

caution and judgment. Our future language-teachers should do their utmost to keep abreast of the findings of linguistic investigation and try to relate them to their practical language-teaching. Developments in methodology and teaching techniques should have their constant attention. They should attempt to get down to the principles on which methods and techniques are based and cautiously adopt those modes of teaching which best fit their own personalities.

Knowledge alone will not do the job; adopting a handful of skills will not either. But a well-balanced and properly administered dose of these two ingredients, knowledge and skill, is certain to do so.

Motivation, Repetition, and Language-Teaching Techniques

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Repetition is significant when it is noticed, when the learners want to pay attention to it. Repetition without attention is useless. Attention requires effort. The word *pay* in front of *attention* shows that attention is something that has value. It is not usually given without expecting something in return. That is to say, there must be some motivation to pay attention. Motivation is therefore one of the most important elements in learning. Without motivation, learning is not likely to take place. Although a course may be made up of well-selected items, and these items repeated many times, if the learners are not motivated to learn there will be little learning. Very few language-courses, however, concern themselves with motivation. They assume that anyone who follows the course already has strong motivation to learn the language. Most teachers know that this is unfortunately not always true.

There are different types of motivation. Motivation can come from the learner himself or it can come from outside the learner. This first type of motivation is called primary. The learner feels that he wants to learn, that he is interested, that the subject he is studying is exciting. Primary motivation is the strongest type of motivation. Secondary motivation comes from outside the

learner. The learner feels that he *must* learn in order to pass a test, to avoid punishment, or to please his parents or teachers. The learner is not really interested in the learning itself, but in the result of the learning. Although secondary motivation does not always produce successful learning, teachers use it a great deal. Marks, tests, and punishment are all examples of secondary motivation.

One of the strongest primary motivations is the desire to understand the meaning of something. When something is perceived the brain tries to attach some meaning to it. Usually the process occurs very quickly. Once some meaning has been given to the perception there is no further motivation to look for the meaning. Teachers can make use of this primary motivation by keeping the meaning away from the learners for as long as possible. Puzzles are an excellent way of doing this. The main idea behind the puzzle is to make the learners search to find the meaning (the answer). It is not difficult to make simple puzzles. While solving a puzzle the learner must look at the information many times. A puzzle can be used to gain many significant repetitions. The same approach can be used when teaching vocabulary. Most teachers try to explain the meaning of a new word as quickly and as completely as possible when the learners first meet the word. This is a bad policy, because it takes away any motivation to pay further attention to the word. If a teacher can keep the meaning of a word away from the learners for as long as possible, then there will be many opportunities for significant repetition, and therefore successful learning.

Motivation leads to attention, and attention leads to fatigue. When learners are fatigued there is no sense in continuing with the same piece of work. The teacher can do several things if he notices fatigue. He can give the learners a rest. He can move on to a new piece of work. He can change the type of activity. When the learners are fatigued, there is no attention and so there is no learning. A good teacher gives his learners a rest, and changes the activity or piece of work several times during a lesson to reduce the effects of fatigue. In keeping the meaning away from the learners the teacher must use his judgement. If the meaning is kept away too long, boredom and frustration are the result. If the meaning is given too soon, the opportunity for repetition with attention is lost.

It is not very difficult to introduce primary motivation into language lessons. Very often all that is needed is a small change in the procedures. Here are some suggestions and examples. They are all ways of gaining significant repetition. The repetition is significant because it is repetition with attention.

(a) If translation of new words is used, do not give the translation for the new word, but describe it in English. The learners have to listen to the description and then when they think they can guess the translation they put their hands up. Do not ask for the translation until several learners have raised their hands. For example: the learners do not know the word *a diamond*. The teacher says:

A diamond is very hard.

A diamond is very expensive.

Some women wear a diamond on their finger.

A diamond looks like glass. etc.

He repeats each sentence many times while the learners try to translate the word.

This technique can be varied by asking the learners to indicate pictures instead of giving a translation. To revise vocabulary, use a nonsense word in the sentences. The learners have to give the English 'translation' of the nonsense word. It is good if the learners have to listen to many sentences several times before they are able to guess the word. For this reason, the first sentences the teacher presents should not give very much help in guessing the word.

(b) When using visual aids put a group of pictures (or objects) together so that the whole class can see them. The pupils do not know the English names for the pictures yet. Ask a learner to come to the front. Say the name of one of the pictures and get him to try to guess by pointing to the one you are talking about. After each guess the teacher repeats the new word many times. When the learner has finally guessed correctly, another learner comes and tries to guess another word. The teacher hopes that the learners will have to make many guesses before guessing correctly, as this will allow the teacher to repeat the new word many times.¹ Instead of pictures, definitions or translations of the words may be written on the blackboard.

(c) When teaching a new word that can be taught by using a picture, the teacher does not draw the picture, but draws some dots that give a rough guide to the picture. The teacher says the new word while learners come and try to connect the dots correctly to draw the picture and thus get the meaning. It is good if the dots do not help the learners too much so that it takes a long time to guess the picture. In all of the above examples the teacher says the new word as often as possible while the learners try, by pointing, translating, or drawing, to guess the meaning. Thus

¹This technique is more fully described in *Common Errors in Language Learning* by H. V. George (Newbury House).

there is a great amount of receptive practice before the learners are required to produce the new items.

(d) When revising a word say a sentence that could contain the word but do not say the word. Get the learners to try and guess from the context what the word is. This should be difficult. If it is too difficult help them by saying the first sounds of the word or by drawing a short line for each letter in the word on the blackboard. Write in the last letter to give extra clues. If you write the first letters this becomes too easy.

(e) Try to get the learners to recall a known word, phrase, or sentence by mouthing the word without making any sound. The learners must read the teacher's lips to discover the word. When they guess the word they should either write it or raise their hand. The teacher does not ask for the answer until several hands are raised. To make the guessing easier, the teacher can give some clues before mouthing the word.

(f) When revising words that have been taught using real objects, the objects can be wrapped in paper or cloth and the learners try to guess what they are either by looking or feeling. When their eyes are closed they can listen to the sound the object makes when it is rubbed or tapped on the table, etc. There are many variations on this technique. The teacher may also come to the classroom with one or several objects in his pocket or bag. He can give clues while the learners try to guess the objects and thus recall words previously encountered. This is a good technique for gaining the learners' attention at the beginning of a class.

(g) When revising with the help of visual aid charts, let the learners look at them and then turn them round so that the learners can see only the back of the chart or card with nothing on it. Then they have to use their memory to respond to the aids.

(h) About twelve words are written in different places on the blackboard. The learners look at them for one minute, then the words are rubbed off. The learners have to write them on a piece of paper in *exactly* the same position as they were on the blackboard.

(i) The previous technique is similar to the technique of delayed copying described by L. A. Hill.¹ There is a variation on this technique that works well with a large class. A passage about sixty words long is written on the blackboard. A member of the class reads it aloud. Then a few of the words are erased. Another person reads the passage, filling in the erased words from memory. This continues until the whole passage has been erased, and the learners can recall it completely. With careful selection of the

words to be erased this technique provides a lot of grammar practice.

(j) The same technique can be followed orally. The teacher tells the class 'I will say a piece of English once. You must listen carefully and try to remember it. After I have said it once, you must repeat it exactly as I said it.' Then after the learners have heard the material the teacher asks one learner what was the first word, and then the second word and so on. The teacher always repeats the correct answers and so by the time the whole passage has been reconstructed the learners have actually heard the teacher repeat several times. This is a very amusing technique and is especially suitable for large classes.

(k) Questioning techniques may be used to arouse interest and gain repetition. For example, the teacher asks a question that he knows the learners cannot answer. 'How far is it from here to London?' The teacher says that he is sure someone in the class knows the correct answer. When someone guesses incorrectly the teacher doesn't say 'That's wrong', but says 'That's too far', or 'Less than that'. His responses to the learners' answers gradually enable them to guess the correct answer.

(l) Puzzles provide a great deal of repetition and are self-motivating. Here is an example that gives practice in fairly simple vocabulary and sentence patterns:

Edmond is in front of Dominic.

Charles is between Bernard and Dominic.

Alex is behind Bernard.

Questions:

1. Who is in the middle?
2. Who is behind Charles?
3. Who is in front?
etc.

Crossword puzzles are also self-motivating.

(m) There are many games that also involve motivation and provide repetition. Kim's Game and Twenty Questions are good examples.

Most of the techniques described above contain similar features. First and most important, they attempt to motivate the learner to find the answer or meaning, or to complete the exercise. Second, they provide opportunity for large amounts of repetition with attention. Third, they direct the learners' attention towards the piece of learning and not towards an outside source of motivation.

Motivation is one of the most important features in learning, and yet it is one which is neglected in most course-books and in

¹English Language Teaching, xxii, 3, May, 1969.

most teaching. It is essential to all learning because fortunately we have the ability to ignore things that we want to ignore, and to pay attention to things we want to pay attention to. Lessons that are boring will not receive much attention and will produce little significant repetition. Lessons that include an opportunity for primary motivation to work have a greater chance of producing the large amounts of significant repetition that are required for learning.

Micro-teaching: A Tool of In-service Training¹

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I first became seriously interested in micro-teaching during the academic year 1971/72, when I was involved, in Cyprus, in the organisation of an in-service training programme for Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot teachers of English. What follows is a simple description of a series of experiments using what I shall call micro-teaching techniques in this rather specific training situation; it is a record of my observations of a method in action and not the record of a carefully structured programme of research.

Before discussing the 'philosophy' and planning of this in-service programme and describing the central and I believe key role of micro-teaching techniques, it will, I believe, be appropriate to say a little about micro-teaching as originally conceived, in order that the adaptation to the Cyprus programme may be better understood.

The term was coined by Professors Allen, Ryan, and Bush of Stanford University, who in the early sixties developed techniques to improve the performance of trainee (intern) teachers.

In essence, micro-teaching is the scaling down of practice-teaching situations in terms of time, class size, and goals or tasks. Whereas in more conventional or traditional teacher training (and I do not use these terms in a pejorative sense) a student might be required to give a lesson of some 30-40 minutes as part of his practice teaching, in micro-teaching he would teach for

¹This is a shortened version of a paper presented at the Sixth Annual Conference of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language.