Marianna Levrints (Lőrincz)

LEARNING TO TEACH EFFECTIVELY

(for prospective and in-service foreign language teachers)

Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education
Berehove
2020

УДК: 378.141.4
Л−86

This coursebook covers topics related to the problem of quality teaching. In particular, it addresses issues of changing language teacher roles, effective foreign language teaching, language teacher competence, pedagogical mastery, communication in teaching and ineffective teaching. It is intended for prospective and practising teachers of English as a foreign language, although language teacher educators will also find it of relevance.

Recommended to publication by the Academic Council
of Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education,
record No. 1 of February 10, 2020

Prepared at the Publishing Department of Ferenc Rákóczi II
Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education

Author:
Marianna Levrints (Lőrincz)

Proof-reading:
The author

Responsible for publishing:
Ільдіко Орос, Олександр Добош

The author is responsible for the content of the coursebook.

The publication of the coursebook is sponsored by the government of Hungary:

Publishing: *Publishing Department, Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education (Address: Kossuth square 6, 90202, Berehove, Ukraine. Website: www.kmf.uz.ua E-mail: foiskola@kmf.uz.ua Tel.: (00 380-3141) 4-28-29)*
Printing: *"Kálvin" Printing-house (Address: Kossuth Square 4, 90202 Berehove, Ukraine. E-mail: kalvin.nyomda@gmail.com)*

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

ACTFL − the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

CS – communication style

FL – foreign language

FLT – foreign language teaching

FLTE – foreign language teacher education

NBPTS − National Board for Professional Teaching Standards

SCA – socio-communicative style

SLA − second language acquisition

INTRODUCTION

The problem of quality teaching is not novel. Concern over the effectiveness of teaching is as old as the schooling itself. Hundreds of studies have been published addressing the determinants and conditions of productive teaching, providing guidance to teachers on what they should do to attain the desired learning outcomes, and yet it is obvious from the present interest of the academia and teaching professionals that the issue of quality teaching has never been as topical as today. For one thing, teachers do make a difference: they are the single most important factor facilitating learning and academic achievement (Hattie, 2004). Implementation of reforms in the classrooms is also incumbent on teachers. Without teachers' efforts even the soundest reform plans rarely become more than intentions.

Despite the validity of these empirically supported claims, placing the teacher under the microscope of academic attention, giving prescriptions to teachers – human beings with unique beliefs, experiences, stereotypes, characteristics, motivation, individual differences, who are supposed to collaborate with no less unique individuals, i.e. learners − is an extremely complex undertaking. Therefore, in the current foreign language teacher education research there has been an evident shift from positivistic outlook to a more critical stance whereby the search for absolutism, dogma is replaced by regard for the sociocultural contexts in which instructional processes take place, as well as the anthropocentrism as a reflection on the individuals, protagonists of the educational process.

In today's fast-paced changing reality it is becoming almost impossible to provide static answers to many of the questions pertaining to language teaching effectiveness. Therefore, in this book no attempt will be

made at offering universal guidance to student teachers: fit-for-all teaching theories simply do not exist. Instead, the book is prepared with a view of creating a platform for reflection on the multifarious aspects of quality teaching, scaffolding critical thinking, questioning of stereotypes formed over the years spent in schools as learners, thus encouraging them to envisage possible ways of professional development that suit their personalities.

1. EVOLVING LANGUAGE TEACHER ROLES

The idea of knowledge-based society, unseen mobility of population together with information technologies driven changes stipulate the need for revisiting existing practices of education system as a whole and language teacher education in particular. In essence, teachers are often viewed as important agents and precursors of social change, capable of meeting high-caliber expectations of modern world, assisting in the shaping of future generations.

The question raised in this respect concerns the roles teachers are expected to play in light of the developments of education prompted by dynamic societal settings. Not surprisingly, evolving roles of the teacher often "cause unease among those entrenched in traditional approaches to education" (Harden, Crosby, 2000, p. 3), while those with proactive stance are perplexed by the new lists of expectations as prerequisites of expert teaching and scanty research findings to rely on and inform present-day teacher education contexts (Scriven, 1994).

The methodological premise round which the analysis of teacher roles will be carried out is humanistic perspective and related to it learner-centered educational paradigm, together with the concepts of learner autonomy, individualization, differentiation, and life-long learning. Learner-centeredness "involves a recognition of student's potential to contribute meaningfully to the shaping of their learning programme, and then a willingness to accommodate this potential as far as the situation will realistically allow" (Tudor, 1996, p. 282). Rethinking the roles students undertake in light of learner-centeredness certainly necessitates reconsideration of teacher roles and responsibilities.

Another important modification of paradigm identifiable in teacher preparation research is the concept of learning replacing the one of teaching (Persson, 2006, p. 20). Life-long learning critical to fostering ongoing professional and personal development places the teacher on the learning platform. Teacher competence and expertise seem to hinge on their learning, therefore further insight into the problem of professional growth can be gained by way of analyzing the learning process teaching professionals undergo along their career path.

Teacher roles do not easily yield themselves to grouping and classification due to the complexities inherent in the instructional process. It should be mentioned from the outset that any attempt at singling out teacher roles appears factitious and relative, inasmuch as they are inseparable from teachers' professional activity, which presents itself a system.

Although one of the basic roles of the teacher is seen to be *knowledge transmission*, it has undergone an alteration of priorities. In conventional teacher-centered education the teacher exercised a tight control over the learning process, with the students' being merely passive receivers of the information disseminated by the teacher. It has been traditionally believed that the more knowledgeable the teacher is, the more he/she is in control, the better students acquire content knowledge, the higher their academic achievements are. However, new approaches in the educational psychology prioritizing student-centered education have prompted that educators can no longer serve as sole store-houses of knowledge with undue emphasis on the teacher, but rather as caterers of conditions where students learn how to approach and tackle the fast-growing flood of information. In this context, teachers have assumed a new role that of

facilitators of learning, i.e. enabling students to interact with the course content, regulate their own learning.

But even though these two roles are often juxtaposed in academic literature, they reflect vital aspects of teachers' duties and thus should be interwoven. The subject-specific knowledge is by no means to be underestimated. Teachers should strive to deepen their disciplinary knowledge, keeping in line with recent developments in the relevant academic field.

One of the most demanding roles evolving under the influence of the learner-centered perspective is the development of students' personalities, which presupposes creating environment conducive to learner's cognitive, affective, moral and social maturing. School-settings provide unique opportunities for helping forward students' psychological development, the ultimate outcome of which is self-development.

Foreign language classroom in this respect is exceptionally favourable. Foreign language as a school subject is targeted at one of the basic forms of human interaction i.e. oral and written communication and may serve not only as an aim in itself, but as a tool of enhancing ongoing personal development of learners. "Indeed, L2 motivation researchers have always believed that a foreign language is more than a mere communication code that can be learnt similarly to other academic subjects, and have therefore typically adopted paradigms that linked the L2 to the individual's personal 'core,' forming an important part of one's identity" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 9). Moving away from stereotypical view of language learning as the process by which language units of different levels are acquired it becomes apparent that foreign language if perceived

as an instrument of perception of the surrounding world and oneself may serve as a powerful tool of personal development.

Moreover, by skillfully managing teaching-learning process teachers gradually foster *autonomy*, which plays a critically important role in language learning that is virtually ceaseless. It is incumbent on language teachers to encourage learners to assume greater responsibility for their own learning the by-product of which is autonomy. Learner autonomy is believed to scaffold life-long learning as an intrinsically rewarding activity. The final outcome of efficient pedagogical guidance is seen in transferring learning from external constraints of formal instruction towards independent self-regulated engagement, which provides personally meaningful experience.

In terms of classroom instruction, the continuum of concepts learner responsibility – autonomy – ongoing personal development are best envisaged on the basis of the concept of learner-centeredness. In literature on pedagogy it is generally opposed to traditional teacher-centered classroom and advocates the application of methods, techniques, approaches, materials etc. that provide for learners' individual needs. It presupposes a shift in the distribution of the roles between the teacher and the student, making learners assume greater responsibility for their learning outcomes. All this, however, does not diminish teachers' accountability for academic success or failure of their students. New teacher roles are evolving in the learner-centered paradigm i.e. that of a *psychologist*, who can diagnose and attend to students' needs, *manager* who helps learners organize their own learning, and *counselor*, who advises students on the personally tailored learning pathways.

Interwoven with the previous is the role of the teacher as a *socializing agent*. However, if the previous teaching role as a catalyst of personal growth lies in nurturing of moral, aesthetic and other forms of development, the latter prepares students to create and maintain relationships in real social environments, which are more often than not far from being ideal. Educational establishments of all levels, be it kindergarten, primary or high school, are in themselves distinct social institutions, providing students with vast experience of social interaction.

In terms of foreign language as a school curriculum an undeniable importance is attached to the role of the teacher as *a model of language and culture*. Students acquiring a language in the context where the target language does not serve as a means of communication, can get a distorted vision of it being an artificial means of communication, existing only in books or at best in media, while native speakers seem no less fantastic than aliens from outer space. In this respect the teacher should strive to foster and reinforce the image of the target language as an effective means of communication.

Closely connected to the previous role is the function of the language teacher as a culture-transmitter. Deriving from the premise that foreign language learning goes hand in hand with foreign culture learning, language teachers should promote students' understanding and first experience with the target culture by serving as *a target culture role model*.

The current shift of conceptual orientations from teaching to learning have steered academic discussions and practices to the redefinition of the roles of teachers. *Teacher as researcher* pertains to research of the teacher emerging from practice, which has been described in the academic literature as action research. It is the process by which practicing teachers

put new ideas, methods, techniques etc. to test, analyze results of their implementation, drawing conclusions which can inform further steps leading to improvement of teaching and learning outcomes. Moreover, organizing findings rigorously and sharing them with educational community in the form of publications of scholarly or more pragmatic nature, contributes to informed educational theory.

On the teachers' part systemic action research involves analyzing their own learning, teaching practice, professional self-concept, relationship with learners, colleagues etc. Teachers systemically conducting research become reflective about their own learning and teaching, gain deeper understanding of what goes behind the stalls of instructional process, develop competence of applying research methods etc. One obvious advantage of action research is that it activates and sustains personal and professional self-development, which is at the core of life-long learning.

In sum, reassessment of teacher roles in light of humanistic paradigm, learning paradigm and learner-centered approach entails assuming greater responsibility and much deeper insight on both teacher' and learners' part. On the one hand, additional skills may be required of the teacher, like that of a psychologist, being able to exploit the human potential of learners, facilitator of learning, manager of the instructional process, counselor, researcher of one's own learning and teaching practice etc. On the other hand, the new educational paradigm requires on the learners' part deeper awareness of psychological and linguistic foundations of the language acquisition process in order to make sound decisions concerning their language learning goals, plan and implement autonomously language learning pathway.

2. A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING ACCOMPLISHED TEACHING

The quality of teaching is one of the few evergreen problems that enduringly remains under close scrutiny of educational communities and policy-makers. At present with Ukraine's efforts at introducing systemic reforms at all educational levels the problem gains special relevance: practising teachers are conceived of as conduits of innovations and transformations in the educational system. Given the exceptional role of teachers' commitment and quality of their work as catalysts of improvements, further effort into analyzing the problem of excellent teaching should be invested.

Resting on traditions of various schools of thought, academic literature abounds in diverse conceptual frameworks towards interpretation of quality teacher performance. Teachers' professionalism, expertise, pedagogical mastery, professional competence, teacher effectiveness etc. are some of the key concepts which consider interrelated facets of teaching. In the present chapter an attempt will be made to disentangle or at least to delineate the aforementioned concepts used with reference to accomplished teaching.

Disregarding negligible discrepancies in the individual interpretations given by researchers questing the phenomenon of excellence in teaching, in all of the aforementioned concepts reference is made to closely interrelated variables, such as specialized body of knowledge, high level of competence, experiential background, relevant skills, productivity and educational outcomes, commitment, values, qualifications etc.

The concept of expertise is one of the mainstream approaches adopted in studying accomplished teaching, while domestically the concepts of professionalism and mastery are widespread. Expertise is described as an organized body of conceptual and procedural knowledge that can be both readily accessed and used with superior metacognitive skill (MacLellan, Soden, 2003, p. 110). Teaching expertise research focuses around cognitive perspective analyzing and contrasting patterns of decision making by novice and experienced teachers. The emerging results emphasize positive role of experience acquired with practice of teaching.

Expertise in teaching has been summarized by Berliner (2004) in the form of the following propositions: expert teachers often develop automaticity and routinization for the repetitive operations that are needed to accomplish their goals; they are more sensitive to the task demands and social situation when solving pedagogical problems; expert teachers are more opportunistic and flexible in their teaching than are novices; expert teachers represent problems in qualitatively different ways than do novices, expert teachers have fast and accurate pattern recognition capabilities, while novices cannot always make sense of what they experience; they perceive meaningful patterns in the domain in which they are experienced. The researcher maintains that “expertise is specific to a domain, and to particular contexts in domains, and is developed over hundreds and thousands of hours” (Berliner, 2004, p. 13).

In the academic literature terms expertise and *professionalism* appear in common contexts roughly covering interwoven entities (Druzhilov, 2005; Markova, 1996). If compared, research on professionalism and especially teaching mastery are more deeply rooted in the personality

psychology and humanistic approach, while expertise is interpreted largely in light of cognitive theory.

Thus, Druzhylov (2005) regards professionalism as a special human quality to systemically, effectively and reliably perform complicated actions in various settings. It reflects the level of acquisition of psychological structure of professional activity, which matches existing social standards and objective requirements. It is noteworthy that the concept of professionalism is not confined to the characteristics of high quality performance, but is rather treated as a special world outlook (Druzhilov, 2005, p. 27).

Further on, in a range of studies special weighting is suggested for the concept of *pedagogical mastery* used in close relation to the concepts of professionalism and expertise, oftentimes bearing the connotation of a virtuoso performance and artistic inclination. Partly, the tradition can be traced back to the long-lasting debate concerning the primacy of expert knowledge or artistic skill in professional pedagogical activity. Pedagogical mastery is seen as a synthesis of subject-specific knowledge, skills and habits, methodological art and personal qualities of the teacher. In his treatment of effective teaching, Z'azun (1997) makes reference to the exceptional role of the teacher's personality, maintaining that pedagogical mastery is a complex set of personal qualities, which maintains high quality professional activity on the basis of reflection. Although pedagogical mastery manifests itself in the professional activity, it is not confined to it. Also it does not equal highly developed specific skills. The essence of mastery can be related to teachers' personality, their attitude, capacity to use creative initiative on the basis of the system of values. "Pedagogical mastery is the reflection of the teacher's professional

self-concept, self-realization of the teacher's personality in pedagogic activity that contributes to learners' self-development" (Z'azun, 1997, pp. 29−30).

Less common is the treatment of the concepts of professionalism and mastery is juxtaposition in the educational research. Thus, Butkevych (1993) argues that professionalism is grounded in the professionally relevant education and development, while mastery is accumulated as a result of experience or repetition/imitation (Butkevych, 1993).

On this ground it is possible to draw parallels in the understanding of the concepts of expertise and mastery in teaching. Expertise in teaching and mastery alike are often treated as a product of years of teaching acquired only with experience. In the studies on expertise emphasis is put on the supremacy of "knowing how" over "knowing that" (Tsui, 2003). Pedagogical mastery is manifested in the effective attendance to professional tasks, high level of productivity and learning outcomes. However, what makes interpretation of mastery and professionalism distinct from expertise is that the former are construed not only on the cognitive basis, but are rather associated with the personality of the teacher.

Within the psychological domain, professionals are viewed as having a certain type of personality formed as a result of engagement in any given sphere of human activity, which is different from the personality of those individuals not belonging to the professional group. Moreover, professionalism is conceptualized as a systemic personal quality (Druzhylov, 2005) or systemically organized psychic (Klimov, 2003) underpinned by expertise, relevant experience and high levels of productivity. It follows then that the personality of the teacher forms the

core of excellent teaching. Hence, reflection on teachers' personal and professional self-concept, analysis of teachers' psychological characteristics is seen as a starting point on the way to professional development.

Two types of criteria underpinning professionalism are described in the academic literature: external in relation to the teacher (objective) and internal (subjective). The first group includes productivity, quality of teaching etc. The second group of criteria covers the following areas a) professionally relevant personal characteristics; professional knowledge, skills or competence; b) professional motivation; c) professional self-evaluation and the level of aspiration; d) capabilities of self-regulation and stress resistance; e) characteristics of professional interaction. Druzhylov (2005) went on to consider mastery as a stage of "super-professionalism", seen by the author as approaching "acme" – the peak of professional development (Druzhylov, 2005, p. 32).

Three lines of argument are discernable in interpretation of the notion of competence. According to one of the lines of argument, the mainspring of teacher professionalism is pedagogical competence construed as a synthesis of subject-specific, methodological, pedagogical, psychological knowledge of the teacher which allows for manifestation of efficient pedagogical activity (Z'azun, 1997; Katane et al, 2006, p. 44). Additionally, the term competence is specified as a regulated minimum professional standard which teacher candidates are expected to attain.

Broader application of the construct of teaching competence is also rather common. Thus, it encompasses "…a diverse set of capacities, including knowledge, beliefs, and motivational and self-regulatory characteristics, that interact to determine how well teachers are able to

meet the demands of their profession" (Kunter et al, 2013, p. 63). Teaching competence is thus described in terms of a multilevel knowledge base, aptitudes, skills, values, experience, talents that allow for their application in professional situations with the view of demonstrating effective performance and obtaining desirable results.

In the holistic paradigm, competences are viewed as elements of competence i.e. competence is a system based on the interplay of competences (Sandberg, 1994). They have been singled out as units of pedagogical activity acquiring features of prescriptiveness. Competences are usually listed as a set of requirements in competence-based teacher education, which teacher candidates are expected to attain in order to meet the requirements of teacher preparation programmes.

In the sense of the latter broader interpretation, delineation of the concepts of competence and the aforementioned terminology is rather problematic. Nevertheless, the first two approaches make it possible to regard competence as a prerequisite to teaching, an entry level requirement to the profession, while the concepts of expertise, professionalism and mastery are described in terms of experience and are associated with achievement of teachers.

A distinct line of research considers accomplished teaching in light of its *effectiveness*. By and large, teaching effectiveness is conceptualized in terms of impact teachers exert on student learning and in respect to achievement of their professional development goals. In order to produce the desired impact on students' academic, personal and social growth teachers must develop relevant professional knowledge, skills and commitment to students' success which lie in the domain of teaching competence. Teaching competence is the main, but not the only

prerequisite of effective teaching, because there is no immediate connection between pedagogical activity and student learning.

The main difference in the foci of research of the two constructs is that teaching effectiveness is concerned with the productivity of teaching evidenced by students' academic or other gains, while competence relates to teachers' professional knowledge, skills and dispositions, enabling teachers to adequately carry out their professional functions. Additionally, while competence evaluation is part of teacher preparation and development processes, licensure and certification procedures, teacher effectiveness measurements assume greater importance in relation to broader judgements as to the quality of teaching and education.

In sum, comparison of concepts related to quality teaching, such as effectiveness, expertise, professionalism, mastery and competence, has revealed more common points than discrepancies. Most of them are multidimensional and appear to be modelled by combining the following descriptors: professional knowledge, skills, aptitudes, experience, motivation, qualifications etc. Conceptualizing teacher quality, delineating terminology, as well as factors enabling teachers to perform effectively in professional settings is a necessary step that could add more rigour into further investigations. Clearly, research into this issue will always be theoretically and practically profitable by informing teacher education.

3. PEDAGOGICAL MASTERY

In the conceptual model of Z'azun (1997), pedagogical mastery is conceived of as a system revealed in the interplay of components, such as teachers' professional self-concept together with underlying it humanistic orientation, professional competence, capabilities and pedagogical technique.

An essential constituent of pedagogical mastery is *teacher's professional identity*. Indeed, professional growth in such complex an activity as teaching entails transformations within the personality of the teacher. Any attempts at affecting change in professional behaviours, be it at state or any other organizational level, will inevitably fall through if they are not interiorized by the teacher or, in other words, accepted as personally important. In essence, the term professional identity of the teacher is viewed as interiorization of professional values resulting from the match between the profession and the teacher's individual characteristics.

Structurally, professional identity is further delineated into professional motivation with prevailing humanistic orientation and inclination to engage with students, professional qualities, teachers' self-evaluation, teachers' perceived image of an ideal teacher and the image of oneself as an ideal teacher.

Being social in nature, teaching profession has always attracted individuals inclined to working with young people. Numerous research findings suggest that dealing with learners, feeling closely related to them, engaging with their favourite subject and personal self-development help teaching professionals forego many hardships associated with teaching

(Csickszentmihaly, 1997). Deeply imbedded in the motivation of the teaching professionals is humanistic orientation i.e. perception of the human being as an absolute value and also reflected in the psychological need to maintain contact with students.

Teaching capabilities

It has been observed that most novice teachers even with the soundest background knowledge of the subject and generally high academic achievements experience difficulties when placed in real school context. There seems to be a special catalyst at work that enhances the acquisition and transformation of theoretical knowledge into practical domain readily available for teachers. Capabilities also provide a foundation for attaining expertise, interpreted in the academic literature as an ensemble of personal qualities of the teacher, congruent with the nature of pedagogical activity. Individuals endowed with these capabilities exercise more control in professional contexts, achieving higher academic gains in learners (Zanina et al, 2003, p. 91).

Capabilities are dynamic in nature, hence they are not treated as something static and unchangeable. Depending on the plethora of psychological variables (e.g. memory, thinking, perception, volition, affective features etc.), they evolve under the influence of many factors. For example, critical to the development of teaching capabilities is positive interpersonal communication within school settings, and especially staying in touch with teachers who demonstrate various capability structures (Zimnyaa, 2006).

A noteworthy issue to be addressed in the context of FL teacher education is the construct of *language aptitude*. Language proficiency level is one of the strongest predictors of effective teaching (Farrel,

Richards, 2007; Tsui, 2003). In considering factors enhancing or detaining language acquisition reference is made to a host of factors, such as learners' age, social and psychological dimensions, learning strategies, affective components etc. However, one of the strongest predictors related to language acquisition success has been found to be language aptitude (Dörnyei, Skehan, 2003, p. 589).

Language aptitude is a composite term generally applied to facility for acquiring a foreign language. Language aptitude accounts for the differentiated rate of language acquisition in similar learning conditions. Language aptitude research has been mostly concerned with the development of instruments for measuring the respective construct. Language learning aptitude is assessed on the basis of specially developed language aptitude tests aimed at predicting learners' capacity for language acquisition, the level of language proficiency the learner is capable of attaining and the rate of its acquisition.

Three major strands of enquiry into the construct of language aptitude were discernable in the previous decades:

a) language aptitude is featured with regard to capabilities demonstrated in various aspects of language skills, processes of reception and production of the language;

b) language aptitude is predetermined by cognitive processes of thinking, information processing, memory, perception, which are key to language acquisition capabilities (cognitive line of research);

c) individual psychological factors and personality traits: volition, emotions, temperament, extroversion/introversion, attitudes, motivation, anxiety etc. (affective line of research).

A prominent example of the first line of research is Carroll's (1981) concept of language aptitude based on the premise that it consists of 4 measurable components:

a) *phonetic coding ability* − an ability to code the sounds, to form associations between these sounds so that they can be remembered;

b) *grammatical sensitivity* − an ability to identify grammatical forms and deduce grammatical rules;

c) *rote learning ability* described as an ability to commit to memory large numbers of associations between sound forms and meanings;

d) *inductive language learning ability* – an ability to deduce rules on the basis of which language operates by analysing language input (Carol, 1981).

Within the second line of research significant interdependence was reported between the level of development of psychological parameters and language mastery 1) memory; 2) probability prediction; 3) rapidity of language generalization (language rules inference); 4) auditory differential sensitivity (Zimnyaa, 1991).

The final strand of inquiry with its focus on the personality of the language learner adds one more valuable dimension to the study of language aptitude overlooked in some way in the aforementioned lines of research. Personal qualities serving as a springboard for a gamut of affective variables (motivation, self-efficacy beliefs, anxiety etc.), together with the notoriously underemphasized in the previous lines of research communicative capabilities are given due attention.

The first two approaches to the study of language aptitude view it from a cognitive standpoint as closely related to academic capabilities. As such, they are considered to be innate by most researchers and not easily

modifiable throughout the individual's lifespan. The third approach according to which language aptitude is more of an affective variable, related to personality traits sends a more optimistic message to language educators. Indeed, personal involvement, interest, persistence and other components tend to assume greater importance in language learning than such inborn variables as memory, intelligence etc.

A more comprehensive approach encompassing the aforementioned parameters of psychological processes, personality traits, pertaining to language processing and communicative skills is yet to be developed which could account more fully for the degree of success/failure of language mastery.

Pedagogical technique

The fourth element of pedagogical mastery is pedagogical technique which underscores the outcomes of teachers' endeavours at achieving instructional goals. Pertaining to teachers' professional behaviour, pedagogical technique subsumes two groups of related skills:

1) self-regulation skills (regulating one's emotions, attention, speech, imagination, body movement, gestures, etc.);

2) skills of exerting influence on the participants of the instructional process entailing linguistic and extra-linguistic means.

Pedagogical technique is central to the understanding of the relationship between teaching competence and productivity of teaching. It mediates teachers' plans helping forward their transformation into learning results congruent with the initial goals set by teachers, i.e. identical content related to students monotonously or with signs of anxiety yield results markedly different from those delivered by teachers clearly and enthusiastically.

Stages of Professional Development

Instigated by a deepening understanding of the processes underpinning professional development of teachers, recent accounts of researchers suggest the shift of paradigm from teaching to learning with their focus on the learning of the teacher. Professionalism and competence of the teacher are seen to hinge on their learning, therefore further insight into the problem of professional growth can be gained through the analysis of the learning process teaching professionals undergo along their career path.

Life-long learning critical to fostering ongoing professional and personal development places the teacher on the learning platform which necessitates new approaches to the study of the stages of professional growth from a beginner to a seasoned professional. Underlying criteria of delineating stages of professional development serve as a starting point of the available classifications suggested in the academic literature.

A five-stage theory worked out by Berliner (2004) describes the stages teachers undergo in their professional development and what knowledge they gain under the impact of experience throughout the continuum of developmental stages.

1. the novice stage of development – during the first and second years of teaching beginning teachers gain initial experience and learn the commonalities of the professional activity;

2. advanced beginner stage of development – as a rule the second and third year teachers reach this stage. The transition from novice to advanced beginner is characterized by the accumulation of experience, case knowledge and practical knowledge (occasions from day-to-day classroom life);

3. the competent stage is normally reached after the third, fourth and fifth years of teaching. However, not all teachers attain this stage of professional development. The two distinguishing features of competent teaching emphasized by the author are consciousness of choice teachers make, clearly envisaging goals, plans they implement while engaging in professional activity. Second, ability to discern priorities or to distinguish what is more important and what can be ignored, which cases need their immediate attendance or can be postponed etc. Yet competent teachers are not sufficiently fast or flexible.

4. the proficient stage of development – this stage can be reached approximately after five years of teaching practice. Due to the wealth of experience the proficient teacher develops intuition that prompts the way professional tasks and cases are approached.

5. the expert stage of development is characterized by fluid performance compared by the author with grand masters of chess. Experts develop an ability to intuitively, non-analytically perceive patterns in pedagogical situations and act in an effortless manner in the most appropriate way. They go "with the flow" and act analytically and deliberately only in atypical situations.

An insightful classification of pedagogical mastery with the learners' personality and teacher/learner interrelation at its core was offered by Z'azun (1997):

Elementary – the teacher demonstrates competences necessary for efficient teaching, such as disciplinary knowledge, as well as pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. However, given the lack of commitment to the development of learners, the level of productivity of teachers' work and learning gains is low.

Basic level – teaching and relationship with learners is humanistically oriented; teachers demonstrate sound disciplinary knowledge, establish methodologically sound learning environment.

Proficient level – high quality teaching with profound knowledge of the subject matter, pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge; the proficient teachers plan, organize and manage instruction over vast time spans with the main focus on the development of learners' personality.

Creative level – the highest level. Teachers design original instructional models of interaction, having an accomplished individual style of professional activity (Z'azun,1997, p. 37).

4. EFFECTIVE FOREIGN LANGAUGE TEACHING: TOWARDS A COMPREHENSIVE DEFINITION

Effective teaching is high on the agenda of educational research. In general education teaching effectiveness issues date back to the beginnings of schooling as a social institution, having gained remarkable currency at the turn of the millennium. The scholarly and public interest in the problem of effective teaching is spurred by empirical evidence of teachers' impact on student achievement and implementation of educational reforms (UNESCO, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2010). Teachers are viewed as the principal resource of ensuring quality in education (McCaffrey et al, 2003).

Literature on effective teaching is abundant and contradictory. Definitions of teacher effectiveness are domain-, context- and time-specific. Understanding of what constitutes quality teaching is gleaned from the field of knowledge teacher specialises in i.e. the attributes of effective teaching of sciences differ from the way foreign languages should be taught. Ability to initialise and sustain genuine communication is definitely more important for a language teacher than the physics teacher.

The advance of the sociocultural perspective has resulted in the focus on the interplay between the environment in which instruction takes place and interpretation of effective teaching. Critically important in the current effective teaching research is the study of the culturally determined views held by educational communities. There are marked differences in the assumptions held with respect to excellence in education across continents, countries, cultures or even smaller organisations. Also, effective teaching

perceptions vary according to educational levels or, in other words, what is perceived as effective teaching in the context of primary education differs from the tertiary level.

The interpretation of effective teaching is time-specific in the sense that it evolves in line with the developments within any given field of knowledge or policy discourse. In the realm of foreign language education the perception of what constitutes effective FL acquisition is informed by SLA (second language acquisition) research findings, evidence and experience gleaned from the methods of FLT, as well as policy discussions as to the strategic aims of language learning. For instance, in Ukraine one of the recent trends prompted by lingual globalisation and the country's EU integration aspirations has become the adoption of multiple government initiatives aimed at raising the level of FL education to the world standards, such as the "Conceptual foundations of the state policy concerning the development of English in the sphere of higher education. Project of the Ministry of Education" (2019) or "The concept of Ukraine's popularisation in the world and promotion of Ukraine's interests in the global information space" (2016). The aforementioned normative documents stipulate advanced FL mastery which would enable the citizens of Ukraine to become full participants in the globalised world education arena etc. As a corollary, the field of FL education in Ukraine has seen an unprecedented rise of expectations towards the level of students' FL proficiency. The adjustments in the perceptions of FL teaching quality and acquisition followed accordingly.

Literature analysis pertinent to the study has revealed three central axes across which the conceptualisation and evaluation of teaching

effectiveness is carried out, which can be termed personal, actional and productional.

1. The personal axis embraces professional knowledge and skills of teachers, dispositions, motivation for teaching, characteristics etc.

2. The actional axis relates to teachers' use of professional knowledge, skills, characteristics, personal traits etc. in the instructional process to achieve learning objectives of students. Teachers' efforts at professional and personal growth can also be placed in the actional domain.

3. The productional axis presumes teachers' ability to achieve the desired outcomes of instruction, high level of academic achievement, students' active involvement, their positive attitude towards the subject, motivation etc.

This final axis is used for the purpose of measuring the effect of teachers' influence on student achievements. Most commonly it is the only basis of definition and evaluation of teaching effectiveness. However, a few researchers have recently pointed out the inconsistency of teaching effectiveness judgements made solely on the basis of students' test scores (Fenstermacher, Richardson, 2000; Goe et al, 2008). Productive teaching manifested in test score gains termed by Fenstermacher and Richardson (2000) as "successful teaching" is not always the result of "good teaching" which is understood as teachers' capabilities of establishing conditions conducive to learning (Fenstermacher, Richardson, 2000). Academic achievement is subject to the influence of an array of determinants many of which fall outside teachers' control. Therefore, in conceptualising effective teaching it is more reasonable to regard different aspects including the clusters presented in the personal axis, such as competence,

capabilities, characteristics, motivation, commitment to students' learning, as well as the actional axis i.e. using teachers' personal accomplishments, characteristics, qualifications in creating optimal learning conditions, with the productional axis finalising it.

The personal and actional axes can be linked to teachers' efforts more or less straightforwardly. Though indirectly the productional axis is also related to the quality of teaching. It is therefore necessary to synthesize the many-sided dimensions of the educational processes in defining and evaluating effective teaching. Additionally, in establishing the criteria of effective teaching the contextual characteristics including the levels of schools and communities cannot be overlooked (Leu, 2005).

Teaching effectiveness is thus a three-pronged complex entity made up of the personal, actional and productional axes which presuppose the availability of professional knowledge, skills, dispositions, characteristics etc. manifested in teacher's ability to establish optimal educational conditions related to students' academic, attitudinal and personal gains within any given sociocultural milieu.

It follows from the above definition that the constructs of effective teaching and competence overlap in many respects. Competence, usually decomposed into professional knowledge, skills and dispositions, forms the foundation of effective teaching and is regarded as an entry level requirement into the teaching profession. Conversely, one of the important constituents of effective teaching is the idea of productivity or resultativeness of teacher's work in terms of learning gains which is not accentuated in the mainstream teaching competence definitions.

It would be tempting to concede that teaching competence in most cases results in positive learning outcomes, yet for learning to occur

different factors need to be in place, many of which have little to do with teachers' influence or efforts, such as learner aptitude, class size, educational resources etc. One of the widely cited studies examining learning progress factors by Hattie (2003) sheds light on the proportions of teacher-dependant and other factors which account for variance in students' achievement. According to his estimates 50% of the variance is students' progress is attributed to students themselves, like, for example, their abilities. Mere 5−10% of the variance in student progress depends on the home effects; 5−10% depends on the schools i.e. the finances, class size, resources etc. 5−10% is determined by the influence of peers. Finally, teachers account for approximately 30% of the variance in students' achievement which is the second strongest predictor of successful learning (Hattie, 2003, pp. 1−2). Similar findings as to the proportion of teachers' influence on learning progress were obtained by Hay McBer (2000). A noteworthy finding of his study is that 30% of the variance in pupil achievements is attributed to the influence of teachers. Among the factors within teachers' control the author singles out teaching skills, professional characteristics and classroom climate (Hay McBer, 2000, p. 9). The author explains that "pupil progress results from the successful application of subject knowledge and subject teaching methods, using a combination of appropriate teaching skills and professional characteristics" (Hay McBer, 2000, p. 8). Thus, the assumption of interdependence between teaching quality and learning gains is cogent.

At the forefront of teaching quality discussions are the factors contributing to teacher effectiveness. In a group of studies specific teacher characteristics are identified which conceivably increase learning outcomes. Teacher characteristics are recurring models of behaviour and

traits displayed by teachers in educational settings. Based on the results of a large-scale study Hay McBer (2000) identified a set of teacher characteristics contributing to teaching productiveness, which were grouped into 5 clusters. Successful learning and effective teaching require the application of all 5 clusters.

1) Professionalism cluster involves respect for pupils and other members of the educational process, challenge and support of learners, confidence in students' success, creating trust by being consistent and fair.

2) Thinking cluster includes analytical and conceptual thinking.

3) Planning and setting expectations cluster refers to such characteristics as "drive for improvement" exhibited in setting challenges for students and helping them to meet those challenges; "information seeking" refers to cognitive curiosity; "initiative" – the drive to act at the heat of the moment.

4) Leading cluster concerns teachers' managerial abilities. The relevant characteristics are the ability to "manage pupils", demonstrating a "passion for learning" i.e. creating stimulating learning atmosphere, a high degree of "flexibility" adapting to the demands of the situation and, finally, "holding people accountable" for performance.

5) Relating to others cluster is made up of three groups of characteristics: "understanding others" or empathy, psychological shrewdness, vigilance, "impact and influence" on learners' performance and "team working" i.e. ability to establish positive relationships with the protagonists of the educational process (Hay McBer, 2000, pp. 19−27).

Qualities believed to be necessary for effective teaching have been summarised by Darling-Hammond and Ducommun (2010):

- general intelligence and communicative competence which help teachers to provide clear instruction, observe, evaluate and predict its outcomes;
- adequate subject-matter knowledge;
- knowledge of methods of teaching the respective subject;
- knowing learners and principles of their development, scaffolding learning (knowledge of pedagogy and educational psychology);
- ability to adapt to the contextual demands and to respond to learners' needs etc.

It is possible to draw parallels between the aforementioned qualities and the strand of research into the knowledge-base of FL teachers. Several taxonomies of the language teachers' professional knowledge-base have been put forward in the academic literature, the main components of which overlap with the list of qualities cited above (see Schulman, 1986; Day, Conklin, 1992; Roberts, 1998; Richards, 1998).

Principles of effective teaching as implications to consider for language specialists can be worked out on the basis of available research findings (Brophy, 2006; Danielson, 2007; Good et al, 2009; Warner, 2016):

- *Setting realistic expectations*. The expectations of students' performance ought to be slightly higher than their present stage of competence. If the learning goals are conceived of as unattainable students will most likely be deterred from trying. On the other hand, too easy, unchallenging tasks decrease learners' interest.

- *Creating supportive learning environment*. In light of social constructivism cognitive development occurs within and under the influence of social environment (Vygotsky, 1978). Learning is stipulated by caring supportive classroom atmosphere where the teacher-learner relationship rests on mutual respect, trust, partnership, cooperation etc.
- *Keeping students highly engaged and motivated*. Providing students with relevant learning materials taking into account their individual needs and interests promotes their active involvement in academic tasks.
- *Careful planning of the instructional process*. Thoughtful preparation of instructional tasks based on learners' needs analysis and highly organised, skilfully managed teaching are indispensable for academic achievement.
- *Clear and thoughtful discourse*. Teacher clarity i.e. ability to present the instructional material, organise practice, communicate expectations and learning goals in understandable forms fosters student achievement. The discussion and exploration of the instructional material and basic concepts should also be planned in advance.
- *Genuine communication*. Creating genuine communicative needs is a notoriously difficult undertaking but is indispensable in the FL classroom. Oral tasks do not equal communication. Communication presupposes unpredictability while the speaking tasks given in the lessons rarely include this element.

- *Communicating enthusiasm to learners and belief in their success*. If the teacher demonstrates interest, enthusiasm, cognitive curiosity in the subject taught, learners are more likely to develop intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy beliefs.
- *Ample and contextualised practice*. Application of the learning material in various contexts spread over a period of time scaffolds its retention, e.g. demonstrating the use of vocabulary items or grammatical structures in different situations of communication, the need to recall and recontextualise them interspersed in time is essential for their cognitive processing and transfer into long-term memory.
- *Integrated language instruction, interdisciplinary approach*. Under the influence of lingual globalisation one of the recent trends in the conceptualisation of effective teaching in general and language teaching in particular has become an emphasis on the integrated language and content area instruction. In line with this trend the field of FL teaching has seen the spread of approaches based on the premises of interdisciplinarity, such as content-based language instruction, task-based language learning, English for specific purposes etc.

Effective FL teaching is determined by the general attributes of quality teaching, as well as the nature of language acquisition and educational objectives. Since the goals of language learning are dynamic, it is next to impossible to come up with a finite, static definition of effective FL teaching.

As compared to general teacher effectiveness research, there is a paucity of studies addressing the specifics of quality language teaching. Some of the aspects of effective FL teaching are considered by Bell (2005), Brosch (1996), Pennington and Richards (2016), Farrel (2015), Schulz (2000) and others. Characteristics of effective FL teachers are elucidated by Brosch (1996), Stronge (2007), discipline-specific features of FL are studied by Borg (2006), Grossman (1993), effective FL teaching behaviour is examined by Prodromou (1991), Reber (2001), and Sanderson (1993). If one concedes that effective FL teaching depends on the nature of language acquisition and teaching methods, then the study of distinctive characteristics of language teachers gains relevance. An insightful exploratory study into the language teachers' distinctiveness as compared to teachers of other subjects was carried out by Borg (2006) with the participation of 200 practising and prospective teachers of English as a foreign language. The author concludes that language teachers differ from their colleagues "in terms of the nature of the subject, the content of teaching, the teaching methodology, teacher-learner relationships, and contrast between native and non-native speakers" (Borg, 2006, p. 3).

Though not directly related to the topic of our study, its research implications are of special significance in identifying determinants of effective FL teaching. According to the criterion "the nature of the subject" singled out by the author, language develops and changes faster than other subjects and is of more practical relevance to students' life experience, which undergirds the importance of teachers' keeping abreast of innovations, life-long learning. In addition, language learning is notoriously time-consuming and labour-intensive, whereas material from

other content areas can be covered faster. Hence, effective FL teaching requires extended efforts on the teacher's part aimed at self-development.

According to the criterion "the content of teaching", the distinctive properties of the discipline are its universal nature, complexity and volume. FL teaching is no longer limited to the development of the four language skills (speaking, writing, listening and reading) or to the acquisition of its linguistic side. Furthermore, it is concerned with the study of the target language culture, its history, traditions etc. It follows that effective FL teaching moves far behind the confines of the development of students' knowledge of the linguistic aspects towards expanding their erudition, sociocultural literacy, world outlook, global competences etc. which requires the respective knowledge and skills on teachers' part.

As to the "methodology criterion" language teaching requires the application of more diverse approaches, methods and techniques. The findings of the study revealed that language teachers are believed to be in possession of a wider arsenal of didactic tools as a consequence of the subject's complexity and the need to engage learners in natural communication. Therefore, effective FL teachers should be capable of selecting the most appropriate teaching tools and trajectories suited for particular instructional contexts. Effective FL teachers are supposed to make informed decisions in light of "principled pragmatism" (Tarnopolsky, 2018) or "enlightened eclecticism" (Kumaradivelu, 2003, 2006) conceptions which deny the existence of dogma and universal teaching methods, hinging on the idea of complex application of didactic means congruent with the situational and individual demands.

The “teacher-learner relationship” criterion stresses the distinct atmosphere in the FL classrooms stemming from the nature of the discipline where communication is the main instructional means and the learning target. The participants of the study agreed that relationships between language teachers and learners were more positive and closer as compared to those of other subjects because during discussions students often relate to their life experience in this way making communication more personal. Effective FL teaching is enhanced through positive classroom climate and relationships with students which, in its turn, require increase of respective teaching competences.

The “teachers’ characteristics” criterion assumes such personal qualities as creativity, flexibility, enthusiasm, sense of humour etc. (Borg, 2006). Indeed, good communicators are as a rule skilful and interesting interlocutors. In case of language teaching where the instructional material is both a means and medium of instruction, the qualities essential for effective communication are indispensable. Prerequisites of effective FL teaching include increased communication competence, skills of initiating, steering, sustaining authentic communication, creating communication needs.

Consideration of subject-specific attributes can further advance our understanding of effective FL teaching. Thus, language teaching is regarded effective on condition the strategic objectives and principles of language learning are enacted. The main decisions with respect to such goals are made at the level of state language policies, mutual understanding reached as a result of academic and educational discourse and its progress.

In Reber's (2001) opinion, in the field of FL education the definition of effective teaching evolves under the influence of language teaching approaches and methods (Reber, 2002, p. 11). A shift from analytical towards utility approaches (from language analysis to language use) has brought about considerable changes in the treatment of language learning and acquisition objectives. At the dawn of the language learning approaches (19th century to early 20th century) effective FL teaching presupposed declamation of grammatical rules and skills of translation which embodied the aim of language learning in the grammar-translation approach. It stands in stark contrast with the contemporary emphasis on communication, fluency and appropriacy of language use. In the course of evolution of language teaching approaches the aims of language learning fluctuated between emphasis on language analysis and language use (Celce-Murcia, 1991), determining the way quality FL teaching was perceived.

The recent developments in FL teaching methodology, including integrated language teaching (content-based language instruction, FL for specific purposes), computer-assisted language learning, intercultural approach, task-based language learning point out the priorities of language education and serve as a starting point of effective FL teaching discussions. The current post-method era permeating the field of FL education has placed greater demands on the competence of language teachers. At the time of dominant methodologies a language teacher was deemed competent on condition of skilful application of one particular approach, whereas at present in order to be able to select appropriate didactic pathways congruent with situational and individual needs the teacher must develop more profound knowledge and skills.

A group of studies seeking to understand the recurrent teaching behaviours and qualities that make for effective FL teaching has emerged in the academic literature (Bell, 2008; Brosch, 1996; Farrel, 2015; Reber, 2001), though their contribution still lags behind the field effective teaching research in general education.

Characteristics associated with effective FL teaching were identified by Brosch (1996), who maintains that in order to function effectively FL teachers need a thorough command of the target language, be able to organise the instructional process, explain and clarify the material, arouse and sustain learners' interest and motivation. Such traits as fairness, availability to students, and unprejudiced treatment of all learners received high ratings of the research participants. One of the merits of the study is the comparison and synthesis of results obtained from both language teachers and learners (Brosch, 1996). Three categories central to effective FL teaching were identified in the study of Pettis (1997), such as deep professional knowledge and skills, professional interest and needs developed over the teaching career span, and commitment to professional development. According to Bell's (2005) findings the main contributors of effective FL teaching are relevant teaching qualifications, knowledge of general theories and behaviours related to communicative theories of FL teaching, small group work and negotiation of meaning, selected strategies in FL learning, and adequate assessment procedures (Bell, 2005, p. 266).

A synthesis of 30 studies related to FL teacher effectiveness conducted by Dincer et al (2013) revealed four categories: socio-affective skills, pedagogical knowledge, subject-matter knowledge and personality characteristics. The socio-affective skills include such items as motivating learners, availability to students and readiness to help, enthusiasm, positive

relationship with students, creating stress-free atmosphere in the lessons etc. Pedagogical knowledge embraces a set of knowledge and skills needed in organising and managing language instruction. Subject-matter knowledge refers to the target language proficiency, knowledge of its culture, literature, linguistics etc. Personal characteristics important for language teachers are enthusiasm, optimism, tolerance, patience, kindness, flexibility, caring for students and others (Dincer et al, 2013). Other studies examining personal qualities of teachers which contribute to effective FL teaching mention the following traits: high expectations, the sense of humour, enthusiasm, creativity (Malikow, 2006) and caring for students, respect, fairness, motivation, commitment to teaching, reflection (Tajeddin et al, 2019).

Taking all the above into consideration, effective FL teaching can be defined as an adequate application of professional competence in the instructional process leading to students' academic, attitudinal and personal gains, congruent with the objectives/standards of language education, contextual indicators, field developments, exposed in teachers' commitment to students' growth, and to professional and personal self-development.

Thus, a comprehensive definition of effective FL teaching is multifaceted overarching general and discipline-specific aspects of teaching, dynamic in the sense that assumptions, objectives and policies regarding language education are in constant flux and development, as well as context-specific mindful of the environment in which instruction takes place.

The conceptualisation of effective teaching is done along the personal, actional and productional axes. The personal axis includes

professional knowledge and skills, dispositions, motivation for teaching, characteristics etc. The actional axis relates to the application of the personal axis in instruction and teachers' professional development. The productional axis pertains to teachers' ability to exert positive impact on learners' academic and personal outcomes. The three axes stand in relation of dialectal unity to each other. The consensus as to what constitutes effective FL teaching should be derived from the distinctive characteristics of the FL as a discipline, nature of language learning and acquisition, identifiable effective teaching behaviours conducive to learners' academic gains, the FL education priorities stipulated by language policies. Due to its extreme complexity, arriving at a universal static definition of effective FL teaching applicable to various national contexts is next to impossible.

5. FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER COMPETENCE: IMPLICATIONS FOR UKRAINE

The recent turn to competence-based teacher education paradigm prioritizes professional competence development a s the strategic aim of teacher preparation in Ukraine and worldwide. Competence underpins accomplished teaching being a prerequisite for entering the profession (Liakopoulou, 2011). Quality assurance procedures, standards of teacher preparation and development rely on the shared understanding of academic and educational communities of explicitly expressed expectations for teachers embodied in the shape of professional competences. The need for defining teacher competence is underlined in the report of the European Commission (2013) prepared with the aim of serving as a basis for setting requirements/objectives of initial teacher education programmes, teaching candidates' selection and recruitment, analysis of teachers' needs for professional development and providing such opportunities so that teachers continually increase their professional competences (European Commission, 2013, p. 5).

The lack of clear understanding of the nature of competent teaching, overall conceptual ambiguity of the problem in research impedes teacher preparation systems in causing desirable changes in the curricula design and outcomes of teacher preparation in light of competence-based teacher education, which necessitates the concept's elucidation. On the basis of a detailed analysis five groups of definitions of competence were synthesized by Kouwenhowen (2003):

1) competence is viewed as the ability to act according to accepted standards;

2) competence is treated as the ability to select and deploy the characteristics (knowledge, skills, and attitudes) in order to achieve the desired goals;

3) competence is the availability of respective characteristics (knowledge, skills, and dispositions);

4) competence is defined by some researchers as the description of what one can do;

5) more comprehensive definitions including the elements of the aforementioned groups of definitions (Kouwenhowen, 2003, p. 53).

Summarising the salient features of the respective interpretations the author puts forward his own elaborate definition by outlining its essential components: "competency 1. is the capability 2. to choose and use (apply) 3. an integrated cluster of knowledge, skills and attitudes 4. with the intention to perform a role or realise a task 5. in a specific (work) context 6. according to a certain standard 7. taking into account personal characteristics such as motivation and willpower (Kouwenhowen, 2003, p. 68).

In the educational research competence is bound up with the judgements over the results/outcomes of teacher preparation revealed in the readiness of teacher candidates to fulfil their professional obligations, as well as in the evaluations of teaching competence. In Ukraine competence as a didactic category is described as:

1) a quality formed in the result of professional training exhibited in teaching candidates' readiness to effectively perform their professional functions;

2) the ability to act effectively in various professional situations and adapt to the situational demands;

3) an intellectual new formation or psychological capability enabling a person to carry out professional tasks;

4) a threshold entry level to profession which concerns the correspondence of personal characteristics with the characteristics of the profession. It reflects the potential of an individual to excel in a given professional field (Вовк, 2013, с. 86−87).

Thus, in the given definitions competence is viewed in relation to outcomes of education, accepted standards of performance, as an individual quality, the minimum level of development of professional knowledge and skills, or as a foundation of professionalism.

In teacher education the construct of competence is treated as a complex of professional knowledge, skills, dispositions, personal characteristics, values, which empower teachers to carry out their professional tasks effectively and appropriately in a particular context (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Koster, Dengerihk, 2008, p. 139). In the context of teacher preparation the research of teaching competence is associated with two main perspectives. On the one hand, research focuses on the conditions and factors leading to optimised initial teacher preparation. On the other hand, establishing criteria for accomplished teaching serves to strengthen the professional status of the group, stimulates debates and initiatives of quality education provision.

Although the components of competence are closely intertwined and integrated in the act of teaching and in shaping teacher's professional identity, for the sake of convenience they will be decomposed in the study.

Professional knowledge

Attempts to identify the knowledge-base of foreign language teacher education (FLTE) revolve around the questions of what FL teachers need to know, how they acquire this knowledge, how it is put to practice to attain the desired goals of language education, and how this knowledge-base should be reflected in teacher education programmes in terms of curriculum design.

The quest for answers to the first question has produced several classifications of the knowledge-base needed for language teachers. In Day and Conclin's (1992) classification four components of professional knowledge are singled out:

1) content knowledge or subject matter knowledge including language proficiency and knowledge of the linguistic aspects;

2) pedagogic knowledge or general knowledge of the principles of teaching irrespective of the subject;

3) pedagogic content knowledge or knowledge of the principles of FL teaching;

4) support knowledge or knowledge of the related disciplines (second language acquisition, research methods, linguistics etc.) (Day, Conclin, 1992).

According to Lafayette (1993) the professional knowledge-base in language teaching embraces three aspects: language proficiency or knowledge of language; knowledge of civilisation and culture; language analysis or knowledge about language. In language teacher education the prerogative is given to the development of the knowledge of language, the cycle of linguistic disciplines, applied linguistics, second language acquisition etc. (Lafayette, 1993). In Richards' (1998) classification the

professional knowledge is decomposed into six areas: theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills and language proficiency, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge (Richards, 1998).

Comparison of the classifications available in literature reveals the overall emphasis on language proficiency and pedagogical content knowledge. However, in Richards' framework the situated nature of language teachers' professional knowledge is accentuated, suggesting that what teachers know about language teaching and the way they teach evolves in specific educational and sociocultural settings. The shift in the interpretation of language teachers' professional knowledge was prompted by the influence of the sociocultural perspective whereby it is construed as a dynamic and context-specific entity much dependant on the cultural and social understandings and practices. In the similar vein, Freeman and Johnson (1998) ground their epistemic views of language teacher education on the premises of the sociocultural paradigm calling for the necessity to reconceptualise its knowledge-base around three domains: emphasis on teachers as learners of language teaching, the social contexts (understanding schools and schooling as contexts for teacher learning) and the pedagogical process (understanding the activity of teaching and learning as it is experienced by learners and teachers) (Freeman, Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2001).

The publication of the cited works signalled a new shift in the research of the field of FLTE, putting the teacher at the forefront of the process of professional knowledge construction, its acquisition, and development of the theory of teacher learning. Formerly teachers were viewed as passive recipients and consumers of pedagogical and linguistic

theory. The current understanding of the language teachers' roles has expanded to include their co-authorship or co-construction of the field's conceptual orientations. What teachers know is shaped more by internal processes related to teacher learning and experience as contrasted to external influences. Although formal teacher education is central to teacher learning, it is only an initial experience further developed in the course of professional activity. Insight gained from the analysis of teaching activity can significantly contribute to the way FL professional knowledge-base is defined. Additional weighting in the framework of teacher learning is suggested for the sociocultural context shaping the dynamics of teacher development. Schools and schooling, Johnson and Freeman (2001) contend, exert a powerful impact on teacher learning, where professional meanings and values held by teachers are crystalized (Johnson, Freeman, 2001, p. 59). As such, in defining the knowledge-base of FLTE the regard for contextual factors is crucial. In his later publication Richards (2008) points to the interplay of teacher learning and contextual factors in identifying the knowledge-base of the field of language teacher education, arguing that teacher learning should be viewed as construction of new knowledge and theory by the teacher in particular social environments while engaging in professional activity (Richards, 2008, p. 164).

The main insights provided by the language teachers' professional knowledge debates can be summarised as follows:

- teachers possess a unique system of knowledge about teaching which distinguishes them from non-teaching professionals or the so-called insider knowledge (Freeman, 2002, p. 8);

- professional knowledge is accumulated in the result of language learning and teaching experience (Lortie, 1975; Golombek, 1998);
- teachers learn to teach to lesser extent in the result of formal education, and to a greater degree while engaging in professional activity in a particular sociocultural context (Johnson, Freeman 2001; Richards, 2008);
- professional knowledge is dynamic and develops throughout teaching career (Johnson, Freeman, 2001).

Central element in the structure of language teachers' professional knowledge is content or subject-matter knowledge. It refers to the body of knowledge language teachers should acquire and which distinguishes them from the rest of the teaching professionals. The starting point of the discussion of FL teachers' professional knowledge are the subject's distinctive characteristics and approaches to its teaching/ learning. One of the striking characteristics of the FL as a subject is that language and speech are both the medium and the target of instruction; hence the ability to communicate and develop students' communicative competence is seen as a priority in the contemporary language didactics. This seemingly straightforward inference, however, becomes notoriously complicated in terms of curricular content selection. What specific knowledge do language teachers require in order to function effectively? Typically, language teachers' professional knowledge refers to language proficiency, knowledge about language as a system, knowledge about culture etc., though the questions of breadth and depth of theory about language or the

level of language proficiency necessary for competent teaching remain open to researchers.

Despite the prevalent among laymen association of language teachers' efficiency with knowledge of the target language coupled with extensive scholarship on FL competence development in applied linguistics, there is a dearth of studies devoted to the examination of the level of FL teachers' knowledge of language. For the longer part of its history, the field relied on the target language mastery as the main prerequisite of an accomplished FL teacher, with some vacillations since the advent of the grammar-translation approach when the importance of language analysis came to the front.

Without dismissing its salience for language teachers, one cannot ignore the fact that language proficiency does not always equal effective language teaching. However, as Richards (2011) cogently argues, there is a certain threshold proficiency level which should be attained by a language teacher in order to teach effectively (Richards, 2011, p. 3). There is ample evidence in pertinent literature suggesting that target language knowledge affects language teachers' professional activity. Interdependence between language teachers' knowledge of the language and learners' academic gains has been established in the study of Gibbs and Holt (Gibbs, Holt, 2003, p. 27). Teachers missing out on language knowledge appear to be less flexible, rigidly follow course books in delivering lessons, do not adapt their teaching to the needs of learners (Megyes, 2001). They also tend to adopt more authoritative teaching style, give preference to routines in planning instruction, avoid active teaching forms and are less capable of organising genuine communication in the FL lessons (Tsui, 2003, p. 54). The current focus on the communicative

approach in language didactics, demanding high levels of oral proficiency, causes anxiety of teachers who fail to reach the required minimum of language competence. It becomes a constant source of stress for language teachers who doubt their professional eligibility (Farrel, Richards, 2007, p. 56). Thus, anxiety prevents teachers from adequately carrying out their professional functions through the medium of a FL.

The common recognition of the crucial role of language proficiency finds reflection in the standards of language teacher preparation developed by the ACTFL, featuring as the first element in the list of professional competences needed by prospective language teachers (Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers, 2013). The development of prospective FL teachers' language proficiency with emphasis on oral communication is seen as the main characteristic of the FL teacher preparation programs whose candidates attain the knowledge, skills and dispositions presented in the aforementioned document of the ACTFL (Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers, 2013, p. 62). The priority of language knowledge in the structure of language teachers' competence is the result of consensus reached by the representatives of the FL teaching profession nationwide. The programme standards also specify the level which should be attained by teaching candidates by the time of graduation. For languages such as Arabic, Chinese, Korean and Japanese it is Intermediate High, while for Spanish, German, French, Russian and some others it is Advanced Low.

Conversely, in Ukraine standards of FL teacher preparation have not been developed yet, while in the project of teacher education standards and in the standards of philologists' training in Ukraine no reference is made as to the level of language proficiency of graduates, with the exception of

general statements like, for example, "… use the language fluently, flexibly and effectively (Стандарт вищої освіти України, 2019a, p. 8). Thus, the system of FL teacher education in Ukraine lacks language proficiency benchmarks which should set goals and directions of development of FL teacher preparation programmes. Such benchmark requirements for teaching candidates' language proficiency should become the basis of assessment of graduates' exit level. At present in Ukraine the attestation of graduates which takes place in the form of a state examination does not include any assessment of language proficiency which diverges from the world standard practices in language teacher education. It is, therefore, unclear whether teaching candidates receive adequate preparation in terms of communicative competence necessary to organise instruction in the FL.

Knowledge about language is an integral part of content knowledge and the content of FL teacher education programmes termed in some works as disciplinary knowledge. As stated by Richards (2011) it is "a circumscribed body of knowledge that is considered to be essential to gaining membership of the language teaching profession" (Richards, 2011, p. 3). It typically includes the study of applied linguistics, general linguistics, phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, second language acquisition etc. It plays a major role in the content of language teacher education programmes considering the fact of its inclusion in the curricula of universities and its assessment as part of graduation requirements or licensure procedures. In fact, it is one of the main requirements for graduation in Ukraine, where prospective FL teachers' knowledge is assessed on the basis of a comprehensive examination covering mostly the problems of linguistics. However, what disciplinary knowledge language

teachers need to provide effective learning for students or what impact it exerts on teachers' professional activity is still unclear from the available research.

Arguments against and in favour of the study of applied linguistics by prospective language teachers are voiced in the literature. One of the prisms through which the problem is construed relates the complex process of transfer of theoretical knowledge into the practical domain of teaching. Acquisition of knowledge about language by student teachers does not translate immediately into viable practical knowledge that can affect teaching. Therefore, the debates over the relevance of knowledge about language should also account for the sophisticated processes of applying this knowledge in instruction or its conversion into available for teachers' use practical knowledge.

Some reservations are expressed in the academic literature concerning the importance of disciplinary knowledge for language teachers. In Johnson's (2000) publication the field of language teacher education is believed to undergo "quiet revolution" or fundamental changes in the conceptualisation of its knowledge-base. Accordingly, the focus is diverted from the role of theoretical knowledge to the aspects of learning to teach. As the researcher contends language teacher education has been preoccupied for a larger part of its evolution with the idea of professional knowledge development coupled with the technical issues of teaching, while the construction and acquisition of personally meaningful professional knowledge by teachers themselves was overlooked. At the fore of the discussion should be the problem of teacher learning and less so the subject knowledge deliverance in teacher preparation (Johnson, 2000).

Search for evidence of the impact of disciplinary knowledge on teaching is also discernible in the pertinent literature. Yates and Muchisky (2003) warn against the downplay of the subject matter knowledge stressing that theoretical courses can provide language teachers with valuable insights and help them to make evidence-based informed decisions (Yates et al, 2003). Lantolf (2009) makes the case for the major role of content knowledge in language teacher preparation programmes, highlighting the need for diversifying and deepening curricula so as to provide prospective teachers with explicit knowledge of language and about language (Lantolf, 2009, p. 270). In Andrews et al (2005) it was shown that teachers who lack knowledge about language, especially knowledge of grammar, experience difficulties and anxiety. They found on the basis of observations that teachers had trouble explaining the instructional material clearly, making it difficult for learners to comprehend and use the targeted structures (Andrews et al, 2005, p. 159). Furthermore, another finding of the study suggests that "good teachers" believe that disciplinary knowledge is helpful and express readiness to deepen it (Andrews et al, 2005, pp. 174−175).

Research on disciplinary knowledge shows that acquisition of linguistic conceptions per se is insufficient to bring about significant changes in teaching. As it is claimed by Bartels (2005), in order to be helpful linguistic theories must be transferred by language teachers to the teaching context. Knowledge transfer takes place under certain conditions summarised by the author. In order for propositional knowledge about language to successfully change conceptions of language teachers, the types of tasks used in applied linguistics classes should be similar to activities used in the context of teaching i.e., to what teachers usually do in

schools. One of the factors influencing the transfer of the applied linguistics' knowledge to language teaching is deliberate practice of using this knowledge to deal with real-life problems of teaching. Only those teachers who were involved in practical application of theoretical propositions reported to have benefited from such learning experience. On the contrary, teachers who were exposed exclusively to explicit demonstration of theory were unable to use it in the classroom. Another inference drawn by Bartels (2005) is that superior language teaching does not always require comprehensive disciplinary knowledge. As stated by the author, teachers develop situation sensitive "rules of thumb" on the basis of practical experience which are equally important to knowledge of applied linguistics.

The factors helping forward knowledge transfer are as follows:

1) concrete information as opposed to abstract;

2) using disciplinary knowledge in specific teaching situations;

3) ample time devoted to deliberate practical application of theoretical knowledge;

4) development of mental models: knowledge of experienced teachers is highly organised in relation to professional activities enabling immediate recognition of relevant and redundant information to solve a given task. This recognition determines teachers' explanation of phenomena and the course of action taken by them in a particular situation;

5) overall cohesion of courses offered by language teacher education programmes.

The combination of the enumerated factors is believed to enhance the development of practice-oriented, comprehensive knowledge which can

help teachers to apply it in dealing with specific teaching tasks in any given professional context (Bartels, 2005, pp. 408−416).

Thus, the question of the role of disciplinary knowledge in language teaching should concern the processes of its conversion into readily available for teachers' use forms on demand of a teaching situation, rather than dismissing it as unhelpful or irrelevant. Turning back to the Ukrainian context, the role of the disciplinary knowledge appears to be monopolising in the curricula of FL teacher preparation programmes. Detailed analysis of curricula of FL teacher education programmes suggests that disciplinary knowledge and understanding of language as a system dominate the field. Consideration of its practical relevance for prospective FL teachers remains at the background of discussions of the academic community. It seems to be taken for granted that well-rounded theoretical preparation is at the heart of quality teaching and is automatically adapted by teachers on need. The study of general linguistics and some applied linguistics courses, like sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, discourse analysis etc., literary studies, practical language courses occupy the lion's share of credit hours as compared to the underrepresented in the curricula courses addressing the issues of language teaching and learning, which has become the source of concern for language teacher educators in the country (Ніколаєва, 2014; Безлюдна, 2018).

An indispensable component within the structure of FL teachers' professional knowledge is pedagogical content knowledge directly linked with language teaching. It refers to teachers' ability to transform content knowledge into forms which can be acquired by learners (Richards, 2011, p. 5). Coined by Shulman (1987), the term pedagogical content knowledge describes an "amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the

province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8). The researcher drew public attention to the problem of isolation in teacher preparation where content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are compartmentalised offering a special blend of the two domains of knowledge as a foundation in understanding the knowledge-base of teaching. The author explained that the content knowledge of teaching and non-teaching professionals is identical; however, teachers are capable of transforming this knowledge into forms accessible to learners (Shulman, 1987, p. 15).

Pedagogical content knowledge evolves in the result of both formal education and practical experience. Some teacher educators suggest that that it develops mostly in the course of actual teaching (Liu, 2013, p. 129; Richards et al, 1995). Nevertheless, the foundations of pedagogical content knowledge are laid down in the period of initial teacher preparation and its negligence in teacher education programmes can negatively affect prospective teachers' competence. Critically important for the development of pedagogical content knowledge is the induction phase which underscores novice teachers' support in this respect (Liu, 2013, p. 135). The most common components in the curricula of FL teacher preparation programmes aimed at developing pedagogical content knowledge include methods of language teaching and other related disciplines, such as curriculum design, assessment in language education, the use of information technologies in language education etc., and school practicum. These two pivotal curricular components in the FL teacher preparation programmes are still underrepresented in Ukraine.

In Ukraine in determining the boundaries of FL teacher education knowledge-base much attention has been paid to the disciplinary

knowledge. In the educational discourse the corresponding specialists are commonly referred to as a teacher-philologist, underscoring the linguistic core in FL teacher education programmes and in the professional activity. Traditionally, the content of FL teacher preparation is slanted towards general linguistics, literature and pedagogy, while the study of applied courses dealing with language teaching and learning, like methods of FLT or second language acquisition, have been neglected for decades. Although the methods of FLT is a compulsory subject it remains on the periphery of curricula of Ukrainian universities, taking up from 3% at the undergraduate level up to 4,9% at the graduate level of the total credit hours (Безлюдна, 2018, с. 479). The quality of preparation of language teachers in terms of pedagogical content knowledge in Ukraine lags behind the established standards of the FLTE field (Ніколаєва, 2014). There is little empirical evidence to suggest how knowledge of linguistics translates into teaching competence (Freeman, Johnson, 2005) or what theory supports the development of language teaching skills.

In Ukraine there is a pressing need for standards of FL teacher preparation which should designate in clear terms what professional competences prospective FL teachers need in order to be able to set up effective FL instruction by the time of graduation. Presently language teacher educators appear to be left to their own devices in establishing the goals and criteria of adequate preparation of teaching candidates.

Useful suggestions for the areas of knowledge and understanding which stipulate effective language teacher preparation and development can be drawn from European Profile for Language Teacher Education (Kelly et al, 2004) (Appendix 1). In particular, the report underscores the importance of providing prospective and in-service teachers with

"language teaching methodologies", and "state-of-the-art classroom techniques and activities", as well as "the development of a critical and enquiring approach to teaching and learning" by mentioning them as the first two elements of the list of required knowledge (Kelly et al, 2004, p. 5). As it is further explained, student teachers are exposed to and practice applying various language teaching methodologies, techniques of developing the four basic language skills (speaking, writing, reading, listening). It is believed that knowledge and understanding of various language teaching approaches enables student teachers to adapt to specific contexts on the basis of critical and creative use of theories (Kelly et al, 2004, p. 46).

Teaching skills

In the triadic structure of language teaching competence (knowledge, skills and dispositions) skills refer to teachers' ability to apply the theoretical knowledge-base in practice. There is no immediate relationship between knowledge of teaching and learning theories and the way teachers organise instruction. In order for declarative knowledge to have any impact on teaching it should be constructed and interiorised by the teacher so as to become personally meaningful, which involves cognitive transformations in teachers' professional mindset. Teaching skills evolve in the result of learning, practising, observing, reflecting and revaluating one's professional understanding. The study of teaching skills' formation can be treated in light of the expertise research. Expertise involves solving problems while in action in particular context and their analysis (Bereiter, Scardamalia, 1993, p. 74). Understanding gained from this reflection determines teachers' decision-making in organising and implementing instruction, and engagement in professional activity.

Thus, the development of teaching skills is a dynamic, complex, time-consuming process which can benefit from both training and developmental paradigms of teacher preparation. The core of the training paradigm is practice in deploying didactic approaches by student teachers with the aim of acquiring teaching skills. It also includes the study of theory, but the main focus is on the actual tasks of teaching, providing prospective teachers with opportunities to practise in organising instruction. The expected outcome of the training paradigm is an accomplished practitioner with a readily available repertoire of skills. The developmental paradigm views teachers' cognitive and affective growth as a continuous process. In teacher education programmes the emphasis is placed on the "conceptual, attitudinal and affective aspects of teaching" (Richards, 1989, p. 5). In defining optimum conditions for teacher education programmes both training and developmental perspectives are relevant. The training perspective supports the acquisition of professional skills, while the developmental – cognitive and affective transformations of teachers' professional identity.

A set of skills required of FL teachers is proposed in the European Profile for Foreign Language Teacher Education (2004), prominently featuring the following practical dimensions: skills of "adapting teaching approaches to the educational contexts and individual needs of learners", "critical evaluation, development and practical application of teaching materials and resources", reflective practice, continuous language competence development, application of curricula and syllabuses, research into teaching, content and language integrated learning and some others (Kelly et al, 2004, p. 6). Given the lack of standards of FL teacher education in Ukraine, this profile can be temporarily used as a frame of

reference until context-sensitive shared understanding of what teaching skills prospective language teachers need is reached.

Dispositions

Critical to maintaining and enhancing professional competence are the dispositions for teaching, related to attitudinal, affective and social domains. Since any activity, including teaching and learning, is triggered and fuelled by internal and external drives (for instance, motivation, interest, attitude, tangible incentives etc.) which determine the intensity, quality, duration of the activity, the study of dispositions has made its way in the educational discourse, establishing itself as a decisive element of teaching competence. This trend is reflected in the inclusion of the dispositions rubric in many standards for teacher preparation and development.

Thus, in the Five Core Propositions developed by the NBPTS, three of them are directly linked to dispositions of language teaching. According to the first proposition teachers are committed to students and their learning which essentially embodies the disposition to enhance student learning. The fourth proposition "teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience" stipulates teachers' continuous engagement in professional learning. Teachers are expected to commit themselves to reflective learning and exemplify the virtues of "curiosity, honesty, fairness, respect for diversity and appreciation of cultural differences". The fifth proposition underscores teachers' commitment to collaboration with the professional and educational communities: "Teachers are members of learning communities" (NBPTS, 2015−2016b, pp. 8−10). In the standards of language teacher preparation and development of the ACTFL the importance of professional dispositions is

emphasised in Standard 6: Professional Development, Advocacy, and Ethics. The standard espouses student teachers' ongoing professional development, collaboration, opportunities and responsibilities of language teachers (ACTFL, 2013).

The European Profile for Language Teacher Education (2004) details how professional values can be delivered in teacher education programmes, the main elements of which concern the following:

1) training in social and cultural values;
2) the diversity of languages and cultures;
3) the importance of teaching and learning about foreign languages and cultures;
4) teaching European citizenship;
5) team working, collaboration and networking, inside and outside the immediate school context;
6) the importance of life-long learning (Kelly et al, 2004, p. 6).

Meanwhile, in Ukraine despite the general trend for axiologisation in teacher education (Шабанова, 2014), the normative documents of standards miss out on the dispositional dimension of competence. The structure of teacher education standards comprises the following components: competences (integral competence, general competences, special or content competences), the normative content of preparation formulated in terms of learning outcomes (Стандарт вищої освіти України: другий (магістерський) рівень, галузь знань 01 Освіта/Педагогіка, спеціальність 011 Освітні, педагогічні науки. Проєкт). However, no mention is made of dispositions for teaching disparaging its integral role in teaching competence.

Conclusion and implications for Ukraine

Thus, in the present chapter current orientations determining the interpretation of FL teaching competence have been highlighted. The structure of teaching competence was examined with a special view on professional knowledge, skills and dispositions required of accomplished language teachers. The discussions of teaching competence are wrought with the complexity inherent in the elucidated concept, the nature of teaching and learning, which are situation-dependant, culture-specific and individual-driven. Nevertheless, investment in the teacher competence research is a worthwhile undertaking since it underlies any attempts at advancing national education systems.

With Ukraine's turn to competence-based teacher education and its integration aspirations into the globalised information arena, incorporation of world standards of quality teaching and competitive education have become an agenda at the national level. The findings of our study reveal that although the mainstream tendencies of FL teacher preparation in Ukraine overlap in many respects with successful practices in other countries, there are still many aspects that need to be addressed one of which is the issue of language teachers' competence. First and foremost, there is a considerable hiatus in the state of standards' development and implementation for FL teachers. The normative documents fail to specify what pedagogical content knowledge, language teaching skills and dispositions for language teaching are needed to equip FL teachers for effective professional activity. Next, the content of FL teacher education programmes appears to be colonised by the study of linguistics, with the methods of FLT and related disciplines occupying only a peripheral place in the curricula of universities. Finally, in the normative documents

regulating teacher preparation no reference is made to the level of language proficiency which teaching candidates are expected to attain by the time of graduation, although FL proficiency is one of the decisive elements of competent language teaching. Given these inadequacies, the system of FL teacher education in Ukraine runs the risk of losing focus of the objectives of competence-based education and world standards of quality FL teaching.

6. COMMUNICATION IN TEACHING

"It's not what you do or say, but rather, how you do or say it"

Communication is the foundation of education and an essential teaching tool. Metaphorically speaking, effect of communication in the classroom is nothing short of the one produced by a scalpel in the hands of a surgeon or a steering wheel in the driver's hands. For the teacher, communication is a means of approaching and attending to educational tasks, a means of establishing relationships and interaction between the protagonists of instructional process (learners, colleagues, parents etc.), sharing information, developing students' personality etc. As it was finely summed up by Lunenburg and Ornstein (2011), communication is the lifeblood of the school, it is a process that links the individual, the group and the organization (Lunenburg et al, 2011).

Accomplished teaching is closely aligned with quality communication. Ultimately, bringing communication to the level of competence is an important first step for teachers striving for dexterity in their work. One of the most serious problems experienced by student teachers during teaching practicum is caused by communication gaps between teachers and students (Leontiev, 1996). Yet, communication competence development has not attracted sufficient attention in the teacher preparation research.

Communicative competence constitutes one of the fundamental components of teaching competence together with pedagogical and subject matter competences (McCroskey et al, 2002, p. 17). Comparing the role of pedagogic activity and instructional communication, Markova (1993)

gives the latter a greater prominence with reference to learners' personality development, contending that information transmission in itself is less important than the learning environment created by the teacher in the lesson (Markova, 1993, pp. 24−25).

Although absolutely indispensable, both content knowledge and pedagogical competence largely depend on teachers' communicative competence by becoming operational in real-time face-to-face communication. Thus, the quality of teaching and learning heavily depend on the quality of communication taking place in the classroom. Effective communication should be seen as a core concern in developing teaching competence.

Classroom communication is a central element of the instructional process, involving tightly interwoven but otherwise inseparable domains:

1) interaction between the protagonists of this process i.e. relational, interpersonal dimension commonly studied in the frames of developmental communication research;

2) engagement with the instructional content – instructional communication;

Within the interpersonal dimension of classroom communication reference is often made to the concept of interpersonal communication. Classroom communication is always predetermined by the nature of the relationship between the agents of communication, or, in simple terms, learners and teachers. As summarized by Dainton and Zelley (2004) interpersonal communication "refers to the content and quality of messages relayed and the possibility of further relationship development" (Dainton et al, 2004, p. 51). The relationship between teachers and learners

may either help forward/assist or act counterproductively on learning outcomes (Valencic et al, 2005, p. 1).

Communication serves as a means of establishing productive relationships between teachers and students, which is fundamental for optimal learning gains. In many ways, learning and communication interplay to the effect that attitudes of learners towards the teacher, classroom climate etc. are automatically transferred to the subject taught by the given teacher i.e. students may like the subject or it may fall into their disfavour because of the negative communication experience with the teacher or the opposite.

In relation to communication taking place in the classroom or communication for instructional purposes a relevantly young discipline **instructional communication** has come to the forefront. Effective teaching encompasses both interpersonal and instructional dimensions of communication.

Instructional communication theory is informed by the research in the fields of communication education, educational psychology and pedagogy. Recent developments of the theoretical foundations of the discipline have stimulated interest in the concept of **instructional communicative competence**. The concept of instructional communicative competence is viewed as "the teacher-instructor's motivation, knowledge and skill to select, enact and evaluate effective and appropriate, verbal and non-verbal, interpersonal and instructional messages filtered by student-learners' perceptions, resulting in cognitive, affective and behavioral student-learner development and reciprocal feedback (Cornett-Devito, Worley, 2005, p. 315).

In view of its inherent complexity, communicative competence of teachers is studied through a multidimensional lens, involving psychological, pedagogic, sociological, linguistic and rhetoric aspects as can be seen from the afore mentioned definition.

Effective communication in the teaching-learning process embraces both interpersonal and instructional communicative competence. The importance of relational dimension is given its due emphasis in the definition suggested by Richmond et al (2009) in whose view *instructional communication* is "the process of the teacher establishing an effective and affective communication relationship with the learner so that the learner has the opportunity to achieve the optimum of success in the instructional environment" (Richmond, Wrench, Gorhan, 2009, p.1).

Instructional communication is also closely related to student achievement. As Leontiev (1996) notes optimal instructional communication creates preconditions for learner motivation enhancement and creativity in the instructional and learning process, expedient development of learners' personality, generates emotionally positive instructional climate for regulating social-psychological processes in the group of learners (Leontiev, 1996, p. 6). The importance of effective instructional communication for learning gains is also underlined in the work of McCroskey et al. (McCroskey et al, 2002).

Instructional communication is multicomponential as the instruction itself, the main constituent parts of which are content-specific, methodological and socio-psychological (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, p. 7). The socio-psychological component of the instructional process reflects its communicative dimension which acts as an instrument of implementation of the content-specific and methodological elements of instruction.

In Kan-Kalyk's (1987) opinion, the structure of instructional communication subsumes four stages:

1. Modelling of instructional communication (prediction stage) while preparing for interaction with learners. At this stage the teacher plans and predicts the content, structure and means of communication which entails singling out the aim of interaction, analysis of learners' psychological state and the given situation of communication. The teacher should consider possible means and tools of communication, its general modality. It is worthwhile to predict learners' possible ways of perception of the forthcoming communicative interaction, finding ways of students' active engagement with the content of instructional communication, creating positive atmosphere of interaction.

2. Initializing communication. The researcher refers to this stage as "communicative attack", presupposing teachers' ability to swiftly establish contact with learners and organize communication.

3. Communication management stage concerns organizing interaction and steering it according to the initially envisaged aims.

4. Communication analysis. At this stage the teacher analyses the aim of interaction, its techniques, results achieved in the process of instructional communication and models future interaction. It is a stage of reflection and self-correction (Kan-Kalyk, 1987).

7. COMPONENTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL COMMUNICATION

Willingness to communicate

Teachers' communicative competence builds upon inborn predisposition to engage in communication, which acquires special weighting in instructional settings, since language and communication are teachers' professional tools. Willingness to communicate is, thus, a basic variable related to pedagogic capabilities.

Willingness to communicate presupposes the inclination to engage in communication and also refers to the verbal behaviour exhibited during the communicative act, regularity of its occurrence, affective component (satisfaction/dissatisfaction before, during and after communication), the situational dimension in which communication takes place (some individuals communicate more or less willingly depending on the context), the participants of interaction (with whom one is predisposed to communicate).

Among the antecedents of the willingness to communicate construct researchers single out extroversion, self-esteem, communication skills, cultural divergence and communication apprehension. As stated, extroverts are more "people-oriented" and are, thus, more likely to engage in communication. Introverts, on the contrary, are described as shy, timid, and prone to withdraw from interaction (McCroskey and Richmond, 1987, p. 138).

Self-esteem is another variable offering insight into the question of willingness to communicate. People with high self-esteem enter into conversation more willingly than those individuals who can be characterized as having low self-esteem.

Self-perceived communication skills also correlate with the individual's engagement in communication. The perception of one's level of communicative competence is crucial for willingness to communicate and is supposedly a more powerful variable than the actual level of communicative skills development (McCroskey and Richmond, 1987, p. 141).

Communication apprehension together with communicative competence level was also found to correlate significantly with the concept of willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, 1994, p. 138). The problem of communication apprehension stands especially acutely in case of novice teachers for whom it creates special barriers in communication (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, p. 34). The problem can be further aggravated in the context of foreign language teaching when a beginning teacher tackles communication from many different angles, to which additional obstacle is added in the form of a language barrier, insufficiently developed foreign language competence etc.

In Kan-Kalyk's (1987) understanding, willingness to communicate includes such components as communicability, social congruence and altruistic tendencies.

1. Communicability is described as an ability to draw satisfaction from communication. Those teachers who do not experience satisfaction tend to become exhausted more quickly than those who enjoy social interaction. Burn-out and teacher attrition are closely related to teachers' ability to experience satisfaction from social interaction. Individuals who lack this quality are more prone to abandon teaching as a career (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, p. 47). Moreover, the feelings teachers experience during communication influence the content of instructional communication,

principles of selection of methods of teaching and the choice of instructional materials.

2. Social congruence is understood as a desire to stay in touch with other people.

3. The last component refers to communicative and altruistic emotions. The author outlines such communication related emotions as desire to share thoughts and feelings, respect towards interlocutors. Altruistic emotions also include desire to give joy to interlocutors.

Teachers' willingness to communicate subsumes the following components:

1. the need to communicate with learners in various life spheres;
2. interplay of interpersonal and instructional characteristics of the willingness to communicate;
3. contentment at all stages of communication;
4. special facility for instructional communication;
5. communicative competence (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, p. 48).

Instructional communicative capabilities constitute one whole with general pedagogical capabilities:

1. didactic – facility to transmit content clearly, in simple terms, at an appropriate level of sophistication, invoke interest and stimulate cognitive engagement;
2. organizational-managerial;
3. facility to exert emotional-volitional influence on learners;
4. perceptive – facility to perceive learners' psychological state;
5. expressive – ability to clearly express thoughts and feelings using language means, mime, gestures etc.

6. communicative proper – relates to the skill of establishing relationship with learners, tactfulness, strictness, persistence etc.

7. academic – subject-related capabilities. For a language teacher it includes native-like command of a foreign language and fluency of communication in a foreign language.

8. personal – including patience, assertiveness, amiability etc.

9. pedagogic imagination – capability to foresee consequences of one's influence, project learner's personality etc.

10. capability to distribute attention.

In other words, instructional communicative competence is fundamental in the development of general pedagogical competence (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, p. 48−49).

Teacher Clarity

Another important construct of instructional communication is clarity of teacher's speech. The research on teacher clarity has been featuring prominently for years in teacher effectiveness research and is consistently linked with learners' academic gains (Csesebro et al, 2002; Sidelinger et al, 1997). Despite the vast popularity of the concept of clarity, there are certain discrepancies in its conceptual framework. Empirical endeavours focus around the description of verbal and non-verbal behaviours of participants of the instructional process, methods and instruments of measuring their impact and accounting for positive effect for student learning.

Clarity is defined as "a variable which represents the process by which an instructor is able to effectively stimulate the desired meaning of course content and processes in the minds of students through the use of

appropriately structured verbal and non-verbal messages (Csesebro, 1999, p. 2) or as "the ability of the teacher to provide instruction, expositional or otherwise, which helps students come to a clear understanding of material" (Metcalf, 1992, p. 275).

As suggested by the given definitions and relevant academic literature, clarity refers to the ability to relate content and new concepts effectively, choosing appropriate language means, keeping comfortable pace of work, checking learners' understanding, providing feedback, stimulating cognitive processes, staying focused and organized etc; it also encompasses lesson structuring.

Clarity serves as a link between the intended meaning of teachers' message and the way it is perceived by students. The closer they approach each other i.e. the better students understand content conveyed by the teacher and in the way s/he intends to, the clearer the teacher. Thus, it is a two-way process of transmitting message between the teacher and the learner, involving movement in both directions.

Dialogue and negotiation with students are viewed as the foundation of clarity. It can be described as a circulatory process. The teacher transmits instructional material, follows for cues from students checking their perception and understanding. Finally, the teacher makes amendments on the basis of the feedback received from students by presenting the material more clearly.

The central issue of research on teacher clarity is its effect on learning, in particular whether improvements in teacher clarity are conducive to learning. Empirical evidence suggests that teacher clarity influences both cognitive and affective aspects of learning. Cognitive learning relates to the ability to process information, involving

understanding, recalling, using it etc. Affective learning concerns the emotional dimension such as emotions students experience in relation to classroom atmosphere, the teacher, peers, instructional material etc.

Thus, teacher clarity correlates positively with comprehension of the new material by students in the study of Chesebro and McCroskey (2001), which has implications for cognitive aspect of learning; with student motivation in the study of Ginsberg (2007), it relates to affective aspect of learning (Chesebro and McCroskey (1998). In the study of Chesebro (2003) improvements in clarity proved to have a positive effect on students' engagement with learning, students demonstrated a more positive attitude towards the teacher described by them as clear, the instructional material and experienced less apprehension (Chesebro, 2003).

Clarity is not reduced to teachers' clear talking or verbal effectiveness, also including structural or organizational aspects. Thus, communication researchers differentiate between verbal and structural or, as preferred by some, process clarity.

Verbal clarity covers such aspects as language precision, fluency, effective explanations, quality examples, assessment. Verbal clarity manifests itself in what the teacher says and how s/he does it. Structural clarity, or as it is sometimes referred to process clarity (Simonds, 1997, p. 282) deals with the organization of the instructional process, organization of the instructional materials, structuring and pacing of the lesson procedure, running of the activities etc.

Structural clarity concerns the processes of structuring and sequencing. Examples of structuring may include mapping out the procedure of the lesson, organizing a presentation by stating its purpose clearly, reviewing the main points and giving transitions with the help of

cues. Sequencing involves effective arrangement of the instructional material, for instance, on the basis of the material's complexity.

Of special interest is the idea of delineation between oral and written clarity in the study of Sidelinger and McCroskey (1997). While the majority of earlier studies focused on oral dimension of clarity, the aforementioned researchers assessed the effect of clarity of course guides, assignments and discipline objectives.

In the subsequent research by Titsworth (2001) and Kiewra (2002) it was shown how oral and written clarity cues (organizational statements and immediacy) during lectures improve learners' note-taking skills and overall test performance. In their opinion, organizational cues enhance students' learning and in particular note-taking skills (Titsworth, Kiewra, 2004). The results of their study indicate that prominent organizational cues used by lecturers helped students record more details of the lecture material (23% more details) and attained better results at three separate tests (Titsworth, 2004). Organizational cues were shown to support students' deeper involvement with the learning tasks and therefore cognitive learning.

Positive linkage was also documented between teacher clarity and students' overall positive attitude towards learning and teachers. Clear teaching was associated with pleasant emotions, such as enjoyment, hope and pride (Titsworth et al, 2013). Students exhibited a more positive perception of learning and increased levels of motivation (Chesebro and McCroskey, 2000); negative relationship was measured between teacher clarity and negative emotions of students such as anxiety, boredom, anger, shame, hopelessness (Mazer et al, 2014).

Overall, teacher clarity has been found to moderately correlate (r=.33) with student learning in the work of Fendick (1990), who obtained his data on the basis of 92 studies; there was documented an average correlation of r= .52 between teacher clarity and students' affective learning; an average correlation of r= .34 between teacher clarity and cognitive learning (Titsworth et al, 2015). Thus, results of the aforementioned collective meta-analyses highlight the relevance of increased teacher clarity for learning gains, and make a strong case in favour of teacher clarity for effective teaching.

In sum, teacher clarity is not reduced to teachers' verbal competence and clever manipulation of linguistic and extra-linguistic features, their verbal inventiveness. Together with effective verbal delivery, like transmitting information clearly and meaningfully, providing ample examples and practice, stimulating cognitive engagement of students with the instructional material, it manifests itself in structuring and organizing of the instructional material, as well as teaching-learning process. Further on, teacher clarity is envisaged as a dialogue and the process of negotiating the intended meaning between teacher and learner, a bilateral circulatory process. Of special interest is the delineation between oral and written clarity cues. In addition, teacher clarity produces positive effect on learners of different ages and all educational levels.

The question of clear teaching features prominently in instructional communication research owing to its pertinence for effective teaching, substantial implications for affective and cognitive learning and academic achievements of students.

Immediacy in classroom communication

Teacher immediacy is high on the agenda in effective teaching research and is arguably one of the most frequently investigated concepts in classroom communication research (Witt, Schrod, Tunman, 2010, p. 201). Claims are made supported by empirical evidence that high immediacy behaviours of teachers enhance learners' affective and cognitive learning (Witt, Wheeles, 2001), and, in general sense, have a positive bearing for all of the instructional process and relational dimensions.

Introduced by a social psychologist Albert Mehrabian in 1969, the term immediacy is conceptualized as the degree of physical and psychological proximity between individuals (Mehrabian, 1969, p. 203). Teacher immediacy is a composite concept encompassing verbal and non-verbal communication behaviours which aim at reducing psychological distance between the teacher and the learner. In Mehrabian's explanation individuals tend to "approach what they like and avoid what they don't like" (Mehrabian, 1981, p. 22). In other words, learners may become closer to a teacher they like, or perceived by them as the one who exposes immediacy behaviours and, on the contrary, avoid teachers who do not exhibit immediacy and, therefore may be disliked by learners. The sense of liking enhances immediacy behaviours during communication between teachers and students.

It is commonly accepted that communication between teachers and students plays an exceptional role in the teaching-learning process, with the concept of immediacy being a crucial point in establishing interpersonal relationship and communication between its protagonists. Substantial empirical evidence suggests that positive relationship between the teacher and students leads to positive attitudes toward the context of learning. In particular, in Andersen's (1979) widely cited work, which has

become “the classical study of the genre”, teacher immediacy was found to correlate with student affect toward the course instructor (46%). 20% of the variance in student affect toward the course content was also predicted by teacher immediacy behaviours. Her research indicates that immediacy is central to affective learning by evoking students’ sense of liking for the teacher, the course content and positive feelings towards the learning context (Andersen, 1979).

Presumably, positive classroom atmosphere is likely to contribute to cognitive gains of students. Nevertheless, despite substantial research findings supporting the claim of positive correlation between immediacy behaviours and affective learning, no conclusive evidence was provided proving its direct link with cognitive learning.

To illustrate the point, on the basis of a meta-analysis review of 81 studies, Witt et al (2007) arrive at a conclusion that teacher immediacy accounts for only a modest variance (r= .17) in students’ performance on cognitive learning measures. The cumulative evidence of their meta-analysis suggests that immediate teachers influence students’ attitudes and perception concerning their learning, but fail to considerably affect the outcomes of cognitive learning. Disregarding impressive empirical evidence, communication researchers level criticism at the reliability of certain instruments for measuring cognitive component of learning, in this way formulating less categorical conclusions. In the studies of teacher immediacy changes in cognitive learning are usually measured on the basis of standardized tests or course grades, which are believed by many to provide unreliable data. In essence, tests may fail to assess content areas covered by a learner or attribute learning gains to the influence of the current instructional process, while, in actual fact, students may have

already known some of the content before the course. Test results also depend on learners' writing skills, test anxiety, preparation etc. Course grades are also ineffective in that they include in addition to cognitive performance such variables as attendance, student preparation, participation, writing skills, perceived motivation etc. (Gorham, 1988).

Another pitfall mentioned in this respect is the temporal domain which means that most studies assessing influence of teacher immediacy on cognitive learning did not take into consideration long-term cognitive gains of immediate teaching (Fayer et al, 1988, p. 114).

Immediacy is described as a multifaceted demonstration of psychological proximity by verbal and non-verbal means. Accordingly, its verbal and non-verbal dimensions are given treatment in the communication research.

Non-verbal immediacy

Non-verbal immediacy is understood as extra-linguistic messages sent by teachers to learners aimed at establishing psychologically positive relationships. Non-verbal messages are related to the affective domain of communication. Non-verbal cues are mediated through such effective teaching behaviours as appropriate eye-contact, the use of gestures, movement about the classroom, smiling, vocal variety and the use of humour (Chesebro, McCroskey, 2001, p. 61).

An overwhelming majority of respective studies support that non-verbal immediacy of teachers enhances students' learning gains. Moreover, this influence tends to be mutual in that students who exhibit non-verbal immediacy behaviours in relation to their teachers as perceived by teachers themselves also express more favourable attitude to their students (Baringer, McCroskey, 2009).

In an experimental manipulation of non-verbal and verbal immediacy behaviours it was observed in the study of Witt and Wheeles (2001) that non-verbal immediacy was conducive to cognitive and affective learning achievements of students. At the same time, higher verbal immediacy combined with higher and lower non-verbal immediacy produced only slight cognitive gains.

Non-verbal immediacy is strongly related to students' perception of teacher effectiveness, cognitive learning and related to it information recall, as well as affective learning (Butland and Beebe, 1992). The relationship between non-verbal immediacy and cognitive learning was found to be consistent in different cultures, too (McCroskey et al, 1996, p. 209).

Verbal immediacy

In the context of classroom communication, verbal immediacy is described as a deliberate choice of linguistic means aimed at establishing positive relationships between teacher and learners. Verbal immediacy manifests itself in such verbal vehaviours as resorting to humour, addressing learners by name, praising learners, the use of inclusive pronoun "we" instead of "you" to demonstrate kinship with students and common interests, using personal examples, sharing experiences, talking to students not only as part of instruction, but also outside classroom etc.

Verbal and non-verbal immediacy behaviours are closely interwoven occurring simultaneously. Therefore, researchers commonly prefer studying both of them. One such example is the study of Teven and Hanson (2004) who emphasized the expediency of applying both verbal and non-verbal immediacy cues, which eventually leads to students' perceiving teachers as credible. The combination of verbal and non-verbal

immediacy behaviours was shown to increase students' affect for the instructor, the course, the subject-matter and decrease in students' apprehension (Butland, Beebe, 1992).

The following beneficial outcomes of teacher immediacy are widely cited in the relevant sources:

- highly immediate teachers significantly enhance affective learning gains (Witt, Wheeles, 2009);
- immediate teacher behaviours improve students' attitude towards the instructor, the course, the instructional content;
- teacher immediacy is moderately associated with cognitive learning (Witt, Wheeles, 2009; Andersen, 1979);
- highly immediate teachers create a supportive learning environment (Witt et al, 2010);
- immediacy was shown to correlate with learner motivation (Velez, Cano, 2008);
- non-verbal immediacy was found to strongly correlate with students' reports on perceived learning (r=.51) and affective learning (r=.49) (Witt, Wheeles, Allen 2007). Verbal immediacy is also significantly associated with students' perceived learning (r=.49) and affective learning (r=.49). Only a slight correlation of immediacy and cognitive learning was measured (r=.17).

In sum, despite disparity in findings on teacher immediacy, somewhat incongruent theoretical framework, the massive work embodied in hundreds of empirical studies makes it impossible to overlook the claims in support of relevance of immediacy for learning outcomes and effective teaching.

8. COMMUNICATION STYLE

Pervasive manifestation of an individual's verbal and non-verbal behaviour is described in literature as a style of communication. Rich theoretical provisions of the construct were offered by Norton who contended that communicator style is "the way one verbally and paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood (Norton, 1977, p. 260). The communicator style is understood by him as a stable behavioural pattern of an individual.

The construct was operationalised on the basis of nine independent criteria: dominant, open, dramatic, relaxed, contentious, animated, friendly, attentive and impression-leaving (Norton et al, 1977). Communicator style is described in terms of the following features: it is observable, multifaceted, multicollinear, and variable, but sufficiently patterned (Norton, 1983, p. 47). Communicator style is observable via non-verbal behaviour including gestures, posture, body movement, facial expression, eye contact etc. Communicator style can be rarely registered in its pure form. Every individual accommodates a variety of features in their patterns of communication behaviours demonstrating the combination of features forming their unique constellations of communication style. In this respect, communicator style is multifaceted.

Style variables are described as multicollinear or dependant on each other, which means that style-making features often overlap and do not exclude each other. Thus, a person with a dominant, relaxed style sends a message of being confident, while a non-dominant, non-relaxed style of communication is associated with the feeling of insecurity. The style-

making features may form a peculiar blend aimed at relaying certain messages between the interlocutors.

Finally, communicator style varies depending on the context of communication. Although individuals may have their preferred style of communication or at least a dominant one, under certain circumstances they can deviate from it (Norton, 1983, pp. 47−53).

Relying on extensive empirical evidence, Norton (1983) singles out 9 communicator styles having clustered a number of variables used in describing communicator style:

1. Dominant style – manifests itself in the verbal and paraverbal communication messages demonstrating power and superior position in relation to the interlocutors. Such communicative behaviour sends the message of confidence, competence, self-assurance and proactiveness. Individuals predisposed to this pattern of communicative bahaviour initiate, direct and control the communicative act. The paralinguistic features of the style include speaking loudly and fast, using determined overtones, controlling gestures and mannerisms.

2. Dramatic style – characterized by linguistic and paralinguistic features of communicative behaviour aimed at producing a strong vivid effect on the interlocutor by resorting to exaggerations, understatements, emphasis, various picturesque language means and manipulations. Typical examples of this style include acting, resorting to humour, sarcasm, fantasies, story-telling etc.

3. Contentious style – its most striking feature is argumentativeness. Individuals inclined to using the contentious style, who come across as self-assured and knowledgeable, on the one hand, may

sound quarrelsome and unpleasant. In interactions such individuals insist on their point of view, while their tone is argumentative and domineering.

4. Animated style – individuals predisposed to this style come across as non-verbally expressive, lively and enthusiastic. Their communication behaviour includes vivid gestures, vocal delivery, movements, face expression etc.

5. Impression-leaving style – reflects features of memorable or visible communication style. People adopting this style aim at producing memorable impression on the interlocutors.

6. Relaxed style – defines individuals who send verbal and non-verbal cues of the absence of anxiety or tension. Their communicative behaviour excludes nervousness by exhibiting calmness, confidence, and comfort.

7. Attentive style – described by such qualities as alertness, attentiveness and attendance to the present communicative context, empathy. Individuals adopting this communicator style produce an impression of being both careful and caring.

8. Open style – includes features of extraversion, friendliness and frankness. Individuals choosing this style tend to express their emotions, feelings and thoughts in an unreserved manner, relate their personal experiences and, therefore, run the risk of being considered unreserved and too revealing.

9. Friendly style – defines verbal and non-verbal communicative behaviour perceived as outgoing, extroverted and sociable. “Adherents” of this style demonstrate overall positive attitude to the interlocutors, friendliness, affection, fondness, admiration etc.

10. Precise style - is related to accuracy, precision and correctness in the communicative behaviour patterns. Persons utilizing this style demonstrate by both linguistic and paralinguistic means that they are focused, alert and clear (Norton, 1983).

Finally, Norton (1983) came up with the conceptualization of the Communicator Image construct, which he used to describe an individual's perceived image in the role of a communicator i.e. the extent to which a person regards himself/herself as an effective communicator (Norton, 1983).

A distinct tradition in the study of communication style comes from the works of social psychologists and communication researchers, who classify patterns of communicative behaviour on the basis of social dimensions. As a result, a **socio-communicative style** (SCS) construct merging the existing research on social style and interpersonal communication was advanced by McCroskey and Richmond (McCroskey et al, 1998). The followers of this line of research view communication behaviour as a product of individual's personality and, therefore, at least partly genetically predetermined. The theory rests on the premise that personality traits affect communication behaviour and individual socio-communicative style. By observing display of one's patterns of communicative behaviour, which are rather stable, one can better understand the speaker's personality.

SCS descriptors usually include three dimensions across social behaviour, namely assertiveness, responsiveness and versatility. Assertiveness and responsiveness constitute the core elements, with versatility presenting the extent to which a person can adapt to the context of communication (Richmond et al, p.133–138).

Essential to the understanding of the construct under discussion is the delineation between the socio-communicative style and socio-communicative orientation. Socio-communicative orientation describes individual's perception of his/her communicative behaviour, constituting an element of self-concept. Whereas socio-communicative style is the way others perceive the individual's communicative behaviour and form an image on the basis of recurring behavioural patterns. The two images do not necessarily overlap (Richmond et al, p. 134).

Assertive communicative behaviour reveals itself in a proactive stance, powerfulness or even aggression. Assertiveness is highly correlated with the dominant communicator style (Waldherr et al, 2011, p.18). Assertive communicators initiate, steer and terminate communication, acting as leaders, expressing openly their views, at the same time, without overriding interests of others. Assertiveness is also observable in non-verbal communicative behaviour. People predisposed to this style are highly effective communicators capable of managing interpersonal interaction according to their aims and needs.

The distinction between assertive and aggressive communicative behaviour is not always clearly displayed. An assertive behaviour includes standing up for one's own rights instead of remaining reticent and yielding to a more domineering stance which can be interpreted as somewhat aggressive. However, while assertive communication style does not aim to defend one's own interests at the cost of others e.g. by neglecting or humiliating interlocutors, an aggressive behaviour presupposes subordinating the opinion or interests of others and "win-at-all-costs mentality" (Richmond et al, 1998, p. 136).

Responsiveness constitutes one of the three components of communicative competence (McCroskey et al, 1986). Responsive communicative behaviour includes interpersonal sensitivity, concern/regard for others' needs, feelings or opinion. It is highly correlated with the attentive and friendly communicator styles (Waldherr, Muck, 2011, p. 18). Empathy and immediacy are the basic features of responsive communicative behaviour.

Responsiveness should not be misinterpreted as weakness or submissiveness. A submissive communicator tends to yield to the opinion and demands of others, disregarding their own rights. On the contrary, responsiveness is displayed in the concern for others' well-being and opinion. At the same time, a responsive person does not surrender his/her standpoint for the sake of maintaining positive relationships or any other form of interaction.

Versatility manifests itself in the capability to adapt one's communication style on the basis of situational demands. Versatility is key for effective communication in that individuals need to be able to differentiate between contexts of communication and make necessary amendments in the communication style accordingly.

Versatility is treated by some researchers in opposition to assertiveness and responsiveness. The former construct is viewed as a manner of dealing with one's own communication style, rather than a dimension suitable for describing communicative behaviour or, in other words, the way an individual chooses from an available repertoire of communicative behaviours depending on the objectives of communication. Thus, research on communication style focuses around the two

fundamental descriptors of SCS, such as assertiveness and responsiveness, while versatility is often overlooked as evidenced by empirical studies.

Merril and Reid (1981) propose their classification of communication styles grounded on the levels of assertiveness and responsiveness:

1) expressive (characterized by high levels of assertiveness and responsiveness);

2) driver (characterized by high levels of assertiveness and low level of responsiveness);

3) amiable (low in assertiveness and high in responsiveness);

4) analytical (exhibiting low levels of both assertiveness and responsiveness) (Merril et al, 1981).

A similar classification was offered by Richmond and Martin (1998), who categorize styles into competent, aggressive, submissive and non-competent. High levels of assertiveness and responsiveness add to competence in SCS and socio-communicative orientation. High levels of assertiveness combined with low responsiveness lead to aggressiveness. Communicative behaviour in which low level of assertiveness is combined with prominent responsiveness is described as submissive. When both assertiveness and responsiveness levels are low, an individual is classified as non-competent (Richmond et al, 1998, p. 139).

Competent communicators with high levels of assertiveness and responsiveness more readily engage in social interactions, maintaining a higher social profile than their less assertive or responsive counterparts.

An insightful framework describing communication styles on the basis of personality theories is suggested by Waldherr and Muck (2011), who contend that behaviour-based tradition in interpreting communication styles and personality-driven paradigm of communication style study often

overlap and offer a perspective overarching both schools of thought (Waldherr et al, 2011, pp. 7−11).

The grounding of their framework is the Five-Factor Theory of Personality (McCrae and Costa, 1996; McCrae et al, 2000) in light of which communication styles are viewed as "characteristic adaptations". The authors further explain that communication styles as "characteristic and relatively stable behavioural patterns, but influenced by personality, which in turn is dependant on individual biological basis" (Waldherr et al, 2011, p. 8). Thus, personality traits are aligned with the communication style chosen by an individual. At the same time, the development of an individual communication style depends not only on the biological basis, but is also strongly influenced by social context, including cultural and social norms, education, unique experience etc. For instance, one's social roles and profession, in particular, make individuals shift to a more assertive behavioural pattern. In cultures where emotional display is unwelcome, expressive extroverted individuals are likely to behave in a more reserved manner as opposed to cultural contexts where openness and expressiveness are accepted as a norm.

The development of an individual communication style is thus believed to be influenced bilaterally by the biological basis, as well as the social context. This holds special relevance for instructional communication and effective teaching researchers. In light of the propositions of the given framework, communication style although genetically dependant can be trained and partially adapted. Nevertheless, the question concerning the extent to which biologically based personality traits can be modified and influenced by instruction remains open.

9. TEACHER COMMUNICATION STYLE

Much of the research into the communication style (CS) construct is concerned with pedagogical context. Teacher communication style is described as "the collective perceptions of a teacher's relational image in the classroom (Kearney et al, 1980, p. 533) or "as individual typological peculiarities of socio-psychological interaction between the teacher and the learner" (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, p. 97).

CS is seen to be critical for effective teaching. Specifically, Norton (1977) pioneered research of the concept of communicator style and its relevance for effective teaching which yielded prolific empirical data supporting his initial suppositions (Andersen et al, 1981; Norton, 1978; Kearney et al, 1980). Andersen et al (1981) established that perceptions of teacher effectiveness and perceptions of student learning (across cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions) were positively correlated with open and active communication attributes of style (Andersen et al, 1981).

Moreover, teacher CS was found to be conducive to students' learning gains. Summing up the results of a number of studies, Wubbles et al (1992) posit that students' perceptions of teachers' communication style are strongly related to academic outcomes and student' satisfaction with the instructional process and the instructor. Friendly, understanding and authoritative communicative behaviour of teachers is positively related to student outcomes, whereas uncertain, dissatisfied and admonishing behaviours are negatively related (Wubbles et al, 1992).

Effective teachers, according to the relevant sources, are highly assertive, responsive, and versatile. In the study of Wanzer and McCroskey (1998) assertiveness, responsiveness, students' affect for the

instructor and the course material were negatively associated with teacher misbehaviour (Wanzer et al, 1998, p. 48). Excellence in teaching is seen as an ultimate goal of assertive teachers. Assertiveness was found to increase students' affect towards both the teacher and the course material. In other words, students expressed liking for assertive teachers. Responsiveness was also strongly associated with students' liking for both the teacher and the instructional content.

Similarly, assertive teachers, perceived by students as decisive, deliberate, challenging, and dynamic, enjoyed greater affect and commitment toward the teacher and course content. Versatility as the third major component of CS was also positively correlated with teaching effectiveness. Teachers perceived by their students as flexible, accommodating and encouraging student work were also reported to enjoy greater affect and behavioural commitment on students' part (Kearney et al, 1980, p. 547−549). Finally, responsiveness, like the previous two dimensions of the socio-communicative style, also invoked greater affect and behavioural commitment.

Responsive and assertive teachers are more effective in establishing positive and trusting classroom atmosphere. Students display higher levels of trust towards teachers perceived by them as responsive and assertive, including students who tend to be reserved (Wooten et al, 1996, p. 99).

Student participation in the classroom is also strongly linked to teachers' style of communication. To illustrate the point, the study of Myers and Rocca (2007) shows that students' class participation was associated with three profiles of teachers' communicator style:

(1) the "human" instructor (made up of such features as openness, attention, friendliness and composure);

(2) the “actor” instructor (including features of the dramatic, impression-leaving and animated styles);

(3) the “authority” instructor (combining attributes of the dominant, contentious and precise styles) (Mayers et al, 2007).

A link between socio-communicative style and learner motivation was established in the study of Martin et al (1997), who maintain that competent socio-communicative style of teachers resulted in greater perceived learner motivation (Martin et al, 1997, p. 437).

The attributes of effective teaching with reference to teacher communicator style were singled out by Norton (1977), who related teacher effectiveness research to the communication frame of reference making a strong point of communicator style construct. In his empirical study, the researcher identifies the following communicator style variables critical to perceived teaching effectiveness:

1. good communicator image – remaining competent in different contexts of communication;

2. attentive – seen as an attentive, caring listener, oriented to learners’ personality;

3. impression-leaving – enhancing learning by exerting influence on students;

4. relaxed – seen by interlocutors as calm, confident, in control without nervous mannerisms and movements;

5. not dominant – perceived as the one who does not override learners’ personalities;

6. precise – seen by respondents as unambiguous as to the content of the course, giving clear explanations and focusing squarely on what should be learned or is unnecessary.

It is suggested in the study that teaching effectiveness is strongly related to teacher's communicator style and improving communication behaviours is essential for excellence in teaching (Norton, 1977, pp. 525–541).

Effective teaching is also associated with dramatic communicator style (Norton and Nussbaum, 1980), entailing such elements as story-telling, humour, jovial attitude, and positive learning environment. More competent teachers are also those considered to be more precise, attentive and less contentious than less competent teachers (Bednar et al, 1984).

A distinct school of thought places communication style within the paradigms of the theories of activity and interaction. In this respect, communication style is conceptualized as a stable form of ways and means of interaction between individuals (Zimnyaa, 2004, p. 168). Communication style in teaching is believed to reflect (a) communication capabilities of the teacher; (b) relationship between teachers and learners; (c) teachers' creative individuality; (d) features of the learner group (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, p. 97).

The research on teacher communicative behaviour is rich in classifications of communication styles based on various underlying principles and elements of the teaching-learning process. Thus, a widely cited classification of Kan-Kalik (1987) focuses on communicative context and individual characteristics of the protagonists of instructional communication:

- *communication style based on active involvement in joint creative activity*, viewed by the author as the most productive style, resulting from the combination of high levels of competence and

ethical orientation of the teacher. Its main features are active and positive attitude towards learners and commitment to one's work, altruism. More importantly, the researcher contends that the style based on active engagement in the work together with students relies not solely on communicative behaviour of teachers, but also on the teacher's overall attitude to professional activity. It is viewed as an ideal form of interaction between teachers and learners and, presumably, correlates with the highest level of teachers' communicative competence.

- Communication style based on *friendliness* – stimulates positive interaction between teachers and learners. However, the researcher warns against overly friendly relations with students, which may negatively impact the instructional process. This refers especially to novice teachers who in order to eschew conflicts with learners are more prone to such mistakes in communication.
- A rather frequent style of communication is described as *distant communication style* assuming distance in the interactions between teachers and learners. Both experienced and novice teachers tend to adopt the given communication style based on teachers' authority, assertiveness bordering on dominance over learners.

A sign of warning given by the author is that authoritativeness should be the outcome of high level of competence and commitment on teachers' part, which is opposed to artificially created distance or barrier between interlocutors. Although teachers adopting the given style are quite successful in maintaining discipline and demonstrate positive learning outcomes, it is often used to disguise drawbacks in teachers'

communicative behaviour. In its pure form, this communication style may lead to serious problems in relations with students.

- - *Communication-intimidation* is rated yet lower on the scale of communication styles. It assumes such features as dominance, attempts at intimidating or, at worst, humiliate learners.
- - Equally negative in terms of relations with students is the style of communication labelled as *communication-flirtation*, typically adopted by beginning teachers who are not capable of establishing productive positive communication with learners due to anxiety anf fear. Teachers favouring this style strive at winning cheap authority in learners' eyes, love and liking of learners. Meanwhile, such teachers, as a rule, lack basic communicative competence and professional experience. Moreover, this style diminishes effectiveness of the teachers' work (Kan-Kalyk, 1987, pp. 62−101).

Classification offered by Markova and Nikonova (1993) is based on teachers' orientation towards the process or result of their work, dynamic style features (stability, flexibility etc.), productivity (learning outcomes, interest toward the subject-matter etc):

1) *emotional-improvisational style* – teachers are oriented to the process of instruction, planning the teaching-learning process insufficiently adequately, use a variety of teaching techniques. Teachers who prefer this style clearly explain the instructional content but fail to provide adequate feedback. As a rule, their attention is focused on bright students, while the rest of the class often remain neglected by the teacher. Class discussion is usually discouraged. Their communication shares the attributes of dramatic, animated and impression-leaving communicator

styles. In general, such teachers create positive learning environment and classroom atmosphere.

2) *emotional-methodological style* – teachers are oriented to the process and results of teaching; intuition prevails over reflection. The given style presupposes careful planning of the instructional process. Teachers establishe positive relationship with learners, treat learners fairly, stimulate interest towards the instructional content and class discussion.

3) *reflective-improvisational style* is the result of orientation to the process and results of teaching, adequate planning of instruction, combination of intuition and reflection. Teachers give clear lessons, explain new material precisely and clearly. Teachers' communicative behaviour is best described by such attributes as attentiveness, precision and reservedness. Such teachers talk less encouraging more talking from learners. As a rule, teachers' attention is focused on weaker learners.

4) *reflective-methodological style* – teachers are oriented to the results of teaching and reflection, adequately plan teaching-learning process. However, the methodological arsenal of teachers adhering to this style is rather poor. Features of teachers' communicative behaviour include attentiveness, argumentativeness and contentiousness. Teachers give boring lessons, fail to stimulate learners' interest towards the subject-matter, and focus mainly on weaker learners. The learning environment is often unfavourable (Markova, 1993, pp. 180−187).

Synthesizing the results of the study, several lines of research into communication style are noticeable:

1) the first research line is grounded in the behaviourist traditions, treating it as a recurrence of patterns of behaviour (Norton R.);

2) the 2nd school of thought centres around patterns of communication behaviour as preconditioned by social dimensions and individual's personality (socio-communicative style);

3) the 3rd approach is largely dependant on personality theories. Accordingly, communication style is viewed as characteristic adaptations of personality (Waldherr A., Muck P.);

4) the 4th line of research places communication style within the paradigms of theories of activity and interaction (Lomov B., Leontiev A.), conceptualizing it as a stable form of ways and means of interaction between individuals.

Overall, the summative findings on teacher communication style accentuate its relevance for teaching effectiveness, including such dimensions as learning gains, affect for the teacher, the instructional content and the course, positive learning environment, students' active participation in the instructional process, learner motivation, trust in the teacher, credibility, positive relations between teacher and learners to mention a few.

10. INEFFECTIVE TEACHING

To err is human

Errors and slips are part of the process of acquiring competence in any profession. Articulating teaching failures, attempting to identify their nature and reasons lurking behind them, scaffolds professional development. However, their oversight or inability to counteract mistakes, not attending to the conflicting areas in one's work aggravated by observable forms, can compromise the quality and effectiveness of teaching.

Much of the ensued academic discussion has been preoccupied with the idea of effective teaching proliferating academic gains of students resting upon the premise that the dissemination of such practices is bound to improve the existing situation in the educational establishments. What falls behind the researchers' focus, however, is the concern over faults in the work of teaching professionals (Kearney, Plax, Hays and Ivey, 1991), undermining its effectiveness, impeding learning gains of students, with health problems and teacher attrition crowning the list.

The recurring concepts in the study of negative teaching behaviours include teacher misbehaviour, difficulties, barriers, mistakes and some others examining ineffective teaching from rather distinct perspectives. In the quality scholarship initiated by Kearney et al (1991) instructor misbehaviour was conceptualized as classroom behaviour of the teacher which undermines instruction and learning. In contrast to the previous studies focusing on learner misbehaviour, the researchers emphasized

teachers' misbehavior which causes student dissatisfaction and resistance (Kearney, 1991, p. 310).

Serious academic efforts have showcased the correlation between instructor misbehaviour and reduction of learners' motivation (Goodboy et al, 2009; Christophel et al, 1995); it jeopardizes cognitive and affective learning (Goodboy et al 2018; Goodboy et al, 2009; Dolin, 1995; Banfield et al, 2006); it is associated with student stress and health problems (Hyman, Snook, 1999); it underscores perceptions of teacher credibility by students (Banfield et al, 2006); low affect for the course and instructor (Banfield et al, 2006). Furthermore, the implications of the research of adverse teacher conduct are relevant across different content areas and age groups. As far as the research findings suggest, the far-reaching consequences of teacher misconduct exclude any possibility of disregard or oversight by stake-holders and anyone concerned with education.

On the other hand, there is a dearth of studies related to the effect of negative behaviour on teachers. From the meager results available it is possible to conclude that mistakes in teaching lead to tension and stress, depression and other medical conditions, burnout and teacher attrition (Lewis, 2006). The present hiatus in the knowledge base is yet to be compensated by subsequent studies.

In the seminal work on instructor misbehaviour, Kearney et al (1991) advance a typology of 28 misbehaviours on the basis of 1762 descriptors given by students concerning perceived teacher misbehaviours. Further cluster analysis revealed 3 general categories of misbehaviour including (1) instructor incompetence, (2) instructor offensiveness, and (3) instructor indolence (Kearney et al, 1991).

Instructor incompetence is attributable to nine misbehaviour types, such as delivering confusing or unclear lectures, showing apathy to students, overlooking their needs and interests, conducting unfair testing, giving boring lessons or lectures, overloading students. Moreover, incompetent instructors lack the expected disciplinary, content pedagogical, general pedagogical knowledge. Also the level of their language proficiency is low etc.

Offensive instructors are those who behave rudely, humiliate students, and disparage their opinion and interests. Their behavioural patterns include sarcasm, hurtful comments, verbal abuse, yelling, making fun of students or intimidating them. It is also displayed in bias and favouritism. Instructor offensiveness is the result of low level of interpersonal communication competence and the personality type described as negative and hostile.

Indolent teachers are prone to play down the importance of their work and student learning. They produce unfavourable impression of being underprepared, disorganized, deviating from the syllabus without any reason, maintaining sloppy professional demeanor (Kearney, Plax, Allen, 2002, p. 129). Indolence stems from the lack of motivation on teachers' part or, possibly, overwork, low level of pedagogical and content pedagogical competence.

In the classification offered by Goodboy and Myers (2015) three categories are accentuated: (1) *antagonism* roughly corresponding with instructor offensiveness in the previously cited classification (e.g. humiliation, verbal abuse etc.); (2) *lectures* (e.g. poor presentation, bad vocal delivery etc.); (3) *articulation* (e.g. poor command of English, accent etc.) (Goodboy et al, 2015).

Classification of Toale et al (2001) includes three underlying factors of instructor misbehaviour, such as irresponsibility, derisiveness and apathy. Irresponsibility largely covers attributes of incompetence and indolence, some of which are poor command of the subject-matter, coming unprepared for classes, cancelling classes without warning, sloppy attitude towards the course and students etc. Derisiveness corresponds to the notion of instructor offensiveness. By apathy researchers describe such negative behaviours as having unrealistic expectations of students, giving tests that are considered by students as too difficult, giving boring, confusing lectures in an unenthusiastic manner, using unfair grading etc. (Toale et al, 2001).

Overall, as indicated by summative results, the most common type of negative teacher behaviour is incompetence, constituting the greatest source of demotivation of students. The most frequently recurring misbehaviours in different cultural milieus (including USA, Germany, Japan and China) are the following: 1) information overload; 2) boring lectures; 3) straying from the subject; 4) keeping students overtime; 5) early dismissal. A silver lining in misbehaviour research is the finding of Zhang (2007), in light of which teachers across various countries have been reported to misbehave infrequently (Zhang, 2007).

In students' interpretation the potential source of teacher misbehaviour causes are teachers themselves: students tend to attribute the reasons for negative teacher misbehaviour not to themselves or to other external factors, but point to internal factors i.e. teachers misbehave intentionally. Thus, students lay the blame not on themselves as a potential cause of problems or classroom circumstances etc. but the teacher. Moreover, even nonverbally immediate teachers could not mitigate the

tendency of students to hold teachers responsible for any committed errors or failures to meet the quality standards of the profession (Kelsey et al, 2004).

Fortunately, most cases of teacher misconduct described in the literature do not involve criminal offense. Illegal instances taking place in educational establishments are relatively few (physical or psychological abuse, sexual harassment etc.). Negative teacher behaviour can be roughly divided into two broad categories: (1) those involving actual commitment of an activity which can be construed as deviating from the norm; or (2) teachers' failure to carry out their professional obligations.

Further on, cases of misconduct can be committed *intentionally* (purposefully, with teachers' intending to do so) or *incidentally* (by chance, without teachers' intention). The teacher can realize the instance of committing an error and gain awareness of it – *conscious* mistake. On the contrary, the teacher may not realize the instances of negative behaviour or tendency to behave adversely or inappropriately – *unconscious* mistake. Negative forms of behaviour can be observable and identifiable or can exist in the form of apprehension to comply with the demands of the profession as a subjective perception of the teacher. They can also be differentiated on the basis of frequency of their occurrence within teachers' professional activity (frequent, infrequent, rare etc.) or the degree of their actualization (extreme – low).

A distinct line of ineffective teaching research adopting a more "cautious" stance, in comparison to teacher misbehaviour pivot, focuses on the difficulties teachers experience and stemming from them mistakes. The variables operationalised in the given research line such as difficulties, hindrances, mistakes, barriers etc. together with major research trends

make such claims viable (Markova A., Semychenko V., Z'azyun I., Slastyonin V., Polyakova T., Kuzymina N., Zimnyaa).

Ineffectiveness of teaching is interpreted in the context of incompetence and associated with it difficulties and mistakes in teachers' work. Difficulties are viewed as subjectively perceived state of termination of an activity due to barriers or hindrances, which prevent one from proceeding to the next task of an activity (Markova, 1993, p. 79). Difficulties are also described as the state of apprehension or awareness of disparity between demands of profession and one's capabilities (Zimnyaa, 2006, p. 33).

Research suggests that difficulties expedite professional self-concept development and competence. Association has been established between teachers' ability to tackle hindrances in the instructional process and enhancement of the quality of teaching (Mitina, 1995). Realizing one's ineffectiveness, paying heed to mistakes and taking steps to counteract them is viewed as a salient feature of professional competence of a teacher (Markova, 1993, p. 79).

Markova (1993) differentiates between three variables labeled by her as (1) difficulties; (2) drawbacks; (3) mistakes.

Teaching difficulties are further categorized by the author into a) low level of pedagogical activity and instructional communication competence (e.g. the teacher experiences difficulties in teaching weaker students or cannot cope with disruptive behaviour); b) failure to carry out one's obligations or use the available means for some reason (e.g. the teacher fails to analyse students' psychological state due to overwork/stress although actually s/he is capable of it etc.).

Drawbacks in teaching arise from inadequate or ineffective application of didactic approaches or communication (e.g. boring, monotonous lessons, frequent use of explanatory-illustrational teaching techniques, making judgements about learners on the basis of academic achievements, low level of communicative competence of the teacher etc.).

Mistakes in teaching are viewed as deviation from the "norm" of the profession (e.g. humiliating students, assessing learners' performance and giving grades on the basis of their behaviour or attitude to the subject etc.) (Markova, 1993).

Difficulties in teaching are caused by (1) insufficient level of generic and content-specific competence (knowledge required of the teaching professional in the given field of study);

(2) low level of didactic competence related to special ability to exert pedagogical impact on the learner (Zimnyaa, 2006, pp. 210−215);

(3) one more potential source of difficulties is teachers' personality and individual characteristics. Further studies should provide empirical evidence clarifying relationship between personality traits and difficulties experienced by teachers or actual faults.

Ineffectiveness is displayed in various forms. Thus, teachers whose work can be characterized as having drawbacks may not experience any perceived difficulties. The same holds true of the opposite: teachers may subjectively experience serious difficulties, while their actual teaching is of high quality. Teachers' attitude towards mistakes largely depends on the adequacy of their self-evaluation and self-concept.

Difficulties in teaching are caused by (1) objective, external reasons not dependent on teachers, such as those experienced by novice teachers during the induction period, teaching a new class of students etc.; (2)

subjective, internal reasons, such as negative psychological states (e.g. anxiety, dissatisfaction, stress, frustration etc.) (Markova, 1993, pp. 81−82). However, subjective reasons causing difficulties in teaching, for instance, low level of communicative competence may develop into objective reasons, like student resistance, confrontation and low affect for the teacher and the subject-matter.

Difficulties are believed to produce (1) positive or facilitating effect or (2) negative or debilitating effect on teaching and teachers. The role of difficulties is facilitative of competence development if they signal to teachers that there are problems in their work or relations with students that need to be obviated. Difficulties may also stimulate teachers' reflection, achievement motivation etc. scaffolding professional development.

Negative influence experienced by teachers may (a) hinder their professional development if difficulties are seen as insurmountable, or in the result of low self-esteem; (b) in extreme cases it results in teachers' abandoning the profession. The transition of difficulties into mistakes takes place on condition teachers inadequately carry out professional tasks or demonstrate inappropriate communicative behaviours (Markova, 1993, pp. 83−84).

In discussing the nature of teaching difficulties and mistakes educational psychologists and communication researchers categorize them as follows:

(I) difficulties and mistakes deriving from the pedagogical activity

(a) which involve such difficulties and mistakes as inaccurate and imprecise planning, failure to inculcate past shortcomings and mistakes, inability to adapt to contextual demands of instructional process, strike a

balance between the tasks related to teaching vs developing students' personality and upbringing.

(b) difficulties related to pedagogical impact exerted on learners' personality are construed as inability to interpret learners' individual characteristics, confined to consideration of individual mental functions (thinking, memory, attention, imagination etc.); evaluation of learners in terms of academic performance, discipline, appearance; equating students' knowledge and their capabilities; excessive emphasis on the reproductive techniques in the instructional process etc.

(c) difficulties and mistakes related to teaching involve overreliance on reproductive forms of student activity, memorization; teachers fail to engage students in active communication process dominating in communication; show favouritism, providing brighter students with more chances of active participation in class work; exaggerate the role of academic gains etc.

(d) difficulties and mistakes in the education of learners arise when teachers unskillfully combine the roles of communicative partner or interlocutor with the formal role of teaching; another example is inability to combine the role of non-dominant readily-available facilitator or counsellor etc.

II. Difficulties and mistakes associated with teachers' self-control and self-regulation springing from insufficient reflection, distorted self-concept and self-criticism. Teachers fail to realize that they are the source of problems hindering effective treatment of professional tasks.

III. Difficulties and mistakes related to communicative interaction, labeled in related studies as psychological barriers hindering communication and exerting influence on all protagonists of the

instructional process (learners, teachers, colleagues, parents etc.) (Markova, 1993; Zimnyaa, 2006).

Extant scholarship on ineffective teaching and difficulties is carried out in the paradigm of instructional communication (Kan-Kalik I., Zalyubovskaia E., Semychenko, Zasluzhenyuk, Murashov A. etc.). Centrally featuring in the studies is the concept of barrier related to difficulties or problems of teaching and mistakes as their consequences.

Communicative barriers are elucidated as absolute or relative blocks to effective communication, which are either subjectively percieved or exist in reality in the contexts of communication, the reasons of which are motivational-operational, individual-psychological and socio-psychological characteristics of interlocutors (Kunitsyna et al, 2001, c. 236). Kan-Kalik I. (1987) points out their psychological roots related to difficulties in communication experienced by teachers as "psychological barriers" impeding communication and having debilitating effect on the the instructional process.

Summarizing relevant research findings, Kan-Kalik I. (1987) identifies eight typical psychological barriers in the instructional communication:

- barrier of discrepancies between expectations – the teacher is enthusiastic about the upcoming lesson, prepares interesting activities, while students demonstrate indifference or apathy, in the result of which an inexperienced teacher feels annoyed and frustrated;

- class fear barrier – the teacher has a sound grasp of the content and has a thoroughly prepared lesson plan. However, the mere thought of future interaction with students intimidates a novice teacher;

- poor contact barrier – the teacher fails to establish close contact with learners, acting “autonomously” from students;

- barrier of narrowing the scope of instructional communication – the teacher concentrates squarely on the subject-matter, eschewing interpersonal communication;

- barrier of negative attitude to the class as a whole – which arises in the result of mistakes in one’s teaching or under the influence of negative opinion of collegues;

- barrier based on the previous negative communication experience with a given group of students;

- fear of pedagogical mistakes (e.g. subjective grading, tardy arrival, running out of time, committing errors etc.);

- imitation barrier – a novice teacher imitates the manner of a more experienced colleague without realizing that individual communicative style is an asset to be strived at (Kan-Kalik, 1987, pp. 34−35).

The effect of barriers in the interpersonal and instructional domains is featured in the work of Semychenko and Zasluzhenyuk (2000). The authors single out physical or spacial-temporal barriers, age-related, situational, social, emotional, biological, linguistic, aesthetic, ethical, and cognitive barriers.

Physical or spacial-temporal barrier is related to the position of the teacher and students in the room. Teachers isolate themselves from students by “hiding” behind objects or distance e.g. table. Beginning teachers are often gripped by the fear of facing students or standing in front of the class.

The given communicative behaviour is most clearly understood in the perspective of teacher immediacy research, which postulates that

individuals are drawn to those whom they like and avoid those who cause their disliking. Therefore, occupying a distant position in the class can be described as non-immediate behaviour.

Age-related barriers concern the difference between needs and motives characterizing different stages of personal development e.g. young learners require more physical activity while teachers prefer calm, quiet students.

Social barriers arise due to teachers' socially more advantageous role in the schooling system. Stereotypically, teachers are expected to act as an authority, being deprived of the right for mistakes and who can resolve any problems, while students should conform to teachers' demands.

Emotional barrier results from individual characteristics of the participants of the instructional process. As to their emotionality, individuals are divided into "rational" and "sensual" that differ in the manner of establishing contact. While "rational" persons come across as reserved and cold, "sensual" individuals openly demonstrate their feelings and emotions, demanding more attention and care.

Biological barriers stem from the difference in the functioning of organic processes. One typical example may serve the variation in the activation phases between "larks" and "owls".

Linguistic barriers are caused by the disbalance in the linguistic competence, when teachers fail to adapt their linguistic repertoire to the level appropriate to learners. Aesthetic barrier relates to the individual treatment of the nature of beauty. Ethical barriers relate to the discrepancy in the perceptions of teachers and students of expected norms and maintained forms of conduct.

Cognitive barriers evolve due to disproportion between teachers' and learners' mental or cognitive development. Teachers' choice of language means may exceed the level optimal for students' comprehension and learning. Thus, learners reject teachers' logical argumentations because children are usually more susceptible to the affective component of communication.

The list of barriers is far from being complete as pointed out by the authors. In the context of classroom communication special relevance assume such barriers as motivational (disparity in the motivational spheres of teachers and learners), socio-cultural and ethnic barriers (polyethnic regions), non-competence barrier (low level of professional barrier) etc. (Semychenko, 2000).

Negligence of communicative barriers leads to negative models of communication causing discomfort for both teachers and learners, and affect classroom climate. Special interest in this respect presents Kan-Kalik's (1987) classification of negative communication models of teachers.

The first model labeled by the author "Montblanc" reflects behaviour of teachers putting themselves in the dominant position isolated from students. Teachers are deeply involved in delivering the instructional material, focusing teaching-learning process round the content and ignoring relational dimension of communication.

The second model called by the author "The Chinese Wall" relates to any barriers eracted artificially by teachers between themselves and learners. Teachers emphasize dominance over students and lack of concern.

The third model – “Locator” is characterized by selective treatment of students, when teachers provide more opportunities for active engagement either of successful or weaker students.

The fourth model – “Robot” is displayed in teachers’ inflexible behaviour with their working according to a predetermined plan irrespective of the situational demands.

The fifth model – “Myself” acting as the sole initiator and leader of the teaching-learning process, teachers decimate learner autonomy, self-regulation and initiative.

The sixth model – “Hamlet” is characterized by teachers’ incessant hesitations and doubts e.g. teachers fear misunderstandings, possible mistakes in their work etc.

The seventh model – “Friend” is revealed in teachers’ attempts at establishing friendly, overly familiar relationship with students.

The eighth model – “Black Grouse” distinguishes behaviour of teachers who do not listen to learners, remain unaware of their psychological state, feelings, and needs, disparage learners’ opinion etc. (Kan-Kalik, 1987, pp. 101−109).

Difference has been observed in the perception of difficulties by experienced and novice teachers. More proficient teachers tend to regard encountered problems in their professional activity as a stimulating factor, when their awareness and reflection motivate teachers to obviate them and engage in self-development. For novice teachers as well as for late stages of professional activity, difficulties and mistakes are perceived as hindrances, causing dissatisfaction and anxiety (Markova, 1993, p. 83).

Retrospective analysis of Regush (2008) reveals that difficulties encountered by novice teachers documented in the relevant studies over

the period of approximately 50 years remain relatively stable, which makes the researcher refer to them as “chronic” (Regush, 2008, p. 51). Unfortunately, the nature and scope of difficulties faced by beginning teachers appear to only increase with time. Thus, in the 70-80ies the perceived difficulties included cognitive and intellectual development of learners, expanding their individual learning strategies, implementing principles of individualization and differentiation, working with unsuccessful students, organizing extra-curricular activities etc. Later studies, while substantiating previously documented findings, expand the list with the problems connected to establishing positive relationships with learners and other participants of the instructional process, as well as low income and entailing it falling prestige of the teaching profession. The added problems are aggrevated by the socio-economic and political changes of the countries where the quoted research was carried out (the Post-Soviet block of countries) (Regush, 2008, pp. 46−51).

Difficulties and mistakes in the work of novice teachers stem from incongruence between requirements vested in teaching professionals and their actual competence level. Regush (2008) singles out four groups of inherent reasons:

1. problems stemming from cognitive-informational (psycho-methodological) incompetence;
2. beginning teachers are not ready to tackle problems of learner education;
3. problems resulting from communicative incompetence;
4. problems associated with individual characteristics of teachers (personality traits, emotional characteristics, self-concept etc.);
5. social problems (Regush, 2008, p. 47).

Another source of serious difficulties reported by teachers is caused by generally low level of learner motivation which respondent teachers pose as an excuse for poor academic results of students and, as a consequence, productivity of their work (Chesnokova, 2005). In essence, the more problems teachers experience, the less responsible and motivated learners appear to them. As shown in the study of Rean et al. (2006), teachers are apt to seek for the reasons for their difficulties and mistakes not in the deficiencies of their own work or communicative behaviour, but in the external reasons, such as learner misbehaviour, low interest, irresponsibility etc. (Rean et al, 2006, pp. 78−79).

One of the factors adversely affecting teachers' assumptions with regard to difficulties is the stereotypically prevailing view held in the society in light of which teachers have no right for mistakes (Rubtsov, 2006). Pressurized with unrealistic expectations, teachers are more subject to stress than representatives of many professional groups. Hence, the fear of mistakes causes additional tension and negative emotions due to inadequate expectations.

Negative emotions experienced by beginning teachers in the result of perceived difficulties and committed errors in teaching are significantly and negatively related to observable behaviour of teachers in the study of Harmsen et al (2018) in terms of such behaviours as safe and stimulating learning climate, efficient classroom management, clear instruction and activation of learning. Negative emotions were shown to adversely affect the quality of teaching of beginning teachers compromising effectiveness of their work (Harmsen et al, 2018, p. 636).

Although mechanisms of transformation of subjective teaching difficulties or barriers into observable mistakes in teachers' work have not

been elaborated yet, what the above described research indicates is that notwithstanding the fact that difficulties cannot be treated as misconduct there is a clear link between them. If difficulties remain unattended to for a prolonged period of time or if no assistance is offered especially to novice teachers, difficulties tend to turn into observable negative forms of teacher behaviour and mistakes with serious consequences for all participants of the instructional process such as ineffective teaching, poor academic performance of students, medical conditions and teacher attrition.

Comparison of paradigms in the various strands of research as described above shows that teachers are held highly responsible for catering learners with success oriented and caring learning environment, demanding of them a steep price for any failures to comply with these expectations. However, certain differences are still discernable in the attitudes of scholars approaching the issue from the point of view of mistakes committed by teachers or as compared to it difficulties/barriers and mistakes as their consequences.

At the risk of oversimplification it is possible to conclude that most of the studies of the latter tradition carried out in the Post-Soviet block of countries are prompted by the low social status and insecurity of teachers, researchers and other professionals of the intellectual sphere. To alleviate the situation of teachers, their working vulnerability and exceptionally high social expectations, researchers prefer to address the given question from the perspective of difficulties as leading to mistakes rather than the former tradition pivoting on teaching mistakes and misbehaviour.

REFERENCES

- Безлюдна, В. (2018). *Теорія і практика професійної підготовки майбутніх учителів іноземних мов у вищих педагогічних навчальних закладах України (1948−2016).* (Дис ... д-ра пед. наук). Рівненський державний гуманітарний університет, Рівне.
- Буткевич, В. В. (1993). *Формирование личности учителя в системе базового педагогического образования: теория и практика (1960–1990 гг.):* монография. Минск: БГПУ.
- Вовк, О. І. (2013). *Комунікативно-когнітивна компетентність майбутніх філологів: нова парадигма сучасної освіти*. Черкаси: Видавець Чабаненко Ю. А.
- Дружилов, С. А. (2005). Профессиональная компетентность и профессионализм педагога: психологический подход. *Сибирь. Философия. Образование. Научно-публицистический альманах*, *8*, 26−44.
- Занина, Л. В., Меньшикова, Н. П. (2003). *Основы педагогического мастерства*. Ростов-на-Дону: Феникс.
- Зимняя, И. А. (1991). *Психология обучения иностранным языкам* в школе. М.: Просвещение.
- Зимняя, И.А. (2006). *Педагогическая психология*. М.: Логос.
- Зязюн, І., Крамущенко, І., Кривонос, І., Самещенко, О., Семиченко, В., Тарасевич, Н. (2004). *Педагогічна майстерність* (За ред. І. А. Зязюна). К.: Вища школа.
- Кан-Калик, В. (1987). *Учителю о педагогическом общении*. Москва: Просвещение.
- Климов, Е. А. (2003). *Пути в профессионализм* (Психологический анализ): Учебное пособие. М.: Московский психолого-социальный институт. Флинта.
- Кричевский, В. Ю. (1987). *Профессиограмма директора школы. Проблемы повышения квалификации руководителей школ*. М.: Педагогика.
- Куницына В.Н., Казаринова Н.В., Погольша В.М. (2001). *Межличностное общение. Учебник для вузов*. СПб.: ПИТЕР.
- Леонтьев, А. А. (1996). *Педагогическое общение*. Москва: Нальчик.
- Маркова, А. К. (1993). *Психология* труда учителя: Книга для учителя. М.: Просвещение.

- Маркова, А. К. (1996). *Психология профессионализма*. М.: Международный гуманитарный фонд «Знание».
- Митина, Л. (1995). *Психология профессионального развития учителя*. М.: Психологический институт РАО.
- Ніколаєва, С. (2014). Іншомовна освіта в Україні: міфи і реальність. *Іноземні мови, 1*(77), 3−12.
- Реан А. А., Кудряшов А. Р., Баранов А. А. (2008). *Психология адаптации личности*. М.: Прайм-Еврознак.
- Регуш, Л. А. (2008). Проблемы выпускника педвуза в период профессиональной адаптации. *Психология образования. Вестник Герценовского университета, 4*(54), 46−51.
- Рубцов, В. В. (2006). Школа и стрессы: современное состояние проблемы. *Вестник практической психологии образования, 1*, 11–15.
- Семиченко, В., Заслуженюк, В. (2000). *Психологічна структура педагогічної діяльності.* Київ: Видавничо-поліграфічний центр «Київський університет».
- Стандарт вищої освіти України: перший (бакалаврський) рівень, галузь знань 03 Гуманітарні науки, спеціальність 035 «Філологія», 2019a. Режим доступу: https://mon.gov.ua/storage/app/media/vishchaosvita/zatverdzeni%20standarty/2019/06/25/035-filologiya-bakalavr.pdf
- Стандарт вищої освіти України: другий (магістерський) рівень, галузь знань 03 Гуманітарні науки, спеціальність 035 «Філологія», 2019b. Режим доступу: https://mon.gov.ua/storage/app/media/vishchaosvita/zatverdzeni%20standarty/2019/06/25/035-filologiya-magistr.pdf
- Стандарт вищої освіти України: другий (магістерський) рівень, галузь знань 01 Освіта/Педагогіка, спеціальність 011 Освітні, педагогічні науки. Проєкт. Взято з https://mon.gov.ua/ua/osvita/visha-osvita/naukovo-metodichna-rada-ministerstva-osviti-i-nauki-ukrayini/proekti-standartiv-vishoyi-osviti
- Чеснокова, Е. Н. (2005). *Метод построения развивающих диалогических отношений «учитель–ученик*: Автореф. дис. … канд. психол. наук. СПб.
- Шабанова, Ю. О. (2014). *Системний підхід у вищій школі: підручник для студентів магістратури*. Дніпропетровськ: НГУ.
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). (2013). *ACTFL/CAEP Program Standards for the Preparation of*

Foreign Language Teachers. Retrieved from: https://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/CAEP/ACTFLCAEPStandards2013_v2015.pdf

- Andersen, J. F. (1979). Teacher immediacy as a predictor of teaching effectiveness. In D. Nimmo (Ed.), *Communication yearbook*, 3 (pp. 543−559). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.
- Andersen, J. F., Norton, R.W., Nusbaum, J. F. (1981). Three investigations exploring relationships between percieved teacher communication behaviours and student learning. *Communication Education, 30,* 377−392.
- Andrews, S., McNeill, A. (2005). Knowledge about language and the "good language teacher". In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Applied linguistics and language teacher education* (pp. 159−178). New York: Springer.
- Banfield, S., Richmond, V., McCroskey, J. (2006). The effect of teacher misbehaviors on teacher credibility and affect for the teacher. *Communication education, 55*, 63−72.
- Baringer, D., McCroskey, J. (2009). Immediacy in the classroom: Student immediacy. *Communication Education, 49* (2), 178−186.
- Bartels, N. (2005). *Applied linguistics and language teacher education*. New York: Springer.
- Bednar, D. A., Brandenburg, M. (1984). Relationships between communicator style and perceived teaching effectiveness in management classes. *Academy of Management Proceedings,* 111−116.
- Bell, T. (2005). Behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers: results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language Annals*, *38* (2), 259−270.
- Bereiter, C., Scardamalia, M. (1993). *Surpassing Ourselves: An Inquiry into the Nature and Implications of Expertise.* Chicago: Open Court.
- Berliner, D. C. (2004). Expert teachers: Their characteristics, development and accomplishments. *Bulletin of Science, Technology and Society, 24* (3), 200–212.
- Borg, S. (2006). The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers. *Language Teaching Research, 10* (1), 3−31.
- Brophy, J. (2006). Observational research on generic aspects of classroom teaching. In P. A. Alexander & P. H. Winne (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (2nd ed. pp. 755–777). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived characteristics of the effective language teacher. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*, 125−138.

- Butland, M. J., Beebe, S. A. (1992). *Teacher immediacy and power in the classroom: The application of implicit communication theory*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Communication Association, Miami, FL.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (ed.). (1991). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (2nd ed.). Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- Chesebro, J. L. (1999). *The effects of teacher clarity and immediacy on student learning, apprehension, and affect*. Unpublished doctoral thesis (D.Ed.). Virginia: West Virginia University.
- Chesebro, J. L. (2003). Effects of Teacher Clarity and Nonverbal Immediacy on Student Learning, Receiver Apprehension, and Affect. *Communication Education, 52* (2), 135−147.
- Chesebro, J. L., McCroskey, J. C. (2002). *Communication for teachers*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Chesebro, J. L., McCroskey, J. C. (2001). The relationship of teacher clarity and immediacy with student state receiver apprehension, affect, and cognitive learning. *Communication Education*, *50*(1). Retrieved from: http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/publications/192.pdf
- Chesebro, J. L., McCroskey, J. C. (2000). The relationship between students' reports of learning and their actual recall of lecture material. *Communication Education*, *49*, 297–301.
- Chesebro, J. L., McCroskey, J. C. (1998). The Development of the Teacher Clarity Short Inventory (TCSI) to Measure Clear Teaching in the Classroom. *Communication Research Reports*, *15*(3). Retrieved from: http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/publications/177.pdf
- Christophel, D. M., Gorham, J. (1995). A test-retest analysis of student motivation, teacher immediacy, and perceived sources of motivation and demotivation in college classes. *Communication Education*, *44*, 292−306.
- Civikly, J. M. (1992). Clarity: Teachers and students making sense of instruction. *Communication Education, 41*, 138−152.
- Cornett-Devito, M., Worley, D. A. (2005). Front Row Seat: A Phenomenological Investigation of Learning Disabilities. *Communication Education, 54*(4), 312−313.
- Cruickshank, D. R., Kennedy, J. J. (1986). Teaching clarity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *2*(1), 43−47.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). Intrinsic Motivation and Effective Teaching: A Flow Analysis. In Bess J.L. (Ed.), *Teaching well and*

liking it: Motivating faculty to teach effectively (pp. 72− 89). Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
- Dainton, M., Zelley, E. (2004). *Applying Communication Theory for Professional Life: A Practical Introduction*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Danielson, C. (2007). *Enhancing professional practice: A framework for teaching* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Ducommun, Ch. (2010). *Recognizing and Developing Effective Teaching: What Policy Makers Should Know and Do*. Policy Brief, May 2010. Washington, DC: Partnership for Teacher Quality.
- Day, R. R., Conklin, G. (1992). *The knowledge base in ESL/EFL teacher education*. Paper presented at the 1992 TESOL Conference, Vancouver, Canada.
- Dincer, A., Göksu, A., Takkac, A., Yazici, M. (2013). Common characteristics of an effective English language teacher. *The International Journal of Educational Researchers, 4* (3), 1−8.
- Dolin, D. J. (1995). *Ain't misbehavin': A study of teacher misbehaviors, related communication behaviors, and student resistance*. Dissertation completed at West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self-system. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9−42). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 589−630). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- European Commission. (2013). Supporting teacher competence development for better learning outcomes. Retrieved from: http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/school/doc/teachercomp_en.pdf
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2015). It's not who you are! It's how you teach! Critical competencies associated with effective teaching. *RELC Journal, 46*(1), 79−88.
- Farrell, T. S., Richards, J. (2007). Teachers' language proficiency. In T. S. Farrel (Ed.), *Reflective Language Teaching: From Research to Practice* (pp. 55–66). London: Continuum.
- Fayer, J. M., Gorham J., McCroskey, J. C. (1988). Teacher immediacy and student learning: A comparison between U.S. Mainland and Puerto

Rican classrooms. In J. M. Fayer (Ed.), *Puerto Rican Communication Studies* (pp. 111−126). Caracas: Icanografica.

- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record, 103*(6), 1013−1055.
- Fendick, F. (1990). *The correlation between teacher clarity of communication and student achievement gain: A meta-analysis* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Florida, Gainesville.
- Fenstermacher, G., Richardson, V. (2000). *On Making Determinations of Quality in Teaching*. Paper Presented at Board on International Comparative Studies in Education of the National Academy of Sciences. Retrieved from http://www-personal.umich.edu/~gfenster/teaqual14ss.PDF
- Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. A perspective from North American educational research on teacher education in English language teaching. *Language Teaching*, *35*, 1−13.
- Freeman, D., Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*, 397−417.
- Gibbs, R., Holt, R. (2003). *The Teaching of International Languages in New Zealand Schools in Years 7 and 8*: *An Evaluation Study*. Report to the Ministry of Education. Auckland: Auckland University of Technology. Retrieved from https://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0020/7535/tchingintlang.pdf
- Ginsberg, S. M. (2007). Shared Characteristics of College Faculty Who Are Effective Communicators. *The Journal of Effective Teaching*, *7*(2), 3−20.
- Goodboy, A. K., Bolkan, S., Baker, J. P. (2018). Instructor Misbehaviors Impede Students' Cognitive Learning: Testing the Causal Assumption. *Communication Education, 67* (3), 308−329.
- Goodboy, A., Mayers, S. (2015). Revisiting instructor misbehaviors: A revised typology and development of a measure. *Communication Education, 64*, 133−153.
- Goe, L., Bell, C., Little, O. (2008). *Approaches to evaluating teacher effectiveness: A research synthesis*. Washington, DC: National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality.
- Golombek, P. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly, 32* (3), 447–464.

- Good, T. L., Wiley, C. R., Florez, I. R. (Eds.). (2009). Effective teaching: An emerging synthesis. In T. L. Good, C. R. Wiley, I. R. Florez (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teachers and teaching* (pp. 803–816). New York: Springer.
- Gorham, J. (1988). The relationship between verbal teacher immediacy and student learning. *Communication Education*, *37*, 40−53.
- Harden, R. M., Crosby, J. R. (2000). The good teacher is more than a lecturer – the twelve roles of the teacher. *AMEE Education Guide No 20: Medical Teacher, 22*(4), 334−347.
- Harmsen, R., Helms-Lorenz, M., Maulana, R., van Veen, K. (2018). The relationship between beginning teachers' stress causes, stress responses, teaching behaviour and attrition. *Teachers and Teaching, 24* (6), 626−643.
- Hattie, J. (2004). It's official: Teachers make a difference. *Educare News, 144*, 24–31.
- Hattie, J.A.C. (2003, October). *Teachers make a difference: What is the research evidence?* Paper presented at the Building Teacher Quality: What does the research tell us ACER Research Conference, Melbourne, Australia. Retrieved from http://research.acer.edu.au/ research_conference_2003/4/
- Hay McBer. (2000). *Research into teacher effectiveness: a model of teacher effectiveness.* Norwich, UK.
- Hines, C. V., Cruickshank, D. R., Kennedy, J. J. (1985). Teacher clarity and its relationship to student achievement and satisfaction. *American Educational Research Journal*, *22* (1), 87−99.
- Houser, M., Hosek, A. (2017). *Handbook of Instructional Communication: Rhetorical and Relational Perspectives*. Taylor and Francis, Routledge.
- Hyman, I. A., Snook, P. A. (1999). *Dangerous schools: What we can do about the physical and emotional abuse of our children*. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.
- Johnson, K. E. (2000). Innovations in TESOL teacher education: A quiet revolution. In K. E. Johnson (Ed.), *Teacher education* (pp. 1−7). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Johnson, K. E., Freeman, D. (2001). Teacher learning in second language teacher education: A socially-situated perspective. *Revista Brasileira de Linguistica Aplicada*, *1*(1), 53–69.
- Katane, I., Aizsila, A., Beitere, Z. (2006). Teacher Competence and Further Education as Priorities for Sustainable Development of Rural

School in Latvia. *Journal of. Teacher Education and Training, 6*, 41−59.

- Kearney, P., McCroskey, J. (1980). Relationships among teacher communication style, trait and state communication apprehension and teacher effectiveness. *Annals of the International Communication Association, 4(1)*, 533−551.
- Kearney, P., Plax, T. G., Allen, T. H. (2002). Understanding student reactions to teachers who misbehave. In J. L. Chesebro & J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Communication for teachers* (pp. 127−140). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Kearney, P., Plax, T. G., Hays, E. R., Ivey, M. J. (1991). College teacher misbehaviors: What students don't like about what teachers say and do. *Communication Quarterly, 39*(4), 325–340.
- Kelly, M., Grenfell, M., Allan, R., Kriza, C., McEvoy, W. (2004). *European Profile for Language Teacher Education – A Frame of Reference*. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/235937694_European_Profile_for_Language_Teacher_Education_-_A_Frame_of_Reference
- Kelsey, D. M., Kearney, P., Plax, T. G., Allen, T. H., & Ritter, K. J. (2004). College Students' Attributions of Teacher Misbehaviors. *Communication Education, 53*(1), 40−55.
- Klusmann, S. Krauss, & M. Neubrand (Eds.) (2013). *Cognitive activation in the mathematics classroom and professional competence of teachers: Results from the COACTIV project* (63−77). New York, NY: Springer VS.
- Koster, B., Dengerink, J. J. (2008). Professional standards for teacher educators: how to deal with complexity, ownership and function. Experiences from the Netherlands. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *31*(2), 135−149.
- Kouwenhoven, W. (2003). *Designing for competence: Towards a competence-based curriculum for the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University*. (PhD thesis). Enschede: University of Twente.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching. From method to post-method.* London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kunter, M., Kleickmann, T., Klusmann, U., Richter, D. (2013). The development of teachers' professional competence. In M. Kunter, J.

Baumert, W. Blum, U. Klusmann, S. Krauss, & M. Neubrand (Eds.), *Cognitive activation in the mathematics classroom and professional competence of teachers: Results from the COACTIV project* (pp. 63–77). (Mathematics Teacher Education; Vol. 8). Springer VS.

- MacLellan, E., Soden, R. (2003). Expertise, expert teaching and experienced teachers' knowledge of learning theory. *Scottish Educational Review, 35* (2), 110−120.
- Lafayette, R. C. (1993). Subject-matter content: What every foreign language teacher
- needs to know. In G. Guntermann (Ed.), *Developing language teachers for a changing world* (pp. 125−157). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook.
- Lantolf, J. P. (2009). Knowledge of language in foreign language teacher education. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(2), 270−274.
- Leu, E. (2005). *The Role of Teachers, Schools, and Communities in Quality Education: A Review of the Literature*. Working Paper #1. Academy for Educational Development, Global Education Center.
- Lewis, R. (2006). Classroom discipline in Australia. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice and contemporary issues* (pp. 1193–1214). New Jersey: Erlbaum.
- Liakopoulou, M. (2011). Teachers' Pedagogical Competence as a Prerequisite for Entering the Profession. *European Journal of Education*, *46* (4), 474−488.
- Liu, S. (2013). Pedagogical content knowledge: A case study of ESL teacher educator. *English Language Teaching, 6*, 128−138.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lunenburg, F. C., Ornstein, A. C. (2011). *Educational Administration: concepts and practices*. (6th edition) Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: A causal analysis. *Communication Research Reports*, *11*(2), 135−142.
- Malikow, M. (2006). Effective teacher study. *National Forum of Teacher Education Journal, 16* (3), 1−9.
- Martin, M. M., Chesebro, J. C., Mottet, T. P. (1997). Students' perceptions of instructors' socio-communicative style and the influence

on instructor credibility and situational motivation. *Communication Research Reports*, *14*, 431−440.

- Mazer, J., McKenna-Buchanan, T., Quinlan, M., Titsworth, S. (2014). The Dark Side of Emotion in the Classroom: Emotional Processes as Mediators of Teacher Communication Behaviors and Student Negative Emotions. *Communication Education, 63* (3), 149−168.
- McCaffrey, D. F., Lockwood, J. R., Koretz, D. M., Hamilton, L. S. (2003). *Evaluating value-added models for teacher accountability*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.
- McCrae, R. R., Costa, P. T. (1996). Toward a new generation of personality theories: Theoretical contexts for the Five-Factor Model. In *J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), The Five Factor Model of Personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 51−87). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- McCroskey, J. C., Fayer, J. M., Richmond, V. P., Sallinen, A., Barraclough, R. A. (1996). A Multi-Cultural Examination of the Relationship between Nonverbal Immediacy and Affective Learning. *Communication Quarterly*, *44* (3), 297−307.
- McCroskey, J. C., Richmond, V. P. (1998). Willingness to communicate. In J.C. McCroskey, J. A. Daly, M., Beatty, M. (Eds.), *Communication and personality* (pp. 119−131). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- McCroskey, J. C., Richmond, V. P., McCroskey, L. L. (2002). The role of communication in instruction: The first three decades. In: B. Y. Gayle, R. W. Press, N. Burrell, and M. Allen (Eds.), *Classroom Communication and Instructional Processes: Advances Through Meta-Analysis*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- McCroskey, J. C., Richmond, V. P., Stewart, R. A. (1986). *One on one: The fundamentals of interpersonal communication*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- McCroskey, J. C., Sallinen, A., Fayer, J. M., Richmond, V. P., Barraclough, R. A. (1996). Nonverbal immediacy and cognitive learning: A cross-cultural investigation. *Communication Education*, *45*, 200−211. Retrieved from: http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/ publications/164.pdf
- Medgyes, P. (2001). When the teacher is a nonnative speaker. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, (3rd ed., pp. 415−427). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

- Mehrabian, A. (1969). Some referents and measures of nonverbal behavior. *Behavioral Research Methods and Instrumentation*, *1*, 213−217.
- Mehrabian, A. (1981). *Silent messages: Implicit communication or emotions and attitudes*. (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Merrill, D.W., Reid, R.H. (1981). *Personal styles and effective performance*. Bradner, PA: Chilton Book Company.
- Metcalf, K. K. (1992). The effects of a guided training experience on the instructional clarity of pre-service teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *8*(3), 275−286.
- Myers, S. A., Rocca, K. A. (2007). The relationship between college student class participation and perceived instructor communication style. *Speech and Theatre Association of Missouri Journal, 37*, 114–127.
- Myers, S. A., Rocca, K. A. (2000). The relationship between perceived instructor communicator style, argumentativeness, and verbal aggressiveness. *Communication Research Reports*, *17*, 1−12.
- National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). (2015−2016a). *World Languages Standards (for teachers of students ages 3-18+)*. Arlington, VA and Southfield, MI: National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.
- National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). (2015−2016b). *English as New Language Standards (for teachers of students ages 3−18+).* Arlington, VA and Southfield, MI: National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.
- Norton, R. (1978). Foundation of a communicator style construct. *Human Communication Research, 4,* 99−112.
- Norton, R. (1983). *Communicator Style: Theory, Applications and Measures (Vol. 1)*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage.
- Norton, R., Nussbaum, J. (1980). Dramatic behaviours of the effective teacher. In D. Nimno (Ed.), *Communication Yearbook 4* (pp. 565−579). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.
- Norton, R. V., Pettergrew, L. S. (1977). Communicator style as an effect determinant of attraction. *Communication Research, 4 (*3), 257−282.
- Norton, R. (1977). Teacher Effectiveness as a Function of Communicator Style. In Brent D. Reuben (Ed.), *Communication Yearbook I* (pp. 525−541). New Brunswick, New Jersey: Transaction Books, Rutgers University.

- Park, G. P., Lee, H. W. (2006). The characteristics of effective English teachers as perceived by high school teachers and students in Korea. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 7*(2), 236−248.
- Pennington, M. C., Richards, J. C. (2016). Teacher identity in language teaching: Integrating personal, contextual, and professional factors. *RELC Journal, 47*(1), 5−23.
- Persson, M. (2006). Dimensions and Recommendations on the New Role of the Teacher. In M. Persson (Ed.), *A vision of European Teaching and Learning − Perspectives on the New Role of the Teacher* (pp. 19−33). Sweden: City Tryck i Karlstad.
- Pettis, J. (1997). Developing our professional competence; Some reflections. *TESL Canada Journal, 16* (2), 67−71.
- Plax, T. G., Kearney, P., McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1987). Power in the classroom VI: Verbal control strategies, nonverbal immediacy and affective learning. *Communication Education, 35*, 43−55.
- Reber, T. (2001). *Effective teaching behaviors and attitudes as perceived by foreign language teachers*. (PhD thesis). University of Arizona, Tucson. Retrieved from https://repository.arizona.edu/bitstream/handle/10150/280364/azu_td_3010237_sip1_m.pdf?sequence=1
- Richards, J. (1989). *Beyond training: approaches to teacher education in language teaching*. Plenary speaker, Macquarie University, Sydney, June 15.
- Richards, J. C. (1998). The scope of second language teacher education. In Richards J.C. (Ed.), *Beyond Training* (pp. 1−30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. (2008). Second language teacher education today. *RELC Journal*, *39* (2), 158−177.
- Richards, J. (2011). Exploring teacher competence in language teaching. *The Language Teacher, 35* (4), 3−7.
- Richmond, V., Martin, M. (1998). Sociocommunicative style and sociocommunicative orientation. In J. C. McCroskey, J. A. Daly, M. M. Martin, M. J. Beatty (Eds.), *Communication and personality: Trait perspectives* (pp. 133−148). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton.
- Roberts, J. (1998). *Language teacher education*. London: Arnold.
- Sandberg, J. (1994). *Human competence at work: An interpretative approach*. Goteborg: Bas.

- Scriven, M. (1994). Duties of the teacher. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 8* (2), 151–184.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher, 15 (2)*, 4−14.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review, 57* (1), 1−22.
- Sidelinger, R., McCroskey, J. (1997) Communication correlates of teacher clarity in the college classroom. *Communication Research Reports, 14* (1), 1−10.
- Simonds, C. J. (1997). Classroom understanding: An expanded notion of teacher clarity. *Communication Research Reports, 14*, 279−290.
- Tajeddin, Z., Alemi, M. (2019). Effective Language Teachers as Persons: Exploring Pre-service and In-service Teachers' Beliefs. *TESL−EJ, 22* (4), 1−25. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1204608.pdf
- Tarnopolsky, O. (2018). Principled pragmatism, or well-grounded eclecticism: A new paradigm in teaching English as a foreign language at Ukrainian tertiary schools? *Advanced Education, 10*, 5−11.
- Teven, J. J., Hanson, T. L. (2004). The impact of teaching immediacy and perceived caring on teacher competence and trustworthiness. *Communication Quarterly*, *52* (1), 39−53.
- Titsworth, S. (2004). Students' Notetaking: The Effects of Teacher Immediacy and Clarity. *Communication Education, 53* (4), 305−320.
- Titsworth, B. S., Kiewra, K. (2004). Organizational lecture cues and notetaking facilitate student information processing. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *29*, 447−461.
- Titsworth, S., Mazer, J. P., Goodboy, A. K., Bolkan, S., Myers, S. A. (2015). Two meta-analyses exploring the relationship between teacher clarity and student learning. *Communication Education, 64*, 385−418.
- Titsworth, S., McKenna, T., Mazer, J., Quinlan, M. (2013). The Bright Side of Emotion in the Classroom: Do Teachers' Behaviors Predict Students' Enjoyment, Hope, and Pride? *Communication Education, 62* (2), 191−209.
- Toale, M. C., Thweatt, K. S., McCroskey, J. C. (2001). *Factor analysis 114 teacher misbehavior items*. Paper submitted for presentation at the National Communication Association Conference, Atlanta, GA.
- Tsui, A.B.M. (2003). *Understanding Expertise in Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Tsui, A. (2003). Teacher knowledge. In A. B. M. Tsui (Ed.), *Understanding expertise in teaching* (pp. 42−66). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tudor, I. (1996). Teacher roles in the learner-centered classroom. In T. Hedge, N. Whitney (Eds.), *Power, Pedagogy and Practice* (pp. 271−283). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- UNESCO (2006). *Teachers and Educational Quality: Monitoring Global Needs for 2015*. Montreal: UNESCO Institute of Statistics.
- Valencic, K. M., McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (2005). A Preliminary Test of a Theory of Instructional Communication. Retrieved from: http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/electronic/
- Velez, J., Cano, J. (2008). The relationship between teacher immediacy and student motivation. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 49* (3), 76−86.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Waldherr, A., Muck, P. (2011). Towards an integrative approach to communication styles: The Interpersonal Circumplex and the Five-Factor Theory of personality as frames of reference. *Communications, 36*, 1−27.
- Wanzer, M. B., McCroskey, J. C. (1998). Teacher socio-communicative style as a correlate of student affect toward teacher and course material. *Communication Education, 47(1)*, 43−52.
- Warner, C. (2016). Contested definitions of excellent teaching: An analysis of the discourse of quality. *Journal of Thought, 50* (1−2), 20−36.
- Witt, P., Wheeless, L., Allen, M. (2007). A meta-analytical review of the relationship between teacher immediacy and student learning. *Communication Monographs, 71*(2), 184−207.
- Witt, P. L., Schrodt, P., Turman, P. D. (2010). Instructor immediacy: Creating connections conducive to classroom learning. In D. L. Fassett and J. T. Warren (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of communication and instruction* (pp. 201−219). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Witt, P., Wheeless, L. (2009). An experimental study of teachers' verbal and nonverbal immediacy and students' affective and cognitive learning. *Communication Education, 50* (4), 327−342.
- Wooten, A. G., McCroskey, J. C. (1996). Student trust of teacher as a function of socio-communicative style of teacher and socio-

communicative orientation of student. *Communication Research Reports*, *13*, 94−100. Retrieved from: http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/publications/165.pdf

- Wrench, J., Richmond, V., Gorham, J. (2009). Communication, affect and learning in the classroom. 3rd edition. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/200017783_Communication_affect_and_learning_in_the_classroom
- Wubbels, T., Créton, H., Hooymayers, H. P. (1992). Review of research on teacher communication styles with use of the Leary model. *Journal of Classroom Interaction, 27* (1), 1−11.
- Yates, R., Muchisky, D. (2003). On reconceptualizing teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*, 135−147.
- Zhang, Q. (2007). Teacher misbehaviors as learning demotivators in college classrooms: A cross-cultural investigation in China, Germany, Japan, and the United States. *Communication Education, 56* (2), 209−227.

APPENDIX 1

European Profile for Language Teacher Education – A Frame of Reference

Structure

1. A curriculum that integrates academic study and the practical experience of teaching.

2. The flexible and modular delivery of initial and in-service education.

3. An explicit framework for teaching practice (*stage/*practicum).

4. Working with a mentor and understanding the value of mentoring.

5. Experience of an intercultural and multicultural environment.

6. Participation in links with partners abroad, including visits, exchanges or ICT links.

7. A period of work or study in a country or countries where the trainee's foreign language is spoken as native.

8. The opportunity to observe or participate in teaching in more than one country.

9. A European-level evaluation framework for initial and in-service teacher education programmes, enabling accreditation and mobility.

10. Continuous improvement of teaching skills as part of in-service education.

11. Ongoing education for teacher educators.

12. Training for school-based mentors in how to mentor.

13. Close links between trainees who are being educated to teach different languages.

Knowledge and Understanding

14. Training in language teaching methodologies, and in state-of-the-art classroom

techniques and activities.

15. Training in the development of a critical and enquiring approach to teaching and learning.

16. Initial teacher education that includes a course in language proficiency and assesses trainees' linguistic competence.

17. Training in information and communication technology for pedagogical use in the classroom.

18. Training in information and communication technology for personal planning, organisation and resource discovery.

19. Training in the application of various assessment procedures and ways of recording learners' progress.

20. Training in the critical evaluation of nationally or regionally adopted curricula in

terms of aims, objectives and outcomes.

21. Training in the theory and practice of internal and external programme evaluation.

Strategies and Skills

22. Training in ways of adapting teaching approaches to the educational context and individual needs of learners.

23. Training in the critical evaluation, development and practical application of teaching materials and resources.

24. Training in methods of learning to learn.

25. Training in the development of reflective practice and self-evaluation.

26. Training in the development of independent language learning strategies.

27. Training in ways of maintaining and enhancing ongoing personal language competence.

28. Training in the practical application of curricula and syllabuses.

29. Training in peer observation and peer review.

30. Training in developing relationships with educational institutions in appropriate countries.

31. Training in action research.

32. Training in incorporating research into teaching.

33. Training in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

34. Training in the use of the European Language Portfolio for self-evaluation.

Values

35. Training in social and cultural values.

36. Training in the diversity of languages and cultures.

37. Training in the importance of teaching and learning about foreign languages and cultures.

38. Training in teaching European citizenship.

39. Training in team-working, collaboration and networking, inside and outside the immediate school context.

40. Training in the importance of life-long learning.

Л−86 Маріанна Леврінц
Навчайтеся викладати ефективно. Навчальне видання (навчальний посібник) Закарпатського угорського інституту ім. Ф. Ракоці ІІ. / Автор: Маріанна Леврінц. – Берегове: Закарпатський угорський інститут ім. Ференца Ракоці ІІ, 2020. – 136 с. (англійською мовою)

Навчальний посібник присвячений проблемі ефективної професійної діяльності вчителя іноземних мов, у розрізі якої розглянуто трансформацію ролей вчителя-філолога, детермінанти ефективності викладання іноземних мов, концептуальні положення фахової компетентності вчителя-філолога, педагогічної майстерності, педагогічного спілкування, труднощі й помилки у роботі вчителів та ін. Матеріал може бути корисним викладачам вищих навчальних закладів, науковцям, аспірантам, вчителям і студентам.

УДК: 378.141.4

Навчальне видання

НАВЧАЙТЕСЯ ВИКЛАДАТИ ЕФЕКТИВНО

Навчальний посібник

2020 р.

Підготовлено Видавничим відділом спільно з кафедрою філології Закарпатського угорського інституту ім. Ференца Ракоці ІІ

Автор:
Маріанна Леврінц

Коректура:
авторська

Відповідальні за випуск:
Ільдіко Орос (Закарпатський угорський інститут ім. Ф. Ракоці ІІ)
Олександр Добош (ЗУІ ім. Ф. Ракоці ІІ, Видавничий відділ)

Друк навчального видання здійснено за підтримки уряду Угорщини

Видавництво: *Видавничий відділ Закарпатського угорського інституту ім. Ф. Ракоці ІІ (Адреса: пл. Кошута 6, м. Берегове, 90202. Веб-сторінка: www.kmf.uz.ua Електронна пошта: kiado@kmf.uz.ua Тел.: (00 380-3141) 4-28-29*

Поліграфічні послуги: *ПП Лац Ч. С. (Адреса: пл. Кошута 4, м. Берегове, 90202. Електронна пошта: kalvin.nyomda@gmail.com*

Підписано до друку 21.02.2020. Шрифт «Times New Roman».
Папір офсетний, щільністю 80 г/м². Тираж 100.