JIMALEE SOWELL
Cote d'Ivoire

Good Instruction-Giving in the Second-Language Classroom

Imagine you are attending a seminar. The facilitator gives instructions, and you have a vague notion of what you are supposed to do, but you do not want to ask the facilitator to clarify because you are sure you are the only one who has not understood. After the facilitator tells you to start working, you turn to the person next to you and ask, "What are we supposed to do?" That person says, "I'm not sure. I thought you would know." Soon you realize that almost everyone in the room is confused, while the facilitator is standing behind the lectern wondering why no one has started engaging in the activity she just explained.

Most of us can recall an experience where the facilitator delivered instructions, but we were unclear about what we were expected to do. And, as teachers, most of us have had experiences of giving instructions that were misunderstood or incomprehensible to our learners. While occasional foibles in giving instructions are understandable, mastering instruction-giving is a fundamental aspect of good classroom teaching practice. Instructions and their delivery can be the determining factors as to whether a lesson succeeds or fails (Scrivener 2011; Ur 1996). According to Ur (1996, 16), research indicates "that learners see the ability to explain things well as one of the most important qualities of a good teacher." For example, Wragg and Wood's (1984, 82) research found that the teacher's "ability to explain is most highly valued."

This article will investigate the importance and rationale for giving clear instructions in the second-language classroom and provide techniques for giving effective instructions.

THE IMPORTANCE OF INSTRUCTION-GIVING

Instruction-giving has a direct effect on learning; a lesson or activity becomes chaotic and fails when students do not understand what they are supposed to do. Nonetheless, good instruction-giving is a challenge for both native and nonnative language teachers, as well as for both seasoned and novice teachers. However, instruction-giving is a skill that is sometimes neglected for preservice and in-service teachers in teacher-training programs. New teachers might assume that it is a skill that will be naturally mastered; more experienced teachers might assume that it is a skill they have already mastered. For all language teachers, however, instruction-giving is an area that deserves attention and practice, as it has a major impact on how well students

are able to carry out activities and, as a result, how well they learn.

GIVING INSTRUCTIONS IN THE MOTHER TONGUE

Opinions differ as to whether instruction-giving is a permissible use of the first language (L1) in the second-language (L2) classroom. Atkinson (1987), Auerbach (1993), and Macaro (1997) agree that instruction-giving is an occasion that warrants use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. Both Ur (1996) and Cook (2016) believe that some use of the mother tongue might be necessary. Salaberri (1995) and Gardner and Gardner (2000) assert that students should be introduced to the use of English from the first class; doing so helps students understand that foreign languages are not just subjects to be studied but are also, and more importantly, a means of communication. Therefore, teachers should strive to incorporate the L2 needed for instruction-giving right from the beginning of a course (Salaberri 1995).

Of course, any use of the students' native language is possible only if the instructor has some familiarity with it. In multilingual classes, it is an unrealistic expectation for the instructor to manage explanations in multiple languages. By extension, if teachers who do not speak their students' native language(s) can make their instructions understood in English, it is possible for teachers who speak their students' L1 to make themselves understood in English as well.

There might be instances when the use of the L1 for instruction-giving is justified for the sake of efficiency and clarity, but there is a danger of overuse and the possibility that students and teachers will become accustomed to the comfort of instructions in the L1. In my own experience in South Korea with students who had already studied English for many years, I found that quite a few of them had difficulty understanding simple instructions in English. I surmise that this difficulty arose because of former experiences with receiving instructions in their L1. While use of the native language to give instructions might be helpful for beginning-level students, if continued for too long, it becomes a handicap rather than a help.

USING TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE TO GIVE COMMON INSTRUCTIONS

One of the preliminary activities I did with my Korean students at the beginning of each semester was based on Total Physical Response (TPR), a method of language teaching where the teacher gives a command and the students perform the action (Asher 2009). I first gave students a handout with a list of common instructional commands used throughout the course, such as "Take out a pen or pencil" and "Turn to page ____" (see Table 1 for a list

1. Take out a pen or pencil. **2.** Take out a piece of paper. **3.** Write your name on the paper. **4.** Open your books. **5.** Turn to page _____. **6.** Read page _____. **7.** Close your books. **8.** Put your books away. **9.** Stand up. **10.** Sit down. **11.** Find a partner. Put your desks face-to-face.	**12.** Get into a group of _____ students. Put your desks together. **13.** Make a half-circle with the desks. **14.** Look at the board. **15.** Look at the teacher. **16.** Look at the dialogue. **17.** Repeat after me. **18.** Raise your hand. **19.** Put your hand down. **20.** Pass your papers to the front.

Table 1. Common classroom instructions in English

of common instructional commands). After demonstrating the actions and going over the list with students, I gave commands and had the students perform them. In my experience, starting the course with TPR for common instructions helps students understand typical classroom language, which has a positive impact on classroom management.

While initial TPR activities lay a foundation for classroom instructions and classroom language, they do not need to be restricted to the beginning of a course. Teachers can add pertinent mini–TPR lessons for instructions (and related classroom language) as the course progresses. TPR lessons for instructions can relate to different aspects of the class, such as *Instructions to Set up Class Work* and *Instructions to Bring the Class to an End* (Gardner and Gardner 2000; Salaberri 1995), or they can be created based on student needs. Of course, TPR activities should match students' proficiency levels. It is also important not to overwhelm learners with too many instructions in English at once (Gardner and Gardner 2000).

For native and nonnative teachers who need guidance on giving instructions in English as well as other classroom language, Hughes (1981), Gardner and Gardner (2000), and Salaberri (1995) are valuable resources. Additional online resources for classroom language teaching and learning include the following:

www.finchpark.com/courses/links/classroom.htm

www.eslprintables.com/vocabulary_worksheets/school/classroom_language/

https://en.islcollective.com

Following are descriptions of the three stages for giving good instructions: the preparation stage, the delivery stage, and the post-delivery stage.

THE PREPARATION STAGE

Good instruction-giving begins in the preparation stage. Although teachers may feel they can easily improvise, instructions "are often not as clear to their students as they are to themselves" (Ur 1996, 16). A good way to make sure your instructions for an activity are clear and concise is to write them out as you develop your lesson plan (Woodberry and Aldrich 2000). Scrivener (2011) suggests sticking with words that are familiar to your students, trying to write one sentence for each main point, and—if your instructions seem too long—deleting as many words as possible while still keeping the original meaning. Of course, there will be some

Wordy Instructions	Concise Instructions
1. Now, I would like for you to get out a piece of paper and put it on your desk.	**1.** Take out a piece of paper.
2. Once the paper is on the desk, could you please write down five questions using the present continuous tense?	**2.** Write down five questions using the present continuous tense.
3. Now that you have written five questions, I would like for you to fold the paper in half.	**3.** Fold your paper in half.
4. Now, when I turn on the music, please pass your paper to the person on the left, and I would like for you to continue passing your papers until the music stops.	**4.** When the music starts, pass your papers to the left. Continue passing your papers until the music stops.

Table 2. Revising wordy instructions

variation as to what will be acceptable for your students, depending on their proficiency level. Keep in mind, however, that instructions should be simple and clear for all learners (Ur 1996). Table 2 gives an example of how to revise wordy instructions to make them shorter and more comprehensible.

It is important to plan instructions in advance until you feel confident that you can deliver acceptable instructions without preplanning (Scrivener 2012). Even with sufficient practice, you might find that you sometimes need to plan instructions, especially for complex or multistep tasks and particularly for beginners.

Consider what additional input aids understanding

During the preparation stage, think about support mechanisms that might facilitate understanding: gestures, pictures, drawings, or written instructions. Your choice will depend on the context you are working in, your students' proficiency levels, and their backgrounds. For example, you might consider cupping your hand behind your ear while saying "Listen" or, for lower-level students, providing pictures and words that convey the instructions you want to give; see Gardner and Gardner (2000) and Scrivener (2012) for examples. If you are asking students to put the desks in a U-shape, you might draw a U in the air with your finger or on the board. For learners who are more familiar with written text than oral input (such as false beginners in an English as a foreign language setting), you might write out instructions and display them with an overhead projector, a PowerPoint slide, or a flip chart as you read them. This provides oral and written input at the same time and offers extra support until your students become accustomed to your instructions.

Carefully consider when to hand out papers and other materials

As a general rule, you should not hand out worksheets or other materials before giving instructions. As soon as you give materials to students, they will focus on the materials, and you will often find it difficult to reclaim their attention (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). However, with some activities, students must have the requisite materials in hand to clearly understand your instructions (Scrivener 2012).

THE DELIVERY STAGE

Arrange student groups and furniture before giving instructions

If you give instructions before arranging pairs and groups, students might forget the instructions in the process of moving around (Proctor 2014). Therefore, before giving instructions for an activity, have students form desired groups and arrange the classroom furniture as needed. Make sure students know which group they are in and where they should sit. To save time and to avoid putting your students in an awkward social position, do not have students select their partners or group members. Selection can be done in a random manner, such as having students count off by numbers or giving students the name of a fruit and letting them find their fruit-group mates. The following script gives an example of instructions for this approach:

1. Everyone gets a card with the name of a fruit on it. (*Teacher holds up cards and hands them out*.) Find students with the same fruit name. Apples find apples. Pears find pears.

2. When you find your fruit group, put the desks together in a circle. (*Teacher makes a circle with arms*.)

3. Apples are near the whiteboard. Pears, near the back door. Oranges, next to pears. Strawberries, near the bookshelf.

4. Okay, find your fruit groups and sit together.

Get your students' attention

Make sure you have your students' attention before you start your instructions. If they are not listening to you, the quality of your directions is irrelevant (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). There are many ways to get their attention. You can ring a bell, blow a whistle, clap your hands, play music, or stand still. You

can also let your students know that when you raise your right hand, it is a signal to be quiet. Once they see you raise your right hand, they should respond by raising their right hands, too, until everyone is quiet and focused on the instructor. You can also alter your voice or use a certain clue phrase, such as "Time to start."

Speak simply but clearly

When you give instructions, the point is to make sure your students know what they are expected to do. This can best be accomplished by using simplified language common in instruction-giving, which often includes imperatives and short sentences. According to Doff (1988, 227), "most of the language we need for organizing the class consists of simple expressions which can be used again and again." Avoid difficult colloquial language, challenging grammatical structures (especially structures that have not been introduced to students), and complex jargon. Do not use exceptionally polite and complicated language, such as "It would be great if you could possibly open your books now, if you don't mind." Avoid *foreigner talk*, the register we use when speaking to those perceived as nonnative speakers, such as "All learners—talking to partner—make conversation" (Thaine 2010, 11). This unnatural language is not only confusing to students; it also models incorrect structures that they might adopt into their own speech (Brown and Larson-Hall 2012). Aim your instructions to be a level or two below your students' current level (Scrivener 2012) and pause after giving an instruction, allowing learners time to absorb the message (Gardner and Gardner 2000; Proctor 2014; Scrivener 2012).

Model your instructions

Meaning is made clearer through demonstration. After you give instructions, whenever possible, model what you want your students to do (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). You can do this on your own, with a student, with a pair of students, with a group of students, or with the whole class. Your choice will, of course, depend on the activity and your students. If the activity simply involves question/answer sets, you could pretend that you are two people, A and B, and then model one or two question/answer sets in front of the class. You could also, as Scrivener (2012) suggests, perform the activity as a think-aloud monologue whereby you demonstrate the procedure. For example, "First, I will write five sentences that describe the picture. Then, I will exchange papers with my partner. Next, I will read my partner's paper." You can also model the activity with a student—for example, if you are practicing a dialogue, you are A and the student is B—or you can ask a pair of students to take on the roles of A and B. For activities that involve group work, you can ask for a group of volunteers to come to the front of the room and demonstrate part of the activity for the whole class. If, for instance, you are going to play charades in groups, have a group come to the front and have one student mime an action while the others guess what it is. If you have a whole-class activity, you can give an example using the entire class. For example, if you are doing a "Find Someone Who … " activity, where students try to find other students based on given information (e.g., finding someone who likes horror movies), you can tell your class that you are playing the role of a student, and then go around asking the question, "Do you like horror movies?" to individual students until you find a student who says "Yes." When you find that person, ask the student's name and then write it down on your paper, following the exact procedure you expect your students to use.

It is sometimes beneficial to model an activity in two steps, using yourself first and the students second. For a question/answer pair-work activity, first demonstrate alone and then have two students demonstrate. For the charade group activity, first tell the class that you are going to mime an action that they should guess. Then call the volunteer group to the front and have one student mime while the others guess.

In most cases, modeling one or two examples will be sufficient to help students understand what they are supposed to do. However, when an activity or procedure is new to students, or when you are working with students who have not had much experience with interactive classroom activities, you might need to give additional examples and more instruction on working in pairs or groups.

Use extra-linguistic devices to aid meaning

Extra-linguistic devices—gestures, facial expressions, voice, and visuals—facilitate the understanding of your instructions. These could be the extra-linguistic devices you thought about during the preparation stage, or they could be devices you decide to use as you give your instructions. Scrivener (2012) suggests developing a set of gestures and facial expressions in your repertoire that you use regularly. When you speak, stress key words and use pauses to give emphasis. You might say, for example, "Write down *three* questions." You can also write key points on the board and make use of pictures (Scrivener 2012).

Break down instructions when there are several steps

For activities that have several steps, give instructions after each step rather than giving all instructions at once. Consider this set of instructions:

> Take out a piece of paper and write down five things you did last weekend. Then, for each one, find other students who have done the same thing and write down those students' names next to each sentence. And then, once you have found all the students who have done the same things you did last weekend, you can sit down.

The task itself is not particularly complicated, but when the instructions are given all at once, they seem long-winded and have the potential to confuse students. In this case, it would be better to give one part of the instructions at a time. After students complete each step of the activity, announce the next step. Breaking the instructions down step by step enhances comprehension and allows more opportunities to demonstrate what is expected.

Give students a time limit

Before you start an activity, let students know how much time they will have. This helps students stay focused on the task and manage their time.

Check for understanding

After you give instructions but before you start an activity, make sure your students understand what they are supposed to do. There are many ways to do this, not least through observation. If learners look confused and turn to other students to find out what they are supposed to do, they have not understood your instructions (Gardner and Gardner 2000). "Do you understand?" is a common way of checking for understanding, but it is not particularly effective because many students, whether they understand or not, will answer "yes" out of fear of embarrassing themselves in front of their classmates (Scrivener 2012; Ur 1996). A more effective way to check for understanding is to ask *concept-check questions*—simple questions that students can respond to with a short answer. "What are you going to do now?" is not a concept-check question because it asks for a long and possibly complicated answer. Here are three examples of concept-check questions:

- "How many students are you going to interview?"
- "Who is going to speak first?"
- "How many questions are you going to write?"

If your class is at a high-enough level, you can ask a student or students to repeat instructions back to you before starting an activity (Scrivener 2012) or to demonstrate part of the activity so that you know they have understood (Ur 1996). No matter how eager students might be to get started on an activity, do not let them begin until you have finished giving and checking instructions. To let students know you have finished giving instructions and that the activity can begin, give students a clear starting signal such as "Okay, let's begin" (Scrivener 2012).

Avoid giving vague instructions

While your instructions should be concise, they should not be vague. Instructions that are ill-defined can be just as confusing as instructions that are too wordy, detailed, or complex. Telling students "Write a story" or "Get into groups and have a discussion" will likely result in confused looks and a slew of questions. Give students specific tasks (Woodberry and Aldrich 2000) and specific

instructions (Scrivener 2012). Instructions such as "Find three hobbies you have in common with your partner," "Interview your partner using the questions in Exercise A on page 22," and "Listen and draw what I say" let students know exactly what they need to do. Of course, this goes back to the planning stage—when you are writing your lesson plan, be clear about what you will ask your students to do and what instructions you will give.

THE POST-DELIVERY STAGE

Monitor student activity

The post-delivery stage allows the teacher to make sure that all students understood the instructions. As students begin an activity, circulate around the room to see if they are carrying it out correctly and give help as needed (Scrivener 2011). Even when you have given good, clear instructions, you might find that students do not know what to do or are confused about some aspect of the instructions. If you find that all or most students are off track, stop the activity and give instructions to the whole class again (Scrivener 2012). If only a few students need help, you can assist them individually or in their groups. Throughout an activity, periodically monitor students and make yourself readily available for assistance. While you do not want to be an imposing or threatening presence, students should know that you are present and involved in what they are doing (Woodberry and Aldrich 2000).

Do not become hostile or defensive if your students have not understood

Placing blame on students who have not understood will only result in making you look incompetent or make students feel inadequate. If you realize that your students have not understood, back up and do some repair. How you accomplish that will depend on numerous factors, such as the activity, you, the learners, the time of day, and so on. Simply repeating the instructions you gave previously might work, or recasting the instructions in different words might be the solution. You might need to give students more examples or model the activity again. You might need to break the activity down into more steps and have students do the activity step by step, or you might need to use a combination of tactics. With patience and a thoughtful approach, you can usually find a way to get students on track.

A SAMPLE SET OF INSTRUCTIONS

The following set of instructions uses the principles discussed to conduct a lesson that occurs in three steps. Prior to this lesson, the students have been practicing using the simple past tense and recently practiced asking and answering yes/no questions in the simple past.

Step 1

Teacher: First, you are going to write down five sentences about what you did last weekend.

Here is an example. (*Teacher shows students the following example on the board.*)

1. I saw a movie.
2. I went to the supermarket.
3. I made a cake.
4. I cleaned my house.
5. I read a book.

Teacher: (*pointing to the example on the board*) This is *my* example about what *I* did last weekend. Now, *you* write five sentences about what *you* did last weekend.

(*Students write down five sentences about what they did last weekend while the teacher circulates and gives help as needed.*)

Step 2

Teacher: Now, for each sentence you wrote, you are going to try to find a classmate who did the same thing. (*The teacher returns to the example on the board.*) My first sentence is, "I saw a movie." I want to find a student who also saw a movie. How can I do that?

Students: Ask a question.

Teacher: Right. What is the question?

Students: "Did you see a movie last weekend?"

(*The teacher writes the question next to the example on the board*.)

Teacher: Right. And what answer am I looking for?

Students: "Yes."

Teacher: That's right. Now, I will try to find a student who also saw a movie last weekend.

(*The teacher demonstrates by asking students one at a time if they saw a movie last weekend. When she finds a student who answers "yes," she asks for that student's name and writes it down next to her first sentence*.)

Step 3

Teacher: Now, I also need to find someone for numbers two, three, four, and five. (*pause*) For each sentence you wrote, you are going to try to find someone who answers "yes." You have ten minutes.

(*The teacher conducts concept checks*.)

Teacher: Do you want to find a "yes" or "no" answer for each question?

Students: A "yes" answer.

Teacher: What do you do when you find a "yes" answer?

Students: Write the name.

Teacher: How much time do you have?

Students: Ten minutes.

Teacher: Okay, let's begin.

(*The activity begins. The teacher monitors students to see that they are performing the activity correctly and is available to assist students as needed*.)

EXAMINING YOUR OWN PRACTICES

Methods for enhancing instruction-giving skills

A part of reflective teaching is developing an awareness of your classroom behavior. Ur (1996) suggests that immediately after a lesson, in-service teachers make notes of the in-class instructions they gave and, when possible, have a colleague observe them and give feedback. Scrivener (2011) suggests that teachers listen to themselves, record themselves, and get feedback from others. To become aware of our instruction-giving practices, ideally, we need to incorporate self-oriented methods, such as self-reflection and self-observation, and outside-oriented methods, such as peer observation. The self-evaluation and peer-evaluation checklists in Tables 3 and 4 can be used for reflecting on your own instruction-giving practices or having a peer observe you.

WORKSHOP ACTIVITY: PRACTICE GIVING GOOD INSTRUCTIONS

The following workshop activity—an idea from Kate Kurnick, a former director of WorldTeach Ecuador—is a good opportunity for in-service and preservice teachers to reflect on how they give instructions, to practice writing and delivering instructions, and to see how effective their instruction-giving is and how they might improve.

Materials needed: You will need a description of one activity for each group. The activities you use for this workshop can be your own creations or come from an activity book or an Internet resource. Choose activities that do not require any materials beyond what you would expect your workshop participants to have with them (such as pen and paper) unless you will be able to supply needed materials. Activities you use for this workshop should not be familiar to the audience you will be working with. For instance, do not use an activity based on Bingo if you know that the attendees in your workshop are already familiar with Bingo.

Self-Evaluation: Reflection	Yes	No
1. I prepare how I will deliver instructions when lesson planning.		
2. I arrange student groups and furniture before giving instructions.		
3. I make sure I have my students' attention before I start to give instructions.		
4. I hand out materials at appropriate times.		
5. I speak clearly and pause appropriately when giving instructions.		
6. I use language at or below my students' current level of understanding.		
7. I use extra-linguistic devices to aid meaning.		
8. I check for understanding before letting students start an activity.		
9. I monitor students after they start their activity.		
10. I am available if students need further help with instructions after an activity has started.		
NOTES:		

Table 3. Self-evaluation checklist

Peer-Evaluation: Observation	Yes	No
1. It is evident that the instructor prepared instructions before delivering them.		
2. Student groups and furniture are arranged before the instructor gives instructions.		
3. The instructor gets students' attention before giving instructions.		
4. The instructor hands out materials at appropriate times.		
5. The instructor speaks clearly and pauses appropriately when giving instructions.		
6. The instructor uses language at or below students' current level of understanding.		
7. The instructor uses extra-linguistic devices to aid meaning.		
8. The instructor checks for understanding before letting students start an activity.		
9. The instructor monitors students after they start an activity.		
10. The instructor is available if students need further help with instructions after the activity has started.		
NOTES:		

Table 4. Peer-evaluation checklist

Procedure

1. Put teachers in small groups (usually three to five per group).

2. Give each group a different activity description.

3. Have each group write a set of instructions for the activity the group has been given. Encourage groups to reflect on their instructions and revise as necessary.

4. Put two groups together (Group A with Group B, Group C with Group D, etc.).

5. In each group-pair, one group gives the instructions for its activity while the other group follows the instructions and carries out the activity (Group A gives the instructions, and Group B does the activity; then Group B gives the instructions, and Group A does the activity). Activities do not need to be completed. Once it is clear that the instructions have been properly understood, the activity can be stopped.

6. After the activity, have participants reflect on their experiences and share them with the whole group. Were the instructions they prepared and delivered easily understood? Were there misunderstandings or misinterpretations? If so, what repairs were needed and how were they made?

CONCLUSION

While good instruction-giving is an essential part of an effective lesson and an important part of classroom management, it is a skill that is often overlooked in teacher-training programs and in classrooms. An otherwise strong lesson sometimes fails because instructions were not properly delivered. It is not enough to assume that giving good instructions is a naturally acquired skill. Both preservice and in-service teachers need to be attentive to good instruction-giving practices and become aware of their own methods of delivery and how they can be improved.

REFERENCES

Asher, J. J. 2009. *Learning another language through actions*. 7th ed. Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.

Atkinson, D. 1987. The mother tongue in the classroom: A neglected resource? *ELT Journal* 41 (4): 241–247.

Auerbach, E. R. 1993. Reexamining English Only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* 27 (1): 9–32.

Brown, S., and J. Larson-Hall. 2012. *Second language acquisition myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Cook, V. 2016. *Second language learning and language teaching*. 5th ed. New York: Routledge.

Doff, A. 1988. *Teach English: A training course for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gardner, B., and F. Gardner. 2000. *Classroom English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hughes, G. S. 1981. *A handbook of classroom English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Macaro, E. 1997. *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Proctor, S. 2014. The classroom. *ProELT Aptis Training Course*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: Ministry of Education.

Salaberri, S. 1995. *Classroom language*. Oxford: Heinemann ELT.

Scrivener, J. 2011. *Learning teaching: The essential guide to English language teaching*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Macmillan Education.

———. 2012. *Classroom management techniques*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thaine, C. 2010. *Teacher training essentials: Workshops for professional development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ur, P. 1996. *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Woodberry, R. D., and H. E. Aldrich. 2000. Planning and running effective classroom-based exercises. *Teaching Sociology* 28 (3): 241–248.

Wragg, E. C., and E. K. Wood. 1984. Pupil appraisals of teaching. In *Classroom teaching skills: The research findings of the teacher education project*, ed. E. C. Wragg, 79–96. London: Croom Helm.

Jimalee Sowell holds a master's degree in TESOL from SIT Graduate Institute in Vermont. She completed two consecutive English Language Fellowships in Dhaka, Bangladesh, and is currently an English Language Fellow in the Ivory Coast.