her main case studies. It is a rural area and quite rich as well. There are many schools with a good number of students, but the researcher visited only two of them.

In the capital which is a small town, there is a local theatre, some cinemas, different types of associations, as well as a Scientists Association. The latter organize lectures on different topics, inviting lecturers from Universities or elsewhere. The whole scheme operates as an open university.

Apart from this, there is a local library with a good amount of books. All schools in the area have got libraries, which become richer every year with the appropriate selection of books that teachers make. Although this was a positive sign towards the students' education, teachers complained that students do not borrow as many books as they used to in the past. The researcher herself was offered the chance to borrow and read a book about the Greek educational history and the paths it went through.

There are a lot of private language schools (mostly dealing with EFL), as well as others teaching different subjects. This type of private education in Greece is known under the name of "frontistirio". These schools have got the task to help students cope with problems they face in their state schools, in order to pass the final exams every year, or the entry exams to the university. It is worth mentioning that the state offers this type of lessons free, out of the school time table, using state teachers other than the ones who teach in a particular school, spending extra money on this purpose. However, private schools are always crowded.

A problem that the researcher witnessed and was expressed as a complaint by language teachers was that students insist on what they learn in their "frontistirio", even if this seems to be wrong. There have been instances where teachers asked politely their students to check on a particular issue with their private teachers, giving references as well. We do not intend to imply anything else here, apart from the fact that paid education is not necessarily better than the state one or the other way round. Whenever a problem arises, a collaboration accompanied by honesty can serve the students' education better than anything else. A good educator is not an authority, but a person who tries hard to offer his/her services to students. It seems that this kind of mentality was some kind of a problem for the language teachers, and the researcher had to try very hard not to take the role of a judge or an instructor on

language or methodology problems arising in the classes she observed. However, all these institutions, associations, as well as satellite T.V., were the only FL sources for the students, since no tourists come to this area. Nevertheless, most of the students were aware of how important it is nowadays to know a foreign language, that is why they were trying their best.

3.7.2.2. Region B

After region A, the researcher moved into region B. This area is totally different from the other, because it is on the top of a mountain range, among the highest in the country. When the researcher went there it was winter time and it was snowing. Under such situations, communication with the "outside world" is sometimes impossible for whole days. Apart from this, the whole area is physically cut off from the neighbour region, having a wild natural beauty.

From the four secondary schools, the researcher visited the two of them. These schools have got libraries, but with a limited range of books. Apart from the school libraries, there is a local one which seems to be very rich in books, and is allocated in a beautiful building. There is a nice room in there, which is used on different purposes, among which are included the Open University lectures, as well as others. Different types of lectures are organised by the Scientists Association, as well as the Women Association.

There is no theatre at all, and as it concerns the cinema, there is only one which does not operate on an everyday basis. It is run by a Film Club, and there is a careful selection of good quality films, which are on every Tuesday evening.

As it concerns the T.V., what one can watch is only one national channel, whose perception becomes sometimes impossible during winter time in this area, due to snow. In the same way, magazines and newspapers reach the area when this problem does not exist.

The teachers, as well as other civil servants, have to stay in the small town which is the capital of the area, having the ability to leave only for the week-end.

The amount of FL private schools was surprising in this "closed" society, as well as the students' competence in learning foreign languages. The researcher found out that the state FL teachers were lending their own books to their students, in order to help them to improve their knowledge about the foreign language.

The area is usually full of tourists during summertime, giving the chance to students to practice the FLs they learn. Even in winter time one can find tourists over there, because of the chalet which is always full of skiers.

Due to all the above listed reasons, as well as lack of other attractions apart from athleticism, the students were remarkably interested in their studies, they were all participating in extra-curricular activities, and they were thirsty to learn. Most of them were successful in the entry exams to the university, but after their studies, they were leaving their poor native place to settle down in cities, using it only as a resort. However, the researcher was informed that even if the case is as such, they are always trying to help their native place and its people, either financially or through state positions they hold.

3.7.2.3. Region C

After a short stay in England, the researcher moved into region C. This one is a rural area, but with the privilege to be only two hours away from the capital of the country. The area is connected to the capital by coach and train. This gives the ability to people to spend their week-end in the capital, and it is a usual phenomenon to see a lot of people, and among them teachers and other civil servants, travelling quite often.

There is no theatre in the capital town, but there are cinemas. Magazines and newspapers reach the area easily, since it is close to Athens. All T.V. channels, including satellite, can be received.

Apart from this, there are a lot of clubs and associations, among them the Scientists Association, which organize lectures, as well as the Open University.

The schools are quite a few, and the researcher visited many, but she used only three for her fieldwork. The schools themselves were operating with a good amount of students.

It is here that the researcher found special classrooms for the use of slides and other equipment, something that is luxury even for most of the schools in Athens! This is due to the teachers' further efforts and personal work, outside their timetable.

The school libraries are improving more and more, due to the teachers sensitivity and zeal, as mentioned above. Apart from this, there is a local library constructed and supplied with a great variety of books by rich people, who come from this area. This is a present to the people of the area, and the researcher could see it being supplied with computers as well, to meet the needs of a modern organisation! The researcher has never seen or heard something like this happening in other regions. There were still problems with the operation of those computers, because the library staff had to be trained before starting operating the whole system. Apart from this, they had to find the appropriate trainer and go through negotiations with him/her. However, they were determined to sort out all their problems, in order to put it under the service of the public.

There are a lot of private FL schools and others which work quite well, as it concerns the quality offered to their students, as the researcher was informed.

There are no tourists in the area so as to help students in their practice with the FL they learn, but one can always find quite a lot in Athens. It seems that the area

is rich and quite privileged in comparison to others in the country, and since all types of context had to be taken into consideration, as already explained, this one had to be included as well.

3.7.2.4. Region D

This was the last region that the researcher visited in spring time before easter. This region has got one of the biggest ports in the country, and is connected with foreign ports, for reasons of trade. It seems to have all the characteristics of a cosmopolitan area. Its capital is a big town with suburbs at the feet of a mountain, and one can easily draw the conclusion that in very few years, it will be one of the biggest and most beautiful cities in the country.

The area has got a local theatre which is very active, and many high quality plays have been on at different times. There are a lot of cinemas, apart from the Film Club which operates independently. There are a lot of clubs and associations promoting a great variety of interests, in addition to the Scientists' Association. Different types of lectures are given, and among them it is worth mentioning the Open University. Another piece of information that has to be mentioned here is that the expenses of lecturers (travelling, food, hotels) are covered by the income of those clubs and associations, but neither the lecturer is paid nor the audience pay any ticket to attend them. This type of policy is not applied only in this area, but throughout the whole country.

There is an Academy of Music, and many concerts are performed for the audience on a yearly basis, as well as dancing performances offered by different schools of ballet. Apart from this, there is a great number of athletic clubs, which also offer performances to the public.

There is a plethora of private language schools, and there is a strong competition among them. The same happens for private schools of other subjects. There is also

a private comprehensive French school, which is run by Catholic priests and nuns, including other staff from Greece and of the local religion (that is Christian Orthodox), and which is under the protection of the French Embassy.

There is a big building in the capital town where the local library is allocated. This library is a rich one, and it is always supported by the selection and addition of new books. Apart from this, there are quite a few books in the school libraries, and even if the researcher administered her experiments in two of them, she has been able to visit other teachers in their schools and have a look at their libraries. There were special rooms for music in the schools as well as theatres to be used on different extra-curricular activities, but there was nowhere any special room used as language lab. This was due to lack of further rooms, as the teachers were told when they applied for this, but they were determined to take it further. Parents Associations were supporting the schools financially in addition to the state funds, and the researcher saw a lot of equipment, for example videos, cassette recorders etc., being bought by them.

In addition to the above, there are a lot of prehistorical and historical sites in the area, where ancient communities used to live. There are a lot of findings in museums, which increase in number gradually, as new findings come to light. The area has got a strong tradition in laography, ancient music and instruments, and it played a very important role in the revolution of 1821 against the Turk conquerors, when the Greek Orthodox Church was educating the nation on the mountains, and later on in well known schools, with prominent educationists and intellectuals who had studied in Italy and especially in France at those times.

The old tradition meets the new era in this area, and together they feed the education and intellectualism of the inhabitants. In addition, the big number of tourists who visit the area and move via this region to the islands of the Aegean Sea, offers the students the chance to practise the FLs they learn. Apart from this, FLs flourish for trade reasons among young and older people, and one can easily draw conclusions on the privileges that the area enjoys.

These are the areas that the researcher visited during her fieldwork. There are a lot of areas similar to the above, as well as schools facing the same problems and/or privileges elsewhere. The great variability in our choice which was described above, can give a better idea of the types of sociocultural context in Greece, and help towards a better understanding concerning FL education in this context, as well as in similar ones.

What remains to be done after the above discussion is to become familiar with COLT itself, and examine closely the problems it created to the project. Then, the transformations it received in order to be operational for the needs of this project, as well as the efforts to maximise its potential and minimise its structural problems for the above reasons are discussed thoroughly in the chapter to follow.

CHAPTER 4: COMMUNICATIVE ORIENTATION OF LANGUAGE TEACHING (COLT): AN OBSERVATION SCHEME

4.1. Introduction

Instruments designed specifically for second language classroom observation, as already mentioned in Chapter 2, are very few in number. Their attempt was to refer to the interaction between teachers and students, as well as to capture various features theoretically, empirically or intuitively relevant to the second language classroom.

Out of the L2 classroom-oriented research, COLT is a systematic observation scheme (Allen, Fröhlich and Spada, 1984) recently developed in the Modern Language Centre at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, and used in the Canadian context.

As stated by Allen et al. (1980), during their first steps towards its creation, the purpose of designing COLT was to be able to answer questions on two basic issues about children learning a second language:

- a) the nature of language proficiency, and
- b) its development in the above educational context.

The authors claim the system is based on current theories of communicative competence, a review of recent research into L1 and L2 acquisition, and the literature on communicative language teaching. It came to join this small list of L2 instruments, attempting to measure the impact of teaching on second language learners. It aims to explore the claim that "a knowledge of the formal aspects of language develops out of meaningful language rather than the other way round" (Hatch, 1978).

The current debate about communicative approaches offering more advantages in L2 education in comparison with structure-based approaches can possibly be clarified through the various categories of COLT. Though it has not been possible to define CLT precisely in the literature so far, COLT aims to show through a combination of scores deriving from every category, what the degree of communicative orientation is for each class, and what types of instruction are operating in a given context, aiming towards strengthening and improving language proficiency. In addition, the authors were interested in process/product applications, in order to evaluate the process through which CLT is implemented in actual classrooms, and investigate the effects of CLT on L2 learners achievement at the same time (For example Spada 1984, 1987). For all these reasons, it is interesting to see if it fulfils its aims, as it claims, going through its structure, and explaining the problems that the researcher faced in her attempt to use it in a new context, as the Greek one is, for the purposes of her project.

4.2. Systematic Observation through COLT

As has already been mentioned, COLT 's aim is to examine the effects of second language instruction on the acquisition of the target language. It is designed to describe essential features of the second language classroom which will, it is hoped, finally differentiate among various approaches to L2 teaching. It was created to be applied in both English as a second language (EFL) and French as a second language (FSL) classrooms.

The observation categories are focused primarily on the characterisation of the second language classroom in terms of the degree of communicative orientation. It was designed to compile a list of indicators of communication, each of which could be separately quantified. Both natural and instructional language are measured through its categories, providing information on how close these types of interaction are. An analysis of the communicative features of the verbal interaction can inform about the

predominant patterns of communicative orientation of the classroom under observation.

The issues that Allen et al. (1983) try to examine are:

- 1) the nature of language proficiency
- 2) the influence of social context on bilingual development
- 3) the effects of instrumental variables on language, and
- 4) the influence of individual learner characteristics.

Language proficiency is divided into three components: a) grammatical, b) discourse, and c) sociolinguistic. The researchers assumed that different degrees of skills are involved in different tasks, and consequently it depends on the L2 program what the development of the learning features will be. Apart from this, native speakers are expected to have a different mastery of skills than that of non-native speakers, as well as to be able to develop competence in the above areas independently.

4.3. The Dimensions of COLT

COLT is divided into two parts (see Appendices 1 and 2). Part A describes interaction units at the level of activity, and Part B analyses the communicative features of verbal interaction between both parties, teacher and students, as they take place within each activity.

PART A

Five distinct parameters, each one with several subsections, are coded in real time. Their selection reflects current theories of communicative competence, and other issues in first and second language learning which have been highly influential in the

development of L2 methodology, although they are intended to serve a descriptive purpose (Allen et al. 1983; Allen et al. 1984; Spada 1984; Fröhlich et al. 1985; Allen and Carroll 1987; Spada 1987; Allen and Carroll 1988; Allen 1989).

The five parameters and their subsections are the following:

- 1) **Activity Type:** this is open-ended so as to include all varieties of activities (e.g., conversation, role play, drill, singing, reading aloud, dictation, discussion, game, transaction, singing). In case of activities consisting of two or more episodes, these are coded as two or three separate episodes.
- 2) **Participant Organization:** These categories describe the way participants are organized in classroom interaction. Whole class (e.g., teacher to student or class and vice versa, student to students, choral work by students), group work (e.g., groups all work on the same task, groups work on different tasks), individual seat work, group/individual work (e.g., students work on their own either on the same or different task, some work in groups and some others on their own).
- 3) **Content:** These categories describe the subject-matter of the activities, and reflect current theoretical issues in L1 and L2 acquisition, theories of communicative competence and a number of practical pedagogic concerns. The content categories are:
 - a) **Management** - classroom procedures, disciplinary routines.
 - b) **Explicit focus on language** - form, function, discourse, sociolinguistics.
 - c) **Other Topics** - narrow range of reference, limited range of reference, broad range of reference.
 - d) **Topic Control** - control by teacher, control shared by teacher and student, control by student.

- 4) **Student Modality:** the focus is on the various skills in which students are involved (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, writing, others).
- 5) **Materials:** The type, the source or purpose and the way the materials are used in classroom activities are described through these categories.
 - a) **Type of materials** - text, audio, visual.
 - b) **Length of text** - Minimal, Extended.
 - c) **Source/Purpose of materials** - pedagogic, semi-pedagogic, non-pedagogic.
 - d) **Use of materials** - highly controlled, semi-controlled, minimal-ly controlled.

PART B

In the second part of COLT, the aim is to analyse the communicative features of verbal interaction which occur within every activity for both teachers and students. Among the seven communicative features, two of them, that is discourse initiation and relative restriction of linguistic form are coded for students only. These seven features are the following:

- 1) **Use of Target Language** (Is it L1 or L2 the prominent language of communication in the classroom?)
- 2) **Discourse initiation** (Do the students speak in turns or do they initiate the interaction?)
- 3) **Information Gap** (Is the information requested known in advance or not?)

- 4) **Sustained Speech** (Is the students speech sustained or do they produce a minimal number of clauses?)
- 5) **Relative Restriction of Linguistic Form** (Do the students have complete freedom in the choice of their responses or are they expected to produce specific forms?)
- 6) **Reaction to Message/Code** (Is the emphasis of linguistic form on fluency or on accuracy?)
- 7) **Information of Preceding Utterances** (Is there any expansion and development of previous utterances in the students interaction or is it only restricted minimal exchanges of patterns that take place?)

For the coding of COLT, the researchers developed two different sets of procedures, which will be discussed in the next section.

4.4. Procedures of Coding in COLT

COLT is divided into two parts, Part A and Part B (see Appendices 1 and 2). Part A is designed for use "on the spot" though it can also be applied retrospectively to audio/videorecordings. All activities are timed and the starting times are entered in the left margin. Check marks are placed in different columns of its sections, according to the type of activity under observation, during a one minute coding period. Then, there is a two minutes break before another minute of coding is repeated. This type of timing has already been used in classroom oriented research by Spada (1984), and proved to be the appropriate one when using the system in the present study. Even though the present researcher went through a trial to investigate if it can be changed, the result was negative. So, the same timing was used in this project.

Part B is coded at a non-observing time from the taped sessions of the class observed, following the same timing as for Part A, and using the same samples as the latter.

The Canadian researchers, as already mentioned in Chapter 2, suggest two researchers are needed to make the system operational, as they have to check on reliability.

The same way of coding was selected for Part A, which was the only part used in the study. The reason for such a decision was due to the limitations which appear to exist in COLT.

4.5. The Structure of COLT and its Limitations

What is common between Spada 's research (1984) and the present project was the decision to use only Part A. Thus, Part B was only used by its creators in small-scale French as a foreign language research (FSL), immersion FSL, and ESL classes so far (Fröhlich, Spada and Allen, 1985, Spada, 1987). The present researcher decided to investigate the frequency of using L1 and L2 in Greek EFL classrooms in a different way, which is going to be presented and discussed in a following chapter.

The reasons which led to this decision were the following:

First of all, Part A is sufficiently detailed, since it provides a broad description through its categories, and this is what was needed in a descriptive study as the present one is. Its reliability was tried out by two researchers, and the results were positive, as will be discussed in a later section of this chapter. On the contrary, we went through a limited trying out of Part B, which was proved to be less reliable. Part B provides information on what it was said in the language classroom, but not why it was said so. After all, this was not the objective of this project (see Section 1.7 of this chapter for details). In addition, our suspicions were strengthened by the

fact that the Canadian researchers themselves use only Part A in their studies (e.g., Spada, 1984). For the above reasons, Part B was dropped and only Part A was used in the end.

Even the decision to use only Part A has not been without problems, and the latter started arising during the Pilot case studies. Since this led to a transformation of Part A of the system, it is worth examining them separately.

4.6. Operational Problems in COLT

Where it seems problems started arising was when the present researcher attempted to find information on the definition of categories. Very little information turned out to be available in the published literature.

When the researcher contacted the creators of the system there was immediate response, and she was provided with all the papers produced so far on the system. She was also informed however that there was no manual with instructions on the use of this instrument, and she was urged to work on it and use it according to her own decisions! This was a very big challenge, and it seemed to be the only solution to the problem, as areas of vagueness appeared to be in the original system. The focus of the main problems seemed to be in the Content and the Materials parameters. Among the Language categories, no definition at all was given for "Implicit". The "Other Topics" area, subdivided into "Narrow", "Limited", and "Broad" categories, appeared to be poorly defined. One does not know under which category to classify stories or role-play for example, as well as how to distinguish "Narrow" from "Limited" or "Limited" from "Broad". If one would suggest the category "Other" to be used for anything that does not fit any other category, this would create some kind of confusion, because additional information would be needed on these codings.

The "Materials" parameter also appeared to be problematic. Under the area of "Type", it was not clear where e.g., reading instructions on a task or the written

production of a text or the completion of a cloze text could be classified. There were not clear cut instructions about e.g., the teacher only or/and a tape recorder being ticked under "Audio", as well as about the textbook only or/and materials other than the textbook ticked under Visual. The definitions for categories such as "Pedagogic", "Semi-pedagogic" and "Non-pedagogic", were not accompanied by sufficient examples to clarify the purpose of their design. Lastly, there was no information at all about the "Use of materials" area. After all, it seems that this category was really problematic for the Canadian researchers as well, because one can see that it is not used at all in studies undertaken by them (e.g., Spada 1984).

This is how the study of all the parameters of the system started, as the pressure for the main studies was approaching.

It was decided that since all the sessions were going to be taped, the observations could be done by one observer, and reliability checks could follow later by two researchers, using the tapes. This technique proved to be successful, as mentioned in the previous chapter.

The system had to be transformed and tested before carrying out the final analysis of data from the main case studies. Three kinds of changes were made on this purpose:

- a) Some of the categories in the system were dropped,
- b) new categories were developed to include important features, and
- c) clearer definitions were written followed by examples.

After the transformation, the system was tested in a private school for foreign languages in Southampton, during the period of summer 1989. It was found out that this time, with some minor corrections, the system started operating very well in the U.K. context, and this was expected for the Greek, as well.

A full presentation of COLT as it was finally transformed, will be the concern of the next section.

4.7. COLT Revisited

The transformation of COLT (Appendix 3) started in 1989, as already mentioned, and it has been highly operational through the period autumn 1989 - end of spring 1990, when the field work was accomplished. The rules which made it operational are presented below, followed by examples, attempting to give an explicit picture of the system.

4.7.1. Definition of Categories

The COLT observation scheme (Allen, Fröhlich and Spada, 1984, Allen and Carroll, 1987, Allen and Carroll, 1988, Allen, 1989) is divided into two parts. Part A describes classroom events at the level of episode and activity, and Part B analyses the communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students or students themselves as they occur within each activity. The main parameters and categories follow as transformed:

Main Parameters and Categories: Part A

(Out of columns) **Left blank space** - Activities are numbered e.g., 1, 2a, 2b, 3 etc.

Col. 1	Time - Enter starting time of each episode (consider as separate episode any action or interaction that is a minute or longer).
Col. 2	I Activity - open-ended, that is, no predetermined descriptors have to be checked off by the observer. Each activity and its constituent

episodes are separately described e.g., drill, translation, discussion, game, etc. (separate activities); teacher introduces dialogue teacher reads dialogue aloud, students repeat dialogue parts after teacher (3 episodes of one activity).

II Participant Organization - three basic patterns of organization. In case of more than one marks in the appropriate boxes, a circle is drawn round the check mark in the box which represents the primary focus or predominant feature of the activity/episode. Two or more sub-categories may be circled to indicate equal emphasis.

Col. 3

1. Whole class

Col. 4

a) Teacher to student or class, and vice versa (one central activity led by the teacher is going on; the teacher interacts with the whole class and/or with individual students).

Col. 4

b) Student to student, or student to class and vice versa (Students talk to each other, either as part of the lesson or as informal socializing; one central activity led by a student may be going on, e.g., a group of students act out a skit or a role play and the rest of the class is the audience.

Col. 5

c) Choral work by students (the whole class or groups participate in the choral work, repeating a model provided by the textbook or teacher).

2. Group Work

Col. 6

a) Groups all work on the same task.

Col. 7

b) Groups work on different tasks. If possible, indicate number of groups, and number of participants within group, e.g., 4/5 (=four groups, with five participants in each group); 3/3-6 (=three groups with number of participants varying from three to six).

3. Individual Seatwork

Col. 8, 9

- a) Individual seatwork (Students work on their own, all on the same task or on different tasks). This column is normally used when students are writing an exercise.
- b) Group/Individual work (Some students are involved in group work, others work on their own).

III Content - subject matter of activities, that is, what the teacher and the students are talking, reading or writing about or what they are, listening to. Three major content areas have been differentiated: Management, Language and Other Topics.

1. Management:

Col. 10

- a) **Procedure:** ticked when the teacher gives instructions on a task. For commands such as 'Open your books' a check mark is put under Procedure, but it is not considered as a separate episode.
- Col. 11 b) **Discipline:** refers to the teacher's critical comments on student behaviour.

It is only when directives are being given for one minute or longer that Procedure or Discipline become a separate episode.

2. Focus on Language

Col. 12

- a) **Form:** grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

Col. 13

- b) **Function:** ticked for explicit focus on illocutionary acts such as requesting, apologizing, and explaining. (But you tick on both Function and Form with the teacher's explicit statements, such as: "There are different ways of expressing opinions. You can say 'In my opinion', 'I think', etc.").

Col. 14

- c) **Discourse:** reference to the way sentences combine into cohesive and coherent sequences, e.g., process description. (e.g., 'This sentence does not follow. There is a logical gap;'

or 'When you want to describe different steps, it helps to say first, second, lastly etc.' or 'If you start in the present tense, you cannot switch into the past' or 'It is not clear what this pronoun refers to in the preceding paragraph. You can't switch 'tu' and 'vous' all the time.').

Col. 15 d) **Sociolinguistics:** reference to the features of forms, styles or utterances which make them, appropriate to particular contexts. (e.g., 'You use 'tu' with friends and 'vous' with strangers'.)

3. Other Topics - a tripartite system to represent, the potentially vast number of topics which can arise in classroom conversation. The categories under 'Language' and 'Other Topic' frequently co-occur. (e.g. Today we are going to learn how to write a letter of request (Function). You have to start with 'Dear...', state what you what, then give your reasons, express your thanks, etc., (Discourse). The letter is addressed to a stranger. Make sure you are very polite, etc. (Sociolinguistics)).

a) **Narrow (16-20):**

Col. 16 **Stereotype** stands for formulaic exchanges such as "Good morning", "How are you?", which have phatic value but little conceptual content, classroom environment and routine classroom references, such as date, day of the week, weather.

Col. 17 **Pers/Bio** stands for students' personal and family affairs.

Col. 18 **Stories** is ticked when the teacher or students work on a given (textbook) story or dialogue or when they create a story of their own. Stories are classified under Narrow, Limited and Broad (see further), according to their content.

Col. 19 **Acting** when students deal with 'role-play' activity, not the exact repetition or reading of a textbook situation. When "acting" is chosen, another content category will normally be chosen to show the topic of the role-play.

b) ***Limited (20-25):***

Col. 20 **Pers/Fam** relate to students personal and family affairs.

Col. 21 **Soc/Com** refer to topics such as movies, theatre, shopping etc.

Col. 22 **School T.** is ticked when students deal with school topics and extra-curricular activities.

Col. 23 **Stories** as under Narrow.

Col. 24 **Acting** as under Narrow.

Col. 25 **Other** is ticked for other subject matters for either Limited or Narrow or Broad. Also for songs, jokes etc.

c) ***Broad (26-30):***

Col. 26 **Abstract** refers to abstract ideas.

Col. 27 **Pers/Ref** is ticked for personal information.

Col. 28 **World T.** refers to world events and public issues.

Col. 29 **Lit/ Po/ Ar** is ticked when students deal with literature, art, poetry, history.

Col. 30 **Stories** as under Narrow and Limited.

Col. 31-33 **4. Topic Control** - These categories refer to the initial selection of the topic to be discussed, that is the teacher (this may be done in conjunction with the book, as well, in this case type of material has to be ticked), the student, or both?

IV Student Modality - This section identifies the various skills which may be involved in a classroom activity.

Col. 34-37 **Listening- Speaking - Reading- Writing:** The focus is on the students, and the purpose is to discover whether they are listening, speaking, reading or writing, or whether these skills are occurring in combination.

Col. 38 **Practical Activities** is ticked when DRAWING is given as a classroom activity, MODELLING when students are involved in model constructions, and DISPLAYING when students arrange classroom displays, or any other practical activity, singing etc.

V Materials - This parameter is used to introduce categories , capable of describing the materials used in connection with classroom activities.

1. Type:

Col. 39-40	a)	Text: Minimal- captions, isolated sentences, word lists. Extended- stories, dialogues, connected sentences and paragraphs. Under TEXT and EXTENDED, prescribed dialogues will be classified. TEXT and EXTENDED will also be ticked when students read instructions on a task. TEXT is also ticked when the students produce a text of their own through writing, or if they are completing a cloze text, e.g., minimal (blanks) or extended (whole text).
Col. 41	b)	Audio will be ticked only when a tape recorder (equipment) is used in the classroom.
Col. 42	c)	Visual will be ticked only when teacher shows materials other than the coursebook in the classroom.
Col. 43-45	d)	Pedagogic - Semi-pedagogic- Non-pedagogic: This second category of materials refer to the origin and the purpose of the teaching materials used. Pedagogic: The materials were specifically designed for L2 purposes. Semi-pedagogic: ‘Authentic’ or non-pedagogic materials, adapted for instructional purposes. (L1 or non-school purposes or real-life objects and texts but in a modified form are ticked under this category). Textbook materials may also be coded as semi-pedagogic, where ‘authentic’ materials have been adapted (e.g., maps, photos).

Non-pedagogic: Materials originally intended for some other purpose. (Not textbook!) e.g., postcards.

2. Use:

Col. 46	a)	High Control refers to the teacher's strict control of materials use (e.g., materials provided by the writer of the course book).
Col. 47	b)	Semi Control refers to the students little freedom in the use of materials (e.g., materials other than the textbook provided by the teacher himself/herself or adapted by the teacher for L2 classroom purposes, not expected by the students, used with the teacher's help and guidance).
Col. 48	c)	Mini Control refers to the students broad freedom of materials use (e.g., materials are student-made such as stories, reports etc. and used by them without the teacher's guidance).

The above descriptive scheme seems to be appropriate for the purposes of the present study. Its variety of features such as type and number of content categories, coding procedures etc., as well as the rules through which it operates, are in the position to provide valuable information about what really happens in the FL classroom. As there is sometimes the problem that what teachers claim to do in their classroom is far away from what they really do, the system has got the potential to reveal the true picture of their instructional processes.

As has already been mentioned, the transformed COLT had to go through reliability checks before being applied in the main case studies. Two researchers started this procedure after the pilot case studies were accomplished.

4.8. Checking the Reliability of COLT

As soon as both of the pilot cases were accomplished, it was decided that it was time for both parts of the system to be tested for their reliability. For this reason, four hours of observation were selected and tested. This led to the transformation of COLT for all the above reasons we have already listed. Then, after the main case studies were accomplished, ten lessons were selected to be tested by two researchers.

It was first agreed to go through two of the cases, listening only to the tape and looking at the original, on-the-spot codings, stopping only to discuss where a disagreement or a clarification was needed. Then, another two cases were selected to be tested in a different way. This time, the researcher who observed the cases had to code on a new sheet without consulting at all her on-the-spot codings, and the other had to follow the process, stopping the tape recorder from time to time to discuss as necessary.

The remaining six cases were checked in a third way. Both researchers took a separate sheet with the system, and started coding each one of them separately. At the end of the process, they were checking on their similarities and differences, and arriving at a common decision.

The outcome of this process was a high level of agreement (98 - 100%) in the final sample, which was beyond their expectations. It was thus demonstrated that as it concerns Part A, COLT is a reliable instrument, and the first researcher had to go through recoding from the beginning for all the remainder of her cases (54 in total out of 64, since 10 of the total amount was already done as it is already described above).

As for Part B, it was initially tested jointly and separately as well, but it was decided not to use it in the end. The researcher 's main reason for trying it was her interest in the extent to which the foreign language was used in comparison to the mother tongue, and on what cases there was a shift into the latter. Because of the

unreliability of Part B, it was decided for this question to be investigated in a different way, which is going to appear in a later chapter.

4.9. Reasons for the Success of the Transformed System

It can be claimed that COLT in its transformed version is a reliable descriptive observational system, with a high degree of effectiveness for the investigation of the communicative orientation of different types of instruction, in contexts other than that of its first development. It cannot be claimed that the present study provides information on the relationship between classroom experiences and student foreign language achievement, because although student data achievement was taken into consideration, the students were never pre-tested or post-tested. There has been an attempt to fill in this gap with students questionnaires, which combined with teacher interviews, can explain the relationship between different types of instruction and proficiency in various aspects of foreign language skills. Nevertheless, the product is very little, and the focus is mainly on process. What one can claim at this point is that the system was proved to be reliable, something that makes the present study solid. There are many reasons for the success of the transformed system:

First of all, the huge amount of data collected from a large number of classes, typical of the Greek state secondary schools.

Second, the teachers' audience is homogenous as concerns their age.

Third, teachers and students share the same mother tongue, as they come from the same context (Greece is a monolingual country), and both of them use the target language as a foreign language.

Even if the transformed version of the system is highly operational and informative about such contexts as the Greek one, it is still not in the position to give information on CLT issues such as individual students' learning process and individual teacher's

strategies. In order to be able to validate the findings, one has to take into consideration both factors, the teacher's and the students' opinions, and find out the degree of their agreement combined with the observation itself. The relationship between different types of instruction and student FL proficiency can be only achieved through additional instruments, which can provide information on what are the teacher's and students' attitudes towards the target language. This can be achieved through the development of other instruments such as teacher interviews and student questionnaires.

Behaviours and attitudes deriving from both sides can be valuable, but nobody can claim that what is said from either side alone is what is done in the FL classroom. This is where the present system finds its right position in this study. The data collected through COLT revisited will be presented and analysed in Chapter 7. As it concerns the rest of the instruments which support this study, they will be presented each one separately, and the data collected through them will be analysed. Taking this plan into consideration, our next step is to start dealing with the teacher interviews.

CHAPTER 5: TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE AND BELIEFS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter opens the second part of this thesis which deals exclusively with the methodology of data collection and analysis of the present study.

The data consists of teacher interviews, pupil questionnaires, student data achievement, systematic observation, and sociocultural information.

The present chapter is the first in the series and it deals with the teacher interviews. This is actually the type of data that the researcher collected last, as she was highly interested in investigating what really happens in the Greek EFL classroom, and then comparing it with what teachers claim they do in their classroom. The decision to conduct the interviews later rather than earlier was for two major reasons:

- First of all, the researcher's presence was not threatening, because of the friendly atmosphere that was established between her and each one of the teachers during the one month everyday contact. This made the teachers feel relaxed and moreover confident towards the researcher, because of the promise given to them in advance about anonymity in the presentation of their opinions. And,
- Second, it prevented them from giving a false picture about themselves and enabled them to talk more concretely about their knowledge, the practices they use, the context in which they operate, the educational policies as it concerns the foreign

languages and the other subjects, the general educational spirit in the Greek society, their students, as well as the problems they face as practitioners. Thus, the researcher has been in a position to make comparisons between what it was claimed and what was really done, and receive valuable information from the respondents' part.

However, the researcher's decision to present and analyze this kind of data first is justified by the fact that teachers are the focus of the present study and as such, they are entitled to occupy the first position in the rank.

5.2. Planning the Interviews

The use of interviews was based on the fact that they are an adaptable way of providing information on the teacher's ideas, motives and feelings, as well as giving the chance of developed and clarified responses. The personal contact that took place and which appeared as a discussion between both parties, enlightened many aspects as it gave the potential of capturing the slightest reaction of each one of the interviewees.

Once the content of the interviews had been given thorough thought by the researcher, the main problem that appeared to be predominant was how to plan these interviews, so that they would not be too time consuming and make the subjects feel bored or frustrated, depriving them of other activities and commitments that each one of them was engaged in. The researcher was already informed through informal and friendly discussions that most of the teachers were mothers of very little children. This made her twice as careful as concerns the time spent on them.

(The selection of teachers, as already explained in a previous chapter, followed the selection of representative regions. It was by chance that all the interviewees happened to be women. It is difficult to find a good proportion of male foreign

language teachers in the Greek educational system, because they usually prefer to study and teach other subjects than a foreign language. Thus, foreign languages have usually been a woman's profession. It is only a few years before the present researcher joined the foreign language division at the University as a student for her first degree that male foreign language teachers started appearing in this professional arena. This explains the fact why all the subjects participating in this project happened to be females, thus putting more pressure on the planning and the administration of the interviews).

Another problem that had to be taken into consideration was the "bias" factor. The researcher's views were strong enough about the questions she was going to ask the subjects, since she was first educated in that context, and later practised the profession for a good number of years. The fact that she happens to be an experienced and trained teacher with postgraduate studies, and aware of the Greek foreign language teachers' problems, as well as her limited experience in interviewing, could have put the whole process at a risk. She had to try to be as little biased as possible, trying always not to identify herself with her subjects, and being always careful with the questions she was going to construct at the first stage, and the way she was going to put them to the teachers later on. The idea of self-control had to be piloted, as well as the testing of the interviews from the point of view of timing, objectivity, language appropriacy, and analysis of the results. Apart from this, there were other structural matters to be given careful thought. These were the selection of methodology, the time, the place and the style that the interviews were going to take place. These are going to be the concern of the section that follows.

5.3. Designing the Teacher Interview

The first idea to be given a thought was: what kind of questions have to be asked, and how much information can be obtained, relevant to the subject under investigation?



In order to be effective, the researcher started with four main ideas, relevant to the study, on topics that she was interested in investigating:

- 1) **How well were the teachers equipped for their profession and how experienced was each one of them?**
- 2) **What were the strategies that each one of them were following in their everyday classroom procedures, and what led them to such decisions?**
- 3) **What was their judgement about their students' progress and what type of relationship was established between teachers and students?**
- 4) **How up to date was their knowledge of language theory and methodology, with emphasis on the communicative approaches, and particularly on the so-called communicative language teaching, and what are their views on teacher effectiveness?**

The above ideas were summarised under four headings:

- 1) **teacher qualifications,**
- 2) **teaching methods,**
- 3) **students' current achievements, and**
- 4) **notions of good language teaching.**

The reason for this sequence was the belief that teachers were going to find it easier to talk about themselves first, and then talk about their strategies and their students' progress. The most threatening part of the interview was left for the end, because it was checking on their knowledge as professionals. In this way, a clear picture on every aspect of each one of the respondents was going to be drawn.

The next problem to deal with was the type of interview to be designed. A structured interview was going to help the researcher to cope with her limited experience in the administration and analysis of it, but it was going to make both parties behave like machines. On the other hand, an unstructured one could feed the study with valuable data, but it was going to be time consuming as it concerns its analysis, and would pose difficulties in its administration since it demands the skills of an experienced researcher (Wragg 1984, Cohen and Manion 1985, Bell 1987). This judgement led to the decision for a semi-structured interview.

This type of interviewing was expected to facilitate the analysis because of its framework, and also to promote the natural flow of conversation, both matters highly important to the researcher, because of the limited time within which a thesis has to be accomplished.

As soon as the content and the methodology of the interview were established, the next step to follow was to work under every one of the four headings, so as to formulate more specific questions, relevant to every one of the headings. The length of each one of the sections had to be limited for reasons that are already analysed. It proved to be a very difficult task to fulfil all these kinds of limitations, but it gave the researcher valuable experience in interview design.

5.4. The Piloting of the Interview

As happened for the other instruments, the interview was also piloted in the two schools that had been selected for this purpose. The two teachers who participated in the pilot were interviewed when the systematic observation came to an end, and after the researcher had collected all the information included in her other instruments.

The place chosen by both parties was an office, offered by the Principal and the rest of the staff, where nobody was going to interrupt them. The time and the day were chosen by the teachers themselves, so as not to face any commitments which

were going to create a tense atmosphere for them. With a cup of coffee and a friendly joke in order to relax, both parties passed into the interview smoothly. Both teachers were asked for permission to be recorded; permission was gladly offered to the researcher, after she explained that it would facilitate her work, and that the teachers' anonymity was going to be strictly kept. Since the teachers were reassured that nobody was going to listen to their interviews apart from the researcher, the same tape recorder which was used for the systematic observation, was used for the recording of the interviews. The teachers were interviewed separately, and they never learnt what the other told the researcher. The latter has kept this kind of policy up to the end of the whole project, so as to avoid the production of diplomatic answers on the interviewees' part, and thus, serving the aims of her project.

Both interviews were timed (their actual duration was **75 minutes approximately**), and the subjects were kindly thanked in the end for their valuable contribution to the project.

The Principals of the schools and the rest of the staff were also thanked, as well as the General Directors for each region.

When the researcher tried to go through an analysis of the interviews, she found that very little remedial work needed to be done. It was found that it had to do with minor problems such as the use of a more specific word or the use of a prompt in two or three places. This permitted the interview to become more effective and more economical, as concerns the time factor. As soon as this was over, the interview was ready to administer for the main cases.

5.5. Administration of the Interviews in the Main Cases

The final design for the teacher interview ended up with the following number of main questions:

Section A=8, Section B=14

Section C=6, Section D=7 (For the final version of the teacher interview see Appendix 4).

The actual duration for each one was between (45) forty five and (60) sixty minutes, depending on how much each teacher had to say.

The place, the time and the day were selected by the teachers. Seven teachers were interviewed in an office in their own schools, five of them in the morning and two in the afternoon, after they had finished with their sessions, and on days that they were finishing very early. This means that they had arranged all their commitments some days before the interview took place.

Three of the teachers invited the researcher to their homes in the afternoon, on days chosen by them for the reasons already explained above.

One of the teachers decided to travel to the researcher's native place and be interviewed in her own home, as well as spend the week-end with her before her leaving for England.

It is worth mentioning that the researcher did not have any personal contact with her subjects before interviewing them. The same conditions do not exist any more, as these teachers became most of them everlasting friends, who are still interested in the results of the project, always offering their psychological support.

One of the problems that the researcher was facing at the end of the interviews was the teachers' request for an evaluation of their work. All the teachers, without any exception, were interested in learning what was right or wrong with their practices, and were asking questions seeking for more knowledge in theory and practice, and general guidance towards improvement. This thirst for more knowledge and for a critique put the researcher in a very difficult position, as her task was not to evaluate those practitioners, but only to serve the aims of her project. She tried in

a diplomatic way to avoid an open critique and give her suggestions in the same diplomatic way. She was aware that the present lack of advisors is a major reason for the suffering of both the present advisors and the teachers, as well. Sometimes also, the fear of the old superintendents, whose task was to inhibit the promotion of the teachers rather than guiding them towards professional improvement, leads the teachers to refuse the advisor's presence in their classrooms. It seems that all the above reasons explain why teachers in Greece seek for a critique which comes from a person who has nothing to do with their evaluation for purposes of promotion.

All the above factors, as well as the informality that the researcher was trying to create during the administration of all eleven interviews, have operated on her side. It seems that this style and this type of methodology have been beneficial for the project, and a good amount of data was ready to be analysed.

5.6. Organising the Analysis

All eleven interviews were recorded, as has been already mentioned. This was very helpful to the researcher because she was left to focus on the administration rather than trying to cope with notes, facial expressions, reactions, prompts etc.

The next step she had to follow was to listen carefully to each one of the interviews. The recording refreshed her memory and helped her in their written reproduction. When it came to the latter, the lack of a transcription machine proved to make the process much too time consuming. As a final idea, it was decided to listen carefully first in order to make sense of the teachers' answers, and then transfer the dialogues on the paper. This attempt proved to be operational and as such highly effective. This is how all the eleven interviews were transcribed. They were further checked so as to secure the accuracy of the teachers' opinions included in the recording.

When the interviews took shape in front of the researcher's eyes, the problem of how to analyse them started appearing. A qualitative analysis was decided on, but there were practical problems with the number of questions and answers to analyse. In the end, another formula was found to sort out the new problem.

Each question from every section was written on a separate sheet of paper. As soon as this was accomplished, all the transcribed interviews were photocopied. Then, the cutting up of every single answer started, and one by one at a time were stuck in order under the corresponding question. In this way, all the eleven answers appeared in the end, the one after the other on the same sheet of paper, with the teachers coded under a number. The names corresponding to the numbers were kept on a separate list, as e.g. 1=Kate Stevens. This could provide information about who was answering the question. The repetition of the same procedure helped the researcher to learn by heart the correspondence of the names and numbers, something that facilitated her further work, even if it happened to be a highly mechanical and sometimes boring job. The fact that it has provided a very high degree of security and it has been operational, justifies its application.

5.7. Teacher Qualifications

In the first section, each one of the teachers gave a good account about their academic qualifications and practical experience.

All the teachers had graduated from Greek Universities, 6 from the University of Athens and 5 from the University of Thessaloniki. They were all of them B.A holders in English and they have never received any kind of pre-service training, apart from teacher 2, who attended a short pre-service training course at International House in London. The latter stayed for two years in England in order to improve her skills as a language learner, changing different jobs, before going back to Greece and embarking on the teaching profession.

When the teachers were asked how many years they were working in state schools, it was found out that only one of them, teacher (T for short) 7, had been working for 2 years only, as she happens to be an assistant teacher. The rest of them had been working from 3 to 17 years.

In addition to their state school experience, the teachers had been working in private language schools for a period of 6 months to 10 years, before joining the public sector. Table 4.1 gives a clear picture of their work experience in both sectors.

TABLE 5.1 Teachers' Practical Experiences

Teacher	State	Private	Total
T 1 H	15	2	17
T 2 H+S	4	10	14
T 3 H	3	3	6
T 4 S	11	0.5	11.5
T 5 H	10	0.5	10.5
T 6 S	5.5	2.5	8
T 7 S	2	1	3
T 8 H	7	1	8
T 9 H	9	4	13
T 10 H	12	4	16
T 11 S	17	3	20

H = High School
S = Senior High School

5.7.1. Teachers' Skills

When the teachers were asked about their own FL skills, there has been a diversity as it concerns their opinions on themselves.

Three of the teachers (T1, T2 and T11) said that they were in the position to transmit their knowledge of English effectively to their students. It seems however that none of the three believe that their education played a very important role in their lives as professionals. On the contrary, they saw their success as due to personal factors. T10 also named herself as gifted in learning foreign languages, as well as very good at imitating a native speaker easily.

T3, T5 and T9 complained that their skills used to be stronger in the past, but throughout the years they became weaker. For T3 the reason is that she did not receive any help, and the use of her skills became limited as she kept on working in state schools. The same was claimed by T5, who added that another reason was that she was never given the chance to study the FL abroad, even for a short period of time. T9 referred to the low level of the high school, as the previous teachers did, which affected her skills, as well as the lack of contact with native speakers of the language. The latter admitted that there were two additional factors applying to her personal case; the responsibilities towards her family (a mother of two little children), and her interest towards the reading of Greek literature more than literature in the foreign language.

T7 felt that all her skills were improving lately (she was working in a Senior High School), and T11 (working in a Senior High School) felt that her speaking appeared to be remarkably improved.

T4 and T8 did not express any particular complaint, but they did not claim that there was no problem with their skills.

When they were asked to rank their skills, the answers which were received were diverse. Ts 1, 2, 8, and 11 expressed the view that their skills were equal, although T1 admitted that she has got a small problem with fluency, and Ts 8 and 11 claimed that their writing was good, but not as strong as the other skills of theirs. T3 admitted general weakness because of limited use of all skills in the High School, which led to her forgetting.

T4 claimed that her listening and writing were top in the rank, whereas speaking and reading were occupying the second place.

Ts 5, 7, and 10 said that their receptive skills (listening and reading) are predominant, whereas their productive skills (speaking and writing) were under improvement but second in the rank, with writing less improved for T5 and speaking less improved for Ts 7 and 10.

Ts 6 and 9 placed their writing on the top, and their reading in the second place. Listening was in the second place for T9 but third for T6, whereas speaking was coming third in the rank for both of them. This has nothing to do with the level of the students they teach, because T6 works for a Senior High School and T9 for a High School.

5.7.2. Main Influences

When the teachers were asked to talk about the main influences on their professional development, they all referred to different seminars. All of them had attended seminars offered by the advisors of English. T1 found them interesting, applicable, and of high practical value. T2 did not underestimate them, but she claimed that her training in England had the main positive influence on her, because it put all her scattered abilities of a gifted teacher and a good performer in a formula, with a lot of hard work. "Nobody urged me to do so, my talent urged me, my own need for expression, as it happens with actors", she added. She also referred to TESOL Conventions, which apart from reassuring her knowledge in order to apply it, did not offer her any new piece of knowledge.

T3 referred to the intensive pre-service teacher training course she was offered (six hours a day for a whole month) by the British Council, which mainly influenced her, apart from the other seminars she attended before joining the public sector.

T8, T9 and T10 attended a fifteen days seminar organised by the Greek Ministry of Education, which gave them a lot of ideas, even if it has not been possible to apply all of them in their classes.

T8 attended another one of the same kind for ten days, organised also by the Ministry of Education. Apart from these, she was selected with three other colleagues of her from the same region to be trained on the new materials named "Taskway" for three months, and she applied them in her own school at their experimental stage, as their creators were testing them.

T10 attended TESOL twice, some others on a two days basis, as well as the annual private language schools seminars in her region, to which she is always invited.

T11 had the chance to attend a lot of seminars throughout her career, but as the other teachers who have never received any training, she declared: "I cannot say that I have profited as much as if I should have joined a teacher training course abroad, or a postgraduate course of studies". It was apparent that lack of training was a negative factor towards their professional improvement.

5.7.3. Personal Improvement

The next subject which was raised in the interview had to do with their personal efforts towards improvement, and mainly about reading they may have done. It seems that some of them were very fond of literature, and some others of the FL itself, or other types of books. Most of the teachers however had difficulty in remembering titles of professional books they had read!

T1 declared that lack of time, stimulus, as well as lack of information made her not read anything at all!

Ts 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, and 11 re-read their university books, as well as some professional books on linguistics, phonetics, morphology, listening comprehension, translation, language skills, methodology, articles in magazines about language, classroom teaching and materials production. Some extracts from these books also serve as materials in their classes. As it concerns titles of professional books, most of the teachers could not remember, as already said, with the exception of T5 who could only remember Longman and Fowler series in general. It was only Ts 8, 10, and 11 who made specific references on two Longman books Teaching English through English and The Practice of English Language Teaching by Jeremy Harmer, as well as A guide to the Teaching of the English Language, written especially for Taskway series. The titles of professional magazines given to the researcher were Forum, The Woman, Practical English Teaching, and Aspect (the latter is quarterly, issued by the Greek secondary education with articles both in English and Greek).

Lastly, three teachers from the previous group, Ts 2, 3 and 4, as well as Ts 6 and 9 read British, American and Greek literature, mostly because they enjoyed it or because these were the books they could easily find! In addition, T2 read books on psychology, and T6 was studying a lot of English and American history.

5.7.4. Co-operation with Colleagues

When the teachers were asked about their co-operation with colleagues of theirs, most of the answers were positive.

T1 seems to be the only one who saw other teachers' presentations in other schools than her own. She has always had satisfactory co-operation with other teachers and the Advisor of English.

T2 claimed that apart from her trainer and trainees in England who could see and correct her mistakes, the rest of her practical experience in Greece has been mostly negative. When she was asked for further explanations, she replied: "There were very

few instances of co-operation, because it has been mostly an antagonistic attitude on the part of the majority". This teacher seemed to be equally very demanding on her own self and the others.

Ts 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10 had the chance to co-operate with colleagues of theirs, exchanging opinions having to do with their own development, the methodology they use, students' attitudes towards their methodology, and use of materials. They were also exchanging handouts and books, and they were sorting out everyday problems through the advice they received from more experienced teachers. T10 also had the experience of presenting a subject in front of an audience with another teacher from the same region, but from another school than hers.

Ts 9 and 11 had negative practical experience. The first because she was mostly the only person teaching the subject in her school, and rarely having information from teachers of another city about seminars and innovations only, feeling that she was lucky because she had met them in her professional life, whereas the latter was never given a chance, because she has always been the only EFL teacher in her school. This is how she described her situation: "What I have had was only my books, my magazines, some seminars, my students and myself".

What emerges from the above is that where there has been no co-operation among the teachers, this has not been the case because of lack of interest about their own needs or the needs of their colleagues. It is because they have been isolated and thus left without any choice.

When the teachers were asked to evaluate what they gained positively from that experience, most of them replied that they did not gain much practical experience, as they did not have the chance to see different models of teaching. Nevertheless, they admitted that whatever the case has been, they have had an improvement as professionals. Areas of improvement claimed to be methodology, materials, pronunciation, vocabulary, expressions, self-critique, flexibility in processes and their evaluation, learning how to create varieties, "know thyself" and feel more confident

towards this direction in their classes. Discussions and meetings with colleagues of theirs have also been helpful.

There have been teachers like T5, T6 and T11, who appeared to claim that their improvement was due to their own efforts. T11 has been in the position to express it in the best of ways: "I had to struggle by myself to become a competent teacher. My persistence, my stubborn attitude and my worthy self-esteem contributed to my development, so that I do not become a shameful person. This little help with a needs analysis for my students were what I gained positively".

As concerns non-helpful aspects affecting their improvement, there has been a total agreement that their theoretical knowledge was mostly derived from their University studies, but even then the University educational system is not in the position to promote each student to use his/her potential in the appropriate subject, each one of them feels like a single unit in the crowd. Knowledge on methodology comes mostly from books and magazines, as well as very few practical seminars. There have been instances where teachers felt mixed up by diversity of opinions expressed by colleagues of theirs who wanted to help, advisors and books on methodological matters. Most of them felt that whatever works successfully in state schools is because they spend their own money and their time in the preparation of their materials, and they even have to face obstacles in these efforts of theirs. What kind of obstacles do teachers face?

T1 describes these other negative factors as follows: "The fact that we are advised by our school principals to use the devices as less as we can so that they are not damaged is another negative aspect that has nothing to do with our feeling or mood to work properly, but it is still an agent of inhibition".

T2 claims that one has to be very persistent when asking for things, and this is disappointing for the teachers. She added: "I have been disappointed many times, you have seen me cracking in front of you".

T3 presented the whole situation in state schools like this: "They do not care if you are helped or if you work, what they want is to have a teacher in every post so as to deal with the students, this is what I have felt up till now".

T7 claimed that nobody informs a new teacher about administrative problems. "You always have to run after colleagues of yours and ask them questions, and if they are kind enough, they tell you how to do things".

T11 summarizes the whole problem as such: "Lack of co-operation with colleagues and lack of further studies and training were the non-helpful aspects".

Among all the teachers, there were only T8, T9, and T10 who could not see any negative aspect, as their belief was that when one gets involved, there is always some kind of gain. Nevertheless, these three did not claim that there has not been any problem at all in their professional life.

5.7.5. Knowledge of Theory and Methodology

As concerns their knowledge of theory and methodology, there has been a consensus that it derives from the University studies, apart from T2 who was always mentioning how much she was helped by her training in England. Then some books have been helpful, which were not specified by the teachers, apart from T3 who referred to two small books by Burton on theory of language and her readings during her training by the British Council.

As concerns practice, it derives from books, seminars or training for Ts 2 and 3. There has never been any link between theory and practice, and teachers were deprived of the chance to draw conclusions, choose what to do, and be able to justify it. All teachers agreed not only on the gap that exists between theory and practice, but also on the fact that there has never been any brushing up or expansion of their

theoretical knowledge since they left the University, apart from their personal efforts. This resulted in having a poor memory in such matters.

5.7.6. Relevance of Theory and Methodology to Practice

When the interview came to the question of how relevant the study of theory and methodology have been to them in their classroom, it was only T1 who claimed that it had not been helpful, because of the plurality of subjects and the lack of combinations, which led her not to be able to store this piece of knowledge in memory. The rest of the teachers said that it was relevant, though it was only T2 who gave it a very high percentage as 80%. Rejustification of knowledge according to the environment in which one works, joined knowledge and effort under strong guidance, experience, strong intuition, and love for the subject, are elements needed in addition to one's previous knowledge. The teachers admitted that it is only now that some of them understand their needs, not when they used to be students at the University. T8 described their past and present ideas as follows: "Many of our colleagues claim that theories are useless and hard to study. I think they are wrong as concerns the first, and right as concerns the second. It is not easy to go back and become a University student again, but what we must have in mind is that practice which is not based on good theoretical grounds cannot be right and fruitful".

5.7.7. Summary on Teacher Education and Training

When the researcher asked them to summarize this first section as to how much their education and training met their needs as language teachers, most of the teachers replied that these were partially met.

T1 claimed that what she gained was language and skills improvement from her education, and if seminars can be called "training", new ways of teaching.

T2 put it on a 50% basis, because the other 50% was innate in her. "What I know is that I am not an exemplar of a Greek teacher", she claimed, "most of them do not have this equilibrium".

T3 was very negative, she declared that she was feeling weak, disappointed and helpless, and T5 felt that the seminars corrected very little things, and she was not ashamed, as she said, to confess that there is always a gap in her. She also regretted that she changed her strong University in order to attend another, which apart from two good lecturers was not offering much to her at those times.

Ts 4, 6, 7, 8, and 9, asked for more seminars to help them with everyday practical problems in their classrooms, because they claimed that even if they know things, they do not know how to apply them in their classrooms.

T10 said that she needed still to receive a 25%, and T11 raised her own needs to a 30% to receive. The latter declared that she is in need of a training in order to feel more secure.

The conclusion drawn by this section is that training is the top necessity of the Greek EFL teachers. They need to expand their theoretical knowledge and enrich their practices. The fact that they are inhibited in using the school equipment is a very serious problem. Principals should be advised by the Ministry that the devices were given in order to be used, not to be stored, otherwise their existence in schools is meaningless! Materials and books need money and time to be found or made, and this is achieved at the expenses of the teachers' own money! The question that arises is: how much have languages and language teachers' needs been ignored? In the rise of a united EEC in 1992, in which Greece is a full member, this is a good question to raise.

5.8. Teaching Methods

5.8.1. Aims in Teaching English

When the teachers were asked about their overall aims in teaching English, there was a general agreement on communication with people from foreign countries, love the FL as a subject, have a global understanding of the target language, strengthen their skills in order to use it properly. They claimed that experiencing the FL through communication is love for life, and their aim is to prove to their students that this is a tool through which one can achieve knowledge about other subjects, such as the FL culture, customs, habits etc. Another target of theirs is to make them learn how to co-operate, in order to become more sociable and less shy.

It was T1 who said that she would also like her students to write well in the target language, and she complained that there are less chances for each one of them to talk, because of the large number of students in the High School, and the limited time to be consumed for every exercise.

T3 also referred to two of the skills especially, reading and writing (she was teaching in a High School as well), and she pointed out that the teacher has to know his/her students well, something that is not always possible, in order to adjust his/her aims according to their needs.

Lastly, T11 added that the teacher must also have pedagogical aims, and she pointed out that his/her role in the Senior High School is usually repetitive and additive to their previous acquired knowledge through private language schools and the High School.

It seems that the teachers operate according to the parameters they have to consider in the school where they work.

5.8.2. Teaching Strategy

Then, the teachers were asked to present their overall teaching strategy. All of them referred to diverse parameters that one has to take into consideration, such as content, the kind of school to teach, the climate in the classroom, the length of the classroom, the teacher's mood! They taught their students through listening and reading comprehensions, dialogues on the cassettes, different types of materials that could help them in their aims.

Ts 1 and 4 declared that they were following the coursebook strictly. T1 admitted that it is only sometimes that she got rid of the book in order to follow a strategy of her own, whereas T4 said that this was due to the fact that she did not know so many things to decide for herself. She believes in modern coursebooks with more conversations, more speaking on the students' part, dialogues and cassettes. She claims that she does not follow the author's methodology, only when this creates serious problems to her students, for reasons of inappropriacy.

T7 follows the coursebook but she also uses a lot of diverse materials, so as to make the subject more interesting and achieve learning for communication.

How did they teach grammar? Most of them gave their students rules, mostly in Greek, and then a lot of exercises. They claimed that the reason for this was that they were teaching mixed ability classes, apart from T10 who was teaching students of the same level, and not all of their students could always follow them.

What was the usual procedure to follow? This was a warming up activity, then a presentation of the lesson, comprehension questions, and lastly, exercises to practice new vocabulary and grammatical items, so as to find out how much knowledge their students possess, and give them feedback, as well.

This has not been always the case. T7 was using very much group and pair work, because she claimed that this was helping her towards her target, that is communica-

tion through the FL. On the contrary, T9 thought that this was a "relaxation" (to use her own term), which annoyed her, and she had problems to bring them back to a formal lesson, in order to proceed to something else. T2 was always using the FL giving the model directly, and then the questions were following the target. She was following a diverse strategy, and grammar always worked in there but could not be seen. T10 believed in continuity, that is why she started with feedback on the previous lesson and a check on their homework, before entering into pre-questions or a discussion on the topic to follow, and then go into the text and the activities. (This was the same level class she was teaching). T11 started by choosing somebody or something to work on, in order to attract her students attention. She was categorical as concerns grammar. She never gave rules, she taught it through activities. She insisted very much on interaction, free and semi-guided role-plays, pre-questions, and then they were moving smoothly into the discussion of the topic, which they were trying to apply in their own environment, in their everyday life, working on real situations with real data, and sometimes personal, as well.

Among all the teachers, T8 claimed of using CLT in her classes, with a mixture of other elements, excluding only the grammar-translation method. She also claimed that she added to CLT another method, more modern than the previous one, which she could not remember to name, but she could give characteristics such as, "the students must be left free and relaxed in the classroom under soft music, so as to react as they often do in their everyday life". She still insisted that in this mixture of methods, CLT was occupying the central position.

Lastly, only T3 claimed that she tried to make her lesson teacher-centred! She expressed a lot of worries to the researcher about her strategy: "I face a lot of problems with my teaching strategy, my students are not good enough, and I have not had any guidance on this matter. I have seen the advisor for only half an hour, the questions were so many and so much diverse, that she did not have the time to answer all of them. I have been waiting for you to sort out my problems!". The researcher risked the danger to forget her role here! How can one be deaf to somebody who screams for help? How much could the advisor do in half an hour?

Not much we are afraid. Situations like this need repair through teacher training. T3 had had a short training at the beginning of her career by the British Council a long time ago. It seems that once is not enough in somebody's professional life, and a lot of courage was needed on the teacher's part to confess her problem, which she proved to have!

5.8.3. Ranking the Four Language Skills

The next question for the teachers to answer was to rank the four skills, according to the attention they were giving to them. Their answers produced the following table.

TABLE 5.2 The Position of Skills in Greek Teacher Methodology

Teachers	L	S	R	W
T 1 H	1	1	2	2
T 2 H+S	1	1	2	2
T 3 H	3	4	2	1
T 4 S	1	1	2	3
T 5 H	1	2	4	3
T 6 S	2	1	3	2
T 7 S	1	1	2	2
T 8 H	1	1	2	3
T 9 H	1	1	2	2
T 10 H	1	2	3	4
T 11 S	1	2	3	4

1=the most important

4=the least important

L=listening

S=speaking

R=reading

W=writing

T1 said that she tries to relate all the skills, and she gave the above balance to them because of personal experience.

T2 would like to use all the skills equally, but since it is a FL, she has to use more listening and speaking.

T3 claimed that what is written remains in one's memory clear enough, although she admitted that her ranking was wrong!

Ts 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 said that the reason for their ranking is that this is the natural process for human beings in their mother tongue, oral language precedes written language, and consequently any other language.

T6 classified them according to the time they take in the class. She favours speaking because the students get more involved in the process of the lesson, although she would like to promote writing a little more.

5.8.4. Classroom Organization

As it concerns the balance between whole class, group, pair, and individual work, the teachers seemed to have some common ground in their answers, but some differences, as well.

Table 5.3 Type of Organization in the Greek EFL Classroom

Teachers	Whole Class	Group	Pair	Individual
T 1 H	Exchange			Often
T 2 H+S	Mostly	Never	Quite a lot	Often
T 3 H	Mostly	Rarely	Quite a lot	Often
T 4 S	Never	Quite less	Mostly	
T 5 H	Mostly	Little	Quite a lot	Often
T 6 S	Little	Quite a lot		Mostly
T 7 S	Mostly	Quite a lot		Very little
T 8 H	Little	Mostly		Little
T 9 H	Very little	Often	Mostly	Little
T 10 H	According to lesson	Little	Mostly	According to lesson
T 11 S	Never	Usually	Mostly	Usually

It seems that teachers favour mostly individual and pair work. The reason for this is that individual work is a way of helping everybody to follow, and it is easier with the large and mixed abilities classes that the teachers usually teach, as well as the lack of equipment that they face. Pair work is less time consuming, everybody can participate, the students are brought into real situations, and develop their linguistic ability with their classmates' help.

There were also those like Ts 3 and 7 who were using mainly whole class work, as well as others like Ts 1, 2, and 5 who were using it, because it was putting all their students into work. There were others like Ts 4 and 11 who were never using this type of organisation, because it was not productive, according to their opinion.

As concerns group work, most of the teachers admitted that they were trying to avoid it. The reasons they gave for that were: crowded and mixed ability classes, a lot of noise, limited time, lack of co-operation because only the best students in the group work, the others wait for ready results to copy, apart from the display of desks

which have to be placed back at their previous position at the end of the lesson. The latter happens because the other subjects, including the mother tongue, are offered traditionally, and as such, group work means co-operation, something that the Greek students do not know as the Greek educational system is antagonistic. Nevertheless, there are teachers like T8 and T11 who use it systematically and have found the way to do so. T8 creates her groups out of every two desks, the students turn around and the noise is much less without the display of desks. T11 believes that the students have to pass progressively from the one to the other: "The student has to realize first what he/she can do by himself/herself (individual), then be able to co-operate with another person next to him/her (pair work), and lastly a broader co-operation comes (group work). It is an effort under stages. Group work is always left to the good students of the group, but in pair work both of them are obliged to concentrate more". From all the above, it seems that the Greek EFL teacher has started innovations, but has to fight a traditionally organised system!

As concerns drills and fluency work, T1 claimed to do both of them equally, they came by themselves! T2 did not use drills, she was the model and she made everything communicative, that is fluency work. Ts 5, 6, 7, and 10 based their teaching on fluency work mostly, because they believed that they were encouraging their students to use the FL when accuracy was not asked for. T4 was mostly following the book which was using drills, and she was thinking that she had to change it to another based on fluency work.

Ts 3, 8 and 9 were mostly using drills, because they were teaching beginners. They claimed that at this level the students have to learn patterns of language, expressions, that is why they have to work through guided, semi-guided, and free drills before ideas come (fluency).

Lastly, T11 was always using fluency, and she was negative towards boring drills. She was using activities and tasks with answers to questions, crosswords, puzzles, which were of interest to her students. "If something does not work well, I never

repeat it, I think I am quite flexible". Most of the teachers adjust their teaching according to their students' level.

Their strategy on errors was to correct them only when there was the danger of fossilization because of ignorance or superficiality. All of them agreed that their students were learning through their mistakes, and what was important for them was to produce language, without psychological pressure, as they feel shy more of their classmates than of their teacher. After all, they had the chance to correct morphology in their written work. Especially T6 pointed out another negative aspect of the Greek educational system. She stressed the fact that the system of examinations is contradictory to methodology and to the materials written or suggested to be used, because it is accuracy that is examined! The conclusion drawn by her sayings is that assessment is far from innovations in Greece, but what makes students and teachers suffer is that the first are going to be marked and the latter are going to examine them against the way they have been both sides familiar to work. This is another Greek paradox indeed!

When teachers were asked to what extent they use Greek in their classes, all of them answered that they try to speak mostly English. There are instances of course where they use the mother tongue. These are when their students do not understand a task, or when the knowledge of some of them is limited in mixed ability classes, or when vocabulary, phrases, grammatical phenomena are not understood or there is no time left to be explained in another way, and are vital for the next session. Another reason is discipline, as the latter sounds funny in the FL, or when something in English has no equivalent in Greek. As the students' knowledge progresses, the teachers start decreasing the use of the mother tongue in favour of the FL.

5.8.5. Use of Materials

The next question in the rank was about the materials the teachers use, including the coursebook. The teachers use different types of materials, such as grammar books

of their selection (T9 referred to a book of hers under the title Grammar through Games), posters, flashcards, little objects, photocopied exercises and games, cassettes with English songs, listening comprehension, translation, magazines, newspapers, maps, tourist guides, even other stories than those of the coursebook and crosswords of their own, as T11 had the talent to do. What the teachers try to do is to help their students improve in a pleasant way. The problem they were usually facing was with non available or old equipment, non functioning plugs, sometimes no financial support from their schools, which they were trying to sort out through their own money. T2 claimed that the Greek EFL teachers must have passion for their work and adjust everything according to the environment they work in.

The coursebook for the High School, Taskway, was judged as representing the Greek situation, mostly meeting the needs of the students, with the exemption of some exercises which were said to apply only to the experiences of students of the cities. Apart from this degree of difficulty with the exercises, another weak point is the use of Greek faces in pictures when referring to English people, as T3 pointed out. She was not informed that she was entitled to use a workbook produced by the writers, until lately! In general terms the teachers claimed that the book is not ideal, but it serves its purposes and it has had a lot of improvements since its first appearance. It was also accompanied by cassettes, and the teachers complained about discontinuity of its materials. The teacher's guide was found not very helpful, either because it was highly theoretical (T1 's claim) or it was simply summarising the units to be taught.

The coursebooks in the Senior High Schools were diverse and selected from a list given by the Ministry to the teachers. As already mentioned in Chapter 3, the researcher found in use the following coursebooks:

- 1) Abbs,B. and Freebairn,I. (1980), Developing Strategies, Longman.
- 2) Abbs,B. and Freebairn,I. (1980), Studying Strategies, Longman.

3) O'Neil, R. (1974), Kernel Lessons Plus, Eurocentre, Longman.

T2 found out that her students were not responding completely to Developing Strategies. T6 thought that this book was good enough for her students, although she had to exclude some of its exercises from time to time. She also found the book taught by the previous teacher, so she had to go along with it. T11 wanted the same book not to be the main coursebook, but being used as additional to another which was going to give something more on accuracy. Her students responded positively to the selection she was making from the coursebook. It was also accompanied by cassettes, and the teachers agreed that its teacher guide was very helpful. T4 did not like Kernel Plus, but she was obliged to finish it before moving into a modern coursebook, as foreign books are costly and are not provided free by the state for the Senior High School. She also complained about the small number of listening texts. Lastly, T7 was the only one who had finished Developing Strategies and passed into Studying Strategies. She did not select it, either. What she as well as T8 pointed out is that their life sometimes becomes miserable, because the private schools teach their students the same books in different ways, which the students try to impose at the state school because they are used to them, even if they are sometimes methodologically wrong. Sometimes, the problem of non sufficient qualifications in private language schools, as well as the thirst for higher marks that the educational system has imposed on the students through its antagonistic spirit, is still one of the main problems that Greece suffers from.

When the teachers were asked about the provenance of their materials, they said that for the High School they receive the cassettes, the teacher's guide and the coursebooks, as well as the wall charts for beginners from the Ministry. Nothing is sent to the Senior High School. The rest of the materials are produced or bought in the shops by the teachers, who claimed that they are very expensive in general, even if the case is not slides that T1 produced to share with the teacher of Arts, and was helped by her. Sometimes the publishers send some free materials to the teachers on commercial purposes of course. Moreover, the Senior High School students face

problems with finding their book in the shops every first fortnight of the year, due to the massive demand.

In order to finish with the materials, the teachers were asked to evaluate them and pinpoint their strong and weak aspects.

The teachers could mostly find strong aspects in the materials of their own choice, such as attractive, unexpected, non-repetitive, simple, they have nothing to do with the book, and they are always selected to meet the students' needs. Their weak points are: their high cost in the shops, the fact that they are time consuming to trace, adjust extracts to their students' level and produce them, lack of a permanent room for the equipment which one has always to carry here and there, or total lack of equipment to make the materials operational, as well as the fact that they are the choice of only one person.

As concerns the coursebook, Taskway was said to illustrate the English way of life and the everyday life of the Greek people at the same time. It is offered free, the cassettes are made with different native speakers and songs, and a lot of colourful pictures. Its weak points are that some of the topics are difficult to express, workbooks were never received, and the book lacks evaluation tests for every two units, so as to give the teachers a clear idea of what are the students supposed to learn, as a consolidation. The rest of the books did not receive any negative criticism apart from the need to replace old Kernel Plus with a modern series.

When the discussion moved to the frequency of homework and the main benefits deriving from it, the teachers agreed on the fact that most of the work must be done in the classroom, and very little must be given as homework. Most of the teachers gave it often however, and T4 gave it with every lesson. They view it as a summary of what was taught in class, an additional exercise for strengthening of knowledge and memory (reproduction and assimilation), further practising of the FL and the writing skill, feedback of acquired knowledge through repetition, as the students do not have the chance to be offered a lesson on a daily basis.

5.8.6. Use of Equipment

Which equipment did the teachers use in their classroom activities? All of the teachers mentioned the cassette recorder, which for some of them was a victory as they had to claim for it many times before their dream comes true! T2 had borrowed the cassettes from another colleague of hers, and T7 said that the cassettes were a personal offer of hers to her students, because her school could not support her financially before the end of the year! Ts 3, 7, 9, 10 and 11 could find an overhead projector which they had to carry from classroom to classroom, as there is no permanent language room, regardless of the sensitivity that the bulbs of this device seem to have. Apart from this, Ts 7 and 11 had few possibilities to use it, as this device was used permanently by tutorial classes. Ts 2,3, 7, 9 and 10 could use a photocopying machine at school. Ts 1, 5, 9 and 10 had a slide-projector at school, but as slides are costly, only Ts 1 and 10 were using them, the first often and the second rarely. T1 had achieved in creating a special room for slides with the help of the Arts teacher, something that is very rare in the Greek educational system!

Lastly, T10 persuaded her school to buy a video, but she could not still use it, because the series of video cassettes were not yet bought. In general terms, the Ministry claim they cannot help much with equipment because they are costly. On the other hand, teachers claim that the main reason is that the reward of this equipment is effective, because one can do more things in a shorter time, is not recognised by the state yet.

5.8.7. Other Problems

Among the last things to ask there was other problems that the teachers were facing in their classrooms. Apart from some indifference the students were showing from time to time or lack of ability to concentrate as usually happens with teenagers, it seems that the top problem the teachers had to face was their mixed ability classes. Lack of classrooms, complexity of staff and timetable, and lack of FL staff are the

reasons for most of the schools not being able to organise levels for the study of the FL. The position that the FL is given so far in the Greek educational system along with Arts is secondary in comparison to other subjects (Ts 2, 8, 9, 10 and 11). A traditional system which creates lack of interest for learning, the obligation to go to school for the certificate in order to be able to find a job, crowded classes, and the general spirit that students must be helped with high marks (!) is the main root of the problem, along with the fact that teachers are not helped with their problems. T8 pointed out that she had to sensitize the Parents' Association in order to provide her school with a cassette recorder and dictionaries. Moreover, her modern methodology (CLT) does not fit in the traditional syllabus of her school.

5.8.8. Future Development of Teacher Methodology

How would the teachers like to develop their methodology in the future? All of them were asking for a classroom of their own with all the necessary devices, materials, dictionaries etc. so as to be able to apply a modern methodology. A less overloaded timetable, less crowded classes, levels of study and a training on new methodology were what they called their "dream" in order to become effective as professionals. It seems that the teachers are absolutely aware of their problems and the necessity to be helped to meet the needs of their profession in more demanding times like the EEC in 1992 and 1993.

5.9. Students' Current Achievements

In this section, the teachers were asked to give their opinion about the reasons that led their students to learn English. All of them answered that first of all, because this is a compulsory subject in the Greek curriculum, and then this is going to help them to build a better future, using the FL for studies and for a better job. There are new concepts about life having to do with communication among countries, mass media, holidays, business etc., and their parents as well as themselves are influenced

by these concepts. Sometimes, their parents impose the FL on them, and this leads to negative results. Lastly, they feel the need to travel and meet other people and cultures, as T6 found out through a survey that she had done at the beginning of the year.

Commenting on their attitude towards the FL, the teachers said that they think it is positive. Lack of tourists and satellite channels on the T.V in some regions are factors that do not help them much. Apart from this, the way the subject is taught and treated in the curriculum, the position it holds, makes it to appear as a boring business. For the above reasons, languages in general, including the mother tongue, frighten the Greek student. When they start as beginners, they enjoy it very much. At the intermediate level they start asking about music, films, pen pals, magazines, which are proofs that the FL becomes a part of their life, not a simple subject to learn. When they reach the tutorial classes, those who are not going to study the subject for itself (and this is the majority), are overloaded for the entry exams to the University, and there is not much time left for the FL.

The students' attitude towards their EFL teachers is positive. They are polite, they talk easily to them about problems they face having to do or not with the subject, they bring whatever interests them, personal letters from pen pals even during the breaks! They even want their EFL teacher to accompany them in their excursions! It seems that they feel them close to them and the spirit of their era.

The teachers did not face any problems with their students' response to their methodology. "Results speak better than words", as T2 said, "you have recorded a lot of cases like this in your cassettes". T1 said that her students are astonished by the fact that her methodology works, even if it seems unusual as they have never experienced it before! They also enjoy activities with materials deriving from the teachers personal work, and they are very fond of pair work and discussions on different topics. They like their book, apart from the students who use Kernel Plus, as T4 declared. Their response seems to be positive to their teacher 's methodology

and their coursebook in general, and this was reinforced by T11 's findings through gallops that she always does at the end of every year.

5.9.1. Students' Language Skills

How do students respond to the four language skills? This seems to depend on their specific problems and the way each one of the teachers tried to help them.

Ts 2, 5, 9 and 10 claimed that all their students skills were significantly improved. They admitted that writing, as cerebral among the four skills, was in a satisfactory condition, but it was still in need of further improvement.

Ts 3 and 11 said that reading was the top skill which their students improved. Listening and speaking were considerably improved, as well. It seems that writing was difficult for their students, as they were making mistakes.

Ts 1 and 6 admitted that their students receptive skills (listening and reading) were improved and their students enjoyed them a lot, but their productive ones (speaking and writing) were very weak. Their students still had problems with fluency, but the least improved of all seemed to be creative writing such as paragraphs, and letter writing, which were full of mistakes.

T4 said that listening was the easiest for her students, whereas reading was the top skills for T7 's students. Speaking was coming next for both, whereas reading was with some problems for T4 's classes, and listening the same for T7 's classes. Writing seemed to be the most problematic of skills for both teachers classes, and thus in need of a lot of efforts for improvement.

Lastly, T8 could not fit any of the previous groups as she declared that her students were top in writing! Then was coming reading, listening was third and speaking was problematic. She explained that the private education was responsible

for this, because they focus mostly in reading and writing, since their students have to pass exams in order to obtain certificates. She was trying to repair the neglected skills through pair work, which the students enjoyed feeling how much it was increasing their potentials towards communication.

It seems that listening was in a good condition apart from one High School case, speaking was in the same condition apart from the same High School (T8) whose situation was explained above. Reading was problematic in a Senior High School, maybe because the students did not like their coursebook (as T4 explained about Kernel Plus).

The most problematic of skills seems to be writing. The teachers tried to say that this is the most difficult of skills, that is why this is the last one to be achieved. Only the High School level class (T10) and another High School (T8) influenced by the private education seemed not to face problems at all with this particular skill.

How do students feel about group work? The answer was that mostly their students enjoyed it, because of the spirit of co-operation that it involves, the security it offers, self confidence, shared responsibility. Their reaction is positive and they ask for it, but it seems the problem lies on the conditions under which the Greek state schools operate. It is an innovation and sometimes students make fun of it when the classes are crowded the teacher needs a lot of time to check each group. As T8 put the problem, one can draw valuable conclusions: "The students understand the problem, but how can I expect them to change their attitude when I am the only teacher who inserts innovations? The students want the whole situation to change. I think this helps the weak students to work and promote their knowledge, but there must be a change from the point of view of all the teachers, as well, so as to promote modern methodology". Some teachers, as T2 did, started progressively with pair work and then moved progressively into group work. There are those like Ts 5, 9 and 11 who prefer pair work. T5 said that starting with pair work, she helps them concentrate and then, it is themselves who expand it in group work! If she goes the other way around, a disaster is created! Ts 9 and 11 claimed that their students were making a lot of

noise and they were enjoying it, the teacher became tired or nervous, and a lot of time was spent without an essential point to be reached. The general conclusion is that the students enjoy it, some of the teachers are afraid of it because of the general educational spirit, as well as the conditions in schools, which are not favourable towards innovations. A modern methodology without its constituents seems handicapped in the Greek context! Those who are responsible of decisions have to go through the appropriate changes, so as to be able to follow the needs of this era.

5.9.2. Students' Achievements

The next step was to ask the teachers to go through an evaluation of their students' achievements in the FL. The teachers said that they usually are influenced by the general new spirit of helping the student through their marking, but they were asked not to evaluate through marks. After all, these were going to be at the researcher's disposition later. What it was needed was them to estimate their students' progress if any.

T1 graded their skills with the following order of improvement: reading, listening, speaking, writing.

Ts 2, 3, and 4 pointed out that their students were improving all their skills, and more improvement was a matter of time.

T5 agreed with them on all the skills, apart from writing which she was fighting at the moment, aiming towards an improvement.

T6 was happy about reading, satisfied from listening, and the good effort that her students had put into speaking, but she was still dealing with the problem of writing, as her previous colleague was doing.

Ts 7 and 8 were happy with writing, listening was improved, as well as reading for T7. Speaking and reading were under further improvement for T8, but T7 was complaining about her students not putting much effort into speaking!

Ts 9 and 10 were satisfied very much of their students' improvement with listening and speaking. Reading and writing were coming next in the rank, but they were not problematic.

Lastly, T11 expressed her satisfaction about her students achievements, because they managed to communicate, something that was her main target.

The last question of this section was on their students fluency and accuracy. Fluency seemed to be problematic for T1 with her beginners, improving for Ts 2, 3, 4, and 5. T6 claimed that the 80% of her students had achieved fluency, which is a very high grade. Ts 9, 10 and 11 thought that it was improved, whereas Ts 7 and 8 said that it was of a medium state.

As it concerns accuracy, T1 was not satisfied, and T2 was moving progressively showing them tolerance. Ts 3, 4, 5 and 9 admitted that they had problems with accuracy, and a lot of hard work was needed towards this direction. T6 was not very happy with only the 40% of her class being competent in accuracy, whereas Ts 7 and 8 thought that their students' accuracy was of a medium state as their fluency. T10 was satisfied with her students' accuracy but she still believed that it was not better than fluency, and T11 said that their accuracy was good, but not as their fluency. The result comes out of the teachers sayings:

T2: "The general Greek problem is less communication, less use of language, less reading, and consequently less studying. We are slaves of technology, this is a sign of the new era".

T11: "Accuracy needs more contact with the FL, and the timetable does not give the students the chance! Thus, fluency is first in achievement than accuracy".

What it seems the case to be is that according to what it is offered to the students, this is what the crops of the educational system are going to be. If the subject is not faced in the appropriate way, nobody can expect more to happen than what the case appears to be at the moment.

5.10. Notions of Good Language Teaching

This part was left at the end of the interview, aiming on fishing the teachers' knowledge. The first question they were addressed was about what they think they are the main trends internationally in thinking about ELT.

T1 confessed that she did not have any recent information about it or how it is taught, and T6 expressed the same complaint about methodology and trends. Ts 2 and 11 pointed out the easy morphology and the concern that there exists in promoting english as an international means of communication, not as a means of culture which must be the concern only of the British people for their country. T3 pointed out the importance of the FL as a subject and the teacher as a mediator of this knowledge, as well as the sensitivity that the state started showing lately towards this direction. She felt unable for herself or anybody else to preview its development. Ts 4 and 9 referred to the universality of english and its predominance among foreign languages, and T5 referred to the fact that trends develop as foreign languages do, so there are people working on methods so that a FL can be more interesting and understandable for those who teach or learn it. T7 pinpointed the emphasis given on communication through the means of foreign languages, and T8 referred to the general belief of professors and researchers on real life situations created in the classroom, which bring the students closer to natural settings and natural learning. Lastly, T10 pointed out that english has got a tendency to innovations, and new books always come up with topics up to date and methodological changes that makes it more attractive and the kernel of foreign languages.

5.10.1. Teachers' Knowledge about CLT

What do you know about CLT? This was the question that was raised next. All of the teachers spoke positively about CLT and its aims, however it seemed that some of them knew more than others about it.

All of them agreed that its main feature is communication through interaction. Its character is student-centred and its focus is not primarily on morphology, but on notions and functions, that is fluency, not accuracy, that is why strict correction is avoided. The students have got the ability to use the FL in a given situation and respond normally, using everyday expressions and creative dialogues in order to convey ideas and/or get information. CLT operates through combinations such as group work, pair work etc., and the use of authentic materials such as sketches, pictures, cassettes, slides, dialogues, questionnaires etc. promote teaching and learning, making them easier and interesting.

There has been an argument about translation and drilling. Teachers felt that they were not given a place in CLT, and they expressed the opinion that they must not be rejected. They claimed that a combination under the appropriate proportions gives a good result in FL teaching.

All of them were in favour of this approach because it puts their students into real situations. However, they pointed out that although their teaching methods in the Greek state schools have got communicative features, they are always mixed methods.

It was at this point that the researcher asked them to express their opinion about the positive and the negative aspects in CLT that suit or not the Greek situation.

There were different opinions on some aspects, but what was common in the answers of all the teachers was the fact that it is an innovation that takes time to be applied properly, because of the structure of the educational system and the spirit of the Greek context. Parameters such as the large number of classes, which can pos-

sibly be avoided by creating levels of study, lack of materials, lack of people to prepare materials, lack of equipment, lack of time for appropriate teaching as the subject is put in the curriculum, lack of new information, seminars and training on the teacher's part, non-operating plugs, lack of permanent language classrooms, the traditional organisation of the desks, are negative aspects that inhibit any kind of innovation, not especially CLT. The Greek students enjoy it because it brings them into real life and it attracts their interest. Pair work is more successful than group work, because it is a relationship of sharing and caring between the students, whereas group work is co-operation, something that means rules and collective responsibility which, according to some of the teachers, is against the Greek temperament which is bubbly, and according to some others, it only needs time to become a habit. Nevertheless, the belief of changes and the starting point being pair work, makes some of the teachers feel that group work can be applied. The positive point is that Greeks are possessed by a passion for more knowledge, and teachers from a zeal about their profession, but it is only recently that they started learning their new role as mediators, so as to be more effective and help their students learn co-operation.

Another aspect that was given by Ts 2 and 11 was about the difference between the character of the Greek language and that of the English. English is strict in its structure, whereas in Greek a plethora of expressions can be used on a given situation. CLT has got a discipline in itself, which may not be seen but exists in it. This is a negative point, according to T2, and something that can be learnt according to 11, for whom the only negative aspect is group work. T2 claims that when one guides Greeks to a model, it is not easy for them to be persuaded to accept it, because they do not like grammar, their character is expanded to language matters since language is an expression of principles, beliefs, of a way of life. They do not believe in drills, they are not easy in repetition, they do not understand that language is a mechanical energy that saves time.

There is a difference in the opinion of T3 who claims that Greeks ask for rules and drills to feel sure about the FL, and this is negative for the FL.

The question that arises here is: do Greek students ask for rules and drills to be sure about the FL, or is it the teacher who tries to secure himself/herself about what it is learnt by the students so far? The Greek temperament is broadly known that it is against discipline, but everything can be learnt with the time and under the appropriate conditions. This is at least the message that was received by the teachers.

The next step was to ask the teachers if they were doing CLT in their classes.

Ts 1 and 2 were categorically positive. Ts 3 and 4 were doing it partially. The first, because she did not know how to use it, she thought that some patterns had to be used in combination to it, and still she was not sure of the amount of the parts that she had to mix in this combination. The second, was following the book closely ("Kernel Plus" which she did not like), and whatever the book was allowing her to do communicatively, this is what she was doing. The rest of the teachers were applying it up to a certain extent. T5 was sure about it because of the group work, pair work etc. that she was doing, T6 as much as the inhibiting parameters were permitting it to her, and T7 was applying a combination of a 70% of CLT with a 30% of traditional teaching, and she was putting a lot of personal effort on this type of teaching. T8 was doing it at an 80%, T9 quite a lot, and T10 a 60%, all the three of them according to the difficulties arising from the inhibiting parameters. Lastly, T11 was doing it up to a certain extent, and she claimed that she was always testing her combinations so as to make sure that they promote her lesson.

The interview then moved into the qualities and the skills of a good language teacher. The portrait that came up was, first of all, innate abilities. Then, a good knowledge and use of the FL, competence in the transmission of this knowledge, hyperactivity, creation of incentives and variability for the students, flexibility in strategies, patience, strong nervous system, attendance of different models of teaching, seminars, teacher training and even post-graduate studies, strengthening of skills, reading foreign newspapers and magazines, being respectable and co-operative, having a good knowledge about materials to be used, good control of the class, love for the students, understanding the students' needs, knowledgeable about topics and

methods, having a good theoretical background, attracting the students' attention, hard working, being a good performer, play a lot of roles in order to come closer to the students, being tolerant and human, open to criticism, and always ready to brush up his/her knowledge. When they were asked to be realistic and say if this portrait is feasible, they replied that the role of a good teacher is very demanding, but if one wants to practice this profession, a lot of effort must be put in one's part in order to be close to the above model.

What is the knowledge that the good language teacher has to master? The answer was first of all, to be a fluent speaker, then knowing morphology, linguistics, phonetics and phonology, pedagogy, psychology, literature, methodology, and follow innovations and topics through the mass media.

When they were asked about what kind of language proficiency the good language teacher has to possess, the teachers answered that he/she has to be fluent as a native-like speaker, to be as accurate as possible, have a good pronunciation without speech problems, and have language appropriacy. The teachers did not claim for perfectionism in pronunciation, accent or slips of the tongue, they thought that this was not a crime since it happens to native speakers sometimes. Their idea about Greek EFL teachers was that they are acceptable, they speak very well, they do not face problems as e.g. Arab speakers of english, they are quite competent as FL teachers, and they can become native-like if they are given the chance to go from time to time abroad.

When they were asked if personality affects good language teaching and to what extent this happens, there was a general agreement that it always does, because there is a personal relationship between the teacher and the students, which leads to the like or the dislike of the subject. It is reflected in the teacher's presentation, even the selection of materials is based on personal criteria. The way of speaking, facial expressions, gestures, attitudes, other interests such as books, music, films, everything contributes to good language teaching. For T2 50% was knowledge and 50% personality in good language teaching, T9 did not know up to what extent this

happens, but as it concerns the rest of the teachers, all of them agreed on a great extent.

The next question to ask them was what they thought would help them in promoting their competence as good language teachers.

All of them agreed on the fact that they terribly need systematic training! All of them were asking to be able to go periodically abroad, and receive financial help, even partially, because their poor salary is not very helpful, as it is spent on materials for their survival as professionals, apart from their needs of living! They were asking for more seminars with practical insights and different models of teaching, to be informed about innovations in methodology and trends, have more access to books, receive free materials from the Ministry, less teaching hours and better conditions in order to be effective, more equipment, more theoretical knowledge, and the chance to visit live language classes abroad. There was also said that sometimes some of the trainers do not have the appropriate knowledge to train them, and this is not helpful at all to them. What they pointed out was that creative imagination is good, but not enough!

The last question for them was an open one. They were asked if they had anything else to add, apart from what they were asked.

They talked about the fact that they work more than any other professional in a difficult and badly paid job, apart from Cyprus as they were informed, and they always have to continue at home with assignments and preparations, something that does not happen for other jobs. Their love for their job is the only thing that keeps them going on, as they have miserable financial conditions and feel inferior to other civil servants having to spend their own salary on state education (referring to the materials problem) and they have to be sometimes away from their families, something that is psychological pressure on them and is reflected on their job and their students, apart from the fact that sometimes it destroys their personal life.

They asked for free coursebooks in the Senior High Schools, as it happens for the High Schools.

Most of them, have never received a pre-service teacher training course, because this does not exist in the country as the state have not realised how important it is to provide it in advance, and then try to do remedial work.

They work without knowing what model of student they are supposed to prepare for the state, since they do not know what model of teachers they are themselves! A reform at the University and in the educational system can create teachers with a complete knowledge, something that now does not exist. Training must be compulsory in general, pre-service first, and then in-service to be repeated every five years. New technology as e.g. computers have to be included in the teachers' knowledge.

The last point they raised was the so called assistant or part-time teachers, who are recruited every new academic year and moved to different places of the country. These people have to leave before being adjusted to the new environment, and thus, they cannot offer what they should do in case of a permanent job. They have got the same qualifications as the others, and they suit the country financially, but not educationally. One of the teachers belonged to this group of people and she was against the use of teachers in such positions by the state, but all the teachers were agreeing and being supportive to her, and against this situation which constitutes a great educational problem. (For more information and details see for both last subjects in Zotou, 1989).

At this point the teacher interviews came to an end. The information gathered by the teachers were not going to be of good use, unless combined with the views of their students. This was achieved through the form of questionnaires which were distributed to the students, and which is going to be the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6: STUDENT ATTITUDES AND ACHIEVEMENT

6.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the data collected from pupils via questionnaires, as already mentioned in Chapter 3. The aim of the questionnaires was to focus on the students' attitudes towards the FL, and their perceptions of their progress. They would also feed the project with information about classroom practices and the students' feelings towards them, as well as investigate if in the Greek case their progress and perceptions are due to their sex and grade at school, as the literature has shown for other countries so far.

There has never been universal agreement concerning the concept of attitude in the literature (Dittmar 1976, Edwards 1985). For the purposes of the research, it was assumed that attitudes are comprised of beliefs, which can be subdivided into cognitive and affective dimensions. The behavioural aspect of attitudes was of less interest to the researcher (as pupils were following a compulsory course in English). Thus, most of the questions focus on pupils' perception and feelings towards the target language, classroom activities, and their teachers, as well as their perceptions of proficiency in the target language.

Achievement data which had also been gathered in the schools (see Chapter 3) was excluded in the end. The reason for this was that some of the teachers were more generous than others with their marking, and as neither pre-testing nor post-testing had ever taken place before the whole procedure started, in order to judge the progress the students made out of the type of instruction applied on them, 'the product' taken from the school records would not enable us to draw conclusions on the effectiveness of Greek EFL instruction.

The administration of the pupil questionnaires took place after the observations came to an end, and before the teacher interviews. There was a good reason for this:

the researcher wanted the students to get used to her everyday presence in their classroom, so as to create a friendly atmosphere between her and them.

To further promote this atmosphere, before they were handed the questionnaires, they were informed that their opinions would be accepted on an anonymous basis. This hopefully prevented them from trying to create false impressions or being afraid of expressing themselves freely.

The students also were told that the results deriving from their contribution to the project were going to be presented to the Ministry of Education (Institute of Research). This would help towards decisions which were going to be beneficial for them and their fellow students all over the country. Thus, the students responded with responsibility, understanding the usefulness of their effort and of the project in general.

Lastly, the questionnaires were administered in the absence of their teachers from the classroom. The researcher was guiding them in cases they could not understand how to answer a particular question. Thus, their teachers could not influence them in their answers.

The students marks were taken from the official records of the schools which were passed to the researcher by their Heads, under whose responsibility they always are. The teachers knew that this type of data was of interest to the researcher, but the students were never told about this, for fear of misunderstanding the use of this data. However, the researcher used only their marks without writing down any names, keeping her promises to the students about confidentiality. This type of data was never used in the project, as already mentioned.

Both the questionnaires and the student achievement data were considered as important parameters of the present study at first. Then, when the latter was excluded for the reasons we explained above, it was decided to present and analyse the questionnaires after the teacher interviews, so as to gather information on Greek

classroom practices from a different point of view, which is the task of the present chapter.

6.2. Planning the Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a type of instrument which can provide information on attitudes, ideas and feelings, as is also the case with interviews. The difference lies in the fact that with questionnaires there is neither personal contact with the respondents nor further chances for clarification of their views. This means that one has to rely on the information as it is provided, and try to make sense of it in order to be able to analyse it. In planning questionnaires, a major difficulty is that one has to be as precise as possible, so as to avoid misunderstanding by the respondents (Youngman 1984, Cohen and Manion 1985, Bell 1987). On the other hand, they can provide information from many more respondents, than is feasible with interviews.

The student respondents had the time to think and reply in writing, keeping their anonymity. In addition, in this case they had the advantage of asking clarification questions, since the researcher was present. Even if this was advantageous for the researcher, she still had to select her methodology, the time at which she was going to administer the questionnaires, and the form in which they were going to appear. Apart from this, their duration had to be within time limits for two good reasons:

First, so as not to make the students feel tired.

Second, they were going to take place in the students' classroom, and if their duration was not going to be reasonable, it was going to inhibit other sessions, creating chaos in the school timetable.

For the above reasons, the questionnaires had to be carefully designed and piloted, before reaching the final stage of the project.

6.3. Designing the Student Questionnaire

The issues that the researcher was interested in investigating were four in total:

- 1) What were the reasons for which the students were learning the FL, what was their background in this area, and what was the degree of difficulty they were facing each one of these in comparison to other subjects? This issue was expected to provide us with information about the general background of the students, so that we can draw conclusions about how they respond to CLT, and to what extent this is an approach that suits Greek EFL students.**
- 2) What type of activities were taking place in their classroom, what was the type of classroom organisation, and what was the general atmosphere during their sessions? This is a link with our present observational work referring specifically to Greek EFL classroom instruction, as seen from the students' point of view.**
- 3) What was their belief about the qualities of a good language teacher and what were their needs that he/she had to meet? This reflected their notion of the effective teacher, and how they felt about being helped or not by their teachers, which is also contextual information linked to the present study.**
- 4) How skilful were they themselves in the FL and what were their personal efforts towards improvement outside school? This was general background information showing how confident they were about their progress, and what they thought about investing time and effort in learning the target language.**

The above ideas were summarised under four headings:

- 1) **attitudes towards learning English,**
- 2) **attitudes towards classroom activities,**
- 3) **qualities of the good language teacher, and**
- 4) **students' proficiency in English.**

The reason for this sequence was the belief that children find it easier to talk about subjects that are of importance to them (e.g. likes and dislikes), and then talk about the type of help they need in order to improve themselves. Self evaluation was left for the last part of the questionnaire, because it is very difficult for everybody to give a clear and true picture of themselves, especially when referring to their weak points.

Another problem that the researcher had to face was the type of questionnaire to be designed. For example, open questions could feed the project with valuable information on the respondents' views, but problems were going to arise with the analysis of this type of material. More structured questions, such as grids, categories, ranking, scaling, listing, would be helpful to the students, in the administration of the questionnaires, and to the researcher in analysing it (Cohen and Manion 1985, Bell 1987). The final decision was for a combination of closed and open questions, which on the one hand could give the potential for an easier analysis, and on the other hand the collection of both expected and unexpected information. However, the researcher ultimately gave up the idea of analysing the responses to the open-ended questions, due to time pressure.

The questionnaire had children as respondents, and the researcher had to provide them with an instrument which was as simple as possible. For this reason, very few complex questions appeared in the questionnaire (e.g. rating and scaling). Most of the questions allowed the respondents simply to choose from two or three alternatives.

Apart from making for an easier statistical analysis, the benefit from this type of formulation was that positive choices were encouraged, and fewer indeterminate answers were received.

As soon as the content and the methodology of the questionnaire were established in principle, the four headings were written down on different sheets of paper, and the effort to formulate questions relevant to each one of them started. The length of each section had to be taken into consideration, for reasons already explained above. The appearance and the layout of the questionnaire were other parameters to be taken into consideration, and it seems that more time was consumed for its design than for planning the interview. However, the fact that the risks involved during the administration of interviews are lessened for questionnaires, seemed to be quite rewarding.

6.4. The Piloting of the Questionnaire

A draft version of the questionnaire was piloted in the same two schools with the other instruments, and in all three levels of classes which were under observation. It was drafted and administered in Greek.

During piloting, the instructors were absent from the classroom, thus there was no possibility for the questionnaires to be biased. The students were asked not to write down their names, understanding once more that the researcher's intention was to collect the information she needed anonymously. In a relaxed atmosphere created in this way, the researcher went through each section of her questionnaire, waiting each time for all the students to answer before moving into the next one. This way of administration was suggested by the students themselves, because this was facilitating their task and offered them the feeling of group work with collective responsibility. Moreover, they claimed that this type of process was helping them to concentrate better on the questions to be answered. This suggestion was accepted by the researcher and adopted for the main case studies as well.

All classes were timed (the duration of the whole process was 60 minutes approximately), and the students were thanked in the end for their contribution to the project. The researcher left the pilot schools with (223) two hundred and twenty three questionnaires in hands for all three levels (3 groups of beginners=87, 3 groups of intermediate=79, and 2 groups of advanced=57).

When it came to the analysis of the pilot questionnaires, the researcher found out that little remedial work needed to be done. Only a few questions needed some kind of reformulation, and these were mainly under the second heading, dealing with attitudes towards classroom activities. However, the whole length of the questionnaire had to be made more economical, as it concerns the time factor and some cuts were therefore made. As soon as the remedial work was over, the questionnaire was ready to administer for the main case studies.

6.5. Administration of the Questionnaires in the Main Study

The final design for the students questionnaire ended up with the following number of questions:

Section A=8 Section B=10 Section C=5 Section D=4. (For the final version of the student questionnaire see Appendix 5. The Greek original and an English translation are provided).

The actual duration of questionnaire administration in the main study was **between (40) forty and (45) forty five minutes.**

The place in which they were administered was the students' classroom. The time and the day were selected by the researcher, after completion of the systematic observation. The whole process took place during the FL session, which was exclusively devoted to the answering of the questionnaires, under the same conditions as for their piloting.

It is worth mentioning the responsibility that the students demonstrated during the administration of the questionnaires, as well as their interest in the outcomes of the project. In order to pay back the students' contribution to the project, the researcher was requested by both students and staff to offer them a session on subjects of their interest, which she gladly did, before leaving their schools.

All the above factors, along with the pleasant atmosphere that the researcher was trying to create during the administration of the questionnaires, facilitated the project, so that a good amount of data was collected. The researcher ended up with (7) seven groups of beginners, (8) eight groups of intermediate level (of which one was not the usual type of mixed ability class, but one with students sharing the same level of knowledge in the FL), and (9) nine groups of advanced level, giving (24) groups in total. The groups of beginners and intermediate students consisted of (33) thirty three students each approximately, whereas the advanced level classes consisted of (26) twenty six students approximately on the day the questionnaires were administered. (There was a predictable instability concerning the numbers of students participating in everyday classes, due to illness or other problems the students were facing). The amount of questionnaires which finally came in hand was **(729) seven hundred and twenty nine in total.** (See section 3.6 for the data). This large amount of data had to be well organized before proceeding to analysis.

6.6. Organising the Analysis

When the researcher found herself in front of her data, she found out that this amount was too great to be analysed fully during the time limits of a Ph.D thesis. The decision taken was to organise for analysis only those questionnaires which derived from those groups whose observations were going to be presented. (For the selection of lesson codings see Chapter 7). Finally therefore, there were (18) eighteen groups for analysis (5 groups of beginners=151, 6 groups of intermediate =181, including the group of students with the same level of knowledge in the FL, and 7 advanced groups=167). **The total amount for all three levels was (499) four hundred and**

ninety nine questionnaires. The same students' marks were going to be considered, but later the idea was given up, as already mentioned .

The next step was to use a statistical package for the analysis of this type of data, and for this purpose SPSSPC was selected. As soon as the decision was taken, the researcher started codifying all the values in order to make them meaningful for the computer. Each section of the questionnaires became a separate file, that is four files in total. Some coding problems arose from the structure of the questionnaires, especially from questions of the ranking type, and one question (Question 8 in Section 2), had to be broken into three different questions in order to be coded. The procedure of entering the data into the computer proved to be tiring and time consuming, due to the amount and complexity of the data. However, once data entry was completed, the programme was versatile and fast in giving results. In following sections the statistical analysis of the questionnaires is presented.

6.7 Data Analysis: Frequencies

The following tables present the results obtained by frequencies for sections 1, 2, 3, and 4 of the questionnaires for the entire final pupil sample (499 returns). All frequencies have been converted to percentages.

SECTION 1: PUPIL ATTITUDES

Table 6.1 Pupils' Rating of Reasons for Learning English

Future studies	51.3
Pleasure	35.2
Good job	59.5
Learn another culture	32.5
Compulsory	21.2
Other reason	13.4

Table 6.1 is based on Section 1, Question 1 of Appendix 5. It seems that motivation is mainly instrumental since the students are highly interested in using the FL as a means for a good job, and then for future studies, more than for pleasure and culture. Greece is a small monolingual country in the EEC, and its language is spoken by a limited number of speakers all over the world. Unlike other countries, there have never been any policies that would promote its spreading as a FL. Moreover, the fact that it is not a latin-based language has created the impression that it is a difficult code to learn. Greek students are aware of the whole situation, and this is a good reason for them to learn a widespread language such as English in order to create a future for themselves in a united Europe.

Table 6.2 Pupils' Opinion on English

Easy	28.1	Interesting	70.9
Difficult	8.6	Boring	9.4
Neither	63.5	Tolerable	19.6

Table 6.2 is based on Questions 2 and 3 of the first section. This table tells us that pupils find English neither easy nor difficult, and at the same time very interesting as a subject. This attitude is very encouraging, but there is still the question of why they develop this kind of attitude towards the FL. This is a puzzle that we shall try to sort out as we go on with the analysis of the results.

Table 6.3 Pupils' Rating on Subjects

	Difficulty				Interest			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Maths	25.5	35.1	24.6	14.8	31.6	27.8	22.9	17.7
English	7.4	13.7	30.9	48.0	18.3	31.2	30.4	20.1
Science	51.3	28.6	14.1	6.0	24.5	23.3	21.9	30.2
Greek	15.9	22.9	30.0	31.2	25.6	17.7	24.9	31.8

1 = most difficult

2 = less difficult

3 = easier

4 = easiest

1 = most interesting

2 = interesting

3 = less interesting

4 = least interesting

This table is based on Questions 4 and 5. Concerning comparative difficulty in various subjects, students feel that science is the most difficult to deal with. Maths is the next subject in difficulty, whereas Greek is among the easy ones, and English the easiest of all. In matters of interest, maths seem to be the most attractive of subjects despite its high degree of difficulty, as already seen. English occupies a mid position in their interest, whereas science shows greater extremes of views. Lastly, there are different opinions about greek. If Table 6.3 is compared with table 6.2, one can see that both tables agree in matters of difficulty and interest about the FL.

Table 6.4 Pupils' Opinion on Teaching Periods a Week

Two	19.7
Three	35.1
Four	33.3
Other	11.8

Table 6.4 is based on Question 6. Pupils feel that three to four periods a week are necessary for the teaching of EFL, and the National Curriculum in Greece is close to this opinion, as it concerns the first four grades of the secondary education. A problem arises with the last two grades, as the teaching hours are reduced from three to two. It seems that when the pupils are close to grasping the FL and need support to achieve it, they are finally left to their fate!

Table 6.5 Other FL Learning

French	7.6
German	3.2
Italian	1.4
None	87.6
Other	1.8

The last table of the first section is based on Questions 7 and 8. Most of the pupils learn English both as a FL at school and in private language schools. A minority apparently feels that one FL is not enough to survive in the EEC, and they mostly learn French as a second FL, and then German and Italian follow. As it concerns other foreign languages, there are three cases of Spanish, one case of Chinese, another of Japanese, and another of Flemish. Most of the pupils were learning French at the school of the French Embassy, fewer in private language schools, and even fewer through videotapes or having private lessons at home. The rest of the foreign languages were learnt through private language schools, private lessons at home, videotapes or the educational TV. Two fathers were found to be native speakers one of the German and the other of the Japanese language, and three mothers were found to be native speakers of Italian, Spanish and Flemish respectively.

The analysis of the data presented above shows clearly that English is an interesting and easy subject in Greek state schools, which is a positive aspect for FL learning. One problem lies in the reduction of teaching sessions at an advanced stage, which leads the students to attend mainly private schools, or other ways to support their learning. As it concerns the position of foreign languages in the Greek context, it seems that few people learn other languages than English. Lately, there is a growth of interest in the learning of foreign languages, and English is the most predominant among them, due to the fact that Greece is a member of the EEC. However, the students' motivation is mainly instrumental, as the FL is a means for a good job and for future studies. Their general background is an index that CLT is an approach that would support their aims towards learning the FL.

SECTION 2: ATTITUDES TOWARDS CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Table 6.6 Activities in EFL Classroom

Activities	Often	Occasionally	Never
Discussing	71.3	26.5	2.4
Writing grammar exercises	32.3	59.4	8.8
Reading texts	61.6	34.7	3.8
Listening to dialogues	40.2	50.4	9.2
Doing listening comprehension exercises	71.7	23.9	4.0
Writing dictation	11.0	36.5	52.8
Writing diaries/letters/essays	12.4	41.8	47.8
Doing role-play	30.7	47.0	20.7
Other	8.4	8.4	0.8

Looking at the pupils reports of the activities they do in their EFL classroom (Question 1) and the frequency under which the latter appear, one can see that doing listening comprehension exercises, followed by discussing and reading texts are often offered in the EFL classroom. Writing grammar exercises, listening to dialogues and doing role-play are offered occasionally. It seems that there is often a good effort to offer the pupils communicative activities without neglecting some others which promote accuracy. As concerns dictation, those who gave the high percentage of 52.8% under 'never' are the intermediate pupils, whereas the advanced who are supposed to be able to write the FL quite well, and thus not being in need of this kind of activities are seen to write dictation mostly often (as Table 6.21 showed when we broke down the pupils' questionnaires by grade: see below). Writing diaries/-letters/essays is mainly offered to the advanced students and occasionally to the intermediate ones (see Table 6.21), because these are the grades where pupils are expected to express their ideas in the FL. The low percentage of other activities consists mainly of games and songs.

Table 6.7 Activities Pupils Enjoy

Activities	Enjoy	Not enjoy
Discussing	76.1	13.9
Writing grammar exercises	26.1	63.3
Reading texts	62.7	18.3
Listening to dialogues	59.8	25.3
Doing listening comprehension exercises	46.0	29.9
Writing dictation	20.3	52.4
Writing diaries/letters/essays	27.9	43.8
Doing role-play	58.4	15.3
Other	12.2	2.0

The activities pupils enjoy most (Questions 2 and 3) are discussing, reading texts, listening to dialogues, and doing role-play. On the contrary, writing grammar exercises, dictation and diaries/letters/essays are activities which do not attract the pupils. It seems that when pupils have the chance to interact they respond pleasantly, whereas activities dealing with accuracy are not among their favourite ones. However, Table 6.21 shows that motivation varies according to the pupils' grade, for example beginners and intermediate pupils are more motivated than advanced pupils, whose motivation seems to fade, as their primary concern is to succeed in their entry exams at the university. A further investigation is needed in order to find out what kind of activities teachers use in advanced classes, and to what extent these are communicative.

Table 6.8 Rating of Difficulty in Activities

Activities	Difficult	Easy
Discussing	17.3	60.6
Writing grammar exercises	59.2	23.5
Reading texts	10.6	70.8
Listening to dialogues	26.3	53.7
Doing comprehension exercises	24.9	48.3
Writing dictation	27.1	31.8
Writing diaries/letters/essays	41.4	20.9
Doing role-play	9.2	55.9
Other	0.8	4.0

This table provides us with further information on the activities discussed in the previous table (Questions 4 and 5). All the activities they enjoy and which offer them the chance to interact seem to be easy for them, whereas activities dealing with accuracy seem difficult to them. However, Table 6.21 shows that teaching becomes more communicatively oriented as the pupils grow up.

Table 6.9 Opportunities to Speak

Enough	65.9
Not enough	34.1

As it concerns opportunities the pupils are offered to speak in the EFL classroom (Question 6), this table shows that the majority feel their opportunities are enough, but there is a significant minority who do not share this view.

Table 6.10 Who Speaks Most

Teacher	21.7
Students	11.6
Both equally	66.9

The majority of the pupils feel that both teacher and pupils, share speaking in the classroom equally (Question 7). This balance gives a general feeling that EFL classrooms in Greece are not so teacher-centered, as in the past. In order to validate this suggestion, one has to take into consideration relevant results in connection to the above ones, deriving from the use of the other instruments in the project.

Table 6.11 Which Language is Spoken

	Mostly English	Mostly Greek	Both
By teacher	69.9	7.7	23.2
By students	22.7	23.5	54.5

The language the teacher uses mostly in the classroom (Question 8) is perceived to be English, whereas the pupils feel they use both languages in their English sessions. It seems that the teacher is successful in his/her effort to prove that the FL is a code one can use for communication. This also suggests that the teacher at least does not face problems with his/her own language proficiency.

Table 6.12 What Type of Work

	Often	Occasionally	Never
Group/pair work	43.5	51.2	4.8
Individual	71.4	25.0	3.8
Whole class	21.9	41.3	35.3

This table (Question 9) tells us that mostly individual work takes place in the EFL classroom. Group/pair work takes place occasionally, but there is also a high percentage under 'often'. This is a pleasant surprise as communicative approaches seem to be favoured over other traditional types of classroom organisation. Whole class work appears in a lower percentage under 'occasionally', but also shows a direction towards 'never'. One has to combine these results with what the teachers claim about this, and then look at the systematic observation results in order to draw

the right conclusions. At this stage of analysis, both Chapter 5 (see Table 5.3) and Table 6.21 seem to be supportive to the above results.

Table 6.13 Usual Atmosphere in EFL Classroom

Pleasant	50.4
Less pleasant	42.3
Unpleasant	7.5
Boring	14.8
Less boring	39.7
Interesting	45.5
Tense	18.9
Less tense	42.3
Relaxed	38.8

As it concerns the usual atmosphere in the EFL classroom, the pupils feel that it is pleasant, interesting, and does not put them under tension. It seems that their attitude towards EFL practices is very positive.

The conclusion we draw so far is that teachers seem to have a communicative orientation in their classes, as their pupils report in their questionnaires. In a pleasant and interesting atmosphere the pupils enjoy activities based on fluency, whereas accuracy is difficult and unpleasant for them. The majority of the pupils feel that they usually are offered the chance to participate in classroom interaction, but the case is not always the same. Taking into consideration the usual case of large mixed ability classes in Greek state schools, one can find some reasons so as not to put all the responsibility for this on the teachers' shoulders. There is a balance of teacher talk and pupil talk in the EFL classroom, and the target language is mostly used by the teachers, whereas the pupils use both languages equally. The above findings lead us to the conclusion that state EFL classes move gradually from traditional types of teaching towards a communicative orientation. Less teacher-centered classes and a

high percentage of group/pair work makes their pupils happier than before, which is supportive to the view that CLT can be applied effectively in Greek state schools.

SECTION 3: QUALITIES OF THE GOOD LANGUAGE TEACHER

Table 6.14 Qualities of Good Language Teacher

	Not imp.	Less imp.	Important	More imp.	Very imp.
	1	2	3	4	5
Patient	15.9	13.5	14.5	23.3	32.9
Well organized	19.4	15.7	18.4	20.2	26.4
A well speaking person	29.3	18.9	19.9	16.8	15.2
A person with good humour	40.6	16.3	13.0	11.5	18.6
Is available for consultation	17.8	11.3	17.8	14.3	38.5
Speaks English well	20.1	12.5	11.9	16.6	38.6
Has good discipline	64.0	9.5	9.1	9.1	8.3
Other	98.0			0.2	1.8

The qualities that pupils would expect their teacher to possess are: to be proficient in English, to be available for consultation, to be patient, and lastly to be well organized. On the contrary, other qualities seem to be of much less importance to them, shown here for discipline, good humour or well speaking, which are matters of personality. The pupils' expectations apparently focus on a skilful professional to undertake responsibility for their progress.

Table 6.15 Opportunity to Consult

Once a week	61.0
Once a month	7.4
Once a term	3.2
Other	28.3

The pupils feel that consulting is very important to them in order to sort out their problems (Question 2). They claim that once a week is what they need for this purpose.

Table 6.16 What Would a Good Language Teacher Care Most About

	1	2	3	4	5	6
How much you enjoy learning English	22.8	10.9	11.5	12.1	13.9	28.8
How confident you are about learning English	11.0	16.5	14.1	14.5	22.7	21.3
How accurately you speak/write English	22.3	18.3	18.9	18.5	17.3	4.8
How fluently you speak/write English	16.1	23.9	18.3	20.5	12.1	9.1
How well you read English	3.4	12.9	17.1	19.2	20.6	26.8
How well you understand English	24.7	16.7	20.1	14.9	13.1	10.6

1 = most important
2 = more important

3 = important
4 = fairly important

5 = less important
6 = least important

This table is a real puzzle! Enjoyment in learning English is contradictory, accuracy seems to be very important, fluency to appear important but quite spread in its rating, understanding English well seems to occupy high rates in importance, whereas reading English well comes up with a negative result. What would a good language teacher care most about? The question still remains, due to such contradictory results. Perhaps the question itself was not a good one.

Nonetheless it is possible to draw an overall conclusion to this section. A skillful, patient, well organised professional, who is usually available for consultation, is the picture of the good language teacher that the pupils feel can meet their needs. Their perception is that the rest is a matter of the teacher's personality which always varies.

SECTION 4: STUDENTS' PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

Table 6.17 Pupils' Opinion of Their Proficiency in English

Very good	22.4
Good	37.9
Medium	26.9
Weak	10.6
Poor	2.2

As it concerns their general proficiency in English (Question 1), the pupils feel that they are in a very good position, as their opinion is rated between medium and very good. Very few of them have got problems with this subject, as we saw for Questions 4 and 5 of Section 2 concerning the activities they are offered in the classroom (see Table 6.8), as well as Questions 2, 3, 4, and 5 of Section 1 (Tables 6.2 and 6.3), showing their opinion on English and rating of subjects respectively. Thus, they have got a high opinion about their ability of handling the language well.

Table 6.18 Pupils' Rating of Proficiency in Listening-Reading-Writing-Speaking

Skills	1	2	3	4
Listening	34.1	24.2	22.2	19.6
Reading	10.1	22.1	29.4	38.4
Writing	22.2	24.2	30.6	23.0
Speaking	32.8	29.0	17.9	20.3

- 1 = least proficient
- 2 = less proficient
- 3 = proficient
- 4 = most proficient

The pupils' rating of their proficiency in the different skills (Question 2) proved that reading is the predominant one, followed by writing. On the contrary, speaking seems to be problematic, as well as listening. This is quite contradictory in

comparison to previous statistical tables (see Tables 6.2, 6.3, 6.7, and 6.8, as well as Table 6.21), and thus one more proof about the existence of puzzles to be solved.

Table 6.19 Activities Towards Improvement Outside School

Take private lessons	65.1
Read literature books	13.5
Watch films	51.2
Read English magazines	33.1
Other	24.5

Outside school the pupils mostly take private lessons in order to improve the FL they learn, and there is a high percentage of them watching films for the same purpose. Very few of them prefer other activities than the above.

Table 6.20 Pupils' Rating of Their Efforts

Always try hard	26.5
Mostly try hard	32.0
Sometimes try hard	24.9
Do not try very hard	16.6

As it concerns pupils' rating of their efforts (Question 4), they claim that they mostly employ a good amount of effort in order to improve their english.

The conclusion that derives from the above findings is that in general the pupils feel they are competent in English, but it seems that they are not confident about their listening and speaking skills. They mostly take private lessons or watch films in order to improve their english. All the above findings show clearly that the pupils' attitude towards the subject is positive, and they are clear enough about their needs towards learning the target language. They ask for a skilful professional to undertake the responsibility of their progress. So far, it seems that there is no problem with the teachers' language proficiency, but no positive claim can be made for the methodo-

logy the teachers use. The findings give us a hint that there is some kind of a problem with the teachers' practices, which has to be under investigation.

As soon as the initial reporting of frequencies came to an end, the researcher started thinking of ways to get answers to more detailed questions deriving from the analysis of the results. Crosstabulation of Sections 1, 2, and 4 seemed to be promising. We had good reasons for this. First of all, our findings showed that motivation varies among the students, and this may have a connection with their sex or grade, and their teachers' behaviour. Second, the findings made us suspicious about their teachers' practices. We felt that we had to look for the type of activities teachers do in their classrooms, because there is a hint that there is a differentiation between practices offered to beginners and intermediate from those offered to advanced students. It seems that teachers operate in a more communicative way with advanced pupils. Lastly, in the literature there are research findings claiming that sex plays an important role in learning a foreign language. According to the above findings, it seems that girls are better learners than boys. This was an interesting aspect to investigate in order to find out if there are any findings in the Greek context, supporting previous research in other countries. However, the main subject of the present project was to find out how effective Greek EFL teachers are in their practices, try to reach an understanding of the Greek case, and find out how close these practitioners are to CLT. Nevertheless, this was a challenge to set secondary reasons for investigation, as this project is the first descriptive study for the Greek context, and would provide valuable information on other subjects, which would serve as a basis for further research in the future.

For all the above reasons, it was decided for relevant parts of Sections 1, 2, and 4, as already said, to be broken down by sex and grade, and χ^2 -test of independence to be used for all the results to follow. The answers to the puzzles previously discussed derive from variables which were found of having statistical significance. Df stands for degree of freedom, and p for significance level respectively.

6.8 Breaking down by Sex and Grade

Table 6.21
(I) Breaking down the pupils' questionnaires by sex

Section 1: Attitudes Towards Learning English	Test of Independence	Degree of Freedom	Significance Level	Sex with highest score
1.Sex by future studies	$\chi^2=6.40$	df=1	p < 0.05	B
2.Sex by English interesting	$\chi^2=6.63$	df=1	p < 0.05	G
3.Sex by English in difficulty	$\chi^2=10.67$	df=3	p < 0.05	G
4.Sex by science in difficulty	$\chi^2=17.81$	df=3	p < 0.01	G
5.Sex by Greek in difficulty	$\chi^2=14.64$	df=3	p < 0.01	G
6.Sex by maths in interest	$\chi^2=12.53$	df=3	p < 0.01	B
7.Sex by English in interest	$\chi^2=16.39$	df=3	p < 0.001	G
8.Sex by science in interest	$\chi^2=15.75$	df=3	p < 0.01	B
9.Sex by Greek in interest	$\chi^2=13.16$	df=3	p < 0.01	G
10.Sex by period four	$\chi^2=14.20$	df=1	p < 0.001	G

Section 2: Attitudes Towards Classroom Activities	Test of Independence	Degree of Freedom	Significance Level	Sex with highest score
1.Sex by enjoyment in discussing	$\chi^2=6.23$	df=1	p < 0.5	G
2.Sex by enjoyment in reading texts	$\chi^2=16.60$	df=1	p < 0.0001	G
3.Sex by enjoyment in writing dictation	$\chi^2=4.56$	df=1	p < 0.05	G
4.Sex by not enjoyment in discussing	$\chi^2=7.67$	df=1	p < 0.01	B
5.Sex by not enjoyment in reading texts	$\chi^2=8.01$	df=1	p < 0.01	B
6.Sex by not enjoyment in writing dictation	$\chi^2=4.11$	df=1	p < 0.05	B
7.Sex by difficulty in writing grammar exercises	$\chi^2=6.64$	df=1	p < 0.05	B
8.Sex by difficulty in writing dictation	$\chi^2=8.27$	df=1	p < 0.01	B
9.Sex by difficulty in doing role-play	$\chi^2=5.56$	df=1	p < 0.05	B
10.Sex by easy in writing dictation	$\chi^2=4.12$	df=1	p < 0.05	G

Section 4: Students' Proficiency in English	Test of Independence	Degree of Freedom	Significance Level	Sex with highest score
1.Sex by proficiency in english	$\chi^2=16.05$	df=4	p < 0.01	G
2.Sex by taking private lessons outside school	$\chi^2=5.70$	df=1	p < 0.05	G
3.Sex by how hard do you try to improve your english	$\chi^2=11.55$	df=4	p < 0.05	G

(II) Breaking down the pupils' questionnaires by grade

Section 1: Attitudes Towards Learning English	Test of Independence	Degree of Freedom	Significance Level	Grade
1.Grade by good job	$\chi^2=8.26$	df=2	p < 0.05	J
2.Grade by other culture	$\chi^2=16.31$	df=2	p < 0.001	J
3.Grade by compulsory	$\chi^2=11.52$	df=2	p < 0.01	A

4.Grade by English easy	$\chi^2=27.40$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J
5.Grade by neither	$\chi^2=12.40$	df=2	p < 0.01	I
6.Grade by English interesting	$\chi^2=66.73$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J
7.Grade by English boring	$\chi^2=24.60$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J
8.Grade by English tolerable	$\chi^2=32.36$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A
9.Grade by English in interest	$\chi^2=14.74$	df=6	p < 0.05	J
10.Grade by Greek in interest	$\chi^2=15.36$	df=6	p < 0.05	A

Section 2: Attitudes Towards Classroom Activities		Test of Independence	Degree of Freedom	Significance Level	Grade
1.Grade by often discussing	$\chi^2=46.93$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
2.Grade by often reading texts	$\chi^2=71.58$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
3.Grade by often listening to dialogues	$\chi^2=14.13$	df=2	p < 0.01	J	
4.Grade by often doing listening comprehension exercises	$\chi^2=13.79$	df=2	p < 0.01	J	
5.Grade by often writing dictation	$\chi^2=68.71$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
6.Grade by often doing role-play	$\chi^2=13.76$	df=2	p < 0.01	I	
7.Grade by occasionally discussing	$\chi^2=38.72$	df=2	p < 0.0001	I	
8.Grade by occasionally reading texts	$\chi^2=50.61$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
9.Grade by occasionally doing listening comprehension	$\chi^2=15.93$	df=2	p < 0.01	I	
10.Grade by occasionally writing dictation	$\chi^2=76.05$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
11.Grade by occasionally writing diaries/letters/essays	$\chi^2=27.27$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
12.Grade by occasionally doing role-play	$\chi^2=17.91$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
13.Grade by occasionally doing other	$\chi^2=10.71$	df=2	p < 0.01	I	
14.Grade by never writing grammar exercises	$\chi^2=13.04$	df=2	p < 0.01	J	
15.Grade by never reading texts	$\chi^2=10.21$	df=2	p < 0.01	J	
16.Grade by never listening to dialogues	$\chi^2=70.52$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
17.Grade by never writing dictation	$\chi^2=158.54$	df=2	p < 0.0000	I	
18.Grade by never writing diaries/letters/essays	$\chi^2=27.62$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
19.Grade by never doing role-play	$\chi^2=28.86$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
20.Grade by enjoyment in discussing	$\chi^2=12.40$	df=2	p < 0.01	J	
21.Grade by enjoyment in reading texts	$\chi^2=6.16$	df=2	p < 0.05	J	
22.Grade by enjoyment in listening to dialogues	$\chi^2=20.53$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
23.Grade by enjoyment in doing comprehension exercises	$\chi^2=7.69$	df=2	p < 0.05	J	
24.Grade by enjoyment in writing dictation	$\chi^2=38.73$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
25.Grade by enjoyment in role-play	$\chi^2=10.27$	df=2	p < 0.01	J	
26.Grade by not enjoyment in discussing	$\chi^2=12.96$	df=2	p < 0.01	I	
27.Grade by not enjoyment in listening to dialogues	$\chi^2=15.02$	df=2	p < 0.001	A	
28.Grade by not enjoyment in writing diaries/letters/essays	$\chi^2=20.97$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
29.Grade by not enjoyment in role-play	$\chi^2=14.71$	df=2	p < 0.001	A	
30.Grade by not enjoyment in other	$\chi^2=6.66$	df=2	p < 0.05	A	
31.Grade by difficulty in discussing	$\chi^2=17.73$	df=2	p < 0.001	A	
32.Grade by difficulty in writing grammar exercises	$\chi^2=8.26$	df=2	p < 0.05	I	
33.Grade by difficulty in reading texts	$\chi^2=9.83$	df=2	p < 0.01	J	
34.Grade by difficulty in listening to dialogues	$\chi^2=31.55$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
35.Grade by difficulty in writing dictation	$\chi^2=16.15$	df=2	p < 0.001	J	
36.Grade by difficulty in writing diaries/letters/essays	$\chi^2=35.58$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
37.Grade by easy discussing	$\chi^2=32.73$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	
38.Grade by easy reading texts	$\chi^2=17.61$	df=2	p < 0.001	A	
39.Grade by easy listening to dialogues	$\chi^2=45.11$	df=2	p < 0.0001	J	
40.Grade by easy doing role-play	$\chi^2=20.22$	df=2	p < 0.0001	I	
41.Grade by enough opportunities to speak	$\chi^2=7.62$	df=2	p < 0.05	J	
42.Grade by not enough opportunities to speak	$\chi^2=7.62$	df=2	p < 0.05	I	
43.Grade by teacher speaking mostly english	$\chi^2=71.65$	df=2	p < 0.0001	A	

44. Grade by teacher speaking mostly greek	$\chi^2=28.39$	df=2	p<0.0001	I
45. Grade by teacher speaking both	$\chi^2=39.88$	df=2	p<0.0001	J
46. Grade by students mostly speaking greek	$\chi^2=18.56$	df=2	p<0.001	J
47. Grade by often doing group/pair work	$\chi^2=6.05$	df=2	p<0.05	J
48. Grade by often doing individual work	$\chi^2=6.61$	df=2	p<0.05	A
49. Grade by often doing whole class work	$\chi^2=12.33$	df=2	p<0.01	A
50. Grade by occassionally doing group/pair work	$\chi^2=9.63$	df=2	p<0.01	I
51. Grade by occassionally doing individual work	$\chi^2=7.99$	df=2	p<0.05	J
52. Grade by never doing whole class work	$\chi^2=35.43$	df=2	p<0.0001	J
53. Grade by pleasant atmosphere in classroom	$\chi^2=41.42$	df=2	p<0.0001	J
54. Grade by less pleasant atmosphere in classroom	$\chi^2=19.01$	df=2	p<0.001	A
55. Grade by unpleasant atmosphere in classroom	$\chi^2=18.19$	df=2	p<0.001	A
56. Grade by boring atmosphere in classroom	$\chi^2=20.56$	df=2	p<0.001	A
57. Grade by less boring atmosphere in classroom	$\chi^2=15.17$	df=2	p<0.001	A
58. Grade by interesting atmosphere	$\chi^2=49.83$	df=2	p<0.0001	J
59. Grade by tense atmosphere	$\chi^2=35.46$	df=2	p<0.0001	A
60. Grade by less tense atmosphere	$\chi^2=16.34$	df=2	p<0.001	I

Section 4: Students' Proficiency in English

	Test of Independence	Degree of Freedom	Significance Level	Grade
1. Grade by proficiency in English	$\chi^2=16.03$	df=8	p<0.05	J
2. Grade by reading	$\chi^2=23.49$	df=6	p<0.001	A
3. Grade by speaking	$\chi^2=14.68$	df=6	p<0.05	J
4. Grade by taking private lessons outside school	$\chi^2=60.02$	df=2	p<0.0001	J
5. Grade by watching films	$\chi^2=24.93$	df=2	p<0.0001	A
6. Grade by how hard do you try to improve your English	$\chi^2=69.94$	df=8	p<0.0001	J

B = Boys
 G = Girls
 J = Junior
 I = Intermediate
 A = Advanced

Breaking down by Sex

Section 1: Attitudes Towards Learning English

In our efforts to break down by sex the pupils' attitudes towards learning english, it was found out that there is a relationship between sex and future studies, especially for boys (see Table 6.21 above). They are perfectly aware that their future is connected to the FL, as the latter is a tool towards this direction. The result is $\chi^2=6.40$ df=1 p<0.05. This result is also verified through the frequency tables, as already seen. In general, English seems to occupy a good position among the pupils' interests, and especially girls seem to be very interested in the FL as a subject ($\chi^2=6.63$ df=1 p<0.05).

In matters of difficulty, English is not a problematic subject for the pupils, though girls again appear to find it easier than boys ($\chi^2=10.67$ df=3 $p<0.05$). In comparison to other subjects, both sexes face difficulties in science, especially the female. Science is the most difficult in all subjects ($\chi^2=17.81$ df=3 $p<0.01$), whereas in Greek there is a wide spreading, as it concerns the male. The distribution is equal for the male, whereas the female find their mother tongue very easy, as percentages present a tendency to the easiest. The result is $\chi^2=14.64$ df=3 $p<0.01$.

In matters of interest, English followed by greek are the most interesting subjects for girls ($\chi^2=14.64$ df=3 $p<0.01$ and $\chi^2=16.39$ df=3 $p<0.001$ respectively), whereas boys prefer maths ($\chi^2=12.53$ df=3 $p<0.01$) followed by science ($\chi^2=15.75$ df=3 $p<0.01$) to languages. The difference between male and female here is more than obvious, and a detailed answer comes to enlighten the percentages received in the frequency Table 6.3. It seems that boys are mainly attracted by subjects which deal with concrete and practical applications in their life, and this stability suits their nature, regardless the degree of difficulty that the subjects might include. On the contrary, the girls are interested in subjects through which they can express ideas and communicate with people. The social aspect that is inherent in language seems to suit their nature better, and makes such subjects easier for them.

The last subject investigated in Section 1 by breaking down by sex is the pupils' opinion about the amount of teaching hours the FL has to be offered in a syllabus, in order to meet their needs. The result is $\chi^2=14.2$ df=1 $p<0.001$ for four hours a week, and this is mainly supported by the female presenting the double percentage than the one presented by the male.

Section 2: Attitudes Towards Classroom Activities

In Section 2 our efforts were directed towards answering to puzzles connected with activities which take place in the Greek EFL classroom, trying to find out if there are aspects concerning the sex that make the sessions more communicative than others.

The results deriving from this analysis will be presented in the order they appear in Table 6.21, which is based on Appendix 5.

The first results to come up with statistical significance had to do with enjoyment in three different variables, that is discussing, reading texts and writing dictation. All three activities were traced from two different aspects, a positive and a negative one. The positive one for discussing gave as a result $\chi^2=6.23$ $df=1$ $p<0.05$, whereas the negative, that is not enjoyment in discussing, gave as a result $\chi^2=7.67$ $df=1$ $p<0.01$. This means that both sexes enjoy discussing as an activity in the classroom, but it seems that girls mainly like it more in comparison to boys. Discussing promotes language practice, communication and expression of ideas and beliefs, and helps the pupils to interact within a group of people without losing their personal identity. Language is a social expression of life and that is why girls mainly enjoy it, as already seen in the first section. The fact that it is often occurring in the greek EFL classroom, as seen through the frequencies in Table 6.6, shows that teachers are aware of how beneficial this activity can be for their students.

As it concerns reading texts, the positive result is $\chi^2=16.6$ $df=1$ $p<0.0001$, whereas not enjoyment in reading texts is $\chi^2=8.01$ $df=1$ $p<0.01$. All the pupils enjoy reading, but mainly girls seem to enjoy it more than boys. The way the control question worked made us suspect that girls' answers were closer to truth than those of the boys.

Writing dictation was the next variable that was traced. As a positive result it gave $\chi^2=4.56$ $df=1$ $p<0.05$, and as a negative $\chi^2=4.11$ $df=1$ $p<0.05$; in general boys do not like writing dictation.

In matters of difficulty, three variables came up with statistical significance, writing grammar exercises, writing dictation, and doing role-play. As it concerns the first variable which appeared as $\chi^2=6.64$ $df=1$ $p<0.05$, there is a difficulty in writing grammar exercises, and it is mainly faced by boys. Writing dictation was traced through difficult and easiest, and the results were $\chi^2=8.27$ $df=1$ $p<0.01$ and

$\chi^2=4.12$ df=1 p<0.05 respectively. The percentages we received are higher for the boys in difficulty, and higher for the girls in easiest, but the overall picture we got is that other children answered here and there. Lastly, role-play appeared under $\chi^2=5.56$ df=1 p<0.05. The majority find this type of activity easy, and in the comparison of percentages can be seen that boys find it more difficult than girls. Generally speaking, it seems that activities which promote interaction in the classroom and are highly communicative such as discussing and doing role-play are enjoyable for the pupils and easy to do, as is reading through which they perceive the world using language as a means to achieve it. On the contrary, activities such as writing grammar exercises and dictation are not enjoyable for the pupils and difficult to do, especially for boys who mostly enjoy science than language. However, the overall picture is that fluency can be promoted in the Greek EFL classrooms since it is given standing by the pupils, whereas accuracy is always a problem which teachers will always have to tackle by any means.

Section 4: Students' Proficiency in English

Are there differences among the Greek EFL pupils in their perceptions of proficiency in English? The result to this question was $\chi^2=16.05$ df=4 p<0.01. It seems that girls claim to be more proficient than boys, because their percentage is between good and very good, whereas boys appear not far from above the average. Besides it is only under 'male' that 'poor' appeared.

How do girls and boys try to improve their English outside school? In this case the result was $\chi^2=5.70$ df=1 p<0.05 for the variable 'taking private lessons'. Girls mainly take private lessons, whereas boys appear under a high percentage, but not as high as that of the girls.

How hard do girls and boys try to improve their English? The result that came up was $\chi^2=11.55$ df=4 p<0.05. The female again appear with a high percentage under 'always' and 'mostly', whereas the male are just above the average. There is 21.0%

of boys versus 13.0% of girls who do not try at all to improve their English. Table 6.17 of frequencies is in agreement with the above results which show that very few have got problems with the FL. In general girls appear to be better in languages, more interested in them, and more hard working than boys.

Breaking down by Grade

Section 1: Attitudes Towards Learning English

The next step to follow is to apply the χ^2 -test of independence to the most relevant variables in Section 1, to explore the extent of significant variation in attitudes by grade.

The result $\chi^2=8.26$ $df=2$ $p<0.05$ for a good job shows once more the instrumental character of students' motivation. Those who are beginners are on the top, followed by the intermediate and then the advanced. Awareness of their future in life starts at the very early grades. The result $\chi^2=16.31$ $df=2$ $p<0.001$ for other cultures is also mainly supported by beginners who it seems are interested in norms of societies other than theirs in their effort to enrich their knowledge about the world. Their cultural and national identity in comparison to others is perhaps not established at this grade, whereas the higher grades do not face such a problem, that is why percentages are gradually dropping.

$\chi^2=11.52$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$ is the result for English as a compulsory subject in the National Curriculum, which is the reason for learning English for the advanced pupils, followed by the intermediate. In order to have a better understanding of the pupils' attitude in the higher grades, one has to combine the above result with the teachers' interviews. The answer that comes up is that pupils are under a lot of tension and pressure in the higher grades, trying to meet the needs of the National Exams which will permit them to continue their studies to the University. Unfortunately, the problem lies with the educational system which makes the higher grades operate as an entry to the University, and inhibiting them by achieving this goal as

well, by including as compulsory for all the pupils subjects which are not crucial for some of them.

How do the pupils find English? Juniors mainly find English easy to learn, followed by the advanced and the intermediate ($\chi^2=27.40$ df=2 $p<0.0001$). The school and the subject are new for beginners, and knowledge of the FL starts from zero which makes things easier for them, whereas the other grades have to put more effort into working on the FL. Intermediate pupils mostly claim that English is neither easy nor difficult ($\chi^2=12.40$ df=2 $p<0.01$), although there is a general agreement over 50.0% deriving from all grades which supports their claim. However, the general feeling shows a tendency towards easy.

Where does English stand for the pupils? Beginners are on top of the climax feeling very enthusiastic about the subject (interesting - $\chi^2=66.73$ df=2 $p<0.0001$), the subject presents a pleasant picture for the pupils (boring negative - $\chi^2=24.6$ df=2 $p<0.0001$), but their enthusiasm and interest fade as they grow up (tolerable advanced on top of the climax - $\chi^2=32.36$ df=2 $p<0.0001$). This happens because, as already explained, advanced pupils are mostly involved in studying other subjects to sit at the entry exams to the University, and they mostly neglect other subjects like english, which do not play an important role in this situation.

As it concerns the pupils' interest in the subjects, the results by grade bring up both languages, English and Greek operating in a reverse way. For English the climax starts with the juniors on top, and the intermediate and advanced following ($\chi^2=14.74$ df=6 $p<0.05$), whereas for Greek the advanced are on top, and the intermediate and beginners follow ($\chi^2=15.36$ df=6 $p<0.05$). The pupils' interest for the FL fades in later grades due to the National Exams problem, as already explained in previous sections, whereas for Greek their interest increases as they grow up.

Section 2: Attitudes Towards Classroom Activities

The next step to the analysis was to break down Section 2 by grade. A large amount of variables came up with statistical significance, and they had to be grouped in order to be interpreted and commented on.

What type of activities and how often do they take place in the greek EFL classrooms by grade? This was the first question to be answered in this section. The first variable that showed significant variation was 'discussing' under 'often' and 'occasionally'. The first gave a result $\chi^2=46.93$ df=2 $p<0.0001$, and the latter $\chi^2=38.72$ df=2 $p<0.0001$. It seems that discussing often takes mostly place in the beginners' classes, followed by the advanced. On the contrary, occasionally discussing takes mostly place in the intermediate classes, followed by a high percentage of the advanced. Our understanding of the situation is that the intermediate grade pupils are not offered many chances to improve their oral skills in expressing themselves in the FL, which promotes fluency and interaction in the classroom.

Significant differences for reading texts appeared under 'often', 'occasionally' and 'never'. The results were for often $\chi^2=71.58$ df=2 $p<0.0001$, for occasionally $\chi^2=50.61$ df=2 $p<0.0001$, and for never $\chi^2=10.21$ df=2 $p<0.01$. This means that reading texts takes place very often in the classroom mainly for the advanced, followed by the intermediate, whereas for the juniors this happens occasionally, presumably because as beginners they have first to learn some basic patterns of the language and vocabulary in order to start expressing themselves in the FL, and then be exposed to the written form of the FL.

As it concerns listening to dialogues, the result for often is $\chi^2=14.13$ df=2 $p<0.001$, and for never is $\chi^2=70.52$ df=2 $p<0.0001$. In this case the first to be exposed to listening to dialogues are the beginners, followed by the intermediate. As it concerns the advanced students, the results show that they are not offered this type of activity in most of the schools the samples were taken from. (During the school year 1991-92 the present researcher has been working with advanced pupils in a

similar school to the above, trying to find out at the same time how close she was to the problems and to clearcut suggestions which would lead to good solutions. It was found out that her advanced pupils were rarely offered the chance to listen to dialogues in the previous class, and they could not understand different people talking to them in english who were invited by the researcher on this purpose to her classes, or follow different kinds of dialogues and make sense of the subject they were referring to).

The next variable to have frequencies of differing statistical significance was listening comprehension exercises under 'often' and 'occasionally', producing for 'often' the result $\chi^2=13.79$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$, and for 'occasionally' $\chi^2=15.93$ $df=2$ $p<0.001$. Juniors are on top of the rank, doing a lot of listening comprehension exercises, as expected for beginners. The advanced follow with quite high a percentage, whereas the intermediate appear under a low percentage, giving some space to occasionally.

Writing dictation was the next variable to appear under 'often', 'occasionally', and 'never', with results such as $\chi^2=68.71$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$ for 'often' (advanced), $\chi^2=76.05$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$ for 'occasionally' (juniors), and $\chi^2=158.54$ $df=2$ $p<0.0000$ for 'never' (intermediate) respectively.

The next variable was doing role-play which appeared under 'often' ($\chi^2=13.76$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$), 'occasionally' ($\chi^2=17.91$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$), and 'never' ($\chi^2=28.86$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$). In this case, the intermediate do role-play 'mostly' more often than 'occasionally', whereas the juniors do it occasionally. As it concerns the advanced, they mostly do it 'occasionally'.

Significant variation for writing diaries/letters/essays appeared only under 'occasionally' ($\chi^2=17.91$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$) and 'never' ($\chi^2=27.62$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$). The advanced do this type of activity occasionally, the intermediate are mostly not offered the chance to write diaries/letters/essays, and the juniors are never offered this activity with some rare exceptions. In the case of juniors one must not be

demanding, but the intermediate should be given more chances with letters and diaries, because they are supposed to be able to express their ideas satisfactorily in written.

Doing 'other' reached significance only under 'occasionally' and gave a result $\chi^2=10.71$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$. This type of activities, as already said, consists mainly of games and songs, and the intermediate seem to do it occasionally, followed by a lower, quite distant percentage representing the juniors, whereas the advanced are offered such activities very rarely.

Lastly, as it concerns writing grammar exercises (never- $\chi^2=13.04$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$), it was found out that all the grades write grammar exercises, but mostly the juniors do not.

All the above discussed activities are those offered by their teachers, according to the latters' teaching decisions. What are those which pupils enjoy most? This was the next question to find out through the analysis.

The first variable with statistical significance was discussing (enjoy- $\chi^2=12.40$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$, not enjoy- $\chi^2=12.96$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$). All the grades enjoy discussing very much, but juniors are those who enjoy it mostly. The intermediate follow them, and lastly the advanced, both of them represented by high percentages close to each other. This result is verified by Table 6.7 of frequencies as well, pointing out the pupils' interest in getting involved in interaction.

The next variable was reading texts ($\chi^2=6.16$ $df=2$ $p<0.05$). All the grades enjoy this type of activity, the juniors being on top of the climax, followed by the advanced. The intermediate enjoy it, but their percentage is quite lower than that of the advanced. However, all the pupils have a positive attitude towards reading texts.

Listening to dialogues (enjoy- $\chi^2=20.53$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$, not enjoy- $\chi^2=15.02$ $df=2$ $p<0.001$) came up with a positive attitude of all grades towards this activity.

The juniors enjoy it mostly, followed by the intermediate and then by the advanced. All pupils enjoy listening to different subjects and making sense of them through the FL.

Comprehension exercises ($\chi^2=7.69$ df=2 $p<0.05$) seem to be enjoyable for the majority of the beginners, but not this enjoyable for the advanced and the intermediate who follow with percentages close to the average. This means that they are interested in this activity, but they do not support it as strongly as they did with the previous ones.

Writing dictation came up with $\chi^2=38.73$ df=2 $p<0.0001$. This type of activity is faced with a negative attitude by all the grades in general. The advanced are very negative towards it, then the intermediate and lastly the beginners follow in the rank. The percentages are very low, which shows that their feelings are strongly against this type of activity, as already verified in Table 6.7 of the frequencies.

The results received for role-play were significant differences both for enjoying the activity $\chi^2=10.27$ df=2 $p<0.01$, and for not enjoying it $\chi^2=14.71$ df=2 $p<0.001$. It seems that the juniors enjoy it mostly, followed closely by the intermediate, whereas the advanced are close to the average. However, all grades seem to enjoy role-play as an activity, a conclusion supported by Table 6.7, as already mentioned above.

Writing diaries/letters/essays (not enjoy- $\chi^2=20.27$ df=2 $p<0.0001$) is an activity which the pupils generally do not enjoy. First on top of the climax are the advanced, followed by the intermediate, whereas the beginners are the last ones, because in general they are not offered this activity apart from rare exceptions. The intermediate do not enjoy it whenever they are offered, whereas the advanced who are offered it mostly developed a negative attitude towards it.

Other activities appeared under $\chi^2=6.66$ df=2 $p<0.05$. Songs and games are activities that the pupils in general enjoy very much.

As a conclusion to what is really done in the EFL classroom and what the pupils enjoy most, it seems that all activities dealing with fluency are mostly welcomed by the pupils, even if they are not always offered to them enough, as for example it happens with the intermediate in discussing and listening comprehension, and the advanced with listening to dialogues and role-play. As it concerns activities dealing with accuracy, the pupils do not enjoy them at all, no matter if they are offered to them often, as for example dictation for all the grades, and grammar exercises mostly for the advanced and the intermediate, or occasionally as diaries/letters/essays for the advanced and the intermediate. All other activities when offered to them are always enjoyable. However, the results deriving from both crosstabs and frequencies are in total agreement, which does not leave any space to further doubts about what is already discussed.

Are all the above results subject to the difficulty or the facility that each grade faces with some of the activities? This is the next step we tried to investigate through breaking down each one of the activities by grade. The ones that showed statistically significant differences between grades will be presented in the order they appeared.

‘Discussing’ gave of the few anomalous results, as the advanced students’ responses reached significance at both extremes (for difficulty and facility).

Writing grammar exercises showed significant variation under ‘difficulty’, and gave a result $\chi^2=8.26$ $df=2$ $p<0.05$. All grades experience difficulty with this type of activity, especially the intermediate, followed by the beginners, whereas the advanced have fewest problems. It seems that learning the new code is difficult mostly for intermediate pupils, because at that stage they are mostly exposed to a wide variety of important aspects of the FL morphology.

Reading texts appeared under both ‘difficult’ ($\chi^2=9.83$ $df=2$ $p<0.01$) and ‘easiest’ ($\chi^2=17.61$ $df=2$ $p<0.001$). All the grades find reading texts very easy, with the advanced at the top of the climax, followed by the intermediate and the juniors.

This is what it would normally be expected, as the advanced are the most experienced in reading and the juniors the less.

The next variable that came up was listening to dialogues (difficulty - $\chi^2=31.55$ df=2 p<0.0001, easiest - $\chi^2=45.11$ df=2 p<0.0001). This activity appears very easy for the beginners, and easy for the intermediate who are close to the average. On the contrary the advanced find it mostly easy with a percentage of difficulty close to easy. This might happen because the advanced are not often offered this type of activity, even if they enjoy it when offered, and have some problems when they face it.

Breaking down by grade showed the same result in difficulty for dictation and writing diaries/letters/essays as already seen in Table 6.7 of frequencies. Both activities appeared under 'difficult' with results for dictation $\chi^2=16.15$ df=2 p<0.001, and for writing diaries/letters/essays $\chi^2=35.58$ df=2 p<0.0001 respectively. Juniors mostly find dictation difficult, then follow the intermediate, and lastly the advanced who have acquired more experience in this activity, whereas with diaries/letters/essays percentages are reversed, so the advanced find it mostly difficult as they have to write essays, then the intermediate follow, and lastly the beginners who are not usually offered this activity apart from some exceptions, as already said. However, apart from being difficult both activities are not enjoyable to the pupils, as accuracy is always a difficult path for them to follow.

Significant variation for role-play appeared under 'easiest' ($\chi^2=20.22$ df=2 p<0.0001); the intermediate are those who find it very easy, followed by the beginners, whereas the advanced are the last ones in the rank.

As a conclusion to the activity subject, the activities which promote fluency such as 'discussing', 'reading texts', 'listening to dialogues', 'doing role-play', 'doing other', and 'listening comprehension' are offered mostly often to all the grades, and the pupils find them enjoyable and easy, whereas those which promote accuracy such as 'writing grammar exercises' (the most predominant of accuracy activities for all

the grades), 'writing dictation', and 'writing diaries/letters/essays' are less in number, and the pupils' attitude is negative towards them, as they experience difficulties with them. Apart from the degree of difficulty and the attitude that the pupils developed towards both fluency and accuracy types of activities, there are important intergrade differences to take into consideration. The advanced students were not given many chances to listen to dialogues or work with role-play and other types of activities often, which led them to face problems with grasping the meaning of dialogues. (See the anomalous results for 'discussing' above, reaching both extremes). The intermediate face problems with their oral skills, as they are not offered many chances to interact and promote their fluency. In general, all grades do mostly fluency activities than accuracy ones, but juniors seem to be the happiest of all, as they work under a good balance of fluency and accuracy, which saves them for facing particular problems.

Have the pupils of different grade levels got enough opportunities to speak in the greek EFL classroom, and what is the language mostly used by each of the parties? It was first decided to look at the pupils' opportunities which showed significant grade-related for 'enough' $\chi^2=7.62$ $df=2$ $p<0.05$, and for 'not enough' $\chi^2=7.62$ $df=2$ $p<0.05$ respectively. All the grades claim that they are offered enough opportunities to speak in the classroom with the juniors on top of the rank, followed by the advanced and the intermediate. The latter seem to have a good amount of opportunities but not as high as the others; the feeling deriving from these results combined with some others is that instruction in this grade should be given some reconsideration.

Stepping into the subject of the language used in the classroom, we had grade-related variation for the teacher under speaking mostly english $\chi^2=71.65$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$, under speaking mostly greek $\chi^2=28.39$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$, and under speaking both $\chi^2=39.88$ $df=2$ $p<0.0001$. All the grades claim that their teacher speaks mostly english, which means that the teachers are proficient in using the target language. The advanced are represented in their answer by a very high percentage (92.8%), then the juniors follow with a high percentage, and lastly the intermediate

represented by a percentage above the average claim the same, but it seems that their teachers feel the need to use both languages sometimes to support their instruction. As it concerns the pupils, the junior group showed significant variation, under 'speaking mostly greek' ($\chi^2=18.56$ df=2 $p<0.001$). This verifies that English is mostly spoken by both parties in the classroom, with Greek playing some role in the early and intermediate stages but steadily diminishing.

What is the organization of the work in the greek EFL classroom? In this case all the variables showed significant grade-related variation, that is group/pair work, individual, and whole class work. Group/pair work appeared under 'often' ($\chi^2=6.05$ df=2 $p<0.05$) and 'occasionally' ($\chi^2=9.63$ df=2 $p<0.01$), which means that this type of organization is most often used with a high percentage in the junior classes, but is not necessarily the highest of all types of organization. The intermediate and the advanced are offered the chance of group/pair work only occasionally, which is not also the highest of their percentages in the same case. There is a total agreement among crosstab results by sex, by grade, and those of frequencies in Table 6.12 about this type of organisation. As already discussed in previous sections and in Chapter 5 (see for an extensive discussion section 5.8.4), teachers try to avoid group work for different reasons. However, not all teachers share the same fears (see for T8 and T11 op.cit), and some of them succeeded in using group work systematically after putting their pupils into an effort under stages.

Individual work showed variation under 'often' ($\chi^2=6.61$ df=2 $p<0.05$) and 'occasionally' ($\chi^2=7.99$ df=2 $p<0.05$), whereas whole class work varied for 'often' $\chi^2=12.33$ df=2 $p<0.01$, and for 'never' $\chi^2=35.43$ df=2 $p<0.0001$. Individual work appeared under the highest percentages for all grades with the advanced on top of the rank, followed closely by the intermediate, and lastly the juniors who also appear with a high percentage 'often' doing group/pair work, as already seen. Teachers claim different reasons for favouring individual work (see Chapter 5 p.21), as well as pair work next to this, and their claims are in agreement with those of their pupils above and the Table 6.12 of frequencies. However, even if the picture of the organisation in the greek EFL classroom is clearly roughed out, it still remains to see

if reality deriving from the systematic observations in Chapter 7, is also in agreement with the above before drawing final conclusions.

What is the usual atmosphere in the greek EFL classroom? This is the last subject to discuss from Section 2 concerning the pupils' attitudes towards the FL according to their grade. The variables that attained significance were 'pleasant' ($\chi^2=41.42$ df=2 $p<0.0001$), 'less pleasant' ($\chi^2=19.01$ df=2 $p<0.001$), 'unpleasant' ($\chi^2=18.19$ df=2 $p<0.001$), 'boring' ($\chi^2=20.56$ df=2 $p<0.001$), 'less boring' ($\chi^2=15.17$ df=2 $p<0.001$), 'interesting' ($\chi^2=49.83$ df=2 $p<0.0001$), 'tense' ($\chi^2=35.46$ df=2 $p<0.0001$), and 'less tense' ($\chi^2=16.34$ df=2 $p<0.001$). The juniors and the intermediate claim that the atmosphere in the EFL classroom is pleasant, interesting, and without tension, whereas the advanced feel that it is neither ideal nor too bad, as their percentages mostly move around less pleasant, less boring, but rather tense. The reason for a rather tense atmosphere in the advanced grade is probably that although English is not among the subjects the majority of pupils have to sit at exams in order to go on with their university studies, it is none the less a compulsory subject in the Greek National Curriculum. The pupils have to spend time in the study of crucial subjects to them, and at the same time to sit at internal exams in English in order to graduate from the Senior High School. Recently this has been a problem under discussion in the Greek Ministry of Education, and the general thinking has been to offer English from the fourth grade of the primary school to the second grade of the senior high school. This would sort out a problem and start others, as for example lack of provision for those who would like to join a FL department at the University, which transfers the whole responsibility from the state to the private sector. Then exploring the suggested timetable for English, as well as for other foreign languages, the conclusion is that no FL would reach a satisfactory level through this type of schedule. The above justify the reason for a tense atmosphere in the advanced grade, whereas lack of such problems in the other grades give a more positive picture of the pupils' attitudes towards EFL. However, the general feeling deriving from the results on all grades, as well as from the Table 6.13 of frequencies, is that the teachers succeeded in establishing an atmosphere which makes their pupils' learning beneficial for them.

At this point we reach the last section of the questionnaires to break down by grade, so as to give answers to the puzzles deriving from this part of analysis. (Section 3 was left out from this type of analysis, because it refers to what the pupils would expect the qualities of a good language teacher to be, an aspect very interesting to investigate but none the less not the main one which is the instruction of CLT in the greek EFL classroom, as well as the identity and the problems of both parties). As Chapter 5 refers to the teachers, the present chapter refers to the other party, the pupils. For this reason we shall work on the analysis of Section 4, breaking down first by grade.

Section 4: Students' Perceptions of Proficiency in English

Breaking down Section 4 by grade is the next step to follow in order to find answers to some questions still under discussion.

Is there any difference in self-reported proficiency among grades? The result was $\chi^2=16.03$ df=8 $p<0.05$. Juniors are on top between good and very good, then follow the intermediate and lastly the advanced. It seems that in higher grades pupils have to put more efforts into learning, which is its normal process.

What is the pupils'proficiency in the four skills for each grade? The first variable having statistical significance is reading giving a result $\chi^2=23.49$ df=6 $p<0.001$. The advanced appear with a high percentage of self-ratings between 'proficient' and 'most proficient', then the intermediate follow, and lastly the juniors. The pupils acquire proficiency in a receptive skill like reading gradually which is the normal process to learning. The high percentages under which it appears make it the predominant of their skills, and their ranking is in agreement with Table 6.18 of frequencies. It is likely that this happens mainly because teachers offer a lot of practice to their pupils, as they are highly attached to texts from among the materials they use (see teacher interviews on the subject in Chapter 5).

As it concerns other skills of theirs, speaking came up with $\chi^2=14.68$ df=6 $p<0.05$. The problem with a productive skill like speaking is that juniors do feel proficient (see their own rating in Table 6.21), which is normal as they are at the first stage of learning and they have plenty of practice to acquire experience in the new code. One would expect to see some kind of improvement in the next grades, but we do not know why the advanced pupils' attitude is less optimistic, even if they know English well. It seems that fluency activities need to be used often, as well as group/pair work and role-play which engage the pupils into interaction so as to improve proficiency in the above skill.

What do pupils of each grade do to improve their English outside school? The variables that reached grade-related significance were taking private lessons ($\chi^2=60.02$ df=2 $p<0.0001$), and watching films ($\chi^2=24.93$ df=2 $p<0.0001$). As it concerns the first variable, juniors mainly take private lessons, then the intermediate follow them close, whereas a limited number of advanced pupils take private lessons in English. As was said in previous sections of the present chapter, the system is responsible for this kind of result. The second variable is favoured mainly by the advanced pupils, and then the intermediate follow at a distance. The juniors do not watch films, apart from a low percentage presumably, because they have not reached a point which would enable them to make a good use of films in their FL improvement.

How hard do pupils of each grade try to improve their English? In this case the analysis gave the result $\chi^2=69.94$ df=8 $p<0.0001$. The juniors appear on top under 'always' and 'mostly' with a high percentage, whereas the intermediate put some efforts above the average. As it concerns the advanced, they appear below the average which means that they do not try very hard, due to problems deriving from the Greek educational system.

6.9 Conclusion

The message one receives from the pupil questionnaires concerning CLT in the Greek educational system is that teachers try more or less to apply this approach in their EFL classrooms. They are in favour of innovations and they succeeded in getting the best of their pupils' interest, as well as to create a nice atmosphere to promote learning. Communicative activities are mostly offered to the pupils, but their teachers are not still persuaded to use fluency activities often, as for example group/pair work, role-play etc., which are mostly welcomed by the pupils and enjoyed by them most. Accuracy is most important, whereas fluency, though important, appears to be under pressure due to problems inherent within the system, as well as its traditional character, elements which do not facilitate the teachers' task. It is obvious that their pupils enjoy any change their teachers might make in the classroom, either with materials, activities, or class organization. They like English and they feel they are in the position to meet the needs of the subject, which is the most important element on which teachers can base their instruction. What remains for the teachers is not to be attached to a text and always work around it, but to overcome their fears, to expand themselves methodologically, and become innovative. The results in this chapter reflect the influence of the weak and strong points of their work on their pupils, and they provide us with a clear picture of their pupils' views on them and on the whole situation. However, the views of both parties presented in Chapters 5 and 6 have to be compared with actual teaching, before final conclusions are drawn on Greek EFL classrooms. This can only be achieved through systematic observations that took place in live classrooms, as presented in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7: OBSERVATIONS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE SCHOOLS

7.1 *Introduction*

The subject under discussion in this chapter is the presentation and analysis of data, deriving from systematic observations of CLT, conducted in state secondary education classrooms.

Classroom observation was the main element of each case study, as already mentioned in Chapter 3. The instrument for recording and classifying CLT features in the classroom was a transformed version of COLT, which was thoroughly presented and discussed in Chapter 4. The collection of this type of data was ranked first of all, as the researcher was interested in investigating what really happens in the Greek EFL classroom. Systematic observation preceded the other types of data for the following reasons:

- First of all, the researcher observed the FL practices that teachers used, without knowing the subjects' ideas and attitudes, and thus, she aimed at being unbiased. This gave the data increased objectivity.
- Second, the subjects knew in advance that their performance would be kept strictly confidential, and that recording was taking place only in order to facilitate the researcher's work. And
- Third, the researcher was working at the back of the classroom, without interfering or participating in the session. Thus, her presence was mostly forgotten by the subjects, helping them to perform as they usually used to do.

However, this type of data was the last to be analyzed because the researcher wanted first of all to present and analyze the views of both parties, teachers and students, and then move into giving evidence of what really happens. This would enable the study to clarify how far claims are from real events.

7.2. Planning the Observations

The use of systematic observation as the main process of data gathering was based on the idea that it would feed the study not only with elements deriving from natural interaction, but also patterns of behaviour relevant to CLT, and check on the occurrence of CLT features, which would be studied in particular EFL classroom situations. This type of data combined with data on the subjects' perceptions and students' outcomes would give a clear picture of the whole situation, investigated from different angles.

Among all the published observation instruments, the one which seemed to be appropriate for the case was COLT. As already mentioned in Chapter 4, the system had to be studied carefully, and then tested in a pilot, so as to find out if it could fit the requirements of the project.

It did not take the researcher much time to find herself in front of the first main problem. The literature on the system did not enlighten her as it concerns the rules under which the categories were operating. In order to overcome the problem, she decided to correspond with the researchers involved in the construction of COLT. The information she received from its creators (Allen, Fröhlich and Spada 1984), as already mentioned in Chapter 4, has not been able to clarify this subject (Allen et al. 1983, 1984, Allen and Carroll 1987, 1988, Allen 1989), and she was encouraged by them to use rules of her own in the application of the system! It seemed that the researcher was going to make sense of the categories and of the problems involved in COLT only through trial and error. The researcher would play a non-participant role as she would keep herself distant from her subjects, sitting at the back of the

classroom. This would increase objectivity in data gathering, apart from the fact that she had never worked with her subjects in her life as a professional. After all, the system was very demanding as it concerns the skills a researcher needs to possess when using it, as it concerns its timing, as well as the big amount and variety of categories it involves. In this case, the researcher had used the system in the past doing reliability checks on videotaped EFL sessions for other research projects at the University of Southampton before starting the present project. However, she had never before applied it in direct observation. In conclusion, it was expected that the piloting of COLT would offer solutions to the above listed problems.

7.3. The Piloting of COLT

In spring 1989, COLT was the first among the instruments piloted in the two schools that had been selected, for reasons already explained above. Among the groups which were observed, the two first levels were taught by the same teacher and the last by another one. All the groups were observed for a period of one whole month, and the duration of the sessions was between thirty-five (35) and forty-five (45) minutes.

The coding period was of one minute, followed by a two minutes break, before another coding would take place. (See for details Chapter 4). There has been a trial to change the timing, but it has been unsuccessful.

All sessions were audiorecorded so as to enable the researcher to check on her codings retrospectively, as well as reliability checks from two researchers at a later stage.

The researcher was provided with the materials that each of the teachers used with their classes, which consisted of the coursebook, photocopies etc.

Due to extracurricular activities in the school syllabus, the amount of observing hours has never been as high as expected for the amount of time devoted to observation. However, the data collected through systematic observation in the pilot study were the following:

Beginners : 3 groups = 11 periods.

Intermediate : 3 groups = 11 periods.

Advanced : 2 groups = 07 periods.

Total : 8 groups = 29 periods.

As soon as the pilot case studies came to an end, two researchers started trying out the reliability of the system. It was found out that there were areas of vagueness in Part A of the original system (see Appendix 1) among the Language categories (no definition at all for "Implicit", poor definition of the "Other Topics" area). The "Materials" parameter was problematic concerning classification ("Type"), and the lack of clear cut instructions ("Audio"). The purpose of design for some categories was not clarified ("Pedagogic", "Semi-pedagogic", "Non-pedagogic"), and other parameters are dropped as problematic by the Canadian researchers themselves ("Use of Materials"). (For a detailed discussion see Chapter 4).

Part B (Appendix 2) went through a limited trying out but proved to be less reliable, and thus not widely used even by its own creators. (e.g., Spada 1984). After all, the researcher was not interested in the detailed linguistic analysis which is investigated through Part B, but a broad overview of what teachers were doing in their classrooms, which is the concern of Part A. This led to the decision to use only Part A.

The need for a transformation of the system was more than apparent, as happens with all systems devised for different purposes in different contexts, and which usually do not fit the requirements of a project (Nisbet and Watt 1984, Cohen and Manion 1985, Bell 1987). For this reason, the researcher started working towards this direction.

7.4. Designing and Defining the New Version of COLT

In spring 1989 the researcher started the transformation of COLT which was accomplished before the main fieldwork started in autumn of the same year. She tested it with three different teachers, teaching three different levels of students in a private school for foreign languages in Southampton during the summer period, and she went through some further minor corrections. The kind of changes made were: a) Some of the categories in the system were dropped, b) new categories were developed to include important features, and c) clearer definitions were written followed by examples. (For the definitions of categories see Chapter 4, Section 1.7.1.). This substantial work made the system highly operational, reliable, and effective under its new version (Appendix 3), providing valuable information on the communicative orientation of different types of instruction which is the purpose of the present project.

7.5. Administration of the Systematic Observations in the Main Cases

The new version of COLT (Appendix 3) was administered in nine schools which had been selected for the main empirical work. The amount of groups which were observed was twenty-seven (27) in total.

TABLE 7.1 Groups Taught by Teachers in Main Cases

Teacher	School Type	No. of Groups		
		Beginners	Intermediate	Advanced
1	H	2	-	-
2	H+S	2	-	2
3	H	-	2	-
4	S	-	-	2
5	H	-	2	-
6	S	-	-	2
7	S	-	-	1
8	H	2	2	-
9	H	2	-	-
10	H	-	1	-
11	S	-	-	2

The observations that the researcher has been able to go through in the main study were the following:

Beginners = 64 periods.

Intermediate = 47 periods.

Advanced = 51 periods.

This gave a total of 162 periods of systematic observation. The total length for each teaching session was 27-39 minutes of which there were 9-13 minutes of systematic observation.

The timing and audiorecording procedures were exactly the same as for the pilot case studies. The researcher's position was always at the back of the classroom, and her role was non-participatory. The latter was quite difficult to achieve, because sometimes the teachers were addressing themselves to her. This happened because the researcher created a warm atmosphere between herself and the observed teachers and

students outside the classroom, aiming at being accepted by those small communities as a member. She was asked to present different subjects to the staff and the students during their extra-curricular activities, which she gladly did for two good reasons: a) because the subjects proved to be highly co-operative and she felt like expressing her gratitude to them, and b) because she wanted them to get used to her presence so as to forget her role in the classroom, and let her have a realistic picture of their sessions. This was achieved as the teachers used her three times in total to respond in questions as a member of the class, but happily not so extensively so as to cause her troubles with her codings. In this respect, it can be claimed that this policy has been beneficial for the project, as it gave the researcher the potential to code different types of EFL instruction through realistic sessions.

As soon as the fieldwork came to an end, the data were classified according to teacher, level and region, in order to go through reliability checks.

7.6. Organising the Analysis

When it came to reliability checks, it was found out that the amount of data was too great to be analysed fully within the time limits of a Ph.D thesis. The researcher had to make a decision on the amount of data to be analyzed. From the total amount of 162 hours, it was decided to exclude ninety eight (98) hours, that is beginners=44, intermediate=27, and advanced=27. These could be used in the future to provide stronger support to the results of this project. **Thus, it was decided that five (5) sessions per level and teacher would be finally analyzed.** For example, where there was the case of the same teacher teaching two different levels, there would be a selection of five sessions of each level. This has been possible for all the teachers and levels in all schools apart from one Senior High School. From the latter only four (4) sessions were coded, due to extra-curricular activities within the national curriculum, as already explained, which affected not only the present research but every subject in general. The final amount of data to be analyzed was **sixty four (64) periods** as follows:

Beginners = 20 periods.

Intermediate = 20 periods.

Advanced = 24 periods.

(See Table 7.1 for levels taught by each one of the eleven teachers).

As soon as the decision was made, the procedure of reliability checks was put into action by two researchers, using a selection of audiorecorded lessons. (For a detailed discussion on this subject see Chapter 4, Section 1.8).

The statistical package which was selected for the quantitative analysis of this type of data was SPSSPC, the same that was used for the questionnaires described in Chapter 6. It was decided to analyze first the student questionnaires and then the systematic observation codings. The reason for this was that on the one hand the amount of the questionnaires was bigger than that of the codings, and on the other the questionnaires were more problematic in computing, due to their structure, as already mentioned in Chapter 6. As soon as the questionnaire analysis came to an end, the researcher started the analysis of the lesson codings. The latter has not been as problematic in computing as the questionnaires, as already said. However, the fact that more than one category is ticked in every one minute of observation made the whole procedure tiring. Apart from the large amount of codings, the researcher had to be very careful not to exclude any of the codings, which would make the project poorer in accuracy. This concern made her slow down the data entry process, which proved to be rewarding in the next steps to follow.

7.7. Data Analysis: Frequencies

Although Chapters 5 and 6 give a good amount of information on the views of both parties, teachers and pupils, about EFL instruction in their classrooms, there are still puzzles to be sorted out. It is expected to achieve this target through the analysis of the systematic observation codings in the present chapter.

As a first step, tables with results deriving from frequencies will be presented, in the order that each category appears in the instrument (see Appendix 3). The tables show the number of ticks recorded for each category, translated into percentages of total observations. It is important to note that as most sections of the coding sheet allowed for multiple codings, percentages do not total 100%.

TABLE 7.2 Participant Organization

Participant Organization	%
teacher-student classroom organization	92.8
student-student classroom organization	10.0
choral classroom organization	1.3
same group organization	4.4
different group organization	2.1
individual organization	12.4
group/individual combination	0.1

The first parameter to be analyzed was participant organization. Looking at the results in Table 7.2 one can clearly see that it is mostly one whole class central activity led by the teacher going on in the Greek EFL classroom (92.8 %), which makes the teacher the backbone of the whole organizational structure. The teacher interacts with the whole class and/or with individual students. There are some minor results such as pupils writing exercises on their own (12.4 %), as well as some minor innovative efforts, as for example pupils leading whole class work (10.0 %) or traces of group work (6.5 % in total from which same group organization 4.4 %), which is a sign of some communicative elements taking place in their classrooms. However, these results are mostly close to the traditional type of classroom organization.

TABLE 7.3 Content: Management

MANAGEMENT	%
Procedure	33.1
Discipline	20.9

Content is the subject matter of classroom interaction, and Table 7.3 deals with the first of the three major areas that have been differentiated under the content parameter, which is management. The results show that there is a good percentage of talk about procedure taking place, that is the teacher was giving instructions on a task at some point during one-third of the minutes coded. Discipline appears under a very low percentage however which verifies the claims of both parties that they are on good terms between themselves. (Here the total is less than 100% as not every minute of observation included Procedure and/or Discipline).

TABLE 7.4 Content: Language Form

	LANGUAGE FORM	%
A Single Codings	Grammar	26.8
	Vocabulary	31.4
	Spelling	2.4
	Pronunciation	3.7
	Function	0.7
	Discourse	0.4
	Sociolinguistics	0.6
B Combined Codings	Grammar and Function	0.4
	Grammar and Vocabulary	0.4
	Grammar and Discourse	1.0
	Vocabulary and Discourse	0.4
	No tick	35.7

As it concerns single codings in the second major area of content shown in Table 7.4, it seems that vocabulary is the predominant type of 'language form' that appears on this table, followed by a good percentage of grammar. The prime impression is that there is focus on the explanation of meaning, which suggests that classes follow a communicative orientation here, but accuracy is also given a lot of concern, an impression reinforced by a hint of grammar and discourse under combined codings.

It seems there is a good balance between both elements. As it concerns function, discourse, and sociolinguistics, one can see that they are extremely rarely discussed, and it is only in qualitative terms that one can discuss them. Lastly, it is interesting to see that the no tick column (35.7%), which represents one-third of the minutes coded, contains no reference to form!

TABLE 7.5 Content: Other Topics

	TOPIC	%
NARROW	Stereotype	-
	Personal-biological	3.2
	Stories	3.8
	Acting	0.8
	SUBTOTAL	7.8
LIMITED	Personal/Family	1.1
	Socio-community	1.8
	School topic	1.0
	Stories topic	8.3
	Acting	3.7
	SUBTOTAL	15.9
OTHER	Comment	2.0
	Song	2.7
	Culture	0.3
	Game	1.4
	Joke	2.4
	Memo Test	0.7
	Drawing	1.8
	Punishment	0.1
	Quiz	0.6
	SUBTOTAL	12.0
BROAD	Abstract	7.1
	Personal/reference	1.4
	World	0.4
	Literature/Poetry/art	3.4
	Stories	18.4
	SUBTOTAL	30.7

‘Other topics’, the third and last area of content, for which results are shown in Table 7.5, is represented by three subdivisions, narrow, limited, and broad, which show the potentially vast number of topics arising in classroom conversation. However, the use of ‘broad’ topics is a ‘communicative’ indicator. A striking feature is the fairly limited use of narrow topics, and teachers’ relative willingness to use broad topics, notably stories, which explains the high percentage of vocabulary on the previous table. Teachers base their instruction on coursebook texts, a fact supported by other lower percentages as for example that for stories under the ‘limited’ heading, but not for the sake of language itself. The above results show that 60.0% of their instruction has an identifiable content topic, and only 40.0% does not include any substantive ‘content’ topics at all. The use of the ‘abstract’ category under ‘broad’ topics reinforces this position, as well as a spread of other low percentages which show that language use tends to be of a communicative orientation.

TABLE 7.6 Content: Topic Control

TOPIC CONTROL	%
Teacher Control	100.0
Teacher/Student	0.1
Student	0.1

Topic control is the last area analysed under content. Table 7.6 shows that the initial selection of the topic to be discussed lies with the teacher 100.0%! There are minor efforts by some teachers under the other two categories, but we are not in the position to know who these are. We feel it might be useful to go through a further breaking down in later sections of the present study, seeking for more information about who our communicative teachers are, before entering the final stage of drawing conclusions about them. For the moment, the table shows clearly that there is no impact for CLT ideas, on this dimension.

TABLE 7.7 Student Modality

SKILLS	%
Listening	98.2
Speaking	93.1
Reading	80.2
Writing	32.1
Practical activities	7.2

Table 7.7 gives us results of another parameter of the instrument focusing on the pupils, student modality. The purpose is to discover what are the skills that pupils practice most often during EFL sessions. The surprising element here is that listening and speaking, that is the oral skills, occur with great frequency in Greek EFL classrooms, which is a highly communicative element as they promote interaction! If one combines both teachers' and pupils' claims (Chapters 5 and 6 respectively) with the systematic observations in the present chapter, the result that clearly comes up is that most of the teachers try to do mostly listening and speaking in their classes. Pupils' questionnaires suggest that there are some limitations to the use of the oral skills, especially speaking for the intermediate (they claim that discussing is offered only occasionally), and listening for the advanced (listening to dialogues is reported as not offered in most of the schools). (See Chapter 6 for results on activities and discussion). Reading appears in Table 7.7 under a high percentage, in agreement with the claims of both parties, and writing is used less than any other skill; the teachers admit they would like to increase it. Pupils claiming they do not enjoy it much may be a good reason for keeping it under a low percentage. However, overall we are witnessing communicative elements in pupils' skills when involved in classroom activities.

The last systematic parameter of the COLT system that remains to be seen is materials under two areas, concerning their type and use. However, the findings for materials are not presented here independently, but are incorporated in later crosstabulation with classroom activities (see Table 7.12 below).

7.8. Teaching/Learning Activities

A judgemental aspect of the COLT system is the requirement to identify and label the framework of teaching/learning activities within the systematically coded time units are set. The researcher produced a list of **twenty-five (25) activities** taking place in Greek EFL classrooms. This list was the result of her effort to allocate every minute of the activities she saw during the observations, and what teachers would use. The categories used were pedagogical, but at this stage we are not yet in the position to say which are the more or less communicative ones. The activities identified are numbered and presented in full in the next tables only (Table 7.8 and Table 7.9). For the tables to follow, for reasons of practical problems in drawing extensive tables on the computer, the activities are only presented through their numbers in the same order as above.

The next table appears under the same procedure as the previous ones, presenting the list of activities for the first time.

In the next section a series of breakdowns are presented, in which relationships are explored between the teaching/learning activities and coding frequencies on the other main dimensions of the system. This has been done in order to explore further the actual 'communicative' character of the various activities.

7.9. Breaking Down Parts of the System

The first group of tables crosstabulates classroom activities with the different categories for 'content' topics: Narrow, Limited, Broad.

Table 7.8 is a summary of Tables 7.9, 7.10, and 7.11, and it was decided it should precede the above ones. The reason is that all the above tables contain much detail, and it is necessary to synthesise them in order to keep in memory a clear

picture of the whole issue. This justifies the order the researcher followed in the presentation of the tables.

The results that derive from a summary of all three tables above dealing with content lead to clearcut conclusions concerning EFL teacher instruction. (See Table 7.8). Teachers rely very much on coursebooks or other material they select themselves to base their instruction on. The most predominant content is stories, in particular mostly of a broad content. Then abstract ideas, acting,literature/poetry/art, personal/biographical information and singing follow in the rank. As it concerns the most predominant of activities, presenting a new text is top in the rank, followed by oral exercises, writing/working on a task, reconstructing stories, and even less listening comprehension and homework.

TABLE 7.8 Activity by Other Topics

ACTIVITY	NARROW	LIMITED	BROAD	TOTAL
(1) Homework	0.4	1.8	1.7	3.9
(2) Instructions		0.1		0.1
(3) Singing	0.3	0.7		1.0
(4) Listening to song		1.2		1.2
(5) Test writing				
(6) Test corrections				
(7) Oral exercises	2.4	2.6	4.7	9.7
(8) Listening to dialogues	0.7	0.8	0.8	2.3
(9) Listening to narration			0.7	0.7
(10) Listening comprehension	0.1	1.6	2.3	4.0
(11) Reading a text	0.1	0.2	0.7	1.0
(12) Reading an exercise	0.5	1.0	0.3	1.8
(13) Copying	0.3	0.7		1.0
(14) Working on/Writing a task	0.2	6.8	2.2	9.2
(15) Reconstruction stories	0.6	1.4	4.0	6.0
(16) Teaching grammar		0.4		0.4
(17) Teaching writing	1.0	0.3		1.3
(18) Presenting a new text	0.5	1.9	10.3	12.7
(19) Discussion	0.1	0.6	1.7	2.4
(20) Dictation		0.7		0.7
(21) Game	0.4	1.0		1.4
(22) Role-play		1.7	0.4	2.1
(23) Silent reading		0.1	0.3	0.4
(24) Translation				
(25) Creating a dialogue/story orally		0.7	0.1	0.8
Column total	Cases	56	198	217
	%	7.7	24.3	30.2
				62.2

TABLE 7.9 Activity by Topics Narrow

Activity	Stereotype	Personal Biographical	Stories Narrow Topic	Acting	Total
(1) Homework		0.3	0.1		0.4
(2) Instructions					
(3) Singing				0.3	0.3
(4) Listening to song					
(5) Test writing					
(6) Test corrections					
(7) Oral exercises		1.1	1.3		2.4
(8) Listening to dialogues		0.1	0.6		0.7
(9) Listening to narration					
(10) Listening comprehension			0.1		0.1
(11) Reading a text			0.1		0.1
(12) Reading an exercise		0.1	0.3	0.1	0.5
(13) Copying		0.3			0.3
(14) Working on/Writing a task			0.1	0.1	0.2
(15) Reconstruction stories			0.6		0.6
(16) Teaching grammar					
(17) Teaching writing		1.0			1.0
(18) Presenting a new text		0.1	0.4		0.5
(19) Discussion		0.1			0.1
(20) Dictation					
(21) Game			0.1	0.3	0.4
(22) Role-play					
(23) Silent reading					
(24) Translation					
(25) Creating a dialogue/story orally					
Column total	Cases	-	23	27	6
	%	-	3.1	3.8	0.8
					7.7

(The last line of the table presents percentages of the topic codings).

Tables 7.9-7.11 provide further detail on the relationship between classroom activities and topic content. Firstly, Table 7.9 presents a breaking down of activities by the ‘narrow topics’ categories. All percentages are low due to the small number of ‘narrow’ codings overall. Activities with the strongest associations with ‘narrow’ topics are stories (1.3%) and activity number 7, which is oral exercises. This has to do with comprehension questions on the textbook story, so as to find out if the pupils have grasped the main idea of the story. Oral exercises by personal/biographical (1.1%) have to do with questions that deal with pupils’ personal and family affairs. Although singing and game by acting may appear under a low percentage as this area is mainly used by beginners at the first stage of their initiation to the FL, there is another aspect of interest on this table. However, the generally low percentages that appear spread on this table, seem in general an indicator of efforts to apply principles of CLT from very early stages of FL instruction; as we have seen, very little ‘narrow’ range of topic reference is used in comparison to ‘limited’ or ‘broad’.

Table 7.10 presents a breaking down of activities by the ‘limited topics’ categories. In order to make sense of the table, we decided to group the activities according to the frequency with which they appear.

Table 7.10
Activity by topics: Limited

Activity	Personal/ family	Socio / community	School	Stories	Acting	Comment	Song	Culture	Game	Joke	Memo test	Drawing	Punishment	Quizz	Total	
1		0.3%	0.1%	0.4%		0.1%				0.6%	0.1%				1.6	
2						0.1%									0.1	
3							0.7%								0.7	
4				0.6%		0.6%									1.2	
5																
6																
7	0.1%	0.1%	0.4%	0.6%		0.7%				0.6%		0.1%			2.6	
8	0.1%		0.1%	0.6%											0.8	
9																
10				1.3%						0.3%					1.6	
11				0.1%						0.1%					0.2	
12					0.1%					0.1%	0.4%	0.4%			1.0	
13						0.7%									0.7	
14	0.7%	1.1%		0.7%	1.6%	0.1%	0.7%	0.1%		0.1%	0.1%	1.0%	0.6%		6.8	
15				1.3%	0.1%										1.4	
16				0.3%		0.1%									0.4	
17						0.3%									0.3	
18				1.1%	0.1%	0.3%		0.1%		0.3%					1.9	
19	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%							0.1%					0.6	
20				0.7%											0.7	
21		0.1%							1.4%	0.1%		0.4%			2.0	
22				0.3%	1.4%										1.7	
23				0.1%											0.1	
24																
25				0.3%	0.4%										0.7	
Column	Cases	8	13	7	59	26	14	19	2	10	17	5	13	1	4	198
Total	(%)	1.0	1.7	0.9	8.4	3.6	1.8	2.7	0.2	1.4	2.3	0.6	1.8	0.1	0.6	27.1

The first group consists of activities most strongly associated with the 'limited' area, such as writing/working on a task broken by acting (1.6%), game as an activity by game as a topic (1.4%), and listening comprehension and reconstructing stories broken down by stories as a topic (1.3%). An interesting aspect to discuss is the pupils' efforts to create a written 'role-play' which can be based on a story, a song or another type of content among the ones which appear on this table. Game as an activity by game as a topic appears under a high percentage, making English pleasant as a subject which justifies the pupils' liking for it, as already seen in Chapter 6. The third case in the group is stories deriving from the textbook or others played on a tape which appeared to occupy equal proportions in the limited area.

The second group consists of activities with weaker associations with 'limited' topics, such as writing/working on a task by personal/family topic (0.7%), oral exercises broken by comment (0.7%), which is a topic appearing under the category 'other' on Table 7.10, and there is an equal proportion of three activities (0.7%) broken down by the next topic to follow. These activities are: singing, copying, and writing/working on a task, broken down by song. Homework and oral exercises by joke appear under equal proportions (0.6%), as well as writing/working on a task by quiz (0.6%).

The last group consists of low frequency activities or traces, such as oral exercises associated in this case with school topic (0.4%), as pupils interact dealing with school matters and extra-curricular activities, and reading an exercise by memory test (0.4%) under the 'other' category of topics, with pupils exercising their memory by reading something first, and trying to recall it later with as high a degree of success as possible. Lastly, we can rarely meet cases such as writing/working on a task and presenting new text by culture which both appear to be of equal proportions (0.1%), as well as oral exercises by punishment (0.1%). (In the case of oral exercises by punishment, a single case was captured by the observation system. This happened with drilling exercises in an intermediate class, as a bored pupil's behaviour made his teacher upset. On the whole, all teachers were competent in classroom management, which is in agreement with their claims in Chapter 5. The above case had to do

with the sterile type of accuracy exercises that the teacher went on using with pupils in her classes, making them less interested in the subject).

The next table to present shows the detailed associations between activities and the 'broad' area, which is the last group of categories in the area of topics.

TABLE 7.11 Activity by Topics Broad

No.	Abstract	Personal reference	World	Literature Poetry Art	Stories
1	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.4
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7	2.4	0.4	0.1	0.8	1.0
8	0.1				0.7
9	0.3	0.1			0.3
10	0.3				2.0
11				0.3	0.4
12	0.3				
13					
14	0.7	0.4		0.4	0.7
15					4.0
16					
17					
18	1.1	0.1	0.1	1.1	7.9
19	1.3				0.4
20					
21					
22	0.1				0.3
23					0.3
24					
25		0.1			
cases	50	10	3	24	130
%	7.0	1.2	0.3	3.3	18.4

Oral exercises by abstract topic (2.4%) is one of the strongest individual associations to be presented, whereas oral exercises and writing/working on a task appear under equal proportions (0.4%) broken down by personal reference. Oral exercises and presenting a new text broken down each one of them by world topic is another combination appearing under equal proportions (0.1%). Lastly, the activity of presenting a new text having as topic literature/poetry/art comes up under a satisfactory percentage (1.1%).

The above results show clearly how successful greek EFL teachers are in matters of topic content as it concerns the activities offered in their classroom under the 'broad' category. Highly communicative elements appear, such as pupils expressing abstract ideas orally, which promotes fluency, or personal information given by the pupils orally and written, which is supportive to the view that fluency and accuracy are given equal attention in greek EFL classrooms. Finally, pupils are presented with texts dealing with world events and public issues, and this type of content presented through the coursebook or other material is further used to strengthen the pupils' language ability in expressing themselves on broad subject matters. This shows once more that teachers select coursebooks or other material with a variety of content, trying to meet the multiple needs of their mixed ability classes.

Presenting a new text by broad stories (7.9%) is the most predominant of all results discussed so far in all tables dealing with content, that is Tables 7.9, 7.10, and 7.11 respectively. Pupils are found to work rather with broad content stories rather than limited ones.

The following table provides us with results so as to enlighten the type and use of materials, which is the last in the observation system. Again the findings for materials are broken down by classroom activity.

Table 7.12
Materials

Activity	Type								Use		
	Text		Audio	Visual	Pedagogic	Semi -	Non -	High Control	Semi Control	Mini Control	
	Minimal	Extended				Pedagogic	Non Pedagogic				
1	3.0%	4.7%			6.6%	2.1%		7.9%	0.3%	0.6%	
2		0.3%			0.3%	0.3%		0.6%			
3		0.6%	0.7%			0.6%	0.1%	0.3%	0.4%		
4	0.1%	0.3%	0.4%	0.1%		0.1%	0.4%		0.6%		
5				0.8%	0.8%			0.8%			
6		0.1%			0.1%			0.1%			
7	4.1%	7.1%	0.1%	0.4%	8.9%	5.6%	0.4%	13.8%	1.1%		
8	0.6%	1.6%	1.8%		0.6%	3.0%		3.2%			
9	0.1%			0.6%		0.7%	0.1%	0.4%	0.4%		
10		2.4%	1.8%	0.3%	0.6%	3.7%		4.2%			
11		1.3%			0.4%	0.6%	0.3%	0.8%	0.3%	0.1%	
12	2.4%	2.4%			3.7%	1.3%		4.9%			
13	0.7%	1.0%	0.1%		1.0%	0.4%	0.3%	1.0%	0.7%		
14	7.1%	11.0%	1.0%	0.3%	13.1%	5.1%	1.4%	15.4%	3.2%	0.8%	
15	0.7%	4.9%		1.3%	3.1%	2.5%	0.3%	1.7%	1.4%	2.8%	
16	0.6%	1.6%			2.3%	0.3%		2.5%			
17	0.3%	1.3%			1.7%			0.6%	1.1%		
18	3.8%	10.5%	0.4%	0.4%	5.8%	8.9%	0.8%	14.5%	0.8%		
19	1.6%	0.8%		0.1%	0.3%	2.5%	0.4%	2.5%	0.6%	0.1%	
20	0.8%	0.4%		0.3%	1.7%	0.6%		1.8%	0.4%		
21	0.8%	1.0%	0.3%	0.6%	0.7%	1.6%	0.4%	0.6%	0.7%	0.4%	
22		1.8%	0.1%		0.4%	1.4%		1.3%	0.1%	0.4%	
23	0.1%	0.8%				0.8%		0.8%			
24	0.1%				0.1%			0.1%			
25	0.3%	0.7%		0.3%	0.4%	0.8%	0.1%	0.4%	0.4%	0.6%	
Column	Cases	195	400	49	39	373	304	37	578	90	42
Total	(%)	27.5	56.5	6.9	5.5	52.7	42.9	5.2	81.6	12.7	5.9

Table 7.12 presents results deriving from breaking down the already known twenty five activities by materials type and use.

The first group of results in this area starts with activities broken by type of text used in the classroom. Writing/working on a task is the most predominant of activities associated with minimal text (7.1%). For example, pupils write a task that has to do with captions, isolated sentences, and word lists, which is a type of text mostly used by beginners. Writing/working on a task by extended text appears under a higher percentage (11.0%) because this is the normal type of text used in the classroom. Apart from this, looking at the rules under which the instrument operates in Chapter 4, one can see that extended is ticked when pupils read instructions on a task, or produce a text of their own through writing, or complete a cloze text, either minimal (blanks) or extended (whole text). Another interesting combination that comes up is presenting a new text by extended text, which is not at a distance from the previous combination (10.5%). However, the above results verify that teachers rely very much on coursebook texts, as already seen through previous areas in the presentation of data analysis. A subgroup of results here concerns use of audio/visual material across the range of activities. Generally these are used infrequently. However, listening to dialogues and listening comprehension by audio appear in equal proportions (1.8%). Teachers use a tape recorder in the classroom, and as already seen in Chapter 5, they would like to use it quite often, but for some schools this is a difficult task to achieve when it comes to equipment, and this is the main reason that low percentages appear under this combination.

Reconstructing stories by visual is an interesting aspect to consider (1.3%). Teachers show material other than the coursebook to pupils, and the latter have to make sense of it and reconstruct the whole story. (See Chapter 4 for rules on the operation of the instrument). The above percentage is low in comparison to text, and audio is more used than visual, but it shows clearly that there are some efforts from teachers to enrich their sessions with more communicative material other than the coursebook, even if they face problems in finding it in the market or produce their

own, as it is time and money consuming. (For a detailed discussion on material see teacher interviews in Chapter 5).

As a conclusion to the first category dealing with type of materials used, one can see that text occupies the most predominant position, with audio and visual materials rarely used. Moving into the second category, results are presented dealing with the origin and the purpose of the teaching materials used.

Writing/working on a task using pedagogic materials is the most predominant of results in this category (13.1%). This result verifies once more that instruction mainly goes around coursebooks as a basis, and that materials used in the Greek EFL classroom are mostly specifically designed for L2 purposes.

Presenting a new text using semi-pedagogic materials comes second in the rank (8.9%) under a much lower percentage. Here, teachers use authentic or non-pedagogic materials, real-life objects, L1 or non-school purposes texts, modified in such a way so as to be used for instructional purposes. (If 'authentic' materials such as maps, photos etc. are adapted from textbook materials, they are also considered as semi-pedagogic). It seems that some teachers put a good effort into bringing and using non-L2 materials in order to attract their pupils' attention by making their presentation more interesting, and linking their class with real life.

Writing/working on a task using unmodified non-pedagogic materials appears under a very low percentage (1.4%).

As already seen, apart from some efforts to insert semi-pedagogic and non-pedagogic materials in the classroom, the majority of teachers prefer the safe way of using pedagogic materials.

The next step is to find out who is the party in control of materials use. Writing/working on a task by high control is the most predominant of results in

materials use (15.4%). Teachers exercise a strict control over materials provided by the writer of the coursebook.

Writing/working on a task by semi control appears under a much lower percentage (3.2%), and reconstructing stories by mini control is the last and lowest of results to meet in the area of materials use (2.8%). An even smaller number of teachers give their pupils broad freedom to make their own stories without interfering at all or providing them with any kind of guidance.

The above efforts are worth being taken into consideration, even if they appear under low percentages. However, it is certain that teachers base their instruction mostly on the coursebook materials provided by the writer and less on other material adapted or made by their pupils or themselves. The result deriving from the combinations above is that teachers are able to use materials in a potentially communicative way, as for example the use of extended text, listening activities by audio, reconstructing stories by visual etc., but they always like to exercise a high control in materials use. This means that there is an orientation towards CLT, but there are also reservations as it concerns some aspects of materials type (pedagogic), and use (high control) in instruction.

Reaching the end of this type of analysis, one is still left with some questions to be answered. Some further breaking down on different parts of the instrument might illuminate some other aspects of greek EFL instruction. The following tables are expected to provide more information towards this direction.

Table 7.13
Activity by Language form

Activity	Language Form					Row Total	
	Grammar	Vocab	Spell	Pronunc	No Tick	Cases	Overall %
1	24 12.6	12 5.4	2 11.8	7 26.9	16 6.3	61	8.6
2	2 1.1	1 0.5			1 0.4	4	0.6
3					5 2.0	5	0.7
4		1 0.5			3 1.2	4	0.6
5	5 2.6				1 0.4	6	0.8
6					1 0.4	1	0.1
7	36 18.9	30 13.5	4 23.5	3 11.5	33 13.0	100	15.0
8	1 0.5	12 5.4	1 5.9		9 3.6	23	3.2
9		4 1.8	1 5.9		1 0.4	6	0.8
10	6 3.2	5 2.3			19 7.5	30	4.2
11		2 0.9		1 3.8	6 2.4	9	1.3
12	7 3.7	16 7.2	2 11.8	1 3.8	9 3.6	35	4.9
13	4 2.1	5 2.3			3 1.2	12	1.7
14	43 22.6	43 19.4	1 5.9	4 15.4	47 18.6	138	19.5
15	3 1.6	3 1.4			36 14.2	42	5.9
16	15 7.9	3 1.4				18	2.5
17	9 4.7	2 0.9	1 5.9			12	1.7
18	17 8.9	57 25.7	1 5.9	7 26.9	27 10.7	109	15.4
19	1 0.5	10 4.5	2 11.8	1 3.8	9 3.6	23	3.2
20	13 6.8	1 0.5	2 11.8			16	2.3
21	2 1.1	9 4.1			8 3.2	19	2.7
22		1 0.5		2 7.7	10 4.0	13	1.8
23		2 0.9			4 1.6	6	0.8
24		1 0.5				1	0.1
25	2 1.1	2 0.9			5 2.0	9	1.3
Column	Cases	190	222	17	26	253	708
Total	(%)	26.8	31.4	2.4	3.7	35.7	100

As a first step, it was decided to carry out further crosstabulation in order to find out if there are special associations between activities and discussion of language form.

Many different combinations appear with considerable frequency as one looks at Table 7.13 for the first time, such as presenting a new text by vocabulary which is the most predominant result under this combination (25.7%). Oral exercises and spelling appears to be positively associated (23.5%), followed by writing/working on a task with grammar (22.6%). Writing/working on a task by vocabulary (19.4%) and oral exercises by grammar (18.9%) appear to be following the previous group of activities. Lastly, oral exercises by vocabulary (13.5%), homework by grammar (12.6%), and presenting a new text by grammar (8.9%) are less frequently used. All the above are an index that teachers work a lot on accuracy through texts they present in the classroom or written exercises they give to their pupils as homework or classwork. There is a good percentage of oral exercises devoted to grammar, but much lower than for written ones. It seems that teachers try to help their pupils in grasping the meaning of new words so as to enable them to achieve fluency in the target language. They also try to establish a good knowledge of spelling for their pupils in oral work, which is practised by all levels but mostly by beginners. One can also see a lot of activities appearing under 'no tick', such as writing/working on a task (18.6%), reconstructing stories (14.2%), oral exercises (13.0%), presenting a new text (10.7%), listening comprehension (7.5%), and homework (6.3%), which leads to the deduction that such activities are more oriented to meaning for most or part of the time.

Once more previous findings (see Table 7.4) are verified and validated by this kind of results suggesting fluency being given priority, which is a communicative element, but accuracy following closely, as well. Activities such as oral exercises and writing/working on a text might promote fluency, but in the case of the above combinations they are operating as accuracy activities, as teachers are aiming at language appropriacy. Both of them along with homework which is quite frequently given to pupils, seem to be the least communicative of activities in the whole table,

as they focus on language form more than on language message, and at best they appear to offer a mixture of different elements. On the contrary, activities such as presenting a new text are communicatively oriented, and reconstruction of stories is a highly communicative activity.

If one takes into consideration Tables 7.6 and 7.12 dealing with 100% topic control by the teacher, as well as high control in use of materials (81.6%) respectively, the conclusion drawn in this case is that greek EFL teachers are anxious about accuracy, but there are a lot of communicative elements in their instruction which put fluency slightly above accuracy. Taking into consideration theoretical claims mentioned in Chapter 1, as for example Brumfit (1984, 1987, pp.52-53), in the same respect greek EFL classes are of a communicative orientation in matters of instruction.

TABLE 7.14 Activity by Group Work

no.	GROUP		ORGAN	
	SAME	DIFFERENT		
1				
2				
3			6.7	1
4				
5				
6				
7	3.2		1	
8				
9				
10				
11				
12	6.5		2	
13				
14	48.4		15	66.7
15	22.6		7	13.3
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				
21	6.5		2	13.3
22	9.7		3	
23				
24				
25	3.2		1	
CASES			31	15
%	4.4		2.1	

Because group work is perceived as a strong indicator of a ‘communicative’ orientation. Therefore, it was thought that breaking down all the twenty five activities by group organization would offer a clearer understanding of their communicative nature. Very few cases came up among which only two activities showed any strong associations with use of group work.

Writing/working on a task by same group organization is the most predominant result in Table 7.14 (48.4%). Reconstructing stories by same group organization is the second result in the rank (22.6%). This means that all pupils work in groups mostly on the same task, which is in agreement with the findings in Table 7.1. Group work is a highly communicative element, but as already seen in Chapters 5 and 6, both parties teachers and pupils, declared that this type of work does not often take place in their classes. This verifies once more that the majority of teachers avoid organising their classes into groups for reasons they explained extensively in Chapter 5. In cases where they organise their classes into groups it is mostly to work on a written task and with some degree of freedom, as seen above. This was an interesting perspective on group work, so it was decided that a further investigation might produce a clearer picture on this subject matter.

TABLE 7.15 Group Work by Topic

TOPIC	GROUP	
	SAME	DIFFERENT
Narrow stereotype		
personal/biological narrow		
Stories narrow topic		
Narrow acting		5.3 (1)
Limited Personal/family	10.5 (2)	
Limited soc/com.		26.3 (5)
Limited school topic		
Limited stories	26.3 (5)	
Limited acting	15.8 (3)	26.3 (5)
Comment		
Song		10.5 (2)
Culture		
Game		5.3 (1)
Joke		
Memo test		
Drawing	15.8 (3)	
Punishment		
Quiz		10.5 (2)
Abstract broad	5.3 (1)	5.3 (1)
Broad personal refer		
World broad topic		
Broad lit./po./art		
Broad stories	26.3 (5)	10.5 (2)
Cases	(19)	(19)
Overall %	2.6	2.6

Table 7.15 looks at links between group work and topic type, and came up with four interesting cases to discuss.

Limited stories and broad stories by same group organisation appeared in equal proportions (26.3%). All groups of pupils work on the same story (textbook) or a dialogue or they create a story of their own. It is mostly written work that is produced through this type of combinations, and it is obvious that this result contributes to our picture of the distinctive communicative orientation of greek EFL classrooms.

There were results under the 'different group' category with different type of combinations, but exactly the same levels of association as the above. Limited socio/community topics and limited acting by different group organisation came up with the same percentage as the above combinations (26.3%). When acting is chosen, there is always another tick showing the topic of the role-play. In this case one can see that the chosen topic for role-play is movies, theatre, shopping etc., and the pupils do not repeat or read from a textbook situation, but they produce something of their own, as already stated in Chapter 4. This is a highly communicative combination, and it is the first time that this happens in oral, as in natural everyday context.

This table gives us a result of equal proportions of 'written same' group work and 'oral different' group work, which means that reasonably varied efforts are made to make greek EFL classes more communicative, though percentages are not as high as one would expect in full communicative classes. However, these results are in agreement with the topics found in Table 7.5 and the combinations found in Table 7.14, and gives an even more detailed account of how much CLT is practised by greek EFL practitioners.

TABLE 7.16 Group Work by Student Modality

		GROUP	
Modality		Same	Different
Listening		27.4 (31)	27.3 (15)
Speaking		27.4 (31)	25.4 (14)
Reading		21.3 (24)	27.3 (15)
Writing		21.3 (24)	18.2 (10)
Practical activities		2.6 (3)	1.8 (1)
Column	Cases	(113)	(55)
Total	Overall %	16.0	7.8

Table 7.16 is the last in the series of systematic observation analysis, and deals with pupils' skills which may be involved in classroom activities when working in groups. The results produced in this table are in agreement with those of Table 7.7, as it concerns the skills they mostly use. The contribution of the present table is to offer us the chance to look at them from a different angle, that is when used in group work.

Listening and speaking by same group organisation appear under equal proportions (27.4%), whereas reading and writing appear under equal proportions (21.3%), but with a lower percentage than that of the previous combination.

Listening and reading by different group organisation appear under equal proportions (27.3%), whereas speaking comes next in the rank with a slightly lower percentage (25.4%), and writing much lower (18.2%).

It seems that those teachers who prefer same group organisation give some priority to oral skills, whereas those who give different tasks to different groups typically offer support in the form of reading. In general, the above results are in agreement with what was declared by both parties in Chapters 5 and 6 about pupils' skills in the classroom, and systematic observations come to verify their claims.

7.10. Conclusion

The present chapter has moved on from the claims of teachers and pupils about EFL instruction to real practices taking place in the six grades of Greek secondary education.

Results deriving from the systematic observation analysis present a picture of classes including a lot of communicative elements, which is supportive to claims coming from teachers and pupils. Both parties seem to be aware of what their strong and weak points are, and their claims are not far from real events, as the researcher witnessed after shadowing them for a good period of time.

It is now a fact that aspects of CLT take place in greek EFL classroom situations, and are mostly enjoyable and of interest to both parties. Fluency is given a lot of concern, and accuracy follows quite closely. Greek EFL teachers try to insert innovations, and their instruction is communicatively oriented, but there are some negative aspects in their practices, as for example teacher-student classroom organization which shows a tendency to teacher-centred classes. In aspects of language content, it is obvious that attention to meaning precedes attention to grammar, the latter following closely, but there are very poor instances of attention to function, discourse, sociolinguistic elements and combinations of these, which show that only some of the teachers put an effort towards this direction. Topic is a more communicative area in their instruction, as they mostly use broad topics to a good extent, and they try to enrich this area with a big variety of topics of their own. This enables them to make their sessions interesting to their pupils, prove to them that English as a code operates very well in communicating one 's ideas, and help them to become fluent in the target language. There are also weak areas such as 100% of teacher topic control, and as it concerns student modality, listening for the advanced and speaking for the intermediate appear to be problematic. Another weak aspect that the system reveals is that materials are mostly pedagogic, and their use is under high control by the teacher, apart from exceptions. On the other hand, the area of content management seems to work well, as procedure is predominant and very little

disciplinary talk takes place. Moreover, the use of extensive type of texts (such as stories, dialogues, connected paragraphs, reading of instructions, completion of a cloze text, or production of a text through writing) along with distinctive activities found at unexpected places focus on meaning. Finally, group work appears promoting to be CLT whenever used in their classes, but it is not broadly used due to the old type of instruction that goes on with all other subjects in greek secondary education.

If one takes into consideration all the parameters deriving from the synthesis of the puzzles, the picture that appears consists of teachers trying to make their way in an old educational system where innovations can be implemented only through everyday fighting with administrative and financial problems, lack of close guidance to relieve them from the insecurity they experience, and considerable lack of training.

Apart from this, CLT does not have a clear ground in theoretical and applied terms, as already seen in Chapter 1, which has been a source of confusion for teachers and teacher trainers so far. However, some teachers succeeded in surviving and proved to be effective as practitioners, as they can apply CLT in their classrooms. Before one goes into suggestions towards remedial work, it is necessary to find out who these practitioners are, and what contributed to their success as effective EFL teachers. This will be one goal of Chapter 8.

CHAPTER 8: DEFINING THE EFFECTIVE GREEK EFL TEACHER

8.1. *Introduction*

The aim of this chapter is to compare and discuss the results deriving from each type of data, as well as combine them with theoretical principles. The reason for this is to provide a valid answer to the research questions as addressed below:

- How far has the whole group of teachers been shown ‘effective’ as implementors of CLT ideas in their classroom practices?**
- How far are the whole group of teachers ‘effective’, as motivators of their students?**
- How far are the whole group of teachers ‘effective’ as implementors of CLT, compared with other groups of teachers who have been studied elsewhere in the world?**
- To what extent can a subgroup of teachers be identified as most ‘effective’?**
- Is there anything in the personal histories of the most effective subgroup, which explains their effectiveness?**
- What is the information drawn from the study about how Greek EFL teachers generally could be helped to be more effective? What are the main aspects in their practice which need to change?**

- What forms of training could best help Greek EFL teachers to become more effective?

If the results deriving from the above procedure can be combined with the theoretical principles that underpin CLT, a 'normative' model of effective teaching, this will be highly beneficial for the project because it will enable it to give a valid answer to the vital question of how much recent theories have important implications for classroom practice in Greece. Apart from this, the chaos deriving from lack of co-operation between tertiary and secondary education will be bridged, as a design for the model of the effective Greek EFL teacher will be produced. (For a thorough discussion of the problems inherent in the Greek educational system concerning the above subject matter see Zouzou 1989). Finally, it is expected that this research project will help those who are engaged in making decisions about language teacher education and training programs.

Most of the above questions can be answered taking into consideration the conclusions drawn on each different type of data, whereas question four needs additional work in order to receive a valid answer. As a first step towards this direction, we shall explore differences among the teachers by 'group organisation', by 'language form', by 'other language content', and by 'broad topic', in order to investigate the extent to which CLT influence on EFL practices in Greek secondary state schools is variable across different classrooms. Finally, lack of regional variation appeared in the main findings of the study.

8.2. Greek EFL Teachers as 'Effective' Implementors of CLT in Classroom Practice

Taking into consideration the group of teachers as a whole, as well as the conclusions deriving from the observational data analysis of their real classroom practices in Chapter 7, one can see how 'effective' they are as implementors of CLT.

COLT, as an observational system, revealed both negative and positive aspects of CLT.

As it concerns the negative aspects, there are problems with classroom organisation, as 'teacher-student' seems to be predominant showing a tendency to teacher-centred classes.

In aspects of 'language content', little attention is paid to elements such as function, discourse, sociolinguistic, and combinations of these.

Topic control is another weak area, as 100% appears under 'teacher topic control'. Combined with the results deriving from 'classroom organisation', this shows clearly that very little of learner autonomy is given to students.

Student modality seems to be problematic with listening for the advanced and speaking for the intermediate.

In matters of materials, they mostly appear to be pedagogic, and their use is under high control by the teacher.

Apart from the above negative aspects as revealed by the system, there are additional ones for which the state seems to be responsible (see Chapter 5 for teacher interviews), such as financial and administrative problems, lack of close guidance for the teachers as advisors are very few, and lack of training so far, apart from a very limited group of people throughout the country.

However, there are a lot of positive aspects to consider, which show clearly that Greek EFL teachers try to insert innovations in their instruction, aiming at making it more communicatively oriented.

Content management is one of their strong areas, with 'procedure' as the predominant feature and very little of disciplinary talk. This is a strong piece of

evidence that they are on good terms with their pupils, which helps them to promote their subject more effectively.

Topic is a very communicative area in their instruction, as they mostly use 'broad' topics and try to enrich the area with a wide variety of topics of their own. Moreover, this is another piece of evidence that they are competent speakers of English, which allows them to cater for both fluency and accuracy in their classrooms.

The use of 'extensive' type of texts along with distinctive activities found at unexpected places (missing phrase) focus on meaning, with form following at a close distance. This is an indication that Greek EFL teachers show a tendency towards the 'separationist' approach to the implementation of CLT rather than the 'unificationist' one.

Lastly, we have already witnessed that group work promotes CLT whenever used in their classes. Part of the problem lies with the traditional type of instruction that goes on in the other subjects in the educational system, which does not allow them too much scope to be persuaded in matters of learner autonomy, and thus, shift into more communicative types of classroom organisation.

The picture of CLT in Greek EFL classes seems to be of an uneven profile, as the whole group of Greek EFL teachers appear to implement CLT principles well in some areas of their instruction, whereas in some others seem to be weak. If this impression is combined with the unclear theoretical ground of CLT in theoretical and practical terms, as already seen through the literature review (see Chapter 1), it seems that their problem lies with EFL methodology. Some of the teachers are better survivors than others, but it is obvious that the whole group of teachers manage to survive as at least partial implementors of CLT ideas in their classroom practices.

8.3. Greek EFL Teachers as 'Effective' Motivators of their Students

In order to get a clear picture of the whole group of teachers as professionals, it is necessary also to take into consideration their students' opinions about them, as they are expressed in the questionnaires in Chapter 6. Due to time pressure, there are no quantitative findings based on statistical analysis of questions concerning the attitudes of different groups taught by different teachers. However, the picture deriving from both systematic observation and the analysis of questionnaires shows in general that all the teachers' students seem to be happy. In this section, we shall draw conclusions based on the analysis of students' questionnaires, as it concerns their opinions on the motivation they are offered by their teachers.

They seem to be successful in getting the best of their students' interest towards the subject, due to the nice atmosphere they create in the classroom, as well as their efforts to insert innovations in their everyday practices. Their pupils enjoy any change their teachers might make with materials, activities, or classroom organisation. Although the pupils welcome and enjoy the communicative activities which are mostly offered to them, they still feel that their teachers are not persuaded to use fluency activities often enough, such as group/pair work, role-play etc. They also claim that their teachers are mostly inhibited by the traditional educational system applied in all schools of the country from giving fluency priority over accuracy. Thus, the first appears to be under pressure, whereas the latter seems to be favoured by the educational system. Apart from this, the general feeling is that teachers are attached to a text and always work around it, which suggests their fears to expand themselves methodologically, and become innovative. However, they are good speakers of English, and they seem to be effective as motivators, due to the fact that their pupils like English as a subject very much, and feel they can meet its needs.

8.4. Greek EFL Teachers as ‘Effective’ Implementors of CLT Versus Other Teachers in the World

Previous research findings discussed in Chapter 2 showed that there is unevenness in the application of CLT. Teachers in other parts of the world, as for example in Canada (see Spada et al. 1984 in Chapter 2), seem to project the same picture as Greek EFL teachers.

It is important to mention that the research approach for both groups was systematic observation, and the instrument used for both cases was COLT, though this was revised before applied in the Greek case study (see Chapter 4 for both the Canadian and the Greek version of the instrument).

Both groups of teachers seem to be sensitive as it concerns accuracy, as they like to explain grammar to their students. In matters of classroom organisation, they seem not to be persuaded about small group organisation such as group/pair work, which helps towards negotiating meaning, and promotes meaningful interaction. Thus, CLT appears to be of an uneven profile in both parts of the world, although both groups of teachers show orientation to meaning in their classroom practices. The conclusion drawn through this comparison is that the problem seems to lie partly with the methodology applied in the Greek as well as other contexts of the world, not only with the teachers themselves, whatever their personal history can be as professionals, or the educational context in which they operate.

Although comfort is taken from this picture about the Greek case, the fourth question dealing with the identification of the most ‘effective’ subgroup of EFL teachers still remains to be investigated. This will be the concern of the next section.

8.5. Towards an Identification of the Most ‘Effective’ Subgroup of Greek EFL Teachers

In order to be able to investigate the extent to which a subgroup of teachers can be identified as most ‘effective’, we have to look once more at classroom practices. This will enable us to choose significant indicators and study them one by one. For this reason, we shall use crosstabulation for ‘group organisation’, ‘language form’, other types of language content, and ‘broad topic’.

8.5.1. Group Organisation in Greek EFL Classes

In Chapter 5, most of the teachers admitted that the most common type of classroom organisation they usually prefer is whole class work, as the old, common, traditional type through which most subjects are offered nowadays in the Greek educational system. Then, pair work appeared to be next in the rank, followed by group work. The latter, a highly communicative type of organization, was seen as problematic for the Greek temperament, and for large, mixed ability classes.

In Chapter 6, the pupils’ questionnaires verified that this was the case, and in Chapter 7, systematic observation came up with the same result. At this point, there was made the decision to do a breakdown of the teachers by ‘group organisation’ for the following reasons:

- a) to find out how variably group work is applied in greek EFL classes,**
- b) what is the type of group work one can mostly meet, and**
- c) who are the teachers favouring this type of group organization.**

The results appearing on Table 8.1 give a clear picture on this subject.

The table shows that all teachers use group work at some time with the exception of T4, who seems never to promote this type of organization in her classes! Teachers such as T1, and T9 seem not to favour group work very much. Groups in their classes mostly work on the same subject (3.2% and 9.7% respectively), with the exception of T1 who also gives different subjects to her groups during the very few times she appears to do so.

T2, T7, and T9 offer their groups the chance to work on the same subject exclusively, whereas T5 and T6 prefer to do the same with different subjects for each group.

Lastly, T1, T8, T10, and T11 offer their groups the chance to work on both same subjects and different ones.

In order to draw a final clearcut conclusion, we group the teachers according to the degree they favour group work in their classes overall. This can be achieved by having a closer look at Table 8.1.

TABLE 8.1 Teacher by Group Organization

Teacher	GROUP ORGAN		Total Cases
	Same	Different	
1	3.2*	1 6.7	2**
2	19.4	6	6
3	12.9	4	4
4			
5		33.3 5	5
6		13.3 2	2
7	22.6	7	7
8	9.7	3 6.7	4
9	9.7	3	3
10	19.4	6 6.7	7
11	3.2	1 33.3 5	6
Column	Cases	31 15	46
Total	%	4.4 2.1	

* Percentage for the total of the individual teacher

** Percentage of total cases

The highest percentages of 'different' group organization are with T5 and T11. However, grouping the teachers by numbers of cases reflects what really happens in this area, as numbers are small. As a result, we come up with three groups in total:

The most communicative group is T10 with 7 cases in total, T7 with 7 cases working on the same subject, T2 with 6 cases on the same subject, and T11 with 6 cases in total. This last teacher was the most experienced of all (20 years of practical

experience), and all the rest were about the same (T10 16 years, and T2 14 years of practical experience), apart from T7 who had only 3 years of practical experience!

Then a less communicative group comes consisting of T5 with 5 cases working on different subjects, T3 with 4 cases on the same subject, and T8 with 4 cases in total. Their practical experience was 10.5, 6, and 8 years accordingly.

Lastly, the least communicative group in matters of class organization appears to consist of T9 with 3 cases working on the same subject, T1 with 2 cases in total, and T6 with 2 cases working on different subjects. The practical experience of this group was 13 years, 17 years, and 8 years accordingly.

T4 (11.5 years of practical experience) could not be grouped with the other teachers, as she never organises her classes into groups, as already mentioned above. It seems that practical experience does not influence the teachers' decisions in matters of class organisation. However, the result is that group work is not very much favoured in greek EFL classes in general.

Is group work really as problematic as it appears to be? The present researcher was lucky enough to be engaged into teacher training in Greece for the academic year 1992-93, and she had the chance to teach her trainees among other subjects how to apply it in their classes. The trainees were convinced through theoretical sessions, workshops, as well as practical EFL teaching that this type of organisation works in their classes. Yet, it is very soon for the present researcher to draw final conclusions about the implications that teaching pair/group work in teacher training courses can have. However, there is a tendency towards a more positive attitude towards the above type of organisation.

8.5.2. Language Form as Content in Greek EFL Classes

The next step was to break down the category ‘teacher’ by ‘language form’, in order to find out what is the type of language form that teachers mainly focus on in their classes. This would feed the project with more information in matters of language content, it would give an insight on matters of fluency and accuracy, and how the latter are treated by the teachers. Finally, this would be helpful in our attempt to classify our subjects in groups of highly, less, or minimally communicative teachers. This effort led to the production of Table 8.2.

TABLE 8.2 Content: Teacher by Language Form

							Row	Total
Teacher	Grammar	Vocab.	Spell.	Pronun.	No tick	Cases	%	
1	23 41.1*	19 33.9		2 3.6	12 21.4	56	7.9**	
2	22 20.0	48 43.6	14 12.7	8 7.3	18 16.4	110	15.5	
3	15 27.8	22 40.7		1 1.9	16 29.6	54	7.6	
4	15 26.8	11 19.6		2 3.6	28 50.0	56	7.9	
5	5 10.2	16 32.7	1 2.0	2 4.1	25 51.0	49	6.9	
6	8 14.5	13 23.6		1 1.8	33 60.0	55	7.8	
7		15 34.1		2 4.5	27 61.4	44	6.2	
8	42 36.5	38 33.0		7 6.1	28 24.3	115	16.2	
9	31 55.4	13 23.2	2 3.6		10 17.9	56	7.9	
10	18 32.1	11 19.6		1 1.8	26 46.4	56	7.9	
11	11 19.3	16 28.1			30 52.6	57	8.1	
Column	Cases	190	222	17	26	253	708	
Total	%	26.8	31.4	2.4	3.7	35.7		100.0

* Percentage for the total of the individual teacher

** Percentage of total cases

First of all, we shall analyse the statistical results for each subcategory separately, and then we shall make an attempt to synthesize the picture, so as to come up with a better understanding of the above results.

Having a look at the variable of ‘grammar’, one can see that T9 and T1 give the highest proportion of their attention to this (55.4% and 41.1% respectively), which means that accuracy is mainly the focus of these two teachers.

The second group of teachers consists of T8 (36.5%), T10 (32.1%), T3 (27.8%), and T4 (26.8%). These percentages are still too high as it concerns accuracy. This type of result supports the view that Greek EFL teachers are very fond of a correct production of the target language.

A third group with low percentages in grammar consists of T2 (20.0%), T11 (19.3%), T6 (14.5%), and T5 (10.2%). This seems to be a healthy group, as they are interested in the correct use of the target language, but they seem not to consider it as their primary goal.

Lastly, T7 cannot be classified under any group, as there is no tick at all under grammar!

This first classification does not seem to offer too much if isolated. In order to draw the right conclusions one has to combine the variable of grammar with the other ones included in the same table. For this reason we shall move into the second variable which is vocabulary.

Vocabulary seems to be mostly favoured by T2 (43.6%) and T3 (40.7%). Arguably, both teachers are giving greater priority to fluency, which is the most important aspect of CLT as it promotes interaction among their high school and senior high school pupils.

T7 (34.1%), T1 (33.9%), T8 (33.0%), and T5 (32.7%) appear to have a lot of ticks under vocabulary, whereas T11 (28.1%), T6 (23.6%), and T9 (23.2%) seem to have less than the previous group. One difference between the second and the third group is that the pupils taught by the latter are senior high school pupils, and as such they should have already a richer vocabulary than the pupils taught by the second

group, who are mostly high school ones. As it concerns T4 (19.6%) and T10 (19.6%) the received percentages are quite low when isolating this variable from the others. However, T4 teaches senior high school pupils, and T10 last grade high school pupils of the same level of knowledge. Both grades of pupils have already a richer vocabulary than other groups of pupils taught by other teachers which explains the low percentages appearing under vocabulary.

The next variable to consider in Table 8.2 is spelling. There is very little ticking here, as T2 (12.7%) is the one on top of the rank with only 12.7%. Among others, she teaches groups with beginners. Traces of spelling can be seen under T9 (3.6%) and T5 (2.0%). This is another index of focusing on accuracy, but as percentages are very low, it cannot work as a strong proof towards this direction. However, it works as an additive element to support previous results appearing in the same table.

Pronunciation is another accuracy variable that appears in the table. Proportions are generally low, and T2 (7.3%) and T8 (6.1%) are on top of the rank which is expected from people teaching mostly beginners in high schools, but it also proves how much attention is paid by both teachers to the oral production of the target language, which is the basis of classroom interaction.

The second group consists of T7 (4.5%) and T5 (4.1%) who show a concern about pronunciation, whereas the third group consisting of T1 (3.6%) and T4 (3.6%) seem not to care too much about it, which is surprising for T1, who teaches exclusively beginners!

Lastly, T3 (1.9%), T6 (1.8%), and T10 (1.8%) are the last in the rank with very little ticking appearing in the table. The exception to this last classification is T11, as there are no ticks concerning pronunciation during her sessions. This case is not surprising at all, as T11 works with advanced pupils of a good level and an equally good knowledge of the phonetic alphabet, who were taught by the same teacher during the years of their studies in the senior high school.

Among the results appearing in Table 8.2 there is a column representing the cases where there is no tick at all during the sessions observed by the researcher. T7 (61.4%) and T6 (60.0%) are the ones appearing with the majority of non-tick instances, followed at a distance by T11, T5, and T4. As it is already said, more than one thing is ticked every time, that is why the result does not end up in a 100%, which happens to be the present case, as well. The higher the non-tick instances appear, the more communicatively oriented the type of instruction is, as already explained in both Chapters 7 and 8.

At this point, the question that arises from our attempt of synthesizing the picture based on the above data is: Who are the teachers paying most attention to fluency or accuracy through their teaching as it concerns language form?

Table 8.2 showed that fluency is the main concern of T2, T3, T5, T6, and T11, without meaning that accuracy is neglected, whereas T7 seems not to care about accuracy, dealing exclusively with fluency.

T4 and T10 seem to cater for both fluency and accuracy, giving little priority to the latter, but having a high 'no tick' percentage, which means that there is a mixture of other elements, as well. However, this shows that they put a good effort into offering message oriented teaching to their pupils.

T8 and T1 appear to be interested in both accuracy and fluency, giving very little priority to accuracy. This is an index that they are very much influenced by CLT, but they are still struggling to overcome traditional ways of language teaching. The result deriving from this table shows that they strongly move towards innovations.

Finally, T9 appears with high accuracy percentage, and very low percentages as it concerns fluency. This case of a teacher seems to be stuck with traditional methodology of language teaching, a deduction supported by a very low percentage under the 'no tick' column.

The last point to consider before closing the subject is: are the teachers still the same people we encountered in their interviews (Chapter 5, pp.108-109), or do they appear to be different?

Ts 2, 5, 6, 7, and 11 are still the same communicative group, dealing mostly with fluency, and a communicative orientation is shown by Ts 4 and 10, whereas Ts 8 and especially 9 seem to belong to a group using a mixture of traditional accuracy instruction, influenced by new communicative ideas. T1 feels that she does both of them equally which is not far away from what it really happens, as it is difficult for her to realise the slight priority she gives to accuracy. Lastly, T3 is found to do fluency work but she claims to use mostly drills, as she works with beginners! However, she appears to apply the most communicative teaching after T2!

What is the students' attitude in this case? As already mentioned above, due to lack of time the researcher did not go through crosstabulation, in order to be able to provide evidence on this subject matter. However, it seems that there is an improvement in the pupils' skills when taught by the above referred as communicative teachers, which is based on the statistical findings in Chapter 6. Girls are better than boys in general, and intermediate pupils taught by the accuracy group complain about being deprived of fluency activities, which apart from being enjoyable, also help them in expressing themselves when interacting with others (see Table 6.21). Effective learning can take place when appropriacy is developed as interaction progresses, as already mentioned in Chapter 1. This is what the pupils' expectation is, and the majority of the teachers try to do it. It is more than obvious that teacher training is the means to win a case like this.

Apart from language form, there are other aspects of language such as illocutionary acts, sentence combinations, and appropriacy to particular contexts that teachers may talk about in class. The following table will help us to find out what degree of explicit attention the different teachers pay to these topics.

8.5.3. Other Types of Language Content in Greek EFL Classes

Other types of language content which may be discussed in class appear under 'function', 'discourse', and 'socio-linguistics'. Looking at this aspect, we broke down the teacher category by each one of the above variables, and we came up with Table 8.3. The picture we received from this statistical analysis is very poor, as one can see. We have to present and comment on each one of them in terms of cases instead of percentages, as numbers are small.

'Function' is mostly used by T2 (8 cases) who seems to be fully aware of what CLT means. T9 comes second in the rank (4 cases), whereas T10 appears with traces of this type of language content (1 case). It is more than obvious that language form is favoured over function, as the latter is given no explicit attention by the rest of the teachers.

'Discourse' seems to be more crowded than 'function'. T1 and T8 (4 cases and 3 cases respectively) are on top of the rank with T9 (2 cases) in the third place. Ts 2, 4, 7, and 10 (1 case respectively) appear with traces in matters of discourse.

Finally, T9 is the only one who comes up with an observable amount of attention to sociolinguistics (4 cases).

It is necessary for students to get involved in language functions because learning becomes meaningful and effective, as for example learning how to apologize, to request or to explain. Discourse deals with language appropriacy which maybe is not the primary goal of CLT, but it is not neglected whatever position one takes, that is being either a "separationist" or a "unificationist" (see Chapter 1, p.2). Lastly, using appropriate language in a context, as for example addressing to people politely which is expected to happen in an english context, enables the learner to be accepted and integrated in this context. It is obvious of course that the analysis above has nothing to do with the experience of these dimensions offered to pupils by involvement in lesson activities, which may have been extensive. Here, we simply refer to teacher

statements, references, or descriptions. The appearance of T9 under all other types of language content is a remarkable one. This means that she gives it a good try! However, it seems that this is one of the teachers' weak point in EFL teaching. Lastly, this aspect of language content gives the learners confidence and makes them happier as they are informed about what to do with language and how to do it. Teacher training seems to be a necessity for most of the Greek EFL teachers in this area.

Drawing our conclusions about language content, our decision has then been to have a further look into the content area, so as to find out what are the topics discussed in Greek EFL classes when using the target language. 'Broad' topics is a more creative area than other type of topics, as already seen in Chapter 7, as it offers more opportunities for CLT. Thus, for qualitative reasons, it was decided to go through additional work towards this direction.

TABLE 8.3 Content: Teacher by Language

Teacher	Function	Discourse	Socio-ling	Row Total	
				Cases	%
1		4 14.3		4	14.3**
2	8 21.4*	1 3.6		7	25.0
3					
4		1 3.6		1	3.6
5					
6					
7		1 3.6		1	3.6
8		3 10.7		3	10.7
9	4 14.3	2 7.2	4 14.3	10	35.7
10	1 3.6	1 3.6		2	7.2
11					
Column	Cases	11	13	4	28
Total	%	39.3	46.4	14.3	100.0

* Percentage for the total of the individual teacher

** Percentage of total cases

8.5.4. Other Content: Broad Topic in EFL Classroom Conversation

Apart from the different types of language used as content in Greek EFL classes, it is interesting to find out what kind of topics can arise in classroom conversation when taught by the above teachers. Specifically, a high proportion of 'broad' topics is a good indicator of a communicative orientation. For this reason, it was decided to break down teacher by broad topic. The results deriving from this work can be seen in Table 8.4, and will be discussed both in matters of absolute totals of cases, and in matters of spread over the different categories.

TABLE 8.4 Teacher by Broad Topic Content: Broad Topic

Teacher	Abstract	Personal reference	World	Literature	Stories	Total Cases
1	2 3.6*					2**
2	5 4.5	2 1.8		12 10.9	22 20.0	41
3	1 1.9	1 1.9	1 1.9	1 1.9	1 1.9	5
4	8 14.3				27 48.2	35
5	3 6.1		1 2.0	4 8.2		8
6	2 3.6				42 76.4	44
7	10 22.7			1 2.3	28 63.6	38
8	5 4.3		1 0.9			6
9	1 1.9			5 8.9		6
10		2 3.6				2
11	13 22.8	5 8.8		1 1.8	10 17.5	29
Co-lu-mn	Cases	50	10	3	24	130
Total	%	7.1	1.4	0.4	3.4	18.4

* Percentage for the total of the individual teacher

** Percentage of total cases

After all, the area of topics is a strong index of the communicative orientation of Greek EFL classes, and it is helpful towards grouping the teachers, in order to identify the most effective subgroup among them.

The group that appears to be predominant users of 'broad' topics in Table 8.4 in matters of absolute totals is the one that consists of T6 (44 cases), T2 (41 cases), T7 (38 cases), T4 (35 cases), and T11 (29 cases). In matters of spread, T2 and T11 appear to be the most varied, with entries under all different categories, apart from 'world topics' which is represented by a smaller number of teachers than other variables. T6 who appears to be the first in the rank under the previous classification, and T4, seem to focus only on 'abstract', and mainly on 'stories', which is not a rich variety of topics. Lastly, T7 focuses mainly on 'stories' and 'abstract', giving also some traces of 'literature'.

Another group of teachers seems to consist of low absolute totals of cases, such as T5 (8 cases), Ts 8 and 9 (6 cases respectively), T3 (5 cases), and Ts 1 and 10 (2 cases respectively).

T5 appears with a spread under three categories except 'personal reference' and 'stories', which shows the communicative orientation of this teacher, whereas Ts 8 and 9 focus the first mainly only on 'abstract' and 'world' topic, and the second on 'abstract' and 'literature', which is an index of poor spread. As it concerns the rest, T3 is an exceptional case, with one entry under every single variable, whereas Ts 1 and 10 appear with traces only, the first under 'abstract', and the second under 'personal reference'. These teachers give us hints of communicative orientation more or less problematic for each one of them.

How can we account for this variability in relation to 'broad' topics?

First of all, the practical experience of the teachers varies, which is an index that this factor has nothing to do with the picture presented here. (For information on practical experience see Chapter 5, Table 5.1).

Second, the fact that some teachers work with senior high school pupils facilitates their intentions, that is to lead their pupils into discussions on abstract topics using the target language. Although the pupils' age, level, and interests are helpful to them

towards this direction, this does not seem to be the case for other teachers, who are in the same position with them, as for example T6. Findings like these are due to specific problems that the teachers face. (As the researcher recalls, T6 pupils' level was not satisfactory, even if she was the only teacher they had in English through their studies in the senior high school. This can be partly the reason, but also there is no co-operation between the private and the state sector in that region, which led to the pupils' reduction of interest for the state school. However, the teacher herself has not achieved much in this direction. On the other hand, T9 seems to do very well with group organization and other language content, but it is very difficult to discuss abstract topics with beginners! Finally, T10 is the only one who cannot be classified in this case, as she appears with no ticks at all under abstract topic! This is quite surprising, as the teacher is a very experienced one (16 years in the profession), having a good pronunciation and language proficiency. This case is also remarkable, because she teaches intermediate pupils of the same level in a high school, and she can be considered as a privileged teacher in comparison to the others, who work with mixed ability classes and have to put more effort into sorting out different kinds of problems that arise in everyday teaching). However, the conclusion drawn here, concerning abstract topics is that the latter are mostly favoured in senior high school classes, as the pupils have an adequate knowledge of the target language, which enables them to communicate effectively their ideas. Of course, this is not the case with high school classes, as apart from their language proficiency (level), other factors such as age and interests are quite different from those of senior high school pupils. Nevertheless, most of the teachers can show to their pupils that the target language stands as a means to communicate one's ideas and beliefs. These findings are in agreement with those of Chapter 7 (Table 7.4), as 60.0% of the teachers' instruction is topic-based, and 'abstract' is the second in the overall rank. As a result of the above, their pupils feel quite happy, and their interest grows towards the target language.

However, the detailed analysis of each one of the above tables has to be combined, in order to help us in designing the model of the effective Greek EFL teacher, and enlighten those factors in their personal histories, which explain why

particular individuals seem more 'effective'. This will be the concern of the next section.

8.6. Synthesizing the Model of the Effective Greek EFL Teacher

One of the researcher 's aims in this was to find out who the communicative teachers are among her subjects. This would enable her to comment on the factors that contributed to making them effective, so as to come up with a clear definition on EFL teacher effectiveness in Greece, and finally to design the needed model, as well as suggest ways in order to achieve it.

Taking into consideration the observational data discussed above, it is obvious that T2, T11, T7, T5 and T3 appear to be highly communicative for the following reasons:

- a) All of them value the contribution of group work in EFL teaching and learning.
- b) As it concerns language form, all of them give priority to fluency without neglecting accuracy.
- c) They deal with a wide spread of other language content.
- d) They use language in their classes in order to discuss about broad topics.

The picture that one can design based on the above results is exactly the same as the one that was given to the researcher by the teachers themselves when interviewed. The pupils of the above teachers were seen to be happy and interested in learning the target language, according to what the researcher saw in the classrooms, as well as their teachers' claims, as expressed in Chapter 5. The atmosphere in the classroom was enjoyable and friendly for both parties, and the pupils tried to contribute more or less to the lesson. The teachers were spending a lot of time and money for lesson preparation, and they were aware of how hard they had to work and study in order to improve themselves as professionals. At the same time, they were fully aware that

they were not helped very much by the state as professionals, and that their successful performance was due to their personal efforts. They were confident in themselves and very responsible towards their pupils. The latter were improving progressively, because they were attracted by their teachers' personality, and their teaching methodology. This had no obvious link with their length of experience, which varied from 3 to 20 years, though nobody could deny that practical experience is helpful, when based on good theoretical grounds.

Taking into consideration the above presented picture, we are led close to a definition of the 'effective' teacher.

An effective teacher is the professional who is characterised by personal struggle, lifelong study and training, persistence, love for the target language, strong intuition, joined knowledge and effort under strong guidance, and rejustification of knowledge according to the environment in which one works.

If one happens to be a gifted teacher, then the above definition comes close to perfection. The problem with this definition is that it is not linked to CLT ideas concretely, it is very general, and it can apply to any 'effective' teacher. However, if one wishes to produce a definition concerning the 'effective' EFL teacher, then more specific technical criteria are needed, having to do with EFL methods specifically, which one would draw from their personal histories in Chapter 5 and from the classroom observations.

An effective EFL teacher is the professional who acts as a mediator of knowledge, uses types of classroom organisation which promote learners' interaction in order to develop linguistic ability, works on real situations with real or personal data to bring the students closer to natural settings and natural learning, uses diverse strategies and materials to increase interest in the FL and support communication, is highly flexible in order to adjust his/her teaching to the students' level and needs, teaches through communicative activities in order to promote fluency without neglecting accuracy, addresses a wide spread of other

language content, and uses language in order to discuss about broad topics, trying to apply them in the students' own environment, and following the natural process for human beings in learning language, according to which oral language precedes written language.

One would find this definition quite extensive, but one which includes all those distinctive technical characteristics in the personal histories of the EFL teachers in discussion, and thus, brings up the model of the 'effective' EFL teacher.

Our next step will be to look first at the position and problems which arise for all the teachers in general, including EFL teachers, and then to EFL teachers' position and problems specifically, with regard to the consideration shown by the state.

How far is the Greek EFL teacher from the first definition, compared with teachers of other subjects? When it comes to aspects such as personal struggle, persistence, love for the target language and strong intuition which are parts of one's personality, there is no doubt that Greek EFL teachers can demonstrate a high degree of competence. The problem lies with aspects such as lifelong study and training, joined knowledge and effort under strong guidance, and rejustification of knowledge according to the environment in which one works. These seem to be problems which can only be sorted out by the state.

What did the state do towards this direction? Not much we are afraid.

First of all, the universities, responsible for teacher education, do not have any links with the secondary education or the teacher training courses, the so-called P.E.K, which started operating this year 1992-93, replacing the old system (S.E.L.M.E) which was abolished.

Second, the advisors for foreign languages still have to cope with a big number of regions each, which makes them travel a lot and spend a lot of time and energy for nothing! (Teachers of other subjects have got the same problems more or less, but

less sharply than foreign language teachers). Does this meet the teachers' needs? The answer is negative as the advisors are not close to them when needed, which makes their sacrifice useless, and makes both sides vulnerable as professionals. Guidance cannot be provided through the phone!...

Lastly, nobody has ever analysed the teachers' needs as it concerns their education and training, and the role these professionals are called to play in different posts of the educational system! EFL teachers graduating from the university or training courses are supposed to have a thorough knowledge of the environment in which they are going to work, and the needs they have to meet. In practice, training decisions are imposed by some administrators who either do not have the knowledge of how to meet needs as such, or else are absolutely detached from reality! As a consequence of all the above, the teachers are left mostly helpless, not being in the position to analyse either their own needs as professionals or their students' needs!

How far are Greek EFL teachers at present from the second, technical model produced above? It seems that there are some problems in matters of EFL methodology and training to be sorted out.

Their strong point is that they use a big variety of activities (25 in total as seen in Chapter 7), among which there are many communicative ones focussing on fluency (for example reconstructing stories, oral exercises, listening comprehension etc.), and others focussing on accuracy (such as oral exercises associated with spelling, writing/working on a task with grammar etc.).

Another strong aspect of theirs is the use of broad topics. They are aware of how important interaction is in the Greek EFL classroom, moving smoothly into discussion of the topic, which they try to apply in their own environment. In addition to this, they claim that they are supported in the area of topic by the Greek character of their learners, who are responsive to language matters, since language is an expression of principles, beliefs, and in general of a way of life, as expressed in Chapter 5.

In matters of classroom management they seem to be successful (see Chapter 7). Greek EFL teachers cater for both fluency and accuracy, giving a slight priority to fluency, and they work towards an improvement of their students' skills, which makes both parties happy, giving priority to listening and speaking, and with reading and writing following, as it happens with the natural process that human beings follow in their mother tongue. (Both aspects are verified by the fact that there is no difference between the observational data and their claims in Chapter 5).

Lastly, they follow the coursebook, but they also use a lot of diverse materials, so as to make the subject more interesting, and achieve learning for communication (see Chapter 5 for their personal histories, and Chapter 6 for their students' opinion on this).

All the above help us to draw our conclusions on what makes this subgroup of Greek EFL teachers more effective in comparison to other practitioners. However, there are still weak aspects in their practices, which need to be changed in order to make them more effective. This issue will be discussed in the next section.

8.7. Greek EFL Teachers Main Training Needs

There are three different aspects which need to be changed in Greek EFL teachers' practices: types of organisation in the EFL classroom, aspects of language content, topic control, and materials use and selection. We shall base our discussion on pointers from Chapters 6, 7, and 8.

Teacher-student classroom organisation is a negative aspect in Greek EFL teachers' practices, which shows a tendency to teacher-centred classes, and makes of the teacher the backbone of the whole organisational structure (see Chapter 7). Their pupils welcome and enjoy group/pair work, especially girls, with juniors having the lead more often in group work in comparison to other grades. However, teachers use these techniques mostly occasionally (see Chapter 6), a fact that teachers do not deny

at all for a list of reasons (see Chapter 5). The present researcher working as a trainer for the academic year 1992-93 tried through theoretical sessions, workshops, as well as practical EFL teaching to convince them that this type of organisation can work in their classes. It is too soon to draw final conclusions about the implications that teaching group/pair work can have in teacher training courses, as already stated in this chapter. However, teachers' attitudes became more positive, and it seems that training is the answer to the problem of fighting traditional types of classroom organisation.

Fluency is in the lead of language content, but under pressure due to problems inherent in the traditional character of the Greek educational system, making the teachers' task more difficult (see Chapter 6), whereas accuracy follows closely, as it is given a lot of concern by the teachers (see Chapters 7 and 8). There is a good balance between the two elements, due to the teachers' efforts to improve it (see Chapter 5). However, there are very poor instances of explicit attention to functions, discourse, sociolinguistic elements and combinations of these (see Chapters 7 and 8), which are significant indicators for the organisation of EFL methodology content to be supported strongly by practical sessions in teacher training courses.

Topic control is totally dominated by the teacher (see findings in Chapter 7). This is due to the fact that the teachers only recently started learning their new role as mediators in the EFL classroom (see teachers' knowledge about CLT in Chapter 5). The training they received so far, their concern about accuracy, their education as teachers and learners which was not based on co-operation, and the different nature of their mother tongue in comparison to the target language made them keep this area under their strict control. Teacher training is again the answer to the problem.

In matters of materials, using a textbook still provides security, as they do not know much about syllabus design or curriculum and objectives, because these were never given enough attention by the state. Moreover, they were never taught how to go through needs analysis for their students, which is the basis for their teaching methodology and the selection of the material they will use, including the textbook,

as well as the way this will be used. This is the responsibility of the state, because they were never provided with the appropriate knowledge so as to tackle such problems during their education and training. There is a committee in the Ministry of Education which provides them with a good yearly list of materials , but there are often problems of discontinuity of the material (see Chapter 5 for problems with materials). Yet, committees are not in the position to suggest the appropriate material for each case separately, as committees have an overall look at problems from a general perspective. The teachers are the ones who know their students better than anyone else, and teacher training courses should teach them how to work towards this direction. However, our effective subgroup of teachers are able to use materials in a potentially communicative way (use of extended texts, listening activities by audio, reconstructing stories by visual etc.), which means that there is an orientation towards CLT, but they are also reserved as it concerns pedagogic material and high control use in instruction (see Chapter 7).

This is the situation as described so far. One should ask at this point: what do Greek EFL and non-EFL practitioners feel about their situation, and how much help did they receive so far?

All the teachers agreed that their own learning experience and attendance at seminars a long time ago did not have any positive effect into helping them to follow a communicative orientation in their EFL methodology, as they claimed in Chapter 5. All parties are fully aware of the problems, they demand changes, they ask for their rights in joined decisions, and they declare in different ways their opposition to non-permanent solutions. They are tired, angry, and disappointed, but still ready to discuss possible solutions to the problem.

Taking into consideration the Greek EFL teachers' situation which is the concern of the present study, we come up with problems of EFL methodology, which have to be given training priorities. The present researcher experiencing other roles, as well, such as foreign language teacher and recently pre-service and in-service teacher trainer, feels that this project is in the position not simply to offer valuable

information and a global view of the whole situation, but also suggestions on how to face the above problems in teacher education, as well as what forms of training could best help Greek EFL teachers to become more effective.

8.8. Suggestions

Our first suggestion concerns the Greek universities and the teacher training courses. The latter have to become a university department, as a school of education, as mostly happens in other European countries. This is a necessity not only for practical matters such as resources (library, labs, seminars etc.) and strong organization, but also to serve as a link between the university and primary and secondary education. In this way, there will be a two-way flow of information for both sides, as well as feedback on their efforts, which will lead to needs analysis and improvement or design of syllabuses for all the courses. This is how students will move smoothly and progressively from state schools to higher education and training, and a clear model of the language teacher will come up, serving the needs of the educational system. The P.E.K. training system in the way it operates is not in the position to serve training needs, as this is a periodical type of training, a type of seminar which can serve different needs closer to in-service training. As such they cannot replace any systematic initial training. (See for a discussion on P.E.K before they started as a training system in Zouzou, 1989). However, we cannot abolish a system without replacing it with a better one, as this will have serious implications for the whole educational system!

Coming back to the idea of a systematic teacher training course for a whole year, this has to be linked with primary and secondary schools, which will provide opportunities for practical teaching for all the trainees. Recent experiences on this subject deriving from attempts at co-operation between P.E.K and different schools showed that this cannot always be fulfilled, unless these schools are attached formally to the university, suggested here as the training institution.

Concerning the syllabus and the staff for the teacher training course, it has to be taken into consideration that general education (e.g. in philosophy or psychology) cannot cover specific needs, but top priority has to be given to methodology and pedagogy. It is more than obvious through the present research project that Greek EFL teachers are proficient as users of the target language, which can be characterized as a happy situation in comparison to other educational systems. **The problem lies with EFL teacher methodology which leads to the production of ineffective teachers! This is a problem that teacher training has to sort out urgently!** Our suggestion is that teaching methodology has to be **the central subject** of the training course, which means an increase of teaching sessions. Teachers are not clear enough on certain aspects of CLT. (See Section 5.10.1. in Chapter 5 on teacher's knowledge about CLT). They do not even know how much their teaching is communicatively oriented, what model of teaching they are following, and what model of students they have to produce. This reflects a picture of mixed up goals which is projected by the state to the teachers, by the teachers to their students, so that the chain goes on and on... It is high time we clear up the area! Who is going to undertake this responsibility? This falls on the staff to teach the trainees. **Our suggestion is for the trainers to be both methodologists and experienced EFL teachers.** It is not reasonable to offer an academic a training post when this person has never been before in the trainees' position, and is not specialised in methodology! Recent experience in P.E.K. supports our claim for this.

Moving to the advisory problem, we suggest an increase of advisory posts in line with other subjects, so as to meet the teachers' needs in time and effectively. There is strong evidence that in some cases teachers are totally isolated, due to the geographical position of the area in which they work, or lack of presence of other colleagues for support and co-operation in the same school, or even lack of seminars or other sources, which would inform and support them in their profession. Guidance cannot operate at a distance! Apart from this, the EFL advisors' role has also to be expanded in matters of administration, in order to serve as links between the university and the primary and secondary education, as they are acting at the moment between the latter and the Ministry of Education. The problem of advisors for EFL

teachers in primary education is not answered yet, (at present EFL advisors belong only to secondary education), though EFL teachers have already joined the primary education! This responsibility lies heavily on the shoulders of decision makers, who seem to be late in matters of organisation at the moment!

Lastly, needs analysis has to precede each decision about university courses, and this technique has to be taught to the students or the trainees, as well. As it concerns teacher education, students must be given the chance to select the subjects which will lead them either to become researchers, or teachers or even administrators, as for example more teaching sessions on research methods, EFL methodology, administration and management etc. This, of course, will be clearer with their training, as their education will have mostly clarified their professional intentions and needs. They have also to rejustify their knowledge, according to the environment they will work. For example, primary education is a different environment than secondary education, streamed classes are not the same with mixed ability ones, classes in the state sector are quite different from those in the private sector etc. Since there is a plurality of needs which universities are called to satisfy, this has also to be taken into consideration, as it happens with most european universities. The latter can serve as good examples to countries like Greece, who cannot spend much money and time in trial and error in order to join the EEC.

8.9. Conclusion

This project is the first descriptive study about EFL teaching in Greece, and hopefully not the last. The aim of this case study was to inform policy makers about present teacher classroom practices in Greek state schools, and the degree to which these are effective, as well as develop for them the model of the effective teacher, and make suggestions in order to promote it. Our findings are more than persuasive that there is not only an urgent need for innovations as it concerns teacher education and training, but also a further need for an educational reform. For this reason, it is important for policy makers to realize that fruitful decisions cannot be made with the

exclusion of the academic staff, researchers and research institutions, and teachers, who will be the victims of wrong decisions, and that they will create victims in their turn when proved ineffective. We have also suggested how the administration becomes even more effective, when there is co-operation.

All the above suggestions are based on our research findings, our previous research, and our experience and judgement through different teaching posts, as well as our contact with other educational systems. We believe that this serious attempt will not end up on a shelf forgotten, as many others. In the rise of a united EEC, Greece and its citizens have a lot to lose from such cases. Research suffers in our country, as it is not the primary goal before an investment is made. However, it is necessary to link past experiences with future orientations. It seems that the educational world and our country in general cannot afford any more losses. We daresay that nations who do not invest in the education of their citizens, are nations without a future.

APPENDIX 1:

COLT Observation Scheme (Part A)

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APPENDIX 2:

COLT Observation scheme (Part B)

Appendix 3

SCHOOL _____
TEACHER _____
SUBJECT _____

GRADE(S) _____
LESSON _____
(MINUTES) _____

DATE _____
OBSERVER _____

APPENDIX 4: TEACHER INTERVIEW

ΣΥΝΕΝΤΕΥΞΗ ΚΑΘΗΓΗΤΩΝ

ΜΕΡΟΣ 1ο

ΠΡΟΣΟΝΤΑ ΚΑΘΗΓΗΤΩΝ

- 1) Ποια ειναι τα ακαδημαϊκα σας προσοντα;
- 2) Ποσο καιρο εργαζεστε σε δημοσια σχολεια σαν καθηγητης/τρια γλωσσας;
- 3) Τι αλλη διδακτικη εμπειρια εχετε;
- 4) Πως θα περιγραφατε τις ικανοτητες σας στις ξενες γλωσσες;
(Πως θα μου περιγραφατε την ομιλια;
" " " " το διαβασμα;
" " " " το γραψιμο;)
- 5) Ποιες ηταν οι κυριες επιδρασεις στην επαγγελματικη σας εξελιξη;
(Τι εχετε κανει απο μετεκπαιδευση;
" " " " σεμιναρια;
" " διαβασει;
Τι συνεργασια ειχατε μ αλλους καθηγητες;
" πρακτικη εμπειρια εχετε;
Τι θετικο κερδισατε απ αυτη την εμπειρια;/ Τι συνετελεσε στην εξελιξη σας;
Υπηρξαν περιπτωσεις που δεν σας προσφεραν και τοση βοηθεια;)
- 6) Απο που κυριως πηρατε γνωσεις σχετικα με τη θεωρια της γλωσσας και τη μεθοδολογια;
- 7) Ποσο σχετικες / χρησιμες υπηρξαν η θεωρια της γλωσσας και η μεθοδολογια στην ασκηση του επαγγελματος σας;
- 8) Για να συνοψισουμε / να κλεισουμε αυτο το θεμα, ποσο καλυψε τις αναγκες σας σαν καθηγητη / τριας γλωσσας η εκπαιδευση και

- *Flacari:*

Kaai tou Blagalo

8) *Tu eripa / erous urike xpmorhotozeti; (Zuhurperzahifavoshevo)*

- *Flacari auto to nportuno;*

η Alyalka;

7) *Mexpi tolou mhlcevo / yia tolous xoyous hirakte Eanvika kaai /*

- *Flacari:*

6) *Tloia eriavai η optapantyikan gas axtirka lie ta aghni;*

- *Flacari autoi η leopoptria;*

otis auknpeis yλωρικης ευαεριας;

5) *Tloia eriavai η leopoptria avakitea ota yuhlaophata / auknpeis kaai*

- *Flacari autoi την leopoptria;*

ophaxrakai, την λευκαδωτην kaai την aτομηρικην;

4) *Tloia eriavai η leopoptria avakitea την ουχαοτηκη δουαεια, την*

- *Flacari tous qriwete autoi eriaka την leopoptria;*

- *Tpafliro*

- *λιαγκαπηα*

- *Ομηρια*

- *Akougeia*

3) *Tu mhlcevo qriwete otis teocepis defilotites tis yλωριας;*

2) *Mlalnre hou qriwika yia τη qriwateka qas optapantyikan.*

Alyalkis yλωριας;

1) *Tu qriwous qriwika etriqoukete lieqaa autoi τη qriwateka qas tis*

MEΣΟΔΟΙ ΑΙΑΖΚΑΙΑΣ

MEPOE 20

η pletektralafexou qas;

τους:

- Τι εξετε να τις επειδη για την ευέπεια, ορθοτητα (ακριβεια)

διαφορια τους και το γραφιτο τους :

- Τι εξετε να τις επειδη για την ευέπεια τους, την ομηρια τους, το

6) Ηοια ειναι τα επιτευχθυτα τους επιν γλωσσα:

5) Ήως αντιδρουν οι άλλα και πειραια:

πτο διαφορια, την ομηρια, πτο ακονθια και πτο γραφιτο:

4) Ήως αντανακρινονται οι ηαγντες επιν γλωσσες δεξιοτητες, σημα.

Πληρωτο του Απεριληπτοτητες:

3) Ήως αντανακρινονται οι ηαγντες επιν γλωσσες και πτο πειραια και πτο

διαφορετε την γλωσσα:

2) Ηοια ειναι η επιμεριφοπα τους απειλητικης επιν γλωσσα:

- Ηοια ειναι η επιμεριφοπα τους απειλητικης επιν γλωσσα:

1) Ηοια ειναι η επιμεριφοπα τους απειλητικης επιν γλωσσα:

ΗΠΟΣΦΑΤΑ ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΑ ΜΑΘΗΤΗΝ

ΗΠΟΣ - 36

14) Ήως οι θεάτρες να ανατυπώνται την πειραια και πτο πειραιού:

φας:

13) Ηοια ειναι τα κυριως υποβαθμια του απιληπτουργητες επιν ταξιν

διαφορακαλιας:

12) Τι εφοδια Απεριληπτοτητες οις διατηπιστητες επιν αριθμονα

ειναι οι κυριως εκποτο / πτο οφελον αυτης της επιλογας:

11) Ηοια συγκα δινετε οις ηαγντες επιν απειλητικης επιν ηοια:

Απεριληπτοτητες:

10) Ηοια ειναι τα λεχυπα και ηοια τη αρχιντα σημεια του υλικου του

υποβαθμιετε το ηηοπετο και το ηηοκετε επιν αισηπα:

9) Ατο του υποβαθμιετε ηακο: Το επιληπτε ηοιον φας, φας το

ΜΕΡΟΣ 4

ΕΝΝΟΙΕΣ ΚΑΛΗΣ ΔΙΔΑΣΚΑΛΙΑΣ ΤΗΣ ΓΛΩΣΣΑΣ

- 1) Ποιες πιστεύετε οτι ειναι οι κυριες τασεις διεθνως οσον αφορα τη διδασκαλια της Αγγλικης γλωσσας;
- 2) Τι γνωριζετε για την επικοινωνιακη διδασκαλια της γλωσσας;
(Ποια ειναι τα τυπικα χαρακτηριστικα/ γνωρισματα της;)
- 3) Ποιο ειναι το στοιχειο που ταιριαζει η που δεν ταιριαζει στην Ελληνικη περιπτωση; Δωστε μου και τις δυο αποψεις.
- 4) Θα λεγατε οτι εσεις εφαρμοζετε την επικοινωνιακη διδασκαλια της γλωσσας;
- 5) Ποια νομιζετε οτι ειναι τα προσοντα και οι δεξιοτητες ενος καλου καθηγητη γλωσσας; (Να ειστε ρεαλιστες!).
- 6) Τι γνωσεις πρεπει να κατεχει ο καλος καθηγητης γλωσσας;
- 7) Τι ειδους γλωσσικη ικανοτητα πρεπει να κατεχει ο καλος καθηγητης γλωσσας;
- 8) Επιδρα η προσωπικοτητα στην καλη διδασκαλια της γλωσσας και μεχρι ποιου σημειου;
- 9) Τι νομιζετε θα σας βοηθουσε να προαγετε τις ικανοτητες σας σαν καλου/ης καθηγητη/τριας γλωσσας;
- Τιποτ' αλλο που θα θελατε να προσθεσετε;

SECTION 1

Teacher Qualifications

- 1) What are your academic qualifications?
- 2) How long have you been working in state schools as a language teacher?
- 3) Any other teaching experience?
- 4) How would you describe your FL skills?
(What about speaking?
" " reading?
" " writing?)
- 5) What have been the main influences on your professional development?
(What about training courses?
" " seminars?
" " reading you may have done?
" " other teachers?
" " practical experience?)

What did you gain positively from that experience? What did it contribute to your development?

Were there aspects which were not so helpful?)

- 6) So, where does your knowledge of theory/methodology mostly come from?
- 7) How relevant/useful has the study of theory/methodology been to you in the classroom?
- 8) To summarise/end this section, how much did your education and, training meet your needs as a language teacher?

SECTION 2

Teaching Methods

- 1) What are your overall aims in teaching English?
- 2) Tell me about your overall teaching strategy.
- 3) What attention do you give the four skills?
 - Listening
 - Speaking
 - Reading
 - Writing
 - Why do you give this particular balance?
- 4) What is the balance between whole class, group, pair, individual work?
 - Why this balance?
- 5) What is the balance between drills/exercises, and fluency work?
 - Why this balance?
- 6) What is your strategy on errors?
 - Why?
- 7) To what extent/for what purposes do you speak Greek and/or English?
 - Why this pattern?
- 8) What range/kind of materials do you use? (Including the book).
 - Why?
- 9) Where do you obtain materials from? Do you prepare these materials yourself, are you provided with them by the Ministry or do you find them in the market?
- 10) What are the strong and what the weak aspects of the materials you use?
- 11) How often do you give your students homework? What are the main purposes/benefits of homework?
- 12) Which equipment do you use in your classroom activities?
- 13) What are the main problems that you face in your classroom?
- 14) How would you like to develop your methodology in the future?

SECTION 3

Students' Current Achievements

- 1) Why do you think your students learn english?
 - What is their attitude towards the language?
- 2) What is their attitude towards you as the person who teaches them the FL?
- 3) How do your students respond to your methodology and the book you use?
- 4) How do they respond to the four language skills, i.e. reading, speaking, listening and writing?
- 5) How do they feel about group work?
- 6) What are their achievements in the foreign language?
 - What about their listening, speaking, reading and writing?
 - What about their fluency/accuracy?

SECTION 4

Notions of Good Language Teaching

- 1) What do you think are the main trends internationally in thinking about ELT?
- 2) What do you know about CLT? (What are its characteristics/typical features?)
- 3) What in CLT suits/doesn't suit the Greek situation? Give me both aspects.
- 4) Would you say you yourself are doing CLT?
- 5) What do you think are the qualities and the skills of a good language teacher? (Be realistic!).
- 6) What is the knowledge that the good language teacher has to master?
- 7) What kind of language proficiency has the good language teacher to possess?
- 8) Does personality affect good language teaching and to what extent does this happen?
- 9) What do you think would help you in promoting your competence as a good language teacher?
 - Anything else you would like to add?

APPENDIX 5: STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΟΛΟΓΙΟ ΜΑΘΗΤΩΝ ΕΙΣΑΓΩΓΗ

Ειμαι καθηγητρια της Αγγλικης και διεξαγω μια ερευνα για τη διδασκαλια της Αγγλικης γλωσσας. Η ερευνα μου δεν ασχολειται ειδικα με τη διδασκαλια της Αγγλικης στις αιθουσες του σχολειου σας, αλλα γενικα με τη διδασκαλια της αγγλικης γλωσσας στις αιθουσες διδασκαλιας στην Ελλαδα.

Σκοπος αυτης της ερευνας ειναι να βελτιωσει τη διδασκαλια της αγγλικης γλωσσας, να την κανει ευκολοτερη κι ευχαριστη, γι αυτο το λογο οι γνωμες των μαθητων πρεπει να ειναι ανωνυμες.

Σας παρακαλω, συμπληρωστε την ηλικια, το φυλο και την ταξη σας πριν απαντησετε στο ερωτηματολογιο.

Ευχαριστω.

ΗΛΙΚΙΑ:

ΦΥΛΟ:

ΤΑΞΗ:

ΜΕΡΟΣ 1ο

1) Για ποιο σκοπο κυριως μαθαινετε Αγγλικα;

Για μελλοντικες σπουδες

Για ευχαριστηση

Για να βρω μια καλη δουλεια

Για να μαθω για εναν αλλο πολιτισμο

Γιατι ειναι υποχρεωτικο μαθημα

Γι αλλους λογους

2) Βρισκετε τα Αγγλικα

Ευκολα

Δυσκολα

Ουτε πολυ ευκολα ουτε πολυ δυσκολα

3) Σας φαίνονται τα Αγγλικά

Ενδιαφεροντα

Ανιαρα

Τηφερτα

4) Αριθμηστε τα ακολουθα μαθηματα απο το 1-4 συμφωνα με τη δισκολια που εχετε σ αυτα (1=το πιο δισκολο, 4=το πιο ευκολο).

Μαθηματικα

Αγγλικα

Φυσικοχημεια

Νεα Ελληνικα

5) Αριθμηστε τα απο το 1-4 συμφωνα με το ενδιαφερον που παρουσιαζουν για σας (1= το πιο ενδιαφερον, 4= το λιγοτερο ενδιαφερον).

Μαθηματικα

Αγγλικα

Φυσικοχημεια

Νεα Ελληνικα

6) Ποσες ωρες την εβδομαδα θαπεπε να κανετε αγγλικα;

Δυο

Τρεις

Τεσσερεις

Αλλο

7) Μαθαινετε καμια αλλη ξενη γλωσσα; (Σημειωστε εκεινες που μαθαινετε).

Γαλλικα

Γερμανικα

Ιταλικα

Καμπια

Αλλη

8) Αν νας, που και πως τη μαθαίνετε;

ΜΕΡΟΣ 2ο

1) Ποιες από τις ακολουθες δραστηριοτητες εφαρμοζετε στο μαθημα των Αγγλικων φετος;

	<u>Συχνα</u>	<u>Σποραδικα</u>	<u>Ποτε</u>
Συζητηση	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Γραπτες ασκησεις γραμματικης	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Αναγνωση κειμενων	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ακουσμα διαλογων	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Προφορικες ασκησεις	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ορθογραφια	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Γραψιμο ημερολογιων/γραμματων/δοκιμων	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Παιξιμο ρολων	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Αλλο:			

2) Ποιες από τις δραστηριοτητες που εφαρμοζετε στο μαθημα των Αγγλικων σας ευχαριστει πραγματικα; (Σημειωστε οσες θελετε).

Συζητηση	<input type="checkbox"/>
Γραπτες ασκησεις γραμματικης	<input type="checkbox"/>
Αναγνωση κειμενων	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ακουσμα διαλογων	<input type="checkbox"/>
Προφορικες ασκησεις	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ορθογραφια	<input type="checkbox"/>
Γραψιμο ημερολογιων/γραμματων/δοκιμων	<input type="checkbox"/>
Παιξιμο ρολων	<input type="checkbox"/>
Αλλο:	

3) Ποιες από τις δραστηριοτητες που εφαρμοζετε στο μαθημα των

Αγγλικων δεν σας ευχαριστει πραγματικα;

Συζητηση

Γραπτες ασκησεις γραμματικης

Αναγνωση κειμενων

Ακουσμα διαλογων

Προφορικες ασκησεις

Ορθογραφια

Γραψιμο ημερολογιων/γραμματων/δοκιμων

Παιξιμο ρολων

Αλλο:

4) Ποιες απο τις δραστηριοτητες που εφαρμοζετε στο μαθημα των Αγγλικων βρισκετε πραγματικα πιο δυσκολες;

Συζητηση

Γραπτες ασκησεις γραμματικης

Αναγνωση κειμενων

Ακουσμα διαλογων

Προφορικες ασκησεις

Ορθογραφια

Γραψιμο ημερολογιων/γραμματων/δοκιμων

Παιξιμο ρολων

Αλλο:

5) Ποιες απο τις δραστηριοτητες που εφαρμοζετε στο μαθημα των Αγγλικων βρισκετε πραγματικα πιο ευκολες;

Συζητηση

Γραπτες ασκησεις γραμματικης

Αναγνωση κειμενων

Ακουσμα διαλογων

Προφορικες ασκησεις

Ορθογραφια

Γραψιμο ημερολογιων/γραμματων/δοκιμων

Παιξιμο ρολων

Αλλο:

6) Εχετε αρκετες ευκαιριες να μιλησετε Αγγλικα στην ταξη;

Αρκετες

Οχι αρκετες

7) Ποιος μιλαει περισσοτερο στο μαθημα των Αγγλικων;

Η καθηγητρια

Εσεις και οι συμμαθητες σας

Και οι δυο εξισου

8) Τι γλωσσα χρησιμοποιειται στο μαθημα των Αγγλικων;

Απο την καθηγητρια Απο τους μαθητες

Περισσοτερο Αγγλικα

Περισσοτερο Ελληνικα

Αγγλικα και Ελληνικα εξισου

9) Ποιος ειναι ο τροπος εργασιας στην ταξη των Αγγλικων;

Συχνα Σποραδικα Ποτε

Ομαδικη/ζευγαρωτη εργασια

Ατομικη εργασια

Συλλογικη εργασια

10)Ποια ειναιι συνηθως η ατμοσφαιρα στην ταξη των Αγγλικων;

(Σημειωστε x σε καθε κλιμακα).

Ευχαριστη

Δυσαρεστη

Ανιαρη

Ενδιαφερουσα

Τεταμενη

Ηρεμη

ΜΕΡΟΣ 3ο

1) Ποσο σπουδαια ειναιι τα ακολουθα προσοντα για τον καλο καθηγητη των Αγγλικων; (Υπολογιστε καθε προσον μεχρι το 5 -- το 5 αντιστοιχει στο σπουδαιοτερο. Επισης, βαλτε σε κυκλο το προσον που θεωρειτε σαν το πιο σπουδαιο).

Τπομονετικος

5) Τι θα περιλαμβάνετε να φας σωματικές ενας καλος καθηγητης;

φας;

καλος καθηγητης για να φας δοκιμαστει να δεχταιωσεις τη αγγλικα
4) Ιλλος ειναι ο καλυτερος πορτος που διαπετε να υποθετησει ενας

<input type="checkbox"/>	Ιλλοο καλα καταχαρακτεις Αγγλικα
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ιλλοο καλα σολαγκατεις Αγγλικα
<input type="checkbox"/>	Με τοον ευχεπερα Ηρακτε κατη γραφεις Αγγλικα
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ιλλοο φωτα Ηρακτε κατη γραφεις Αγγλικα
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ιλλοο αυτονευρισκον εχεις για τη Αγγλικα που μαθαινεταις
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ιλλοο φας εγκαριστει να μαθαινεταις Αγγλικα

τους! 1 = το πιο σημαντικο, 6 = το λιγοτερο σημαντικο).
τεριαστερο: (Αριθμησε τα σημαντικα ήτε τη αρια που σημαντικας
3) Τια τη διαπετε ο καλος καθηγητης που Αγγλικων να ενδιαφεσται

Αλλα:

<input type="checkbox"/>	Μια φοπα στο πριννυο
<input type="checkbox"/>	Μια φοπα το πινα
<input type="checkbox"/>	Μια φοπα την εργοπλονα

Παθητικοι:

Παθητικες που την ευκαιρια να τον πυλιγουχευσται εκτοις
2) Ιλλοο φυλλα διαπετε ο καλος καθηγητης Αγγλικων να συνει ετους

Αλλα:

<input type="checkbox"/>	Εμργαλλει περιθωρια
<input type="checkbox"/>	Μιχαει καλα Αγγλικα
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ειναι διαδεστης για να τον πυλιγουχευτεις
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ενας ανθρωπος πιε καλο Αισουρη
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ενας ανθρωπος που ηρακει ωπανα
<input type="checkbox"/>	καλα σημαντηριανος

ΜΕΡΟΣ 4ο

1) Ποσο ικανοι εισαστε γενικα στ αγγλικα σας;

Πολυ καλος-η

Καλος-η

Μετριος-α

Αδυνατος-η

Κακος-η

2) Αριθμηστε τις ικανοτητες σας απο το 1-4 συμφωνα με την επιδοση σας (1= πολυ λιγο ικανος, 4= πολυ ικανος).

Στο ν ακουτε

Στο διαβασμα

Στο γραψιμο

Στην ομιλια

3) Τι κανετε εκτος σχολειου για να βελτιωσετε τ Αγγλικα σας;
(Σημειωστε οσα θελετε).

Παρακολουθω ιδιαιτερα μαθηματα

Διαβαζω λογοτεχνικα βιβλια

Βλεπω κινηματογραφο

Διαβαζω αγγλικα περιοδικα

Αλλο:

4) Ποσο πολυ προσπαθειτε να βελτιωσετε τ αγγλικα σας;

Προσπαθω πολυ παντα

Συνηθως προσπαθω πολυ

Μερικες φορες προσπαθω πολυ

Δεν προσπαθω πολυ

Introduction

I am a teacher of english doing a research on english language teaching. My research is not dealing specifically with what happens in your school but with what generally happens in the english language classrooms in Greece.

The aim of this research is to improve english language teaching and make it easier and enjoyable, that is why all students' opinions are asked to be anonymous. Please, fill in the age, sex and grade and tick your answers off.

Thank you.

AGE:

SEX:

GRADE:

SECTION 1 Attitudes Towards Learning English

1) What is the main reason for learning English?

For future studies

For pleasure

To find a good job

To learn about another culture

It is compulsory

Other reason

2) Do you find English

Easy

Difficult

Not too easy or too difficult

3) Do you find English

Interesting

Boring

Tolerable

4) Number the following subjects from 1-4 according to their difficulty (1=most difficult, 4=easiest).

Maths

English

Science

Greek

5) Number them from 1-4 according to their interest for you (1=most interesting, 4=least interesting).

Maths

English

Science

Greek

6) How many periods do you think you should have English lessons a week?

Two

Three

Four

Other

7) Are you learning another language? (Tick any which you are learning).

French

German

Italian

None

Other

8) If yes, where and how are you studying it?

SECTION 2
Attitudes Towards Classroom Activities

1) Which of the following things do you do in your English classes this year?

	<u>Often</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Never</u>
Discussing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing grammar exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading texts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to dialogues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing listening comprehension exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing dictation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing diaries/letters/essays	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing role-play	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:			

2) Which of the things you do in English class do you definitely enjoy? (Tick as many as you like).

Discussing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing grammar exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading texts	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to dialogues	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing comprehension exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing dictation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing diaries/letters/essays	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing role-play	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	

3) Which of the things you do in English class do you definitely not enjoy?

Discussing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing grammar exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading texts	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to dialogues	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing comprehension exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing dictation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing diaries/letters/essays	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing role-play	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	

4) Which of the things you do in English class do you definitely find difficult?

Discussing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing grammar exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading texts	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to dialogues	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing comprehension exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing dictation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing diaries/letters/essay	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing role-play	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	

5) Which of the things you do in English class do you definitely find easy?

Discussing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing grammar exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading texts	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to dialogues	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing comprehension exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing dictation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing diaries/letters/essays	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doing role-play	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	

6) Do you have enough opportunities to speak English in class?

Enough	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not enough	<input type="checkbox"/>

7) Who speaks most in the English classroom?

The teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>
You and fellow students	<input type="checkbox"/>
Both equally	<input type="checkbox"/>

8) What language is spoken in the English classroom?

BY TEACHER BY STUDENTS

Mostly English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mostly Greek	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English and Greek equally	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9) What is the type of work in the English classroom?

	<u>Often</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Never</u>
Group/pair work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Individual work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Whole class work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10) What is the usual atmosphere in the English classroom? (Put an X on each scale):

Pleasant	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unpleasant
Boring	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Interesting,
Tense	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Relaxed

SECTION 3 Qualities of the Good Language Teacher

1) How important are the following qualities for the good English teacher? (Rate each quality out of 5-5 is top score! Also circle the quality you think is most important!)

Patient	<input type="checkbox"/>
Well organized	<input type="checkbox"/>
A well speaking person	<input type="checkbox"/>
A person with good humour	<input type="checkbox"/>
Is available for consultation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Speaks English well	<input type="checkbox"/>
Has good discipline	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

2) How often should a good English teacher give his students the opportunity to consult him/her out of class?

Once a week	<input type="checkbox"/>
Once a month	<input type="checkbox"/>
Once a term	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	<input type="checkbox"/>

3) What would a good English teacher care most about? (Number these in order of importance! 1=most important, 6=least important).

How much you enjoy learning English	<input type="checkbox"/>
How confident you are about learning English	<input type="checkbox"/>
How accurately you speak/write English	<input type="checkbox"/>
How fluently you speak/write English	<input type="checkbox"/>
How well you read English	<input type="checkbox"/>
How well you understand English	<input type="checkbox"/>

4) What is the best way for a good teacher to help you improve your english?

5) What would you expect a good language teacher to offer you?

SECTION 4 Students' Proficiency in English

1) How proficient are you generally in your english?

Very good	<input type="checkbox"/>
Good	<input type="checkbox"/>
Medium	<input type="checkbox"/>
Weak	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poor	<input type="checkbox"/>

2) Number your skills from 1-4 according to your proficiency (1=least proficient, 4=most proficient).

Listening	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>
Writing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Speaking	<input type="checkbox"/>

3) What do you do outside school to improve your english? (Tick as many as you like).

Take private lessons	<input type="checkbox"/>
Read literature books	<input type="checkbox"/>
Watch films	<input type="checkbox"/>
Read english magazines	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	

4) How hard do you try to improve your English?

Always try hard

Mostly try hard

Sometimes try hard

Do not try very hard

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