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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this article is to propose the Distance Professional Development and Support System (DPDS), an approach specifically designed to help non-native speakers of English teach English-as-a-Foreign Language (EFL) in a non-English-speaking setting. English has become the primary language of international communication, and there is a growing need for teachers of EFL. Research shows above all that a good instructor, trainer, manager of learning, and communicative partner is what is needed. Therefore, the outcome of training in English depends to a great extent on teachers, which makes teacher professional development especially important. The greatest need is in the area of teaching non-native speakers of English to be good teachers of English to other non-native speakers in a non-English-speaking setting. Teaching EFL in a non-English-speaking setting presents different demands and challenges (both advantages and disadvantages) that must be addressed. It is concluded that such situations require greater focus on language forms and on intercultural comparisons, but that EFL teachers who are not native speakers of English but who share their students' mother tongue and culture have a number of advantages over their native English-speaking colleagues unable to find support in making recourse to the language and home culture of their students. The proposed DPDS model is effective in overcoming the disadvantages non-native English-speaking EFL teachers face while preserving their advantages. (Contains approximately 58 references.) (KFT)

EFL TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A CONCEPT, A MODEL, AND TOOLS

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The alternative to development is stagnation (Peter Roe)

Introduction

As English has long ago become the No.1 language of international communication, there is a constantly growing interest in learning this language everywhere in the world. In order to satisfy the demand for English, four major types of training that have been in existence - professional language university/college education, special language school training for adults, high school language education, and private small-group or individual tutoring - received a boost in the 1990s. Besides, intensive training as a specific kind of short-term teaching/learning English has been implemented in different countries. To facilitate the process of learning English, new educational technologies based on the use of computers and telecommunications in education have been applied. A rapidly expanding inventory of self-instructional courses and materials (printed, audio, video, electronic and online) is available on the market. So, we can assert that teaching/learning English has turned into a booming international industry. However, all the advancements in theory and practice of English teaching and learning prove once and again that to achieve proficiency in L2, a good instructor, trainer, manager of learning, and communicative partner is what is primarily needed.

Therefore, the outcome of training in English depends to a great extent on teachers. This is why there has always been an acute interest in the teachers' professional development (PD) that included some kind of organized training and upgrading - the goals of which were to improve or update their professional knowledge and skills, and to help them teach more efficiently throughout their teaching careers.

The purpose of this article is to discuss the teachers' PD programs and ways of improving them when the programs in question are designed for teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL), i.e., outside the countries where it is spoken and where it has internal communicative functions and sociopolitical status (e.g. Nayar, 1997). The PD programs that will be discussed further on are mostly related to training or upgrading EFL teachers who are not native speakers of English (such teachers will be referred to as TENNS hereafter), though they also concern the EFL teachers who are native speakers of English (hereafter referred to as TENS).

The issue of PD programs for the former category of teachers requires particular attention because it is an indisputable fact that internationally, i.e., outside English-speaking countries, it is the TENNS that constitute the absolute majority of the English-teaching profession. There are comparatively few teachers of English who are native speakers of this language in China, Ukraine, Portugal, or Chile. But there are millions of

learners of English in those countries, and they are mostly taught by their compatriots who are trained professional teachers of English but not native speakers since they share their students' mother tongue and culture.

Before speaking about PD programs for such teachers, two questions should be answered. The first is whether there are differences in teaching English as a second language, i.e., in an English-speaking country (ESL), and EFL teaching. The second question is whether a TENNS is always at a disadvantage in comparison with her/his native-speaking colleagues or whether the former may have some advantages over the latter in EFL situations described above. The following two sections of the article will be an attempt to provide answers to these two questions.

ESL/EFL Differences and Their Consequences

Researchers' opinions differ as to the answer to the first question of the two raised above because some of them deny the existence of any difference in the way EFL should be taught in comparison with ESL. On the contrary, other authors emphasize the difference analyzing its underlying reasons.

Those authors who do not see the necessity of clear differentiation between ESL and EFL teaching base this opinion on the assumption that second language acquisition data are fully applicable to foreign language learning (Savignon, 1990; VanPatten, 1990). Yet, many others support the notion that the two processes do not coincide. For instance, Seliger (1988: 27) points out that, despite the universality of manner and order of acquiring the L2 by speakers of different first languages, there are no data to disprove the possibility of different effects for first language transfer in contexts where learners have little or no exposure to the second language outside the classroom, and where all the other students speak the same first language. Wildner-Bassett (1990) sees a clear-cut distinction between a second language setting where native and non-native speakers communicate for real communication purposes and a foreign language setting where only artificial communication is possible. Though this author ascribes different discourse patterns more to classroom - non-classroom differences than to FL/SL differences, these dissimilar patterns are quite real and objective. That is why Kramsch (1990) is justified in saying that a separate agenda is necessary in foreign language learning research as distinct from second language acquisition research.

All in all, it may be said following VanPatten, & Lee (1990) that there is no unanimous opinion concerning the relationship between second language acquisition and foreign language learning. But the opinion that the two processes are different at least in some respects and therefore should be treated differently is quite well-founded and matches a lot of empirical data. At any rate, **two principal differences** can be pinpointed that will hardly evoke any objections on the part of researchers and practical teachers.

The first of these differences becomes clear from the very definition of what foreign language learning is as distinct from second language acquisition. Foreign language teaching/learning means that L2 is not used as one of the primary means of communication in the country where it is learned, i.e., there is reference to the speech community outside this country (Berns, 1990b; Paulston, 1992). In other words, we speak about EFL when English, as it has already been mentioned above, is taught in countries where it has little or no internal communicative function or sociopolitical status

(Nayar,1997: 31); it is just a school subject with no recognized status or function at all (Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985).

This means that EFL learners, unlike ESL learners, get in touch with English only in the classroom, and hardly anywhere else outside it. Moreover, class hours in EFL conditions are inevitably limited. If English is learned at school or university, there are many other subjects to study - therefore, classes of English cannot be held more frequently than two or three times a week. If it is learnt in the framework of some intensive program (IEP), the situation is, of course, better, but even in these conditions people cannot have classes every weekday for five or six hours as is usually the case with ESL IEPs. It is because EFL IEPs are usually designed for learners who do not discontinue their work or studies during the program period as is done by those ESL students who come to an English-speaking country with the purpose of acquiring the command of English.

The inevitable consequence is scarcity of input in English (comprehensible or any other), serious limitations in variety, richness and volume of the input available to an EFL student in comparison with an ESL student. It means that, as compared to ESL, EFL learners have very limited opportunities of developing their interlanguage and gradually bringing it nearer to the target language following the classic second language (SLA) acquisition paradigm (Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1985) - through making and testing their own hypotheses as to the target language structure on the basis of rich and varied comprehensible input. This unavoidable deficiency has to be compensated for, and such a compensation has hardly any other alternative than explicit focusing on language forms with the aim of supplying students with hypotheses and testing them in special language form-focusing learning activities.

In ESL teaching the need for and usefulness of what is called **focus on** language **form** (see Doughty & Williams, 1998) and **formal grammar instruction** has until lately been either strongly doubted or completely rejected, following Krashen's theory (1982, 1985) SLA. But in recent years the pendulum has started swinging in the other direction. Quite a lot of authors insist on the necessity of an approach rationally combining communication and cognition, i.e., on reinforcing unconscious language acquisition in communication with conscious focusing on language structures. Rutherford (1987) who developed the theory and practice of students' consciousness-raising as to grammar forms has always been one of the most ardent proponents of the idea that language focusing is inevitable in SLA. A number of other authors supplied data (often experimental) supporting the need of some kind of formal grammar instruction as an inherent part of teaching for facilitating acquisition (Bley-Vroman, 1990; Doughty, 1991; Herron & Tomasello, 1992; VanPatten, & Cadierno, 1993). Even Ellis (1986; 1990; 1994) who is very cautious about admitting the positive role of formal grammar instruction points out that it enhances the second language acquisition by accelerating its process.

If such views are gaining prominence in SLA theory and ESL teaching, they are all the more true in what concerns EFL teaching where, as it has already been said, there is a serious deficiency in volume, richness and variety of comprehensible input, and compensation for this deficiency can hardly be found anywhere else but in integrating some sort of formal grammar instruction into the teaching/learning process. The absolute necessity of such an integration in EFL is supported by many authors, and one can rarely meet objections to it in the professional literature. For instance, Chaudron wrote,

"Instruction will especially be valuable when other naturalistic input is not available, as in a foreign language instruction contexts, or when learners are at a low level of proficiency and not as likely to obtain sufficient comprehensible input in naturalistic encounters" (1988: 6). Such a proposition is shared by McDonough & Shaw (1993: 35) who point out that "... a more grammatically oriented syllabus is to be preferred in a context where English is a foreign language and where learners are unlikely to be exposed to it".

Since nobody doubts that English is taught for communication, and the only way to teach communication in the target language is learning it in communication and through communication, the question arises how to achieve in EFL the integration of formal grammar instruction and focus on language form into the dominantly communicative approach leaving intact the prevailing communicative constituent of the teaching/learning process. One of the ways of attaining this is the **communicative-analytic approach** already described elsewhere (Tarnopolsky, 1997; 1998).

This approach is based on the assumption that focus on language form (analysis) will serve the purpose of EFL learning for communication only if communication absolutely dominates analysis so that the latter is nothing more than a support for accelerating the development of communicative competence. Such a kind of combination of communication and cognition (communicative-analytic approach) is possible if the pattern of "guided communication – focus on language form (analysis) - unguided communication" is followed in the organization of learning activities in the framework of every learning unit consisting of several classes.

According to this pattern, the first stage (one or two classes) in a learning unit is devoted to students' receiving the greatest possible amount of comprehensible input in the target language and to their attempts to use this input in their own communication without analyzing new language forms - just on the basis of input models, i.e., synthetically, as comprehensible output (Swain, 1985). It can be done only with different speech supports from the teacher and teaching materials guiding the process of learners' verbal interaction and making it a guided (controlled) quasi-communication. The holistically communicative approach at the start of every learning unit makes the new language material in the input communicatively meaningful for learners and ensures its initial processing and retention in communication. It permits making the second stage in the learning unit a class of analysis devoted to focusing students' conscious attention on the new language forms that were already used in guided communication. The principal contents of learning activities at this stage are analyzing these forms and their purposeful practicing. Though such practicing is primarily language form-focused, it should at the same time simulate some basic features of communication as the function of this practice is command of language forms for their free and fluent use in further verbal interaction. This leads to the crowning stage (one or two classes) in a learning unit - that of unguided communication with no artificial speech supports. The suggested approach ensures gradual elimination of the middle link in the "guided communication – focus on language form (analysis) - unguided communication" pattern as soon as learners master some pre-set minimum of target language forms (usually at the point of transition from the intermediate to the upper intermediate level). It means that the communicative-analytic approach presupposes its own transformation into a purely communicative one.

The approach just discussed is only one of a whole number of possible alternatives for organizing EFL teaching/learning. Its advantage (that was proved in a special research - see Tarnopolsky, 1998) is in taking full account of the first of the two differences in EFL situations as compared to ESL, i.e., the deficiency in volume and richness of comprehensible input that students get - this deficiency requiring considerable but balanced focus on language form that is called upon to help and accelerate the development of learners' communicative abilities, in no way damaging or delaying it.

There is also **the second principal difference** of EFL learning from ESL acquisition that originates from the same source - absence of learner's immersion into the target language cultural community. To explain this difference, it should be remembered that communication in any language does not mean only output and intake of verbal content information. Not all of it is content information since a great part is bound up with social and cultural norms of a given community (formulas of politeness, etc.) while some of the information is not verbal (e.g., gesticulation accepted in a given culture). This aspect of communication is reflected in Hymes' (1986: 63-64) notions of **norms of interaction** and **norms of interpretation**. Hymes shows that norms of interaction are specific proprieties and behavior attached to speaking, while norms of interpretation may be considered as those behavioral norms that are crucial for correct interpretation of information being received in communication (e.g., the acceptable distance between interlocutors in different speech communities). These ideas of Hymes were a source of inspiration to quite a number of sociolinguistic studies that have demonstrated the need to teach L2 learners rules of speaking, or **sociolinguistic behavior**, proper to the target language native speakers (Wolfson, 1989). Such studies have proved that intercultural miscommunication is the result of **socioliolinguistic transfer of behavior** characteristic of L1 speech community into interaction with native speakers of L2 (Chick, 1996). That is why what McGroaty (1996: 11) called "language behavior during social interaction" and, in general, the culture of interaction proper to the target speech community must absolutely become an integral and fundamental part of education when L2 is taught and biliteracy is developed (Hornberger, 1996).

The specific information in communication that was spoken above as relating to sociolinguistic behavior may be called **communicative behavioral information** since it is a regulator of interlocutors' behavior in verbal interaction (norms of interaction and norms of interpretation). All possible regulators of this kind may be called **communicative behavioral patterns** and divided into three principal types.

1. Verbal communicative behavioral patterns that can be demonstrated by a culturally recognized behavioral difference between two questions (absolutely identical from the point of view of content information conveyed) - "Do you want anything to drink?" and "Would you like anything to drink?". The first one is behaviorally appropriate when talking to a close friend, someone of the family , etc. but not in the formal polite intercourse where only the second alternative question would be admissible.
2. Non-verbal communicative behavioral patterns such as whether it is required or not to shake hands on meeting; how to gesticulate and what gestures are admissible in the process of communication in a given culture (taking into account different meanings of identical gestures in different cultures); what style of dressing is socially and culturally acceptable and what is the meaningful message of this or that mode of dressing for members of the given community - and a multitude of similar patterns.

3. Lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns that reflect ways of doing simple everyday things, as well as verbal and non-verbal communication structuring while doing such things as shopping, using public transport, having meals, providing oneself with housing accommodations and many others - things that are done differently (often very differently) in different cultures. Command of just those patterns characteristic of the target language culture is probably no less important than the command of the target language itself since it is their absence that is the principal cause of the cultural shock often felt by a person immersed into an alien (foreign) cultural community[1].

If in both ESL and EFL teaching following the communicative approach communicative behavioral patterns of the first type (verbal) are always taught very thoroughly, those of the second and third types (non-verbal and lifestyle ones) are either not taught at all or taught in a very fragmentary manner. There is nothing surprising in this. An ESL or EFL teacher who is a native speaker of English often does not do it since it is not required by coursebooks s/he uses, s/he has enough problems on her or his hands without it, and she or he was not taught at the university that this particular problem is so important. An EFL teacher who is not a native speaker of English and who has not herself or himself ever been to the United States or Great Britain does not usually have reliable and comprehensive sources from which to take this particular information. Coursebooks of English have it only in fragments and as a rule do not set it down systematically - even if purely cultural issues are treated (much more attention is given to some exotic traditions or to descriptions of political and educational systems, history, art, and literature). It is also hardly surprising even if the authors of coursebooks are native speakers of English since, as Wolfson (1989: 53) justly pointed out, "... sociolinguistic patterns are ... not objectively known to native speakers, including the teachers and material writers who are most in need of applying them".

It may not be a very great problem in ESL teaching because a student who is acquiring her or his English in an English-speaking country will grasp non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns very quickly (though not without a cultural shock if they are not taught purposefully) just because she or he gets permanently in touch with these patterns due to immersion into an English-speaking cultural community.

But an EFL learner may, and usually does, finish her or his course of English without having any idea of how different non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns in her or his home culture and in the English-speaking cultural communities are. As a result, however good a command over the target language a learner acquires, it does not save her or him from a lot of problems and misunderstandings with native speakers and social institutions in the target cultural community - especially if it is vastly different in its style of daily life as compared to her or his home community. In such a situation cultural shocks are especially serious and painful - due to the contrast between a good command of the language itself and inability

[1] Communicative behavioral patterns may be classified differently – all of them can be divided into verbal and non-verbal communicative behavioral patterns while the area of communication (and interaction in general) will serve as another basis for classifying both verbal and non-verbal patterns. In this way we will have not only lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns but also behavioral patterns in business communication, in military communication, in all sorts of professional communication etc. But this classification is more useful for sociolinguistic research and for ESP teaching. The classification given above, being more compact, seems to be more convenient for teaching General English.

to understand what is going on around you. In this respect for EFL learners acquiring the target culture's non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns while learning communication in the language of that culture is of particular importance.

All of this means that non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns must find a considerable place in EFL teaching (it is certainly possible only after specific teaching materials are prepared). The inclusion of such patterns into the teaching/learning process bears much closer relation to getting familiarized with the target community's culture than to acquiring its language. And learning alien (foreign) culture in the midst of the home culture is hardly possible without constant comparisons between the two cultures for finding differences and similarities.

Therefore, everything said above leads to a conclusion that there must be two principal differences in organizing EFL teaching as compared to ESL. The first of them is almost universally admitted. It is in the requirement to focus more on language form and formal grammar instruction activities without encroaching on the fundamental principles of the communicative approach, mainly the principal one of them - teaching language for communication, in communication, and through communication. The second difference is generally much less emphasized but seems no less important. It lies in the requirement to pay much greater attention to developing target culture communicative behavioral patterns (first of all, non-verbal and lifestyle ones) on the basis of comparing them to those of the home culture.

The formulation of these two principal differences makes it possible to start discussing the second question put at the beginning of this article. This is the question of what are the advantages and disadvantages in EFL of a teacher of English who is not the native speaker of it.

Non-Native and Native-Speaking EFL Teachers: Their Comparative Advantages and Disadvantages

Discussing this issue, it is better to start with the advantages in EFL situations of a teacher of English who is not the native speaker of it (TENNS) as compared to teachers of English who are native speakers of this language (TENS). It is done because, as it has already been mentioned in the Introduction, TENNS will probably always be in the majority in EFL worldwide, and if a situation cannot be changed, it is probably most important to find what its advantages are. Some advantages of a TENNS in EFL have already been discussed in professional literature.

The opinions of some of the authors on this issue are inextricably bound up with the question of using or not using the mother tongue in the English classroom. It is not infrequently emphasized now that "English only" tactics in the classroom are more damaging than the limited use of learners' mother tongue where it may help (Auerbach, 1993). The first language is hardly avoidable in ordinary EFL conditions where all the learners, as well as the teacher (TENNS), speak it. In this case the most favorable situation for L2 acquisition is absolutely impossible since it requires: 1) a great deal of oral language input not only from teachers, but also from native speakers of that language; 2) an opportunity to use L2 in meaningful contexts where feedback from native speakers is received (McLaughlin, 1985). So, it would not be reasonable not to use the advantages given by the common knowledge of L1. These advantages are in

opportunities of turning to L1 in order to facilitate some specific difficulties of L2, and in using L1 for explaining some points that it would be hard to explain in L2 since such explanations could take too much time and effort. That is the opinion supported by Cook (1999: 201) who considers learners' L1 a valuable instrument in presenting meaning. That is also why Widdowson (1994) strongly objects to the assumption that a native-speaker is always better as a teacher of English than a teacher whose mother-tongue is not English. If English is taught as a foreign language in a non-English-speaking setting where all learners share the same first language, the teacher who speaks this L1 has the advantage of being better prepared to cope with those specific problems of his/her students that originate from incompatibilities or differences in the target and native languages (Medgyes, 1983; Tang, 1997).

The view that native speakers are not always the best teachers of English is gradually spreading (O'Dwyer, 1996). It also finds support in the current opinion that different kinds of teaching materials are needed when teaching English in different countries - in Germany they cannot be the same as in Japan, and there cannot be one and the same teaching methodology for all the countries (Berns, 1990a: 104-105). If this approach is correct, participation of teachers and specialists in teaching English who are not native speakers of it, in organizing and carrying out EFL teaching becomes absolutely indispensable, as well as making appropriate use of students' L1 in such conditions.

The opinions quoted above may be summarized in saying that according to them, the advantages of a TENNS in EFL lie in the ability to make recourse to students' mother tongue where it can facilitate, accelerate and improve the learning process and also in the ability to better understand students' problems in English - those ones that originate from L1-L2 differences.

The analysis made in the preceding part of this article provides strong support to these opinions and also adds some other advantages. If paying greater attention to focus on language form activities (i.e., to students' consciousness-raising as to language forms) is required, such consciousness-raising will certainly be much more effective and students will get much clearer ideas about the target language structure by way of comparing it to the mother tongue structure. In ESL teaching such explicit comparisons are hardly possible since there are students with different mother tongues in one and the same group while the teacher's mother tongue is as a rule English - not the same as those of her/his students. But even if this comparison is not done explicitly, it is inevitably done by students themselves since "whether we like it or not, the new language is learnt on the basis of a previous language" (Stern, 1992: 282). It certainly primarily concerns adult and adolescent learners who speak only their mother tongue from their early childhood (are not bilingual or trilingual from childhood) because for them their L1 is such an integral and inseparable part of their personalities and mentalities that everything in the new language is perceived from the point of view of and compared to the L1's structure and rules. So, there is no sense in excluding such explicit interlingual comparisons in the situations where they are quite possible and rational - in monolingual EFL groups of learners where the teacher shares her or his students' mother tongue. But it can only be done if the teacher does share it, meaning that this sharing is an advantage of a TENNS over a TENS in EFL situations.

To give support to the view that explicit interlingual comparisons and an ability to make them in EFL is indeed an advantage for the teacher, some ESL/EFL research can be

cited. In the last two decades the research interest in L1 transfer and interference questions has been greatly revived and a number of works on these issues have been published (see, for instance, Adjemian, 1983; Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Kellerman, 1984; Odlin, 1989). It comes to be more and more often emphasized in these works that interlingual awareness of students, which is the result of interlingual comparisons, fosters the use of transfer strategies (see a practical example in the article by Deignan, Gabrys, & Solska, 1997). The relevant set of ideas may be summarized in the following quotation from Schweers (1997: 10) who asserts that there is

> ... a correlation between a learner's level of interlingual awareness and the frequency of use of transfer strategies. Interlingual awareness is a learner's awareness of and sensitivity to relationships that exist between L1 and L2 at all levels. The more interlingually aware learners are, the more frequently they will use the transfer strategy. Furthermore, interlingual awareness and transfer use can be increased through the use of modules that draw the learners' attention to areas of similarity and difference.

Therefore, one more advantage of a TENNS over a TENS in EFL is that the former can purposefully develop her or his students' interlingual awareness while the latter cannot[2].

What has been said about learners' interlingual awareness is also true in what concerns their intercultural awareness. Moreover, developing intercultural awareness in EFL teaching/learning process seems even more important than developing interlingual awareness. It is because in the conditions of students' little personal contact with the target cultural community, when the target culture is nothing but "book knowledge", only purposeful comparisons with the home culture can give it some "flesh and blood". And again, a TENNS is much better equipped for making such comparisons and developing learners' intercultural awareness than TENS (certainly, if a TENNS has enough knowledge about the target language cultural communities, especially in the domain of non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns discussed before). A TENS, having to say a lot about her or his home culture, cannot compare it to the home culture of her or his students as s/he does not ordinarily know this latter culture well enough[3].

There is one more psychological advantage pinpointed by Cook (1999: 200) who wrote that "... students may feel overwhelmed by native-speaker teachers who have achieved a perfection that is out of the students' reach ... . Students may prefer the fallible nonnative-speaker teacher who presents a more achievable model".

Everything said above leads to the conclusion that a highly qualified and competent TENNS has the following five advantages over a TENS when English is taught as a foreign language (outside the country where it is spoken) in a monolingual group and when this TENNS shares her or his students' mother tongue and home culture:

1) s/he can use her/his students' mother tongue whenever and wherever it can facilitate and accelerate the process of learning English;

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[2] A TENS certainly can do it too if she or he has a good command of her or his students' mother tongue and the group taught is monolingual, but it is a rare occasion for TENS.

[3] Of course, if s/he does know it and can make the comparisons in question, s/he is much better equipped for teaching culture, non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns to EFL students than a TENNS. But such cases are as rare as cases of a TENS having good command of her or his students' mother tongue.

2) s/he is much better equipped to help her/his students cope with those learning problems that depend on L1 and L2 differences and that can be solved effectively only when the teacher has a clear idea about the essence of these differences;
3) s/he is much better equipped for developing her/his students' interlingual awareness conducive to their acquiring those transfer strategies that are an important prerequisite for target language learning;
4) s/he is much better equipped for developing her/his students' intercultural awareness that is the only way of learning target culture (especially target non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns) in the conditions where students have no or very little direct contacts with target cultural communities;
5) s/he "presents a more achievable model" to her/his students not overwhelming them with the native-speaker's perfection.

The list of advantages should be set off against the list of disadvantages - meaning certainly only the disadvantages of a highly qualified and competent TENNS, those ones that are hardly avoidable despite the qualification. These disadvantages are self-evident.

The first of them is the foreign accent and other more or less serious imperfections in English that the best of TENNS often cannot get rid of during all the length of their careers - even if their visits to English-speaking countries were frequent or they stayed there for a long time. It is well known that the achievement of native-like perfection in a foreign language not only takes many years of practicing but the goal is seldom fully attained - practically never if language is learned in the adult state and not in the early childhood (Walsh & Diller, 1981). In general, L2 adult learners as a rule stop short of native-like success in a number of areas (Towell & Hawkins, 1994: 14-15), and the goal of attaining native-like perfection is better not set at all, especially in such a delicate field as pronunciation. The same may be said about training future teachers of English who are not native speakers of it if they started learning the language as adolescents or adults which is most often the case.

The second disadvantage is the fact that for a TENNS, however competent she or he is, it is very difficult to be aware of all the recent developments in the English language itself. Any language is a living organism that undergoes constant changes. Even if a TENNS acquired her or his English in an English-speaking country, on returning there after 20 years of teaching it in the home country, she or he will find the language not inconsiderably changed, especially in vocabulary. And many TENNS often do not get to English-speaking countries even once in their lifetimes (or get there only once or twice). Regular listening to the radio and watching films in English, reading books, magazines and newspapers, contacting native speakers who come to the home country of a TENNS can remedy the situation to some extent, but there is hardly any doubt that her or his opportunities of being up-to-date in what concerns the latest trends and tendencies in English are more than limited in comparison with a TENS.

The same can be said of cultural awareness. It is especially true concerning the non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns. It has already been mentioned that they are often not taught purposefully. Not only "ordinary" EFL students but teachers of English who are not native speakers of it sometimes do not even suspect that these patterns may be quite different in their home culture and in the target culture.

Certainly, such TENNS cannot properly make their students ready for contacts with target language cultural communities on coming to an English-speaking country. They cannot make their students immune to cultural shocks - so, this disadvantage (lack of cultural awareness), if a TENNS has got it, is probably the gravest of all.

The last, fourth, disadvantage of a TENNS is tied to limited availability of the latest and most advanced English teaching materials and methods developed in English-speaking countries - those materials and methods that are much easier accessed and better known by a TENS. Such organizations as the British Council and some others do a lot to disseminate the materials and methods in question but their efforts cannot reach all the TENNS and there are many other objective limitations (for instance, financial).

All the discussion above leads to a conclusion that there are both very serious advantages and substantial disadvantages of a TENNS (as compared to a TENS) in the situation when she or he teaches English as a foreign language in her or his home country. It may be even tentatively said that in some way advantages and disadvantages balance each other. This fact leads to further discussion of the issue with the view of considering TENNS prospects in EFL teaching situations.

These prospects can be considered only at one angle. If it is true that TENNS will always be in the majority in EFL so that EFL teaching will be done mainly by them, then their prospects depend on how well their advantages can be used and on how well their disadvantages can be fought against.

As to using advantages, it is clear that they can most fully be used under the conditions of the already described communicative-analytic approach. Due to its analytic component, this approach seems to be best adapted to developing learners' interlingual and intercultural awareness by making relevant comparisons. It gives the best opportunities for rational using of students' mother tongue in the process of such comparisons and analysis, and it also gives opportunities to the teacher to concentrate on just those specific L2 problems that present the greatest difficulties to learners with a definite L1.

But to use all these advantages of the approach and of being a TENNS, the teacher must have all the appropriate methodology and materials at her or his disposal. Development of such methodology and materials directed specifically at teaching English as a foreign language in a given country with a given mother tongue and "mother culture" of EFL students may probably be considered as the **priority task** for EFL researchers and developers of teaching materials. Such a task for any given country with any given mother tongue and culture of its EFL students cannot certainly be solved by researchers and developers who do not know this country, its language and culture well enough. The best solution would probably be forming teams or task-forces consisting of EFL researchers and developers of teaching materials from an English-speaking country and from the country for which the methodology and the teaching materials in question are to be designed. Such task-forces may be temporary - with the task of developing just one particular methodology and one set of teaching materials (for instance, to teach children of a certain age) - or more permanent teams may be formed gradually working towards developing methodologies and teaching materials for different categories of learners and different kinds of EFL courses. If such specific methodologies and teaching materials to be used by competent and highly qualified TENNS are created, it will be in these teachers' power to greatly improve EFL teaching in their countries.

The next problem is bound up with the question of fighting those disadvantages of TENNS that were described above as often inherent even in the best of them. And it is just the concern of PD programs that are the subject matter of all the discussion that follows.

Types of Professional Development Programs and Characteristics of an Efficient EFL Teacher Needs-Oriented Program

There are various PD programs for EFL teachers run by the schools of education at the universities and by the governmental departments of education: postgraduate, full-time out-of-service, in-service, short-term ones, as well as various workshops, seminars, etc. Three types of PD programs can be differentiated: content/subject-oriented (knowledge acquisition), process/activity-oriented (skill formation), and comprehensive (competence development) programs. Further on such programs will be discussed using Ukraine as an example – a country of the former Soviet Union that is quite typical of all the other newly independent states (NIS).

In Ukraine, as well is in other NIS countries, most of PD programs for EFL teachers have been and remain content/subject-oriented. They offer a rigorous study of advanced grammar and lexicology courses, and theoretical pedagogy and psychology courses. Little was and is offered as far as contemporary communication in English and social and cultural aspects of English use are concerned. The training was and often remains based on outdated, obsolete and often incorrect materials and involves few, if any, encounters with native speakers of English. Taking such a kind of training programs at least once in five years is what is strictly required even now of any Ukrainian (Russian, Byelorussian, etc.) EFL teacher. But in view of what was said above about TENNS disadvantages and the characteristics of such programs given in this paragraph, they are mostly inadequate to the task of eliminating those disadvantages.

In recent years some process/activity-oriented programs of PD have appeared in Ukraine while the best short-term language programs are offered in the English-speaking countries, primarily in Great Britain and sometimes in the USA. These programs, though they also have a heavy content/subject bias, help to develop and improve trainees' communicative skills. A natural English-speaking environment is, certainly, an advantage. Unfortunately, only an infinitesimal fraction of the EFL teachers from Ukraine or other NIS countries ever has a chance of taking a PD course in the USA, Great Britain, or Canada. Therefore, those programs cannot efficiently solve the problem of eliminating or softening the disadvantages of all the corpus of TENNS in any given country either.

Finally, comprehensive (competence development) programs are practically non-existent in Ukraine (and other NIS countries) as competence development is a complicated and time-consuming task.

In short, the existing PD programs are cost-ineffective, demand heavy investment of the teachers' time, impose on the school workload and budget, and the outcome is far from desired. Since they are often organized and conducted in a traditional way, the effect of most of these programs is short-term - they can be likened, using Peter Roe's expression, to "recharging of batteries" (Roe, 1994: 22).

It becomes evident from what was said that a full time, long-term and heavy load PD programs provided once in a few years are neither sufficient nor efficient for TENNS from Ukraine or other NIS countries. The paradigm of education is changing, so should teachers' PD. A comprehensive system of teacher PD that can be up-to-date, efficient, continuous, accessible, convenient, flexible, friendly, and cost effective is needed. What the PD programs must be like and what they are required to do, may become clear from the preceding analysis of TENNS disadvantages because the aim of any program of this kind can only be either totally eliminating or at least softening them.

It does not need to be specially proved that to soften or eliminate the first three disadvantages (imperfections in English, lack of awareness in recent developments in English, and lack of cultural awareness), a TENNS needs:

1. Regular and sufficient opportunities to communicate in English, orally and in writing, with native speakers.
2. An easy access to practical information concerning the recent developments in the English language, in literature, arts, culture in general, in ways and styles of life of the English-speaking nations.
3. Conditions to develop language knowledge and skills (by solving language tasks).
4. Conditions to develop cultural knowledge and skills (by solving cultural tasks).

In order to get rid of the last disadvantage (insufficient competence in the latest developments in English language teaching, in what is done in this field in English-speaking countries), a TENNS needs:

1. An access to contemporary teaching and learning materials.
2. An easy access to information about what is done in ESL teaching in English-speaking countries, what the latest developments and trends in that field are.
3. An opportunity to interact with university professors and scholars in the field, as well as with colleagues (methodological support) – especially from the English-speaking countries.
4. An access to qualified methodological help, including lesson plans, various activities and techniques, ready-made recommendations regarding possible classroom situations, professional advice (especially if such help is rendered by professors, scholars, and colleagues from the English-speaking countries).
5. An opportunity to be involved in some kind of EFL PD program that includes practical teaching on the basis of the latest approaches, methods, and materials (e.g., experimental teaching).

It should be noted that what has just been said about the TENNS disadvantages and their needs for eliminating and softening them, concerns not only the EFL teachers from the above discussed Ukraine or other NIS countries. It may be safely asserted that those are the universal needs of TENNS the world over. To meet those needs effectively in any non-English-speaking country, teacher's training and upgrading should be permanent, continuous – not just more or less regular and periodic because an interruption will mean immediate teacher's slipping backwards and "loss of touch". Therefore, the training of the advocated kind can only be mostly in-service, and theory and ways of organizing it are the subject matter of the remaining part of the article.

Theoretical Foundations of TENNS Professional Development

Learning is a process of personal development and knowledge construction. Being a social process itself, it takes place in a rich context of other intermingled social processes, whether in the university or in a school setting, outside a classroom or in the family. The outcomes of learning in the form of personal achievements return to the society and become part of new social processes.

Salomon and Perkins suggested four defining concepts that shape social constructivist's view of learning and development. First, individual learning is embedded in social processes; other individuals and groups are always involved in such learning. Second, learning is mediated by participation in a social process of knowledge construction; knowledge and outcomes are jointly constructed and distributed across the social system. Third, so-called artifacts or "tools" provide the scaffolding for learning; these tools are the vehicles for transporting cultural knowledge among members of the social group and from one generation to the next. Fourth, the collective group itself is a learning system; as a learner, the group functions better or worse depending on how its structures are able to address conditions for learning (Salomon&Perkins, 1998: 1-24). In short, from a social constructivist perspective, "psychological processes and social structures originate and reside in social interactions, with social groups taking identity of learners" (Blanton et al., 1998: 239)

Thus, if we want to build a contemporary system of teacher PD, one of its major premises would be the theory of social constructivism. For this purpose, we need to organize an ongoing social process of learning and development in the community of EFL teachers, have teachers and local groups of teachers involved into this process on a continuous basis, provide efficient interaction and communication among them on the ground of common interests and subject matter platform in order to jointly construct the group (community) and individual knowledge and develop efficient professional competence. All available technologies and tools that might be helpful to improve this process will be of use.

PD, as a specific form of learning, is a planned, continuous, life-long process of dynamic personal development in a certain area or several related areas, a "constant process of reinvigoration and growth" (Roe, 1994: 22). It is, certainly, teacher's own responsibility, yet, as his or her performance is evaluated by the outcome in the classroom, PD becomes a condition and an integral part of the teacher's career. However, we cannot expect all teachers to volunteer for PD, or know exactly what they need and how to do it. So, we have to develop a permanently accessible (just-in-time) system that, together with rich resources that any teacher is free to use via a menu of options, offers some kind of organized training and management. We need to establish a "dynamic process which will be self-sustaining for a significant amount of time" (Roe, 1994: 26) with a structure, training facilities, efficient collaborative activities, counseling and consulting, as well as communication between teachers involved in the same program, and with the instructors and experts in subject matter and theory of instruction.

From our point, in order to develop a comprehensive system of Professional Development and Support (PDS), a collective group needs to be established that, in the case under consideration, is the professional community of EFL teachers. Social processes in that group need to be organized in the form of interactions between

individual teachers on the basis of common tasks. Solving these tasks becomes a process of joint knowledge construction that provides PD.

This knowledge construction for an EFL teacher means continuous development and support of all the four major competences that are required in her/his profession: linguistic, communicative, cultural (sociolinguistic), and pedagogic (Serdiukov, 1997) – those competences that are the seats and "hotbeds" of all the disadvantages of a TENNS (see before). Thus, knowledge construction is in its essence nothing else but a process of eliminating or softening such disadvantages.

An efficient continuous PDS system meeting the above requirements can be elaborated using the available Information Technology tools to implement social activities and learning. Distance PD may be a good example of using such technologies (Serdiukov, Niederhouser, Reynolds, 2000).

Distance Professional Development and Support

The technological basis for providing this kind of PD involving communication and collaboration is computer-based telecommunications via the Internet (e-mail, listservs, bulletin boards, chat groups, videoconferencing). These tools are regarded not merely as delivery tools but "as mediators of learning interactions in educational settings" (Blanton et al., 1998: 240).

It is recognized that, among other technologies,

> ... computer- and video-mediated conferences are tools especially suited for constituting social arrangements that enable the joint construction of knowledge. Discourse created by these tools provides an opportunity for prospective teachers to relate everyday classroom teaching experiences to theoretical knowledge acquired in university courses and, conversely, to use theoretical knowledge to make sense out of everyday classroom events (Blanton et al., 1998: 238).

So, educational technology (ET), and primarily telecommunications technology, serves a number of purposes, the major three being: 1) access to unlimited online educational resources, 2) communication and collaboration among teachers irrespective of their location and time factor, 3) provision of organizational structure for PD.

Roe (1994) established "the case for a significant 'distance' element in teacher development not as a cheap and inferior option because we cannot afford the best, but because it is an essential major ingredient of the *best* option" (Roe, 1994: 22). Information technology (IT) tools "allow access to multiple representations of information, collaboration and communication with others" (Blanton et al., 1998: 236). The real development takes place at a distance from the PDS center while off-site management (mediation) is necessary to provide planned, controlled, and stimulating PDS. Its task is to ensure not so much the actual training but guidance for self-training.

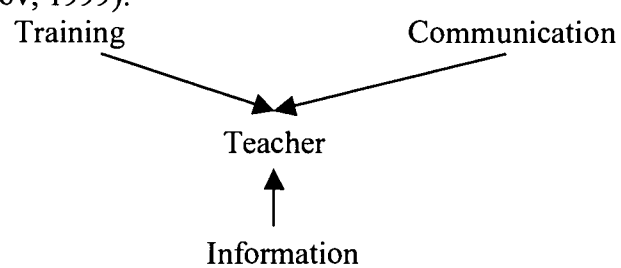
Many researchers are convinced that "at this point, it seems possible to develop comprehensive programs for the preparation of teachers that integrate computer-based telecommunications across teacher education" (Blanton et al., 1998: 238). A very concise overview of literature on the use of telecommunications in teacher education was completed by Blanton, Moorman and Trathen (Blanton et al., 1998). They reviewed the research on applications of computer-based telecommunications via the Internet to teacher preparation from the perspective of social constructivism and reasoned that "teacher education would be a cornerstone for the implementation and diffusion of

telecommunications technology" (Blanton et al., 1998: 240). This review is organized round three broad categories of studies: 1) implementation of telecommunications projects; 2) changes in learning and patterns of participation with effects of telecommunications on individuals and groups; 3) introduction of telecommunications in a social setting and the resulting changes in the community discourse. The authors came to the conclusion that though communications is "a tool with a potential to bridge theory and practice, there has been little investigation of how telecommunications might be used as a tool to connect the scientific knowledge of teacher preparation with everyday teaching practices"(Blanton et al., 1998: 259). So, we need to develop a theory of PD and create models that instantiate the principle of social constructivism, build a working system of PDS, and apply these models to practical teacher's PD.

Model of PDS System

Such a system should include up-to-date and effective PD and training programs, all the necessary learning materials and an easy access to qualified methodological help in addressing everyday classroom issues. These problems are particularly acute for teachers in rural schools. An efficient system of continuous professional development and support that would assist them in all aspects of their pedagogical activities can be built on a multimodal approach developed in our TSAT Model (Training based on Systemic Application of Educational Technology) (Serdiukov, 1997: 310-319). The technological basis for this kind of PD involving both group and individual work, independent or instructor-managed, is computer-based telecommunications via the Internet: e-mail, listservs, bulletin boards, chat rooms, and videoconferencing. These tools allow multiple representation of information, communication, and collaboration with other people, and are regarded not as merely delivery tools but as "mediators of learning interactions in educational settings" (Blanton et al., 1998: 240). This distance learning approach to PD has such advantages as mass accessibility, economic benefits, convenience, flexibility and immediate feedback.

A Distance Professional Development and Support (DPDS) System developed on the basis of our approach consists of 3 modules: training, communication and information ones (Serdiukov, 1999).



The training module includes on-line courses, computer courses, telecourses, automated tests, workshops and teleconferences. These courses can be either planned credited courses or non-credit courses for general learning. *The communication module* allows participants of the PD program to interact with the instructors of the course. It also serves the function of providing access to peers, experts, teachers engaged in the same PD program and colleagues outside the program, and is a tool for cooperative and collaborative activities in the group. *The information module* provides current

information on the developments in the field, access to distributed educational resources like on-line libraries, university databases, educator web-pages, to various materials for self-study and teaching collected in the DPDS bank, etc. This module can also be localized to tie in with a particular training module or course. It may include an automated methodological expert subsystem for continuous online teachers' support. There is overlap and intermingling of the modules' functions to a certain degree, but each serves a unique role.

A key unit in the system is the Web-based course. It provides structure for the course, learning materials, assignments, quizzes, readings, and calendar. Communication in the web-based course is supported by two groups of technologies: Computer-Mediated-Communication (CMC), including email, chat, and discussion groups, and videoconferencing (CU-SeeMe and whiteboard). Independent study is based on both the materials offered through the Web-based course and on the more traditional materials like books, audio and videotapes, floppy and laser discs. The Support unit is a multifaceted subsystem that provides resources including an automated expert system, a bank of teaching and learning materials, tests and quizzes for self-evaluation, and reference materials (online and print-based). It is clear that this model makes complex use of a variety of educational technologies. Application of the suggested approach can be seen in the model below - of a complete training session designed for one lesson of a PD course:

Steps	Independent Activities	Small Group Activities (without instructor)	Whole Group Activities (instructor-mediated)
1	Course outline study	-	Video lecture
2	1. Independent learning 2. Project design	Group collaborative work (classroom video assessment)	Workshop (video conference)
3	1. Independent learning 2. Lesson preparation	Teaching practice in the classroom (videotaped)	Analysis, discussion and evaluation by the group (video conference)
4	1. Project development 2. Self-evaluation	Peer consultations and chat	1. Project presentation 2. Assessment 3. Lesson summary

This model was developed from a number of experiences, in particular from our TSAT Model (Serdiukov, 1997) and a corporate training scenario (Payr, 1999). The 4-step lesson session that can take from 4 to 12 study days comprises the types of activities necessary to provide efficient PD, starting with the new topic and material introduction (Step 1), offering various types of learning activities, both individual and group ones, that also include a training classroom video assessment and every trainee's lesson analysis and evaluation (Steps 2 and 3), and ending with the project development, presentation and assessment (Step 4). It combines individual, small group and whole group collaborative work that may be either independent or instructor-mediated, and three kinds of assessment: self-evaluation with the help of automated tests, group evaluation, and final overall instructor assessment. All the activities are supported through technology.

It is worth noting that one of the main components of this model is practical lesson development and implementation by each teacher who is involved in a PD course. "Teachers develop as teachers through the process of teaching" (Roe, 1994: 24), or in the 'on-the-job' activities. Experience and PD come through research and practical performance in the real classroom (lesson preparation, implementation, and self-evaluation) and training outside this classroom (lesson analysis, discussion, and assessment by the peers and instructors), besides regular learning. So, practice teaching or micro-teaching and team-teaching with observation or videotaping of each class given by one of the teachers with subsequent group analysis and discussion is an essential part of this model.

Organization of the DPDS

One of the preconditions of continuous, and effective, PD becoming practical and realistic is the combination of three factors: 1) well-defined requirements for the quality of teaching imposed on and controlled by an educational administration, 2) Professional development and Support (PDS) system that is available for any teacher to use it, and 3) teachers' willingness to meet these requirements

It is important that, according to the contemporary principle of learner-centered education, we use a teacher-as-a-learner-centered approach. The PDS systems' mission is to assist the teacher in his/her PD, not to do it for him/her.

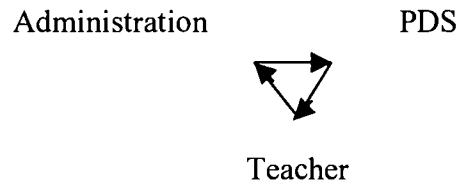


Fig. 1. The Educational Triad of Teacher's PD

The triad shown in Fig.1 is a system of interrelated elements: educational administration issues the teacher qualifications standards; the PDS system offers "smorgasbord" of PD opportunities (Roe, 1994) for the teacher to use and comprehensive

support that are correlated with the standards; the teacher takes advantage of the opportunities and updates his professional competencies; the educational board monitors the quality of teaching.

A number of distance education programs for the training of ESOL teachers was described by Purgasson (1994). These programs are divided into two major groups: full-length programs providing extended advanced training, and individual courses of various types. Some of the programs in the first group offer on- and off-campus phases (called 'sandwich' programs). The structure of these programs is this:

1. Distance course - 8-9 months
2. Contact course - 10 weeks
3. Distance course - 8-9 months
4. Contact course - 10 weeks

A continuous PD should, in our view, include programs of both these types in one all-embracing framework and offer three levels of PD that differ in duration, goals, and sophistication:

1) a non-stop (permanent and continuous) PD environment open to all EFL teachers who can use any services they need (in-service only, unlimited duration, most general, unspecified goals, low to moderate degree of sophistication);
2) special courses on particular subject areas that qualify for a credit (in- and out-of-service training combined – e.g., as shown in the paragraph above - , comparatively short duration of training, specific goals, moderate to high degree of sophistication);
3) degree programs (in- and out-of-service combined – e.g., as shown in the paragraph above - , longer but finite duration of training, combination of both general and specific goals, high degree of sophistication).

To be efficient, this DPDS system should satisfy a number of requirements, among them openness, friendliness, flexibility, and capability for modification and improvement. The system must also be self-contained.

Implementation of this model requires cooperation among interested organizations and coordination of the efforts and resources. The best way would be to combine all the existing resources and make them available to the EFL teachers worldwide. A global bank of resources together with a PD Center could be created under the auspices, for instance, of TESOL, Inc. To cover the running expenses, it may be organized as an association with reasonable membership fees, however, the fees should be paid only for the two organized programs - the degree and credit ones. The third program should be free and open to all. The certificates for the two programs completion must be internationally recognized - they have to be offered through the above-mentioned PD Center by major internationally recognized educational institutions.

Conclusion

Teaching English as a foreign language in a non-English-speaking setting has differences as compared to teaching English as a second language in English-speaking setting. The former requires greater focus on language forms and on intercultural comparisons. Due to these differences, EFL teachers who are not native speakers of

English but who share their students mother tongue and culture, have a number of advantages over their native-speaking colleagues unable to find support in making recourse to L1 and home culture of their students. At the same time, non-native-speaking EFL teachers have a number of serious disadvantages that should be either completely eliminated or, at least, substantially softened to make their EFL teaching truly efficient. Such elimination (softening) is impossible without permanent, continuous teacher's in-service training going non-stop during all her/his professional career and interrupted only by regular periods of combining it with out-of-service training.

Organizing such non-stop training becomes possible when using modern information technology tools, first of all distance learning tools. A specific model of Distance Professional Development and Support (DPDS) system designed for non-native speaking EFL teachers has been elaborated and discussed in this article.

This DPDS model is actually teachers' informational and learning, social and technological environment that offers all the materials, tools, guidance and help needed to support their successful professional activity in the class throughout their careers. The strength of the model lies in the fact that the teachers' individual learning and PD is embedded in various social processes organized and supported via a system of educational technologies.

The DPDS system based on the suggested model is designed to offer effective and cost-efficient teachers' PD. It can be expanded by adding intensive instructor-managed training sessions that help to preserve an optimal ratio between technology-based and live teaching/learning experiences. Students then engage in collaborative and individual work through both technology-mediated and face-to-face communication.

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