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THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER AT THE LESSON

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РОЛЬ УЧИТЕЛЯ НА УРОКЕ

This article is about the role of the teacher and various aspects of the class management. The success of the lesson depends on teacher's knowledge and about the activities that teacher uses in order to rich the aim.

Эта статья о различных приемах работы преподавателя, управления аудиторией, работы со студентами и группой студентов. Успех занятия зависит во многом от мастерства преподавателя и умения применения различных методов работы для достижения цели урока.

It will be clear that the way the teacher behaves in these different kinds of activities will change according to the nature of the activities.

Perhaps the most important distinction to be drawn here is between the roles of controller and facilitator, since these two concepts represent opposite ends of a cline of control and freedom. A controller stands at the front of the class like a puppet-master or mistress controlling everything; a facilitator maintains a low profile in order to make the students' own achievement of a task possible.

We will indicate where the- different roles we are about to discuss can be placed on this cline. We will examine the roles of controller, assessor, organiser, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and investigator.

As we have said, teachers as controllers are in complete charge of the class.

They control not only what the students do, but also when they speak and what language they use. On our diagram this role is placed at the extreme end of the cline:

Certain stages of a lesson lend themselves to this role very well. The introduction of new language, where it makes use of accurate reproduction and drilling techniques, needs to be carefully organised. Thus the instruct-cue-nominate cycle is the perfect example of the teacher acting as controller. All attention is focused on the front of the class, and the students are all working to the same beat.

The teacher as controller is closely allied to the image that teachers project of themselves. Some appear to be natural leaders and performers, while some are quieter and feel happier when students are interacting amongst themselves. Where teachers are addicted to being the centre of attention they tend to find it difficult not to perform the controlling role and this has both advantages and disadvantages.

We can all recall teachers in our past who were able to inspire us. Frequently this was because they possessed a certain indefinable quality which attracted and motivated us. Frequently, too, it was because they had interesting things to say and do which held our attention and enthusiasm. The same is true in language classes. Some teachers have a gift of inspiring and motivating us even though they never seem to relax their control. And at their best teachers who are able to mix the controlling role with a good 'performance' are extremely enjoyable to be taught by or observed.

When teachers are acting as controllers, they tend to do a lot of the talking, and whilst we may feel uneasy about the effect this has on the possibilities for student talking time it should be remembered that it is frequently the teacher, talking at the students' level of comprehension, who is the most important source they have for roughly-tuned comprehensible input.

We should not let these advantages fool us, however, into accepting the controller role as the only one that the teacher has. It is vital that control should be relaxed if students are to be allowed a chance to learn (rather than be taught). Even during immediate creativity teachers will have begun to relax their grip, and during communicative speaking and writing their role must be fundamentally different, otherwise the students will not have a chance to participate properly.

Clearly a major part of the teacher's job is to assess the students' work, to see how well they are performing or how well they performed. Not only is this important pedagogically, but the students quite naturally expect it, even after communicative activities.

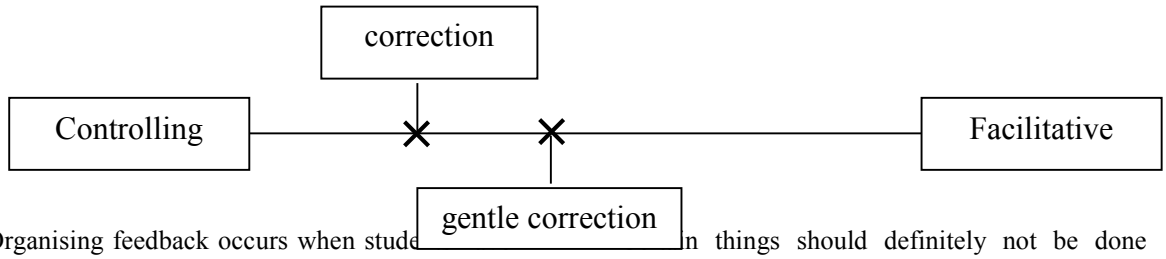
We must make a difference between two types of assessment: correction and organising feedback.

During an accurate reproduction stage, where the teacher is totally in control, student error and mistake will be corrected almost instantly. The teacher's function, we have suggested, is to show where incorrectness occurs and help the student to see what has gone wrortg so that it can be put right.

A slightly less formal style of correction can occur where students are involved in immediate creativity or in doing a drill-type activity in pairs (asking and answering set questions, for example). Gentle correction involves showing students that a mistake has been made but not making a big fuss about it. Whereas, in the accurate reproduction stage, we insist on students saying the sentence, phrase or

word correctly once they have been told about their mistake, with gentle correction the teacher says things like 'Well that's not quite right ... we don't say "he goed ...", we say "went".' The important point is that nothing more happens. The student doesn't have to repeat his or her sentence correctly; it is enough that a mistake has been acknowledged. This kind of gentle correction, used in the right way, will not seriously damage the atmosphere of pairwork or freer conversation.

We can represent these two kinds of correction in the following way on our cline:



Organising feedback occurs when stude[illegible]n things should definitely not be done performed some kind of task, and the intention of this kind of assessment is for them to see the extent of their success or failure and to be given ideas as to how their (language) problems might be solved.

We must make a distinction between two different kinds of feedback. Content feedback concerns an assessment of how well the students performed the activity as an activity rather than as a language exercise. Thus, when students have completed a role play the teacher first discusses with the students the reasons for their decisions in the simulation.

In the travel agent activity teacher and students discuss why the pairs chose a particular hotel and if it was the most sensible choice. In other words, where students are asked to perform a task it is their ability to perform that task which should be the focus of the first feedback session. If the teacher merely concentrates on the correctness of the students' language then they will conclude that the task itself was unimportant.

Form feedback, on the other hand, does tell the students how well they have performed linguistically, how accurate they have been. When students are involved in a communicative activity the teacher will record the errors that are made so that they can be brought to the students' attention after whatever content feedback is appropriate.

Perhaps the most important and difficult role the teacher has to play is that of organiser. The success of many activities depends on good organization and on the students knowing exactly what they are to do. A lot of time can be wasted if the teacher omits to give students vital information or issues conflicting and confusing instructions.

The main aim of the teacher when organising an activity is to tell the students what they are going to talk about (or write or read about), give clear instructions about what exactly their task is, get the activity going, and then organise feedback when it is over. This sounds remarkably easy, but can be disastrous if teachers have not thought out exactly what they are going to say beforehand.

when organising an activity: teachers should never, for example, assume that students have understood the instructions. It is always wise to check that they have grasped what they have to do, and where possible, the students' native language can be used for this. Teachers should never issue unclear instructions; it is wise to plan out what you are going to say beforehand and then say it clearly and concisely. In lower level classes with monolingual groups, the students' language could'be used for this if absolutely necessary. It is essential for the teacher to plan exactly what information the students will need. For example, if an information gap exercise is being used students must be told not to look at each other's material. If they do the exercise will be ruined/If students are reading for specific information they must clearly understand that they are not to try to understand everything, but only read to get the answer to certain questions. If they do not understand this a lot of the point of the exercise will be lost. Lastly teachers must be careful about when they get students to look at the material they will be using for the activity. If they hand out material and then try to give instructions they will find that the students are looking at the material and not listening to the instructions!

In Part B of this book we have seen many activities and described how the teacher will organise them.

The organisation of an activity and the instructions the teacher gives are of vital importance since if the students have not understood clearly what they are to do they will not be able to perform their task satisfactorily.

The organisation of an activity can be divided into three main parts. In the first the teacher gives a lead-in. Like the lead-in for presentation or for the treatment of receptive skills this will probably take the form of an introduction to the subject. The teacher and students may briefly discuss the topic in order to start thinking about it. ‘You're going to test your artistic powers by drawing a picture. The idea of this exercise is to see how well you can talk about a

picture and give instructions.' In the case of many of the reading and listening exercises we looked at in concerned a familiarisation with the topic.

When the lead-in stage has been accomplished the teacher instructs. This is where the students are told exactly what they should do. The teacher may tell the students they are going to work in pairs and then designate one member of each pair as A and the other as B. In the 'describe and draw' example the teacher then gives each student A a picture and says, 'Do not show this picture to B until the end of the game.' When all the A students have their pictures the teacher says, 'I want all the B students to draw the same picture as the one A has. A will give you instructions and you may ask questions. You must not look at A's picture until the game is complete.' At this stage, particularly in a monolingual class, it may be a good idea to get a translation of these instructions to make sure the students have understood. In certain cases the teacher may well organise a demonstration of the activity before giving instructions.

Finally the teacher initiates the activity. A final check is given that students have understood, e.g. 'Has anyone got any questions ... no? ... good. Then off you go!' The teacher may ask the students to see if they can be the first to finish, thus adding a competitive element which is often highly motivating.

The lead-in → instruct {demonstrate) → initiate → organise feedback sequence can almost always be followed when the teacher is setting up activities - when the teacher is acting as organiser. For the sequence to have the right effect the teacher must remember to work out carefully what instructions to give and what the key concepts for the activity are (much as we work out what key concepts are necessary at the lead-in stage when introducing new language). The job is then to organise the activity as efficiently as possible, frequently checking that the students have understood. Once the activity has started the teacher will not intervene (where pair/ groupwork is being used) unless it is to use gentle correction or to prompt.

The teacher's role as organiser goes on our cline in the following way:

Often the teacher needs to encourage students to participate or needs to make suggestions about how students may proceed in an activity when there is a silence or when they are confused about what to do next. This is one of the teacher's important roles, the role of prompter.

The role of prompter has to be performed with discretion for if teachers are too aggressive they start to take over from the students, whereas the idea is that they should be helping them only when it is necessary.

The teacher's role as prompter goes on our cline in the following way:

There is no reason why the teacher should not participate as an equal in an activity especially where activities like simulations are taking place. Clearly on a lot of occasions it will be difficult for us to do so as equals (since we often know all the material and all the details, etc. such as with information gap exercises, jigsaw listening, etc.).

The danger is that the teacher will tend to dominate, and the students will both allow and expect this to happen. It will be up to the teacher to make sure it does not.

Teachers should not be afraid to participate since not only will it probably improve the atmosphere in the class, but it will also give the students a chance to practise English with someone who speaks it better than they do.

We have stressed the importance of teacher non-intervention where a genuinely communicative activity is taking place in the classroom and this means that the teacher is left, to some extent, with nothing to do. There.are still two very important roles, however. One is to be aware of what is going on as an assessor - although discreetly - and the other is to be a kind of walking resource centre. In other words the teacher should always be ready to offer help if it is needed. After all we have the language that the students may be missing, and this is especially true if the students are involved in some kind of writing task. Thus we make ourselves available so that students can consult us when (and only when) they wish.

We can see, therefore, that when the teacher is acting as a resource we are at the facilitative end of our cline:

We can talk about the teacher as a tutor in the sense of someone who acts as a coach and as a resource where students are involved in their own work, and call upon the teacher mainly for advice and guidance. This is the role the teacher adopts where students are involved in self-study or where they are doing project work of their own choosing. The teacher will be able to help them clarify ideas and limit the task, for example; the teacher can help them by pointing out errors in rough drafts; the teacher can also offer the students advice about how to get the most out of their learning and what to do if they want to study more.

This tutorial role - which approximates to a counselling function - is often appropriate at intermediate and advanced levels. It is a broader role than the others we have mentioned since it incorporates parts of some of the other roles, i.e. organiser, prompter and resource. It is, nevertheless, a facilitative role and therefore occurs to the right on our diagram:

All the roles we have mentioned so far have had to do with the teacher's behaviour as it relates to the students. But teachers themselves will want to develop their own skills and they will hope for a gradually deepening insight into the best ways to foster language learning.

Of course it is possible to go on teacher training courses and to attend teachers' seminars. These will certainly help teachers to come across new ideas and keep abreast of what is happening. But teachers can develop by themselves or with colleagues, too. The best way to do this is by investigating what is going on, observing what works well in class and what does not, trying out new techniques and activities and evaluating their appropriacy.

Teachers who do not investigate the efficiency of new methods and who do not actively seek their own personal and professional development may find the job of teaching becoming increasingly monotonous. Teachers who constantly seek to enrich their understanding of what learning is all about and what works well, on the other hand, will find the teaching of English constantly rewarding.

In previous chapters we have often talked about activities where students work in pairs or in groups.

We will now consider briefly the relative merits and uses of various student groupings. We will consider lockstep, pairwork, groupwork, the use of the mother tongue, and individual study.

Lockstep is the class grouping where all the students are working with the teacher, where all the students are 'locked into' the same rhythm and pace, the same activity.

Lockstep is the traditional teaching situation, in other words, where a teacher-controlled session is taking place. The accurate reproduction stage usually takes place in lockstep with all the students working as one group and the teacher acting as controller and assessor.

Lockstep has certain advantages. It usually means that all the class are concentrating, and the teacher can usually be sure that everyone can hear what is being said. The students are usually getting a good language model from the teacher, and lockstep can often be very dynamic. Many students find the lockstep stage very comforting. There are, in other words, a number of reasons why lockstep is a good idea.

There are also reasons, though, why the use of lockstep alone is less than satisfactory. In the first place, students working in lockstep get little chance to practise or to talk at all. Simple mathematics will show that if a ten-minute accurate reproduction stage takes place in a class of forty, and if each student response takes thirty seconds only half the class will be able to say, anything at all. If this is true of controlled sentences, then the situation with language use is far more serious. In a class of forty only a very small percentage of the class will get a chance to speak.

Lockstep always goes at the wrong speed! Either the teacher is too slow for the good students or the lesson is too fast for the weak students. Shy and nervous students also find lockstep work extremely bad for the nerves since they are likely to be exposed in front of the whole class.

Most seriously, though, lockstep, where the teacher acts as a controller, cannot be the ideal grouping for communicative work. If students are going to use the language they are learning they will not be able to do so locked into a teacher-controlled drill. And if they are to attain student autonomy they must be able to do so by using the language on their own. Lockstep, in other words, involves too much teaching and too little learning!

This rather bleak view of lockstep activities does not mean we should abandon the whole-class grouping completely. As we have said, it has its uses. Where feedback is taking place after a reading or listening task clearly it will be advantageous to have the whole class involved at the same time both so that they can check their answers and so that the teacher can assess their performance as a group. Where pair and groupwork are to be set up clearly the whole class has to listen to instructions, etc.

We have mentioned pairwork before (e.g. for question and answer practice, information gap exercises, simulations, etc.) and students can be put in pairs for a great variety of work including writing and reading.

Pairwork seems to be a good idea because it immediately increases the amount of student practice. If we refer back to our imaginary class of forty students we can immediately see that at any one time (in an oral pairwork exercise) twenty students are talking at once instead of one. Pairwork allows the students to use language (depending of course on the task set by the teacher) and also encourages student co-operation which is itself important for the atmosphere of the class and for the motivation it gives to learning with others. Since the teacher as controller is no longer oppressively present students can help each other to use and learn language. The teacher will still be able to act as an assessor, prompter or resource, of course. With pairwork, then, students can practise language use and joint learning.

Certain problems occur with pairwork, however. Incorrectness is a worry, but as we have repeatedly said accuracy is not the only standard to judge learning by: communicative efficiency is also vitally important and pairwork encourages such efficiency.

Teachers sometimes worry about noise and indiscipline when pairwork is used particularly with children and adolescents. A lot depends here on the

task we set and on our attitude during the activity. If we go and concentrate on one pair in the corner of the room to the exclusion of the others, then indeed the rest of the class may forget their task and start playing about! If there is a danger of this happening the teacher should probably remain at the front of the class (where without interfering in any way we can get a general idea of what is going on) and then organise feedback when the pairwork task is over to see how successful it was. We should try and make sure that the pairwork task is not carried out for too long. Students who are left in pairs for a long time often become bored and are then not only not learning, but also become restless and perhaps badly behaved. If the noise rises to excessive levels then the teacher can simply stop the activity, explain the problem and ask the students to continue more quietly. If this does not work the activity may have to be discontinued.

It is important, though, to remember that the type of pairwork the teacher will organise depends on the type of activity the class is working with.

The point being made here is that it may be a good idea to familiarise students with pairwork at the beginning of a course by giving them this -kind of very short, simple, task to perform. As students get used to the idea of working in pairs the teacher can extend the range of activities being offered.

A decision has to be taken about how students are put in pairs. Teachers will have to decide whether they will put strong students with weak students or whether they will vary the combination of the pairs from class to class. Many teachers adopt a random approach to putting students in pairs while others deliberately mix students who do not necessarily sit together.

Teachers should probably make their decision based on the particular class and on whether they wish to put special students together, whether they want to do it at random (e.g. by the letter of the alphabet which begins the student's name) or whether they simply put students sitting next to each other in pairs.

Pairwork, then, is a way of increasing student participation and language use. It can be used for an enormous number of activities whether speaking, writing or reading.

Groupwork seems to be an extremely attractive idea for a number of reasons. Just as in pairwork, we can mention the increase in the amount of student talking time and we can place emphasis on the opportunities it gives students really to use language to communicate with each other. When all the students in a group are working together to produce an advertisement, for example, they will be communicating with each other and more importantly co-operating among themselves. Students will be teaching and learning in the group exhibiting a degree of self-reliance that simply is not possible when the teacher is acting as a controller.

In some ways groupwork is more dynamic than pairwork: there are more people to react with and against in a group and, therefore, there is a greater possibility of discussion. There is a greater chance that at least one member of the group will be able to solve a problem when it arises, and working in groups is potentially more relaxing than working in pairs, for the latter puts a greater demand on the student's ability to co-operate closely with only one other person. It is also true to say that groupwork tasks can often be more exciting and dynamic than some pairwork tasks.

Of course the worries that apply to pairwork (like the use of the students' native language, noise and indiscipline) apply equally to groupwork: the problems do not seem insuperable, though, and the solutions will be the same as those for pairwork.

Once again the biggest problem is one of selection of group members. Some teachers use what is called a sociogram where, for example, students are asked to write down the name of the student in the class they would most like to have with them if they were stranded on a desert island. This technique certainly tells the teacher who the popular and unpopular students are, but will not help to form groups of equal sizes since popularity is not shared round a class in such a neat way. At the beginning of a course a sociogram may not be appropriate anyway since students will often not know each other.

A lot of teachers form groups where weak and strong students are mixed together. This is often a good thing for the weak students (although there is a danger that they will be overpowered by the stronger members of the group and will thus not participate) and probably does not hinder the stronger students from getting the maximum benefit from the activity. Sometimes, however, it is probably a good idea to make groups of strong students and groups of weaker students.

The teacher can then give the groups different tasks to perform. It is worth pointing out here that one of the major possibilities offered by groupwork is just this fact: that where there are students of different levels and interests in a class, different groups can be formed so that not all the students are necessarily working on the same material at the same time.

Group size is also slightly problematical: in general it is probably safe to say that groups of more than seven students can be unmanageable since the amount of student participation obviously falls and the organisation of the group itself may start to disintegrate. But this is not always the case and a lot depends on the activity being performed.

One other issue confronts us with groupwork, and that is the possibility of having group leaders.

We have already said that different groups may be doing different tasks. There is nothing intrinsically wrong with the idea that while one group is doing a fluency activity, another group should be doing something like an accurate reproduction stage or a listening or reading activity. It may be advantageous in such cases to have one student acting as a group leader. The group leader could have two functions: one would be to act as the group organiser, making sure that a task was properly done, that the information was properly recorded or collected, etc., and the other could be as a mini-teacher where a student could conduct a drill or a dialogue, etc. In the latter case the teacher would have to make sure that the student was properly primed for the task. Certainly in mixed-ability groups (where students do not all have the same level of English) the idea of a student acting as a mini-teacher is attractive. In practice, though, even where groups are leaderless, students tend to take on definite roles. While one student is permanently commenting on what is happening (e.g. 'We seem to be agreeing on this point') another is permanently disagreeing with everybody! Some students seem to need to push the group towards a quick decision while others keep quiet unless they are forced to speak. This seems to be a matter of individual personality and few teachers are equipped to make reasoned judgements about exactly how to handle such situations. Ideally all teachers would take a training in psychology including a lot of work on group dynamics: if teachers have not done this, common sense and a degree of sensitivity seem essential.

Groupwork offers enormous potential. It can be used for oral work, tasks where decisions have to be taken, joint reading tasks, listening tasks, co-operative writing and many other things: it also has the great advantage of allowing different groups of students to be doing different things in the same classroom.

One of the biggest problems in the use of pairwork and groupwork is the use of the mother tongue by students in monolingual groups. It sometimes seems that they are unable or unwilling to take part in activities in English. How can a teacher try to discourage the use of the mother tongue? Should a teacher always discourage it?

If students are speaking in their own language rather than English during an oral communicative activity then clearly the activity is fairly pointless. If, however, students are comparing their answers to reading comprehension questions, or trying to do a vocabulary-matching exercise in pairs then their occasional use of the mother tongue need not concern us. They are concentrating exclusively on English, and if a bit of their own language helps them to do this in a relaxed way that is all to the good. We have already said that teachers may want to have students translate the instructions they have given to check if the students have understood them. In other words, our attitude to the students' use of their own language will change, depending on the activity they and we are involved in.

It is important that students realise that our attitude to their language depends on the activity in question. If they don't know this they will not know why and when we are insisting on 'English only'.

There are three things we can do about the use of the students' language:

(a) Talk to the class

Have a discussion with the students (in their own language if they are beginners) about the use of their language. Get them to understand that whilst sometimes it is not too much of a problem, during oral activities it is not helpful. Ask them what they think the point of communicative activities is and get them to agree that it is essential for them to try and stick to the use of English in such activities even where it is difficult.

(b) During an activity

Encourage the students to use English. Go round the classroom helping students away from their language for this activity. Students will naturally slip into their language unless you remind them and prompt them.

In most classes the use of discussion and explanation, and the prompting of students during activities, ensures that English is used most of the time. With some groups, however, your efforts may not appear to be successful.

(c) Back to basics

With some groups your attempts to have them use English do not work; despite your explanations and promptings, students will not use English. In such cases tell them that as a consequence of this you are not going to use that type of activity any more. Use only tightly controlled activities for pairwork until you are confident that they will take part properly. Then become a little more adventurous and gradually move back in stages towards the use of freer activities in groups.

Individual study is also frequently quiet! This attribute should not be underestimated. Sometimes we need a period of relative silence to reassemble our learning attitudes.

Of course language laboratories, listening centres, learning centres and individual computer terminals are ideal for students working on their own. Where such facilities exist, teachers should try and ensure that self-study is a planned part of the weekly programme. Where they do not exist, however, teachers should not forget the importance of individual study in their enthusiasm for pair and groupwork.

The use of different student groupings must be sensitively handled. While we, as teachers, may be clear on the value of groupwork, for example, students may resent always having to work with their peers. There are occasions where a class needs to have a teacher controlling what is going on. The nature of the task has a lot to do with this as well, as do the students' reactions to each other. In other words, while we may rightly conclude that the use of different student groupings is vital in any language programme we should also use these groupings intelligently and appropriately in order to create positive learning for our students, not provoke negative reactions.

At some stage of their lives all teachers encounter disruptive behaviour – a student or students whose behaviour gets in the way of the class. Such outbursts are frequently hostile to the teacher or the other students and they can be difficult to deal with.

Disruptive behaviour is not confined to one age group. Eleven-year-olds can become incredibly unruly and noisy, and adolescents may become completely unresponsive and unco-operative. Adult students are disruptive in different ways. They may publicly disagree with the teacher or try to become the class character to the detriment of their peers. There are lots of ways of disrupting a class!

One way of avoiding most disruptive behaviour (though not all) is by making sure that all your students of whatever age know 'where you stand'. Somehow you and they have to agree upon a code of conduct. With many adult classes this is an unspoken arrangement: with younger students it may need to be spelled out.

A code of conduct involves the teacher and students in forms of behaviour in the classroom. Certain things do not comply with such forms of behaviour - for example arriving late, interrupting other students when they speak, bringing drinks and food into the room, forgetting to do homework, not paying attention, etc. Where a code of conduct is established both teacher and students will recognise these acts as outside the code";

The teacher's role in the first few classes with a new group will be to establish the code through discussion and example. If this is done it will be easier to show students where they are going wrong later on. It is worth emphasising that the establishment of a code will be done differently, depending on the age of the students. With adults you may discuss the norms of behaviour that should apply, whereas with younger children you may be a bit more dictatorial - although here too the agreement of the class about what the code should be will greatly improve the chances of success.

Now that you have a code of conduct things should be all right. And yet students still behave badly. Why is this?

There seem to be three possible reasons for discipline problems: the

teacher, the students and the institution. We will examine each of these in turn.

The teacher

The behaviour and the attitude of the teacher is perhaps the single most important factor in a classroom, and thus can have a major effect on discipline.

(d) Change the activity

Particularly where a majority of the class seem to be gradually getting out of control, a change of activity will often restore order. Thus a quick writing task will often quieten students down and at the same time provide good writing practice. The same effect can often be achieved by a reading task or a listening exercise.

In general, anti-social behaviour can usually be cured if students are given something to do which will involve them.

(e) After the class

Where one student is continually giving trouble the teacher should probably take that student to one side after the class is over. It will be necessary to explain to the student why the behaviour is anti-social. At the same time the student should be given a chance to say why he or she behaves in this way. The teacher can also clearly spell out the consequences if the disruptive behaviour continues.

(f) Using the institution

When problems become extreme it will be necessary to use the institution -the school or institute - to solve them. Many institutes will then seek the help of the child's parents (where children are concerned). This seems a reasonable thing to do since it is important for parents to be involved in their children's education. They can be contacted in cases of continual lateness, truancy, forgetting to bring materials and bad behaviour.

The institution, of course, has the final power of expulsion or exclusion; it is to be hoped that it is almost never used. The institution does also have the power to warn students of the consequences of their action, to change students from one class to another and to explain to students its attitude towards bad behaviour.

Teachers should not have to suffer serious problems on their own. They should consult their co-ordinators, department heads and principals when they need help.

There are, of course, other possible courses of action where indiscipline takes place; the options we

have looked at avoid the possibility of either physical assault or humiliation: both are seriously wrong particularly for children and adolescents.

We have discussed student groupings and shown how lockstep on its own is not sufficient. We have shown the advantages and disadvantages of pairwork, groupwork and individual study and discussed their importance during the learning process, showing that it is during proup-and pairwork that a lot of real learning (rather than teaching) takes place since the students can really use language to communicate with one another.

We have discussed the difficult problem of discipline and said that it involves a code of conduct designed so that learning can be efficient and effective. We have shown some reasons for indiscipline and we have also suggested some action that can be taken when the code of conduct is not adhered to.

Literature

1. On the role of the teacher see A Wright (1987), and H Widdowson (1987) in more philosophical vein. A McLean's provocative views on the traditional role of the teacher (McLean 1980) are also worth reading. R Gower and S Walters (1983) Chapters 2 and 3 discuss the behaviour of the teacher and the management of a classroom.
2. K Blanchard et al. (1987) in their book Leadership and the One Minute Manager - written for corporation management in the USA - see the extremes in four stages: directing - coaching - supporting - delegating where delegating is directly opposite to the directing (or controlling) role.
3. See C Crouch (1989) for examples of successful 'performance teaching'.
4. See T Lowe (1985).
5. The teacher's role in lockstep can change. W Plumb (1978) shows examples of this.

Рецензент: д.пед.н., профессор Бабаев Д.Б.